# TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR OF CHINESE TOURISTS LIVING IN THE CITY OF BEIJING, CHINA

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**Hons BA**

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# DECLARATION

I declare that **Travel behaviour of Chinese tourists in the city of Beijing, China** is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university, and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as references.

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SUMMARY

**Descriptors: travel behaviour; tourism; tourist/s and outbound tourist/s; Beijing, China; destination marketing.**

**The Chinese outbound tourism market has experienced rapid growth over the past few years. This noticeable development provides the background and rationale for the study that identifies the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists, and the expectation and perception regarding South Africa. Based on the findings, some recommendations for marketing strategies and implementation are given, in addition to suggestions for future research directions in this field.**

**The theoretical discussion focuses on concepts of travel behaviour. Travel behaviour, including travel motivation, decision-making process, and destination choice are then presented in more detail. The development of the Chinese economy and Chinese outbound tourism are also presented and discussed.**

**The empirical research focuses on the travel behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists. The goal here is to determine and analyse the travel behaviour of tourists, outbound from Beijing, and their views on South Africa as a tourism destination. To accomplish this, the empirical research is designed from the quantitative perspective, and the data was collected by fieldworkers at the Beijing International Airport, using intercept surveys. This helps the researcher to understand the needs, motivation, and behaviour of the Chinese outbound tourists and assists the researcher in analysing the marketing strategy of South Africa as a tourist destination.**

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# CHAPTER 1

# PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The World Travel and Tourism Council claimed (1992) that tourism is the world's largest industry. The past few years have shown a steady increase in the volume of international travellers, and, along with this growth in travel, the number of tourism destination choices has also increased as many policy-makers have recognised the value of tourism to the economies of their regions (Chacko, 1997). Tourism, holiday-making and recreation are more significant social phenomena than most commentators have considered (Urry, 2002).

As the core role players of the tourism industry, the needs, feelings, beliefs and opinions of tourists should be carefully analysed by tourism marketers in order to form a marketing strategy for the specific tourist groups (Saayman, 2001a). Tourists' behaviour is, therefore, important for marketing purposes. This behaviour can be described as activities that people engage in when selecting, purchasing, or using products and services to satisfy needs and desires. Such activities involve mental, emotional and physical activities (Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002). Because different people have different needs, their purchase decision will be influenced by individual preferences, personal characteristics, and social circumstances and so forth (Saayman, 2001a). If a marketer can identify the characteristics and behaviour of a specific market, the probability of targeted marketing and sector management would be increased.

The Chinese overseas travel market has increased rapidly since the beginning of the 1990s (Chen, 1998). Its potential effect on the global tourism industry is great. Some reasons for this growth include:

- Economic development;
- Policy liberalisation; and
- The growth of people's interest, and travel demand (Chen, 1998).

In 2003, economic growth in China maintained good momentum. As macro-economic adjustment measures gradually took effect, the pressure of inflation was eased. The country's gross domestic product (GDP) has risen by 9.4 percent in 2003, and the inflation rate is below 3 percent (Lei, 2003). The booming economy has made it possible for many of the Chinese people to finance their overseas travel. As discretionary income increases, more Chinese are seeking opportunities to improve their lifestyle, and to travel overseas (Chen, 1998).

A large increase took place in 1992, due to the Chinese government's open policy which allowed Chinese people to use their own funds to travel abroad. In 1995, China was ranked by the World Tourism Organisation as the sixth biggest spending market in the Asian region (WTO, 1995). At the beginning of 1997, a new policy was issued stating that people would be issued a private passport in a mere ten days if a reason existed for urgency (Ministry of China's Public Security, 1997). Given this facilitating environment, the outbound market from China has experienced a dramatic growth as Chinese residents were officially allowed to travel overseas (CNTA, 2004a). According to the World Tourism Organisation, outbound tourism in China grew by 37 percent in 2002. In 2003, China surpassed Japan with the number of outbound travellers, and thus became the leading Asian generating market with a total of 20.2 million trips abroad (WTO, 2003). In 2004, China generated 30 million outbound tourists; and it is forecast that by the year 2020, China will become the fourth largest tourist source country globally (WTO, 2003). At the beginning of 2006, China has already designated 81 countries and regions with the approved destination status

(ADS) (CNTA, 2006). The ADS-system is based on a bilateral tourism agreement whereby a government allows Chinese tourists to travel to its territory. The restriction regarding the promotion of tourism to non-ADS countries has an effect only on group tourism. An individual Chinese passport holder, provide that he or she had the financial resources and visa, has no restriction on travelling abroad, as long as the country of destination issues individual visas for tourists (WTO, 2003).

The increasing number of Chinese tourists has had different kinds of impacts on the economic, environmental and socio-cultural aspects in different countries. Information regarding Chinese tourist behaviour is still needed by the South African tourism industry. This study will attempt to identify the travel behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists and to define their perception of South Africa as a tourist destination.

The purpose of this chapter is to give a simplified version of the study. This study will attempt to identify the travel behaviour of people living in the city of Beijing, China, in order to give South African marketer a general understanding about Chinese tourists.

## 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Hudson (1999), travel behaviour can be defined as a study of why tourists buy specific products, and how they make decisions. Solomon (1996) adds to the definition of travel behaviour as being the process when individuals or groups select, purchase, and experience a tourism product, service or experience that satisfies needs and wants. An understanding of tourist behaviour will always be beneficial in the planning and strategic development of tourism (Raj, 2004).

Pearce (2005) believed that tourist behaviour is powerfully connected to, and often contingent upon, marketing activities: it strongly shapes the wellbeing of many businesses, and it can generate considerable socio-cultural and environmental impacts. Nowadays the evolving market-place of the tourism industry has realised that

understanding tourist behaviour is imperative in today's highly competitive business environment (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999).

The increasing development of Chinese outbound tourism has aroused the attention of the tourism organisations of different countries, marketers and researchers. In support of this statement, the following studies have already been conducted:

Wong and Lau (2001) investigated the behaviour of Hong Kong Chinese tourists when they (Wong and Lau) examined outbound group tour packages and the underlying dimensions of Chinese tourists' cultural values. Wong and Lau made recommendations for tour operators, including safe activities, social interaction, exposure to local cuisine, and photo taking, that were presented to improve group tour packages.

In 2002, Zhang and Heung analysed trends of Mainland Chinese outbound travellers to Hong Kong.

Cai, Leary and Boger (2000) examined the demographic and socio-economic characteristics and trip-related attributes of outbound Chinese travellers to the United States in order to provide a profile of the US-bound Chinese market and identify a number of characteristics and attributes that significantly differentiated it from the other markets.

Yu and Weiler (2001) investigated the leisure travel behaviour of Chinese pleasure travellers to Australia and provided relevant information on the development of tourist products and tour planning.

Wen Pan and Laws (2002) analysed the growing demand for outbound tourism from China and described the special characteristics of the market and discussed opportunities for Australian inbound tour operators to improve the service they provide to Chinese visiting groups organised by Chinese travel agencies, and noted some problems requiring attention.

Kau and Lim (2005) clustered Chinese tourists to Singapore into four segments based on their motivations for travel.

Kim, Guo and Agrusa (2005) explore the competitiveness of overseas destination countries where potential Mainland Chinese outbound tourists considered and the positioning of these destination countries.

All the above indicates that the Chinese outbound travel market has great market value to the global community and that Chinese tourists can play an important role in some developing regions as an increasing source of tourism revenue. After the summit meeting between Chinese and African countries in 2006, the Chinese government has encouraged more tours to African countries. The obvious case is that of the China Outbound Travel & Tourism Market (COTTM) of 2007 in Beijing, where the majority of exhibitors were from the African continent, even those relatively unacquainted with China and the Chinese tourists, such as Ghana, Ethiopia and Mali.

Global marketers have realised the importance of this market. Nevertheless, to understand the Chinese tourist market completely is still problematic because of the cultural differences and geographical separation. Hence, this research needs to be conducted to understand the travel patterns of Chinese outbound tourists, especially with regard to South Africa. It is also important to understand what the Chinese market knows about South Africa, and to find if they would consider South Africa as a tourism destination.

Of the African continent, South Africa attracts the most overseas tourists. This makes tourism one of the largest industries in South Africa. Tourism has been accepted by the South African government, business and labour as one of the key drivers for the improvement of the economy. South Africa's primary overseas markets remain the UK, Germany, USA, France, and the Netherlands (Saayman, 2003). Saayman (2003) indicated that, setting aside the fact that the populations of the highly industrialised

countries may be considerably influenced by an influx of refugees, the assumption can be made that the population of the industrialised countries is stagnating. Meanwhile, the increasingly obvious growth of a massive Chinese tourist market has attracted the interest of South African tourism organisations. This has important implications for the South African tourism industry, specifically for marketing. In order to expand the tourist market, marketers are beginning to focus on new markets in some eastern countries, especially China. The 2004 international arrivals data showed that Chinese tourists increased by 4.4 percentage from 2003 to 2004 (South African Tourism, 2005). It is more than six years since China and South Africa established diplomatic relations in January 1998. In a further notable development, China and South Africa signed a Memorandum of Understanding on an Implementation Plan for outbound travel by Chinese citizens to South Africa in November, 2002 (South African Tourism, 2003). In 2003, China established an Approved Destination Status (ADS) agreement with South Africa, and thus opened a new tourist market for South Africa (South Africa Tourism, 2005).

The ADS agreement enables South Africa to receive larger numbers of Chinese tourists' groups and also to promote South Africa in China, which was not possible before the agreement. In order to be able to effectively increase the number of Chinese tourists to South Africa, it is important to gain information of the Chinese market. This practical need inspired the researcher to determine and analyse the perceptions of Chinese tourists (Laitinen, 2004).

Chinese tourists are quite a new phenomenon to the African continent and a comprehensive understanding of this vast and unique market is important not only for marketing purposes but also for product development (Laitinen, 2004). The huge population and the increase in consumer spending power of Chinese travellers make China a very attractive tourist market and a potential target for the international tourism industry (WTO, 2003). Nevertheless, it is a fact that, so far, because of both the geographical distance and the political isolation of China, foreign travel agencies

and tourist operators have neither been familiar with the Chinese market, nor with the special needs of the Chinese outbound tourist market and its consumers (Zhang & Heung, 2002).

Global competition is increasingly putting pressure on South African marketers to better understand the Chinese market. Another reason for this pressure is the opening of current markets to South Africa, and the need for new markets to be found (Saayman, 2005). South Africa Tourism provided detailed information on the results of the research conducted in whole China to help the marketers selling South Africa to Chinese. The report was initiated in order to understand the whole of the Chinese market and South African Tourism has developed activation plans for each market (South Africa Tourism, 2005). As the capital of China, Beijing is undoubted the core market for South Africa. Further research needs to be done focusing on this market. Therefore, this dissertation will attempt to determine the travel behaviour of a specific set of Beijing outbound tourists.

## 1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this dissertation is to determine the travel behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists living in the city of Beijing, China.

The objectives of this study include the following:

- To undertake a review of literature on travel behaviour;
- To analyse previous research regarding Chinese travel patterns and needs;
- To conduct a survey among Chinese outbound tourists;
- To make recommendations and draw conclusions in understanding the travel behaviour of Chinese outbound market.

## 1.4 METHODOLOGY

This study follows a two-pronged approach, namely, a literature study and a survey. The methodology will, however, be discussed in more depth in Chapter 5.

### 1.4.1 Literature study

The literature study included journals, articles, theses, dissertations, magazines, the Internet, as well as other specific sources on travel behaviour, market segmentation, market positioning, and motivation. Information searches were conducted mainly on library catalogues and indexes.

### 1.4.2 Survey

A survey was conducted in the city of Beijing. Beijing, as the capital of China, is the political, economic and cultural centre of China. An enquiry into the potential tourist market will thus be more representational than other cities. The major reasons for choosing Beijing include the following:

- Beijing has the largest population in China; it will provide a sufficient human resource for the research;
- Beijing has the highest disposable income average per capita, has the best-developed transport network and environmental infrastructure, which gives rise to a greater demand for overseas travel;
- The number of outbound tourists is the highest in the country.

Beijing Capital International Airport (BCIA) is located northeast of Beijing, capital of People's Republic of China. It is not only the aviation gateway to Beijing and a window for international communication, but also a radial centre for the Chinese civil aviation network It features a large-scale international airport, with the most important location, biggest scale, fullest facilities and busiest transportation in China. In 2003, the Capital Airport handled about 236 000 planes in safety, and over 23

million passengers. Due to the impact of the spread of SARS worldwide, these major statistics have declined, but from August to December of 2003, the planes, passengers and freight and mails BCIA handled rose 12.4, 7.4 and 17.4 percent respectively (BICA, 2004).

The survey (N=762) using a self-administrated, structured questionnaire was conducted to collect the primary data about the travel motivation, travel habits, and image of South Africa in October 2006. The target market for the survey was Chinese outbound tourists travelling from Beijing. The target population was Beijing tourists who have travelled overseas, from all age groups, genders, occupations and income levels. The data was processed using the SPSS programme and 2-way frequency analysis.

## 1.5 TERMINOLOGY

The following concepts are used regularly throughout the dissertation.

### 1.5.1 Travel behaviour (cf. 1.2)

According to Hudson (1999), travel behaviour could be defined as a study of why tourists buy specific products, and how they make decisions. Solomon (1996) defined travel behaviour as the process when individuals or groups select, purchase, experience, the tourism product, service or experience in order to satisfy needs and wants.

Why do people travel? Why do people choose one destination over the other? How do people take a decision? Travel behaviour is such a complex topic within tourism research. The study of travel behaviour as it has evolved over the last half-century has yielded critical insights into the choices that individuals and households make about their daily travel. Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) believed that to study travel behaviour is to study human behaviour, specifically, how decisions are made. These insights have contributed to the development of increasingly sophisticated models to

forecast travel behaviour and to predict changes in behaviour in response to changes in the transportation system (Cifton & Handy, 2001).

### 1.5.2 Tourism

Tourism is seen as an industry, similar to other industries like mining and agriculture; it is a collection of all travel-related services (Saayman, 2001a). The World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1995) defined tourism as the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes. Saayman (2001a) described tourism as "the total experience that originates from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in the process of attracting, entertaining, transporting and accommodating tourists".

### 1.5.3 Tourist/s and outbound tourist/s

Tourists are potential markets who purchase a number of diverse travel and tourism services (Slabbert, 2002). One early definition described a tourist as a temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing a change (Smith, 1989). Such a definition was not so exact as to adequately define a tourist. Therefore in 1995, WTO defined a tourist as a visitor staying at least one night in a collective or private accommodation establishment in the place visited.

Outbound tourism means tourists making trips from their home country to a foreign country (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Thus an outbound tourist means a tourist departing to a destination beyond the borders of the country of residence. A Chinese outbound tourist is therefore and for the purpose of this study defined here as a resident of mainland China who travels temporarily outside mainland China for various purpose (Zhou, King & Turner, 1998).

### 1.5.4 Beijing, China

The People's Republic of China (PRC) is situated in the eastern part of Asia. China has an area of 9.9 million square kilometres and the population of 1.3 billion, which is not only the largest country in Asia but has the most inhabitants of any single country in the world. China has 15 neighbouring countries that include the Russian Federation, Mongolia, Japan, Philippines, Korea, North Korea, Thailand, and India.

Beijing is a municipality directly under the Central Government and is the capital of the PRC having an area of 16,800 square kilometres with a population of 18 million. It is not only the nation's political centre, but also its cultural, scientific and educational centre, and a key transportation hub. According to data from the Beijing Holiday Office, the number of Beijing residents for outbound travel is increasing by 40% per year.

### 1.5.5 Destination marketing

Destinations are characterised by their complexity, though most destinations share common features. They can be described as amalgams comprising the core components of attractions. These attractions, that can be artificial features, natural features, or events, provide the initial motivation to visit the place. Destinations create the frame for the tourism activity (Huybers & Bennett, 2002).

Destination marketing is increasingly becoming extremely competitive world-wide. Tourism destination marketing has traditionally been heavily oriented towards the promotion function, a trend that will no doubt continue well into the future. One major implication of this emphasis is the need for destination marketers to take a more strategy perspective in planning, development and marketing (Ritchie & Ritchie, 2002). Every tourist destination must develop its own characteristics to satisfy the specific segment or segments of the market (Saayman, 2001b). During their holiday, tourists "consume" destinations as a comprehensive experience, often without

realising that each element of the product is produced and managed by individual players. The objectives of destination marketing activities are often more complicated than those of private organisations because such marketing is usually carried out by the public-sector (Slabbert, 2002). Destination marketing facilitates the achievement of the tourism policy, which would be co-ordinated with the regional development strategy plan (Buhalis, 2000).

## 1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION

The study comprises of five Chapters. Chapter One includes the statement of the problem and objectives of the study. Chapter Two discusses the literature review of travel and leisure behaviour. In Chapter Three Chinese travel behaviour will be analysed in order to understand this market in terms of social, culture and economic factors. The research methodology, questionnaire, and the analysis and interpretation of the data are addressed in Chapter Four. Chapter Five contains conclusions and recommendations.

# CHAPTER 2

# AN ANALYSIS OF TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is undoubtedly a global phenomenon. International travel now accounts for over one-twelfth of world trade. It constitutes by far the largest movement of people across borders that has occurred in human history (Urry, 2002). Tourism is a complex industry comprising many parts and interconnections, involving not only visitors and their movements but also the destination and host community. It is not surprising that tourism is increasingly being seen as an important area of study in its own right with ongoing debate as to whether it can be considered as a scientific discipline with its own theoretical development and methodologies (Dann, Nash, & Pearce, 1998). Tourists, the core role players of the tourism industry, require that their needs, feelings, beliefs and opinions should be carefully analysed by the tourism marketer in order to form a marketing strategy for specific tourists groups.

One of the biggest challenges faced by tourism marketers is that the tourism product is largely intangible. Because of this nature, an explicit marketing strategy is valuable in helping prospective visitors to get a "mental fix" on a destination. According to Chacko (1997), the challenge posed by intangibility is compounded by the lack of consistency in buyer behaviour within market segments. By emphasising the concrete elements, one may fail to differentiate oneself from the competition, and since the intangible elements are abstract, by emphasising the abstract one compounds the intangibility. The second challenge relates to the inseparability of the service production and consumption process. This can result in inconsistencies in the quality

of the product and its delivery. The challenge posed by inseparability is arguably strong for the destination due to the lack of control, which is exercised over many suppliers of the tourism product (Chacko, 1997). Unfortunately, being aware of these needs does not ease the problem. What must be done is to understand the tourist's mind and so to persuade tourists to choose certain tourism products. That is why destination marketing relies heavily on target marketing. The mental constructs held by the target market must be known, as well as the tangible evidence that sustains them. It is not simply how the destination is perceived, but how the perceived image performs in the minds of tourists (Hensher, 2001). The analysis of the mental, emotional and physical activities of tourists belongs to the area of travel behaviour research.

The concept of travel behaviour can be described as in Figure 2.1 (Pearce, 2005:17). From the marketer's point of the view, travel behaviour of the tourist is analysed, and the needs identified after which the whole market is segment. The next step is to develop a market position according to the different segments. Finally a marketing strategy is formed and implemented.

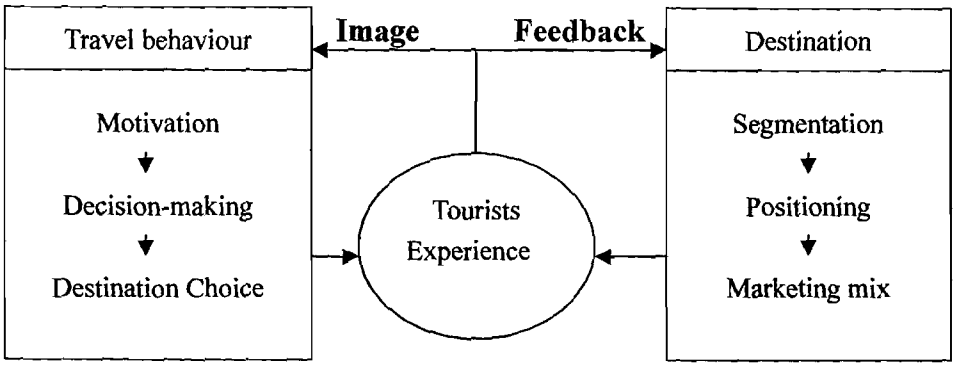



**Figure 2.1: The conceptual map of travel behaviour (Source: adapted from Pearce, 2005)**

From the tourist's point of view, the decision was made regarding different motivation and decision-making processes. The new images were formed after the first experience and affect the next decision.

The aim of this chapter is to analyse and contextualise travel behaviour, and to use interconnected concepts in clarifying how travel behaviour arises and functions. The literature research regarding travel behaviour will focus on motivations, tourist destination choice, and typologies associated with marketing activities, including positioning and image formulation.

## 2.2 TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

Travel is interpreted as a basic human need, drive for prestige, retreat from everyday life, or a specific form of consumption (Raj, 2004). Research into travel started at the end of the eighteenth century, largely because of the increase of tourist flows between Europe and America. Initially, tourism research was predicated to the counting of numbers and to the determination of economic benefits. This occurred because tourism was viewed as an economic development tool both at a national and international level, particularly for those regions or nations with minimal or no primary nor technological resources. As a consequence, research focused on tourism as an economic activity, in particular the economic advantages and disadvantages of tourism (Crompton & Richardson, 1986). More recently, however, interest has shifted from the supply side (that is, the tourism industry sector, and government) to the demand side of tourism (the tourists). Attention has turned to the nature of the tourists, the tourist experience and the social, environment and economic impacts of tourism, as well as training and education needs (Jennings, 2001).

Understanding tourists' behaviour is important for marketing purposes. Different people have different needs; their purchase decision may be influenced by individual preference, personal characteristics, and social circumstances at the least. There are various psychological and sociological reasons that have been used by researchers to

explain the need to travel. In-depth understanding of travel behaviour was recognised many years ago as a key ingredient in the planning, design, and operational analysis of tourism (Raj, 2004). The earlier efforts to analyse travel behaviour were rich in economic theory of the location. From the mid seventies there was an avalanche of empirical studies of travel demands. The pattern of the demand (value, time of the year, seasonality and demand fluctuations) must all be determined for marketing purposes (Saayman, 2001a). A market consists of individuals and organisations that are interested and willing to buy a particular product to obtain benefits that will satisfy a specific need or want (Mullins, 2005). However, the entire population of a society is seldom a viable market for a single product or service. Thus, the total market for a given product category is often fragmented into several distinct and separate market segments. Good market segmentation is thus contingent on precise market definition, which helps the organisation to exclude groups that would not use their product; regardless of the benefits it offers (Bagozzi, Rosa, Celly & Coronel, 1998). Therefore, research and analysis skills are necessary in order to understand and categorise tourists' behaviour during the segmentation process (Nickels and Wood, 1997).

Travel behaviour can broadly be regarded as including the whole process of travel, creation of travel demand, planning, motivation and behaviour of tourists, tourist destination choice, tourist perception, expectation and satisfaction, and the actual expenditure during travel. Tourism organisations and industries pay close attention to travel behaviour because it is significant to tourism marketing (Guo, 1999). The aim of research regarding the total concept of travel behaviour is to analyse the process of travel behaviour and effective factors, in order to understand the tourist market and to know how best to attract the desired market.

According to Hudson (1999), consumer behaviour could be defined as a study of why people buy the products, and of how they make decisions. The consumers within tourism have become more diverse, more experienced, more demanding, more quality conscious and generally more sophisticated, and culturally diverse in both ethnic

origin and range of lifestyle choices (Middleton & Clarke, 2001). According to Solomon (1996), tourist behaviour refers to the process when individuals or groups select, purchase, experience, the tourism product, service or experience to satisfy needs and wants. What tourists do, and why they do it; what tourists think, how they feel and what influences their thoughts and feelings has fascinated many people (Pearce, 2005).

Developments in methodology and their applications in travel behaviour research continue to diversify in order to capture the growing complexity of human travel activity and the accompanying coping strategies. Travel behaviour research is truly trans-disciplinary (Hensher, 2001). Researchers agree that there are various factors which influence how, where and when individuals take vacation and these include the levels of education, occupation, income, sizes of the places where they live, and their ages (Raj, 2004). During the course of early studies, researchers have devoted considerable effort to identifying homogeneous travel-behaviour groups, each of which also had distinctive socio-demographic characteristics. Interest in these efforts has been fuelled by both theoretical and applied concerns.

From a theoretical perspective, if such behaviourally and socio-demographically homogeneous groups can be identified, one will have an improved understanding of the determinants of travel. From an applied perspective, and because spatial choice models assume behavioural homogeneity within each socio-demographically defined subgroup, one would like to be able to identify groups that are homogeneous with respect to both behaviour and socio-demographics (Hanson & Huff, 1986). This heritage of travel behaviour research also has its roots in both geography and engineering where the challenges began on how best to spatially represent the movement of individuals and vehicles. Travel behaviour is complex, and predicting it difficult because there are many considerations and few (if any) truly "hard and fast" rules (Redmond, 2000). Many studies about travel behaviour exist, but the emphasis

of each differs. Up until present, psychologists, sociologists and other researchers have all been involved in researching travel behaviour.

Consumer behaviour research in tourism has focused on motivations, typologies, the decision process, and destination choice (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999). Tourist behaviour is powerfully connected to and often contingent upon marketing activities, such as: segmentation, positioning and image building.

### 2.2.1 Motivation

What motivates a person to take a holiday? What motivates a person to take a particular holiday to a specific destination at that particular time? It is important to understand the way in which tourists make decisions and act in relation to the consumption of tourism products (Laitinen, 2004). According to Murphy (1985), motivation is important for the development of tourism, because without the need or interest to travel, the tourism industry would not exist. Motivation is the main factor that influences tourism demand patterns. Travel motives are obviously one of the most important issues in tourism and many authors see motivation as a major determinant factor of the tourist's behaviour. In addition, it is also one of the most complex areas and one of the most studied topics in tourism research (Sharpley, 1999; Laitinen, 2004).

An individual has many needs; some are bio-organic (such as hunger, thirst and discomfort) and some are psychogenetic (such as recognition, esteem, or belonging). When a need is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity, it becomes a motive which drives the person to act (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1996). Hanefors and Mossberg (1999) define travel motives as: "A tourist's situational combination of several interacting motives that make the tourist travel away from home to a certain destination". Mayo and Jarvis (1981) indicate that motivation is the driving force behind behaviour. Motives are complex and several motives will influence simultaneously peoples' decision-making process concerning the destination (Laitinen,

2004). According to Mill and Morrison (1985), motivation arises when an individual wants to satisfy a need.

Understanding the tourists' motives, however, requires a more holistic approach. Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) indicate the following as ways of classifying motivation in tourism:

- Physical: Relaxation, sun tan, exercise and health, sex;
- Emotional: Nostalgia, romance, adventure, escapism, fantasy, spiritual fulfilment;
- Personal: Visiting friends and relatives, make new friends, need to satisfy others, search for economy;
- Personal development: Increased knowledge, learning a new skill;
- Status: Exclusivity, fashionability, obtaining a good deal, ostentatious spending opportunities;
- Culture: Sightseeing, experience new cultures.

McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie (1995) also pointed out four categories of motivation: physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators, and status and prestige motivators. Hanefors and Mossberg (1998) introduced a new model of travel escape motives based on the culture background and individual characteristics of Japanese package tourists. They suggested that compensation motives are linked together with the prerequisite of a specific destination and the activities offered there.

Many other researchers have also studied the concept of motivation in tourism. The early theories of travel motives concentrated primarily on recognizing and listing different travel motives. Dann (1981) suggested that the motivation to travel can be divided into seven categories:

- Travel is a response to what is lacking, yet desired. According to Dann, fosters a need in people for social interaction that is missing from the home environment.
- Destination "pull" in response to motivational "push".

- Motivation as a fantasy.
- Motivation as a classified purpose, such as visiting friends and relations.
- Motivational typologies.
- Motivation and tourist experiences.
- Motivation as auto-definition and meaning. The way that tourists define their situations will provide a greater understanding of tourist motivation than simply observing the behaviour.

**a. Maslow's needs and motivation theory**

The most important contribution to research into travel behaviour came through Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs. Maslow's theory about human needs is one of the best known of all motivation theories and is also commonly quoted in tourism studies. It is defined by a pyramidal ranking of human needs, from the basic physiological needs, through safety, love and belonging, to esteem, and finally to self-actualisation, in which the lower needs demand more immediate attention and satisfaction prior to engaging the higher needs (Saayman, 2001a).

According to Maslow (Table 2.1), people are driven by particular needs at particular times. Maslow theorised that until the needs in the lower levels of the hierarchy were satisfied, then the lowest needs would dominate behaviour. Maslow also noted that only a small number of tourists are likely to satisfy social and ego needs, and that failure to attain the higher level needs does not necessarily exclude lower level needs being met or being an explanation of behaviour (Saayman, 2001a).

**Table 2.1: Maslow's needs and motivation theory (Saayman, 2001a)**

| Need | Motive | Tourism literature reference |
|---|---|---|
| Psychological | Relaxation | Escape<br>Relaxation<br>Relief of tension<br>Sunlust<br>Physical<br>Mental relaxation of tension |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | | Health |
| Safety | Security | Recreation<br>Keep oneself health for the future |
| Belonging | Love | Family togetherness<br>Enhancement of kinship relations<br>Companionship<br>Facilitation of social interaction<br>Maintenance of personal ties<br>Interpersonal relations<br>Roots<br>Ethnic<br>Show one's affection for family members<br>Maintain social contacts<br>Convince oneself of one's achievements |
| Esteem | Status | Show one's importance to others<br>Prestige<br>Social recognition<br>Ego-enhancement<br>Professional/business<br>Status and prestige |
| Self-actualisation | Be true to one' nature | Exploration and evaluation of self<br>Self-discovery<br>Satisfaction of inner desires |
| To know and understand | Knowledge | Cultural<br>Education |
| Aesthetics | Appreciation of beauty | Wanderlust<br>Interest in foreign areas<br>Environment<br>Scenery |

**b. "Push" and "pull" theory**

Tolman (1932) hinted at a dichotomy of internal and external motivators containing drive-based emotions (push factors) and cognitions (pull factors). Also, Dann (1977) identified that there are only two main factors influencing the decision to travel: the push factors and the pull factors. The push factors are socio-psychological motivations that affect a person's decision to travel. Push factors can be described as "internally generated drives, causing the tourist to search for signs in objects, situations and events that contain the promise of reducing prevalent drives" (Gnoth, 1997). Pull factors are those that "emerge as a result of the attractiveness of a

destination as it is perceived by those with the propensity to travel" and include both intangible factors such as perceptions of tourists and expectation, and tangible factors such as beaches, recreation facilities and culture (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Crompton (1979) recognised the following push factors: ego enhancement, exploration, relaxation, and facilitation of social interaction, prestige, and regression; pull factors are education and novelty. Push factors have been regarded as useful in explaining the desire for travel, while pull factors have been used to explain the choice of travel and destination (Crompton, 1979).

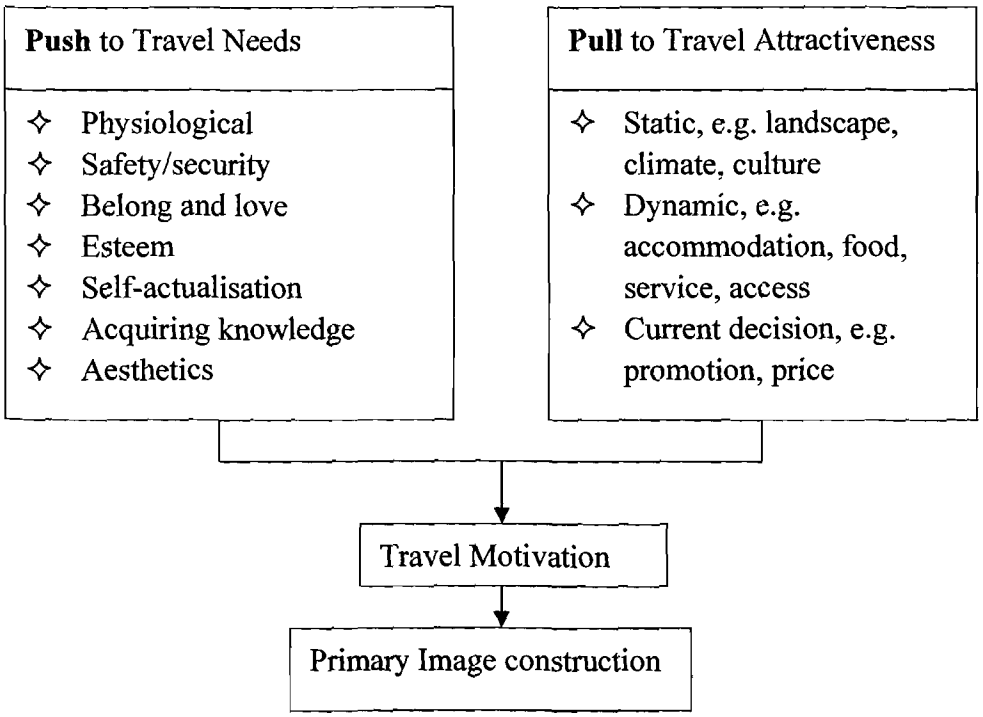



**Figure 2.2: Travel Motivation (Chon, 1989)**

Chon (1989) suggested that, at the point when an individual is motivated to travel, a primary image of a destination has been constructed. It is based on certain "push" and "pull" factors associated with the destination (Figure 2.2). Chon (1989) proposed that potential tourists construct a primary image of a destination when that destination is being considered as a possible choice in the travel buying process. The motivation of the individual person to travel, to look outside for what he cannot find inside, is

produced not so much by an innate impulse, but developed primarily under the influence of the social environment, from which every individual draws his norms (Krippendorf, 1987).

Cha and Jeong (1998) investigated the motives of Korean travellers to Australia and New Zealand. The investigation indicated that there were four push factors and five pull factors. The four push factors were sports, safety and maximisation of pleasure, experience of new culture and self improvement. The five pull factors were tourist attractions, natural environment, and leisure activities, resort environment and tourism infrastructure. Hanqin and Lam (1999) developed and employed a model based on pull and push factors as a conceptual framework on mainland Chinese tourists' travel motivation to Hong Kong. The results of this study indicate that the importance of push and pull factors in motivating Chinese travellers are different from other studies. The study found that mainland Chinese travellers perceive "knowledge" and "a high-tech image" as the most important motives. From this perspective, the motivation theories that concentrate on push and pull factors can be seen as relevant also to the study of Chinese tourists.

Motivation is a major determinant of the tourist's behaviour (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999). Understanding tourist's motivation is necessary to discover how tourists can be fulfilled.

### 2.2.2 Traveller type

Establishing the reason why people travel is one of the key factors to understanding travel patterns set by tourists through individual motivation and ability to travel. To do so, it is necessary to understand the categories by which tourists can be classifited through individual characteristics and managed through social features and interaction (Raj, 2004). Researchers have approach the concept of travel motivation through the different tourist types. The theories attempt to explain travel motivation and behaviour by developing different typologies of tourist roles. Most typologies try to group

tourists together according to their preference for destinations, holiday activities or independent travel vs. package holidays (Laitinen, 2004). Cohen (1972) identified four types of tourists, that is, **organised mass tourist**, the **individual mass tourist**, the **explorer**, and the **drifter**. Tourists are categorised according to their taste in destinations and activities.

- The **organised mass** tourist buys a package holiday to a popular destination and largely prefers to travel around with a large group of other tourists, following an inflexible predetermined itinerary. In general, such tourists tend not to stray far from the beach or hotel.
- The **individual mass** tourist buys a somewhat looser package that allows them more freedom, for example, a fly-drive holiday. They are more likely than the organised mass tourist to look for the occasional novel experience. However, they still tend to stay on the beaten track and rely on the formal tourist industry.
- The **explorer** makes their own travel arrangements and sets out, consciously, to avoid contact with other tourists. They set out to meet local people but they will expect a certain level of comfort and security.
- The **drifter** tries to become accepted, albeit temporarily, as part of the local community. They have no planned itinerary and choose their destinations and accommodation on a whim. As far as possible, the drifter shuns all contact with the formal tourism industry (Cohen, 1972).

Another frequently discussed theory is that of Plog (1974). He tries to link personality to tourist behaviour by dividing tourists into **psychocentrics** and **allocentrics**. Psychocentrics are less adventurous and are insular, inward-looking people. They tend to travel to resorts that are already popular and can be considered safe and familiar. Allocentrics, on the other hand, are at the opposite extreme. They are considered to be outward-looking; those prefering adventurous holidays and who like to take risks. Plog suggested that allocentrics prefer exotic destinations and individual travel. He postulated that a number of intermediate categories exist, such as near

–psychocentrics, mod-centrics, and near allocentrics. Plog's theory has been criticised for linking types of tourists with specific destinations. Also, destinations evolve through different stages, first attracting allocentrics and later on the less adventurous psychocentrics (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999).

Darden and Perreault (1977) determined five distinct groups or types of vacation orientation. The first group is **budget travellers**, whose interests are economy-oriented. The second group is the **adventurers**, who exhibit a relatively low desire for relaxing travel and a relatively high disposition for adventure. The third group consists of **homebodies**, who enjoy relaxing travel, but have no interest in vocational travel. The forth group is **vacationers.** To the fourth group, people who plan ahead more, but are undecided about their vacation, whereas the fifth group, **moderates**, have a high tendency to travel, but they are not interested in weekend travel or sports.

**Table 2.2: The characteristics of wanderlust and sunlust (Saayman, 2001a)**

| Sunlust | Wanderlust |
|---|---|
| ✧ Refuge, holiday (vacation)<br>✧ Visit one country<br>✧ Travellers look for local attractions and facilities<br>✧ Special natural characteristics are essential (especially climate)<br>✧ Travel is an insignificant consideration after arrival at destination<br>✧ Either rest and relax or very active<br>✧ Relatively more local travels | ✧ Tourist business<br>✧ Probably more than one country<br>✧ Travellers look for different cultures<br>✧ Special physical characteristics (climate less important)<br>✧ Travel is an important part throughout the visit<br>✧ Not relaxed or sporting – probably educational<br>✧ Relatively more international journeys |

Gray (1980) also identified two characteristic forms of travel, namely "**sunlust**" and "**wanderlust**". The main characteristics are listed in Table 2.2 as developed by Saayman (2001a). From a spatial perspective, one of the deciding differences between the two is the extent to which it would presumably create international rather than

local tourism. Wanderlust tourism tends to form part of international tourism more than does sunlust tourism (Saayman, 2001a).

Research undertaken for American Express news release (1989) identifies five groups of travellers. These are the adventurers, worriers, dreamers, economizers and indulgers. **Adventurers** are said to be independent and confident, people that like to try new activities. **Worriers** are characterized by worry and stress. For these, safety and security are important issues while on holiday. **Dreamers** are fascinated by the idea of travel, and they read and talk a lot about their travel experiences and different destinations. **Economizers** see travel as a routine opportunity for relaxation. They want to enjoy holidays the lowest price possible. **Indulgers,** on the other hand, want to be pampered when on holiday (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

Traveller types that have been identified by different researchers are summarised and illustrated in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: A summation of traveller type**

| Cohen<br>1972 | Plog<br>1974 | Darden & Perreault<br>1977 | Gray<br>1980 | American Express<br>1989 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organised mass tourist<br>Individual mass tourist<br>Explorer<br>Drifter | Psychocentrics<br>Allocentrics | Budget travellers<br>Adventurers<br>Homebodies<br>Vacationers Moderates | Sunlust<br>Wanderlust | Adventurers<br>Worriers<br>Dreamers<br>Economizers<br>Indulgers |

These theories tend to ignore national and cultural differences. Yet, as discovered earlier, national and cultural differences have great influence on travel behaviour. If the above mentioned theories took into consideration the types of tourists found in Asia, they might lead to very different results (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). All tourist typology theories have been criticised for nearly the same reasons. Many of the typologies were not based on empirical research in their time. Also, travel motivation is tempered by many determinants that are not considered in many studies. Human

behaviour is very complex, and the individual tourist can move between different types over time, and as changes in health, income, leisure time, family and work commitment occur. Many holiday makers do not have total autonomy over their choice of holiday destination, and that is why what some tourists do on holiday may not reflect their true desires or personality. Travel behaviour has changed a lot in recent years, for example, due to the availability of the Internet, and as the typologies are at least ten years old, it is now hard to find appropriate categories for the present tourists in those theories (Laitinen, 2004). Muller (2002) pointed out that some changes which are expected to take place in the future of tourism are:

- Trend towards adventure-oriented holiday behaviour;
- Trend towards travelling alone;
- Trend towards more sophisticated travel products;
- Trend towards more wellness during holidays;
- Trend towards "second homes";
- Trend towards sunny travel destinations;
- Trend towards cheaper travel;
- Trend towards more frequent, shorter trips;
- Trend towards spontaneous travel decisions;
- Trend towards more mobile travel patterns.

Having considered the motivation and traveller type, it is time to recognise the complexity of tourist destination choice. Not only is tourist destination choice important for the study of tourism, but it is perhaps the most important decision that traveller must make.

### 2.2.3 Tourist destination choice

Where do the tourists come from? What needs give rise to the decision to use a particular product? How does the tourist evaluate the different decision-making alternatives? Why do the tourists choose a specific destination instead of another? The

answers to these questions can provide an accurate vision of how the marketers can develop appropriate strategies for the destination.

The consumer decision-making framework by Gilbert (1991) suggested a simplified model (Figure 2.3) of some of the main influences affecting the consumer as a decision maker. Two levels of factors influencing the consumer are recognised in this model. On the first level, psychological factors such as motivation and perceptions are the closest factors to the decision-making process of a person. On the second level, influence factors that have been developed during the socialisation process involving both reference groups and family, have a greater influence (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 1999). Kotler *et al.*(1996) also stated that factors influencing travel behaviour are cultural, social, personal and psychological ones, where the cultural factors have the broadest and deepest influence on travel behaviour. This is also supported by Mayo and Jarvis (1981) who suggest that the major influences on travel behaviour (e.g. perceptions) are culture and social class.

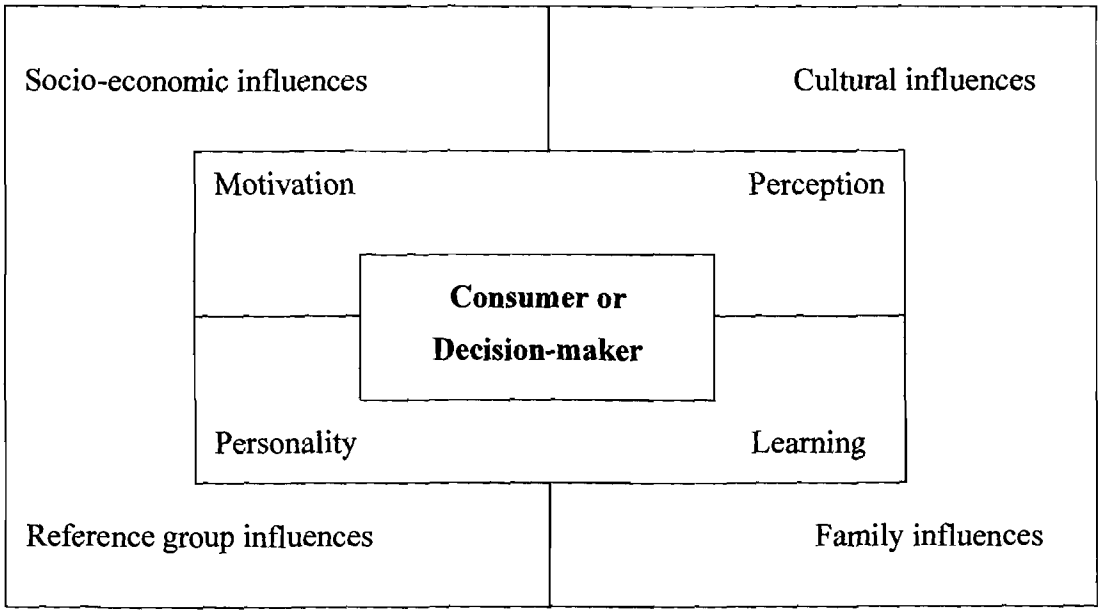



**Figure 2.3: Consumer Decision-Making Framework (Gilbert, 1991)**

Ritchie (1994) constructed an alternative model (Figure 2.4) of the decision-making process in tourism. This model presents more factors than just the information aspects

of previous experience, and includes factors such as the individual him or herself, environmental variables and changes in the marketing environment. Saayman (2001a) agreed that the quality aspect of this model had its further advantage.

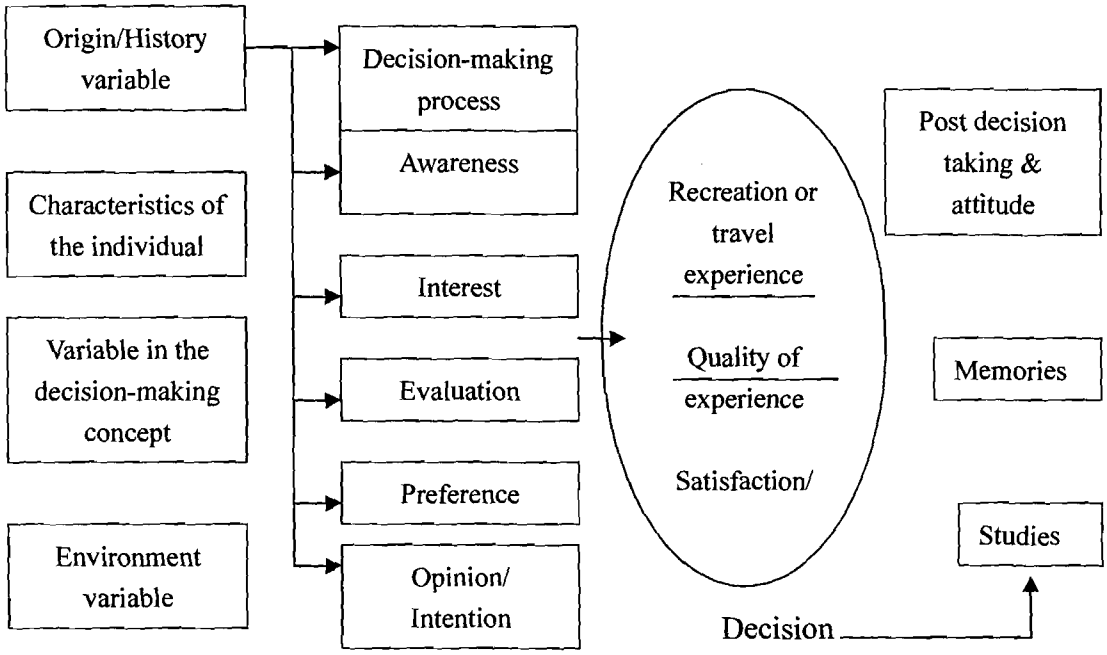



**Figure 2.4: Decision-making model in tourism (Ritchie, 1994)**

The Five phase consumer's decision-making model (Figure 2.5) reflects the manner in which a consumer's purchase decision take place and gives an indication of the information that must be collected during the tourists' analysis (Saayman, 2001a). The information about tourists acquired from the model can be of great assistance to the planning process of strategies.

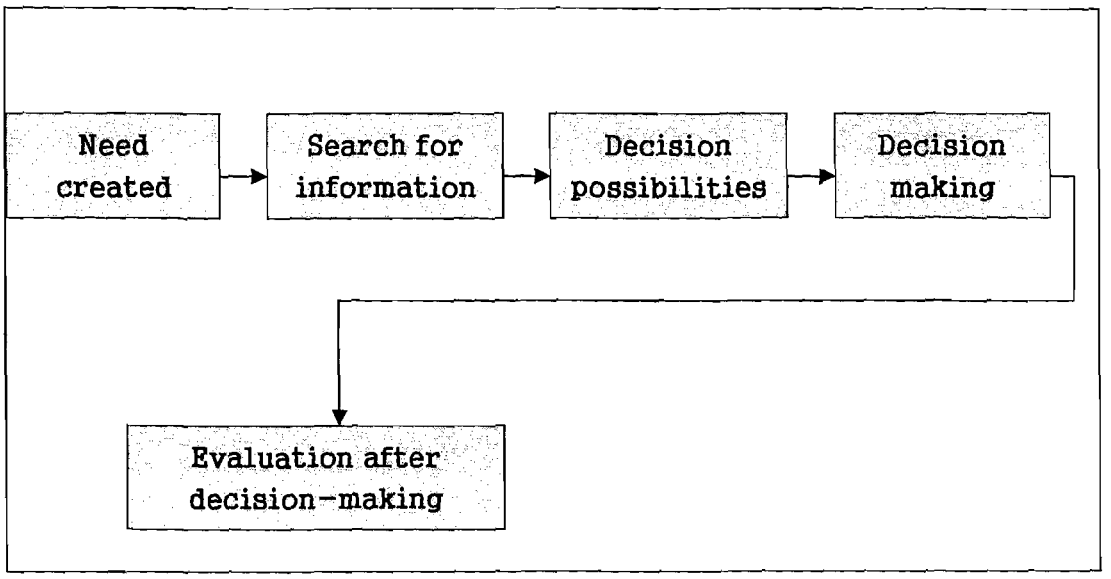



**Figure 2.5: Five phase consumer's decision-making model (Saayman, 2001a)**

Recher, McNally and Root (1986) also presented a policy sensitive approach to modelling travel behaviour based on activity pattern analysis. A theoretical model of complex travel behaviour is formulated on recognition of a wide range of interdependencies associated with an individual's travel decisions in a constrained environment. Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) suggest a theory involving personal and external determinants affecting individual tourist behaviour. Personal determinants are related to several internal factors:

1) circumstances: health, disposable income and leisure time available;
2) knowledge: of the destination and price differences between competitors;
3) attitudes and perceptions; perceptions of destination and ideas of what constitutes toward value for money, and
4) experience of different destinations and types of holidays (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

Global, political, as well as technological factors and influence of media and marketing activities are also seen as external determinants (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

Sirgy and Su (2000) presented an integrative model of destination image, self-congruity, and travel behaviour. In particular, the model postulates relationships between destination environment, destination visitor image, tourists' self-concept, self-congruity, functional congruity, and travel behaviour. Travel behaviour is hypothesized to be influenced significantly by both self-congruity and functional congruity. Self-congruity is taken as the match between the destination visitor image and tourists' self-concept (actual, ideal, social, and ideal social self-image). Functional congruity is the match between the utilitarian attributes of the destination and the tourist's ideal expectations related to those attributes. Self-congruity is hypothesized to influence functional congruity. It is argued that the destination environment influences the formation and change of the destination visitor image and the tourist-perceived utilitarian destination attributes.

Whether a place can be chosen as a tourism destination over so many alternatives is depended on the decision-making process of a tourist. A positioning model (Figure 2.6) describes a sequence of factors that lead to purchase behaviour and hypothesizes the relationship of these factors to behaviour and to each other (Assael, 1995). **Stage 1** of the positioning model focuses on the "awareness" set. This "awareness" is most likely to accrue from incidental learning (Um & Crompton, 1990). **Stage 2** consists of choosing those tourism destinations being considered by potential tourists as a possible destination for a vacation. In **stage 3**, potential tourists start an active information search to narrow the scope of possible destinations to a smaller set of probable destinations. The final choice or decision is essentially based on a balance between the positioning attributes of a destination, and the effort and cost associated with that destination. These constraints are dynamic and are likely to embrace such factors as time, money, personal mobility, and self-confidences (Saayman, 2001a).

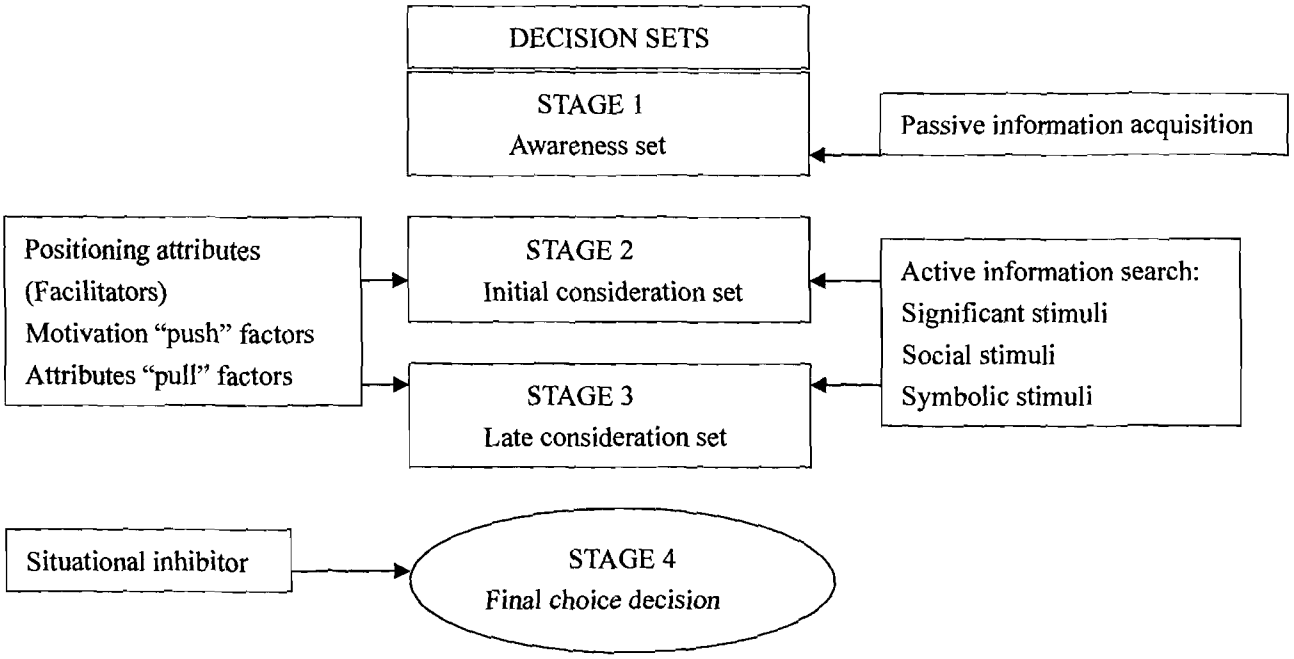



**Figure 2.6: A positioning model (Botha, 1999)**

Potential tourists usually have only limited knowledge about a destination that they have not visited. This knowledge often is confined to symbolic information acquired either from media or from social groups. Thus, tourists formulate images of alternative destinations and these images emerge as a critical element in the destination choice process (Um & Crompton, 2000).

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) created a model of the role of image in destination election. Figure 2.7 illustrates the relationship between organic, induced and complex images, and the role that they play in the selection of a destination. Firstly, a potential visitor develops organic images of a relatively large set of potential destinations that have been passively acquired. Secondly, the motivation of travelling is raised. Thirdly, the tourists begin to search relevant information actively. Different destinations are evaluated against personal organic images, information from personal contacts, and benefits as portrayed through marketing communication. This process then leads to the development of induced images of alternative destinations (Saayman, 2001a).

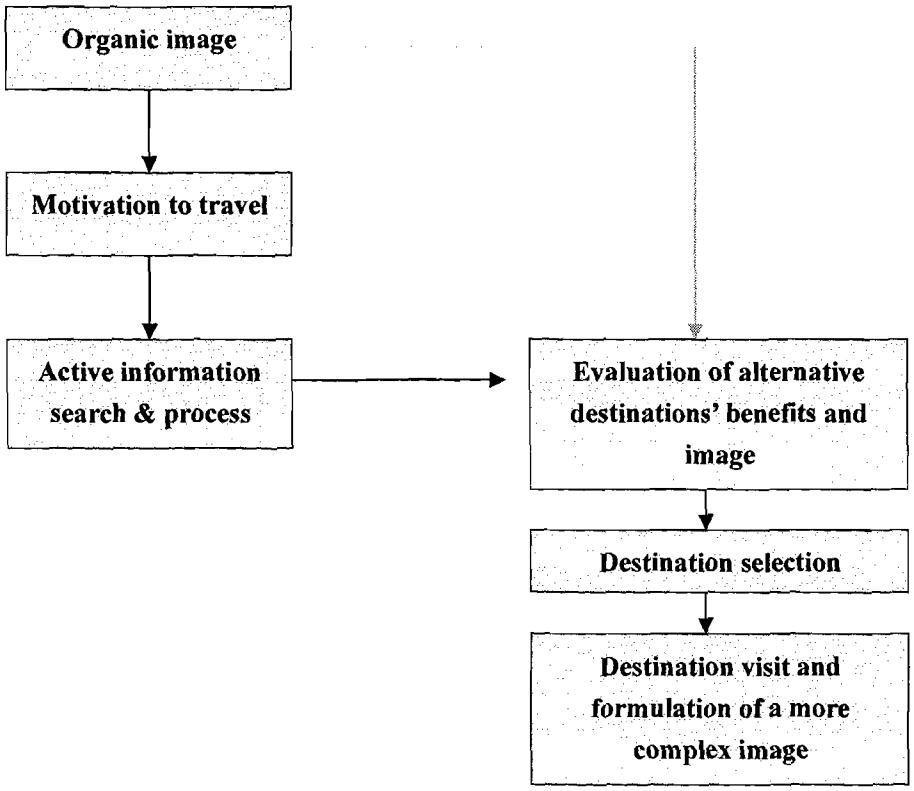



**Figure 2.7: A model of a tourist's image formulation process (Saayman, 2001a)**

A positive image is essential for any destination and several factors help to create this positive image of the destination. These eight key factors are the variety and amount of information available, professional advice, word of mouth, advertisements, non-tourism books/movies/news, escape/relaxation motives, knowledge and prestige. Also, any past experience and evaluation of the attractions, environment and values play critical roles in the tourist image-formulating process. According to Saayman (2001a), the positive image of any destination is:

1) The efficacy of a destination: This refers to its impact, integrity and reputation;
2) A client orientation: it is essential for a good destination to be responsive to the visitor and "user friendly";
3) The "magic" of the destination: people are more likely to have a positive image of a destination if it has unique features which distinctively differentiate it;

4) Branding: people are more likely to identify with familiar destination, franchise or chain branding and to stay loyal to the brand if it is positive perceived;
5) The sensory effect of the destination: a synonym for sensory is "feeling" or "pleasing";
6) The history of the destination: past experience here plays an essential role;
7) The virtue of the destination: this includes the aura of goodness associated with the destination, which is essential in formulating a positive image;
8) The atmosphere generated by a destination.

Image represents a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with the destination. Day, Skidmore and Koller (2001) suggest that there should be congruence between the marketed image and the actual destination experience and that for "place images" to be effective, they must:

1) Be valid;
2) Be believable;
3) Be simple;
4) Have appeal;
5) Be distinctive.

### 2.2.4 Marketing activities relating to tourist behaviour

Tourist behaviour is greatly significant for the marketer to formulate strategies appropriate to the tourism product. Since tourism is a part of a competitive environment, it is important to determine who are consuming the relevant product and who any potential consumers are (Saayman, 2001a).

#### a. Market segmentation

Segmentation is a form of consumer classification designed specially to serve the marketing function (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). If the tourism industry can identify

specific market characteristics and behaviour, the industry will increase the probability of desired marketing and management being effective. Therefore the profile of tourists needs to be identified in order to determine the target market.

Market segmentation is the process of dividing a total market into segments. Each segment consists of people with similar product needs (DSS, 2005; Perreault & McCarthy, 2003). The basic process of market segmentation is that a heterogeneous group of tourists can be grouped into homogeneous clusters or segments; each requiring different applications of the marketing mix to service their needs (Jenkins & McDonald, 1997; Slabbert, 2002). Mullins (2005) indicated that market segmentation is the process by which a market is divided into distinct subsets of tourists with similar needs and characteristics that lead them to respond in similar ways to a particular product offering and marketing program. Jobber (1995) describes segmentation as the identification of groups of individuals or organisations with similar characteristics that have significant implications for the determination of a marketing strategy. Market segmentation can therefore be defined as a marketing strategy by which the heterogeneous group of tourists who will respond differently to promotions, communications, advertising and other marketing mix variables.

A market segmentation strategy recognises the fact that a few tourism products and organisations are universally desirable. An effective strategy would be to determine the target markets and to reach only those markets by means of the market offering (Jooste, 1995). There are many reasons for dividing a market into smaller segments. The primary reasons are as follows:

**Easier marketing.** It is easier to target the needs of smaller groups of tourists, particularly where they have many characteristics in common (For example. seek the same benefits, same age, gender, etcetera.).

**Find niches.** Identify under-, or un-served markets. Using "niche marketing," segmentation can allow a new company or new product to target less-contested buyers or help a mature product find new buyers.

**Efficient:** More efficient use of marketing resources will focus on the segments most likely to be attracted to the offering- product, price, promotion, and place (distribution). Segmentation can help avoid sending the wrong message or sending the message to the wrong people (DSS, 2005).

The task of identifying a segment is difficult, because there are various bases that can be used. A marketer has to try different segmentation variables, alone and in combination (Bennett, 1995).

The general bases for segmentation of the tourists market are as follows:

*Socio-economic segmentation.* Market research usually identifies the preferences, values, attitudes, media habits and behavioural patterns of different socio-economic groups. For example spending patterns (Saayman, 2001b).

*Demographic segmentation.* This is the most widely used basis for segmenting any tourist market. Of all demographic variables, the two that offer most explanation and are likely to be applicable to tourism are ethnic identity and the family lifecycle (Moutinho, 2000). People within a population group can, for instance, be further segmented by their gender, age, occupation, financial status, or stage in the family lifecycle.

*Geographic segmentation.* Geographic segmentation refers to segmenting markets by region of a country or the world, market size, market density, or climate. Market density means the number of people within a given unit of land, such as a census tract. Climate is often used for geographic segmentation because of its dramatic impact on residents' needs and purchasing behaviour (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2005). For example, Japanese tourists will have different motivations from Chinese tourists. It is

used as a proxy variable for a variety of demographic, cultural and socio-economic characteristics that render the behaviour of tourists (Moutinho, 2000).

*Psychographic segmentation.* Pyscographics go beyond mere demographics. This type of segmentation is based on personality, characteristics, attitudes, interests and opinions (Saayman, 2001b). This can be utilised to divide markets into segment markets according to social classes, lifestyles, and psychological characteristics, such as attitudes, interests, opinions, and values, and is increasingly popular as it can often create a better picture of market segments than other methods. These segmentation bases allow the marketer to truly understand potential tourists before developing a marketing mix aimed at those tourists (Hoffman, 2003).

*Behaviouristic segmentation.* This technique groups tourists according to their relationship with a particular product, such as user status, readiness stage, attitude to products, benefit sought, loyalty to the product, or purchase occasions (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

Successful marketing is not based merely on just one method of segmentation; instead it will make use of a blend of different techniques (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). The following section attempts to create a set of criteria that will assist the marketer with market segmentation.

Each segment must be:

- Measurable: The segmentation base used should lead to ease of identification in terms of in the content of each segment and should be capable of measurement in terms of the potential tourists in each segment;
- Accessible: The company must be able to reach selected target markets with their individual marketing efforts within the selected segmentation. This implies the degree to which the resulting segments can be effectively reached and served (Kotler *et al.*, 1996);
- Substantial: There must be sufficient numbers of customers within the segment to

support the marketing effort;

- Reliable: The tourists' characteristics must be sufficiently unique to justify any separate programme which is aimed at them;

- Durable: The segment must retain its diversity during the development of the market;

- Competitive: There must be a relative competitive advantage in an effort to serve the market segment (Saayman, 2003);

-Responsive: The segments must exhibit differences in responses to the marketing variables (McDaniel & Darden, 1987).

**b. Positioning**

Another effective tool in tourism marketing is positioning. Positioning is the most critical element in a company's marketing strategy because it defines the intended perception of tourists (Engel, Warshaw & Kinnesr, 1991). John (2002) believes that positioning is not a public posture, a clever slogan, or a sophisticated form of spin for short-term goals. It is an integral part of the strategic plan reflecting a conscious decision of how best to project the product into the market-place. When strategic marketing is undertaken, it becomes important to note that image plays a role in the positioning process (Saayman, 2001b).

Positioning refers to strategies and actions created to favourably distinguish a tourism destination or product from those of its competitors (Saayman, 2001a; Stanton, Etzel, Walker, Abratt & Pitt, 1992). According to Baker (1992), positioning is what you do in the mind of the prospect. Nickels and Wood (1997) define positioning as the act of designing the company's product and marketing mix to fit a given place in the consumer's mind. According to Chacko (1997), positioning is a communications strategy that is the natural follow-through of market segmentation and target marketing.

The objective of positioning is to create and maintain a distinctive place in the market for a company and/or its products (Jobber, 1995). Since market segmentation is based on the notion that different tourism destinations appeal to different types of tourists, a target market must be selected before tourism marketers begin to attract these potential customers. The real benefit of positioning lies in identifying the gap in the market-place and then filling it (Baker, 1992). An effective positioning strategy provides a competitive edge to a destination that is trying to convey its attractiveness to the target market (Chacko, 1997).

Jobber (1995) pointed out that successful positioning is often associated with products and services possessing favourable connotations in the minds of customers. There are four keys to successful positioning:

- Clarity: the positioning idea must be clear in terms of both target market and differential advantage. Complicated positioning statements are unlikely to be remembered;
- Consistency: people are bombarded with messages daily. To break through this situation, a consistent message is required;
- Credibility: the differential advantage that is chosen must be credible in the minds of the target customers;
- Competitiveness: the differential advantage should have a competitive edge. It should offer something of value to the customer, which the competitors are failing to supply.

Positioning is a form of market communication that plays a vital role in enhancing the attractiveness of a tourism destination. Positioning is more than just image creation. This important form of market communication helps to distinguish tourism destinations from similar destinations so that customers can choose the one that is the most attractive (Chacko, 1997). However, this is a complex process that requires careful analysis of the attributes of destinations and the needs of the target markets. Selection of a positioning strategy that creates a distinctive place in customers' minds

is essential in preventing the several pitfalls, such as, competing directly with a stronger competitor, unclear position and negative image (Lovelock, 1991).

There are several different approaches to positioning any tourism destination (Aaker & Shansby, 1982; Kotler, 1984; Jobber, 1995; Nickels & Wood, 1997; Saayman, 2001a). These positioning approaches complete a picture, using visual images and words, to reinforce what the destination does best and what benefits are offered. Tourism marketers may decide to select the most appropriate of the following approaches, depending on the information gathered during market and psychological positioning (Chacko, 1997).

*Positioning by attribute, feature, or customer benefit.* For this strategy, emphasis is placed on the benefits of the particular features or attributes of the destination. For example, Thailand promotes the friendliness of its people with the statement "The world meets in the land of smiles."

*Positioning by Price/Value.* International destinations are not usually positioned on the basis of price because lower prices may be perceived as connoting lower quality. However, value offered to visitors can be effectively utilized as exemplified by Malaysia which claims "Malaysia gives more natural value."

*Positioning with respect to use or application.* Here a destination is positioned based on the reasons for visiting it. Bermuda positions itself to the American meetings market with "Sometimes you have to leave the country to get any work done" which promises productive meetings in a relaxed environment.

*Positioning according to the users or class of users.* In this case, positioning features the people who should visit the destination. Hong Kong appeals to the incentive travel market with the statement "When they've reached the top, send them to the peak," referring to Victoria Peak, a major tourist site in Hong Kong.

*Positioning with respect to a product class.* This technique is often used to associate a destination with experiences that are extraordinary and/or unique. For example, the Principality of Monaco is positioned as "The fairy tale that does not end at midnight."

*Positioning vis-à-vis the competition.* This approach is used when it is necessary to meet the competition head-on to identify differences between destinations. This approach is not used frequently in international tourism destination marketing since it may involve negative statements about another country or region. However, it is regularly employed in product and services marketing. Strengths and weaknesses of competitive destinations should be identified in order for a resort to differentiate between those attributes. For example, the Protea Hotel Group uses a protea flower as its symbol (Botha, 1999).

After the decision on a target market, the decision must be made regarding how to position the product or brand. The destination's ability to satisfy a segment's needs, exceed expectations, and out manoeuvre competitors would be the most significant strategy of positioning (Botha, 1999).

Once the tourism organisation has identified the target customers, it must try to manipulate the marketing mix or 4 P's (Product, Price, Place and Promotion), to reflect the nature of the target market in their marketing programmes (Swarbrooke a& Horner, 1999).

The main realm of travel is the classification of tourists according to geography, seasonality, method, reason, travel expenditure of structure, the time space of the variety of travel behaviour, effective factors of travel behaviour, decision making process and the definitively factor of travel. Thus the tourism organisation and tourism marketers may establish policies and form marketing strategies according to travel behaviour, and thus guide the tourists according to appropriate research methods.

## 2.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

The social world is often perceived as being organised by universal laws and truths. In such a world, tourist behaviour is therefore predictable because it is governed by external forces. Subsequently, tourist behaviour can be shaped and controlled once causal relationships have been determined (Jennings, 2001). The following factors influence travel behaviour.

### 2.3.1 Personal factors

Travel behaviour is affected by personal characters, such as age, gender, occupation, income, life cycle and so forth (Pearce, 2005).

Age is both an observable and a universal demographic. The recognition of the complexity of aging has result in two trends. One is to study the tourist motives, decisions and experiences of a particular cohort according to different age phases. Another is to use multiple definitions of aging to enable the selection of the market segments (Pearce, 2005). The product and service that were bought are different at different stages in life. Destination choices and entertainments are also connected with age phases. Successful marketing, according to different age phases, can thus be implemented by specific and realising strategies.

Gender is another ubiquitous demographic factor in tourism studies (Pearce, 2005). Female is more "delicate" than male, and female tourists always have more concern about security during the trip. McGehee, Loker-murphy & Uysal (1996) reports that an ethic of care characterises women's role in many western relationships, and opines that this ethic may both limited and shape women's holiday motivation. After further research, McGehee *et al.* (1996) reported that "push" factors of culture experience, family and kinship, and prestige factors are significantly more important for women than for men.

Married coupled with children have totally different choices about relaxation than do singles. Additionally, there are a number of other demographic descriptors, such as education, occupation, household composition and income. Such demographic descriptions are often employed in larger-scale assessments of tourist market (Morrison, 1996; Smith, 1995). In more familiar terms, such measures enable tourist behaviour researchers to link with business interests in budget, mid-range and luxury tourist markets (Pearce, 2005).

### 2.3.2 Culture

Culture is viewed in the traditional sense as representing that complex whole that includes knowledge, understanding, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by a person as a member of societies. That is, travel behaviour is often the product of a particular culture (Neal, Quester & Hawkins, 2002). Every tourist is living in a specific cultural surrounding. The tourist, therefore, is affected deeply by local culture and establishes a series of behaviour and value according to the specific cultural background. A unique cultural "product" is a main tourism resource as tourists will be attracted to experience that different culture.

Culture is, therefore, indispensable to tourism industries. Although culture can be differentiated by tangible aspects, such as food, clothing and artwork, one of the most important aspects of culture is that culture's basic values. These specific values provide guidelines as to what is right and wrong or good and bad in any given situation in that culture. However, these values will vary across cultures and set broad boundaries within which lifestyles evolve (Neal *et al.*, 2002). Thus, culture will greatly influence the way a person behaves as a tourist.

### 2.3.3 Social class

Social classes are actually a special case of subcultures. Social classes are the consequence of the division of society on the basis of status and prestige (Decrop,

2006). The influence of these social classes on travel has been a much debated issue. The major questions are:

- To what extent do various societies structure and rank the individual?
- On what characteristics is this social structure built?
- In what ways does this structure influence consumer lifestyle and purchase decision?

Generally, individuals are ranked on a number of observable characteristics that represent underlying values that their culture holds to be worthwhile (Neal *et al.*, 2002). Travel behaviour in the same social class is found to be far more similar than in differing social classes.

### 2.3.4 Perception

Perception means the subjective interpretation by individuals of the data which is available to them, which results in particular opinions of, and attitudes towards, products, places or organisations (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Perception helps to know the environment through translating the stimuli coming from the external, physical world to the internal, mental world (Wilkie, 1994). According to Decrop (2006), there are three basic cognitive operations that make perception a very selective and interpretive process: **sensation**, **attention** and **interpretation**. Sensation refers to the interception of environmental stimuli by the sensory nerves. Attention pertains to the pattern recognition of the sensory input against the knowledge representation stored in the memory. Interpretation is concerned with making sense of these inputs (Decrop, 2006). Perceptions affect the way of behaviour, so it is powerful in marketing analysis.

### 2.3.5 Motivation (cf. 2.2.1)

A motive is a lasting disposition, an internal drive or 'push' factor that cause the tourist to search for signs and events that contain the promise of reducing the

prevalent drive (Gnoth, 1997). Motives, the forces that initiate and direct travel behaviour, should be examined first. Motives may be either physiologically- or psychologically-based. However, in developed economies, most travel behaviour is guided by psychological motives. While motives direct behaviour towards objectives, personality relates to characteristic patterns of behaviour (Neal *et al.*, 2002).

### 2.3.6 Attitude

An attitude is classically defined as a 'learned predisposition to respond to an object or a class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way' (Allport, 1935). Travel attitudes and their connection to behaviour have been studied for many years, but generally the emphasis has been on the behaviour. Focusing on attitudes and lifestyle factors puts the emphasis on the travel attitudes themselves to explore how the attitudes are affecting travel in general (Redmond, 2000).

### 2.3.7 Personality and lifestyle

Personality may be defined as the reflection of a person's enduring and unique characteristics that urge the person to respond in a persistent way to recurring environment stimuli (Decrop, 2006). Lifestyle means the way of life adopted by an individual or group of people (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Considering attitude and personality as well as lifestyle characteristics that have an effect on travel takes a step toward achieving the understanding of tourists (Redmond, 2000). Personality results from the person's history, and goes far beyond socio-demographics. Following this approach, tourism marketers could be characterised as reflective, active, sociable, outgoing, inquisitive and confident (Decrop, 2006).

### 2.3.8 Economy

The economy is a vital factor that can affect travelling behaviour. It involves the currency change, international trade, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and income. The economic development of the tourists' source country largely affects the decision of travelling and the purchasing power of the tourists. Rapid economic growth and the

growth of a capitalist economy will create a new affluent class that will want to travel abroad for pleasure (Laitinen, 2004).

### 2.3.9 Technology

The development of transportation and information systems is significant factor that also affect travel behaviour (Guo, 1999). More and more airlines connect the different tourism destinations, and tourists can travel easier and faster. The Internet has changed the way travel agencies operate and gives agencies and individuals the ability to perform travel related research. Discount airfare brokers have taken advantage of the Internet by offering tickets on-line at discounted rates. This has increased the speed and efficiency of the agency-to-customer transaction. At the same time, tourists can obtain more information from the Internet and so have more choice about the destinations.

### 2.3.10 Discretionary time

To some extent, travel behaviour is behaviour in discretionary time as it occurs in spare time. Spare time is the compensation to human beings from society, a vital factor that can keep the body and the mind in balance (Guo, 1999). Paid holidays provide the time guarantee for travelling. Tourists are able to extend their holidays from one to two weeks or even longer. Thus the tourists may travel further and stay longer at the tourism destination (Li & Cao, 2006).

## 2.4 RESEARCH METHODS APPLICABLE TO TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

Travel behaviour is so a complex process and it cannot be classified in a simplistic way. Behaviour is a result in several factors, and these factors change frequently; Behaviour depends on different factors and will create different results. Because the effective factors would change and have a certain trend, the travel behaviour will follow that trend and will thus present a certain trend. Therefore travel behaviour can best be analysed by analysing all the factors including the psychology and the

behaviour of tourists, in order to, draw conclusions regarding the regular travel patterns of tourists, In other words, the objective of travel behaviour research is finding the regularity of different travel groups.

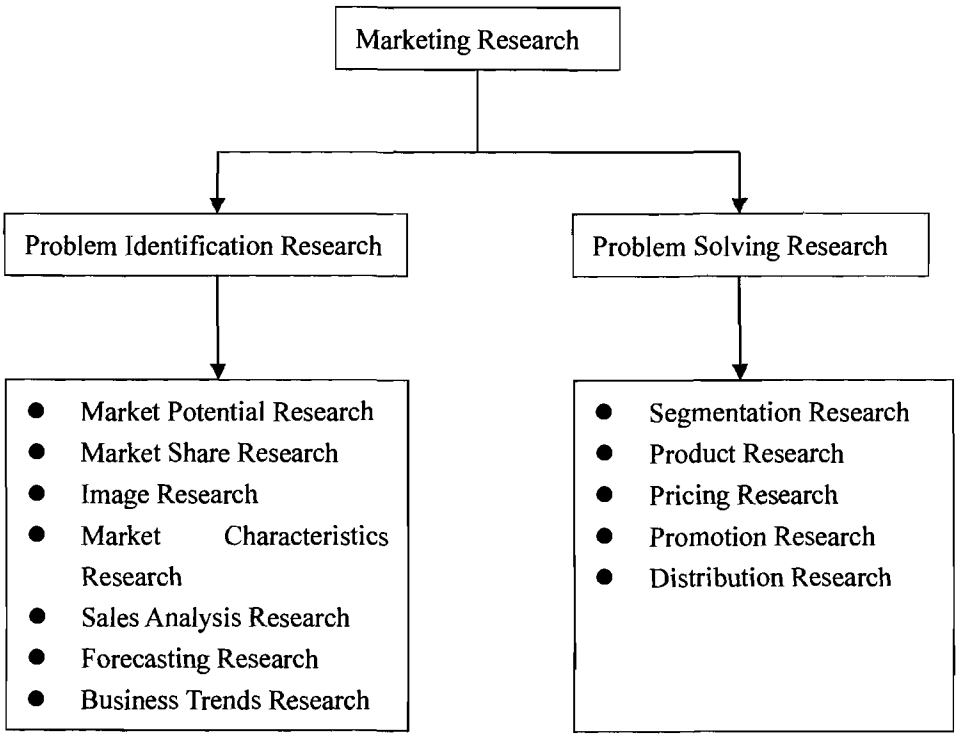



**Figure 2.8: Marketing research (Malhotra, 2004)**

Malhotra (2004) indicated that marketing research is the systematic and objective identification, collection, analysis, dissemination, and use of information for the purpose of improving decision making related to the identification and solution of problems and opportunities in marketing (Figure 2.8). Organisations thus engage in marketing research for two reasons: to identify, and to solve marketing problems.

Problem identification research is undertaken to help identify problems that are, perhaps, not immediately apparent and yet currently exist or are likely to arise in the future. Research of this type provides information about the marketing environment and helps diagnose a problem. For example, a declining market potential indicates that the firm is likely to have a problem achieving its growth targets. Once a problem

or opportunity has been identified, problem solving research is undertaken to arrive at a solution. The conclusions of problem solving research are used in making decisions that will solve specific marketing problems (Malhotra, 2004).

According to Saayman (2001a), the following are common types of research within the tourism industry.

**(a) Quantitative surveys/research**

Quantitative method is grown from the positivist social paradigm that primarily reflects the scientific method of the nature sciences. As such, it commences with theories or hypotheses about a particular tourism phenomenon, gathers data from the real-world setting, and then analyses the data to support or reject these hypotheses (Jennings, 2001). Quantitative research generally involves the collection of primary data from large numbers of individuals with the intention of projecting the results to a wider population. The aim is to generalise about a specific population, based on the results of a representative sample of that population (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & Van Wyk, 2005). Put in another way, this research entails a quantitative survey of the current tourism industry and the broad characteristics of the market. It can provide the number of tourists and where they come from, how much they spend and what modes of transport they use. This research thus provides good guidelines for an in-depth research study on the needs of the communities (Saayman, 2001a).

**(b) Market research**

Market research is a subdivision of research. Market research involves the systematic, objective collection of information by recognised, scientific methods, but it is usually confined to the collection of data about the size and other characteristics of a specific market (Tustin *et al.,* 2005). Market research attempts to determine the market segments, tourism needs and decision-making factors, and services as well as advertising programmes directed at the tourist. This is one of the most important types of tourism research that can be undertaken (Saayman, 2001a).

**(c) Product research**

Product research classifies and evaluates tourism resources of the community, which will include both natural and man-made resources. Potential facilities and services are also included. This information is used to consult potential and existing needs (Saayman, 2001a). This type of research includes optimal product design, package tests, product modification, brand positioning and repositioning, and test marketing (Malhotra, 2004).

**(d) Pilot survey**

Pilot studies are a part of both qualitative and quantitative research. Before going into the field to gather the data, the researcher must check the work (Jennings, 2001). Evaluation research includes the pilot survey, which determines how tourists will experience a particular service or product. Results of this kind of research provide guidelines for further improvements, upgrading and development of the product, facilities and services (Saayman, 2001a).

**(e) Competitive analysis/research**

It must be determined how effectively other competitors cater to tourism needs. It also collects information concerning new products and ideas (Saayman, 2001a).

**(f) Feasibility research**

This research type forecasts the potential success of the facility or service. This type of research is mostly undertaken when a new facility is to be developed, or before the entrepreneur begins a business. It must thus determine whether the business is likely to succeed (Saayman, 2001a).

**(g) Industrial research**

It serves as a management guideline for decision-making about facilities and/or services. Relevant questions are: "Is the employee's job description effective?" and

"What is the best plan (layout) for a specific food service?" This research thus deals with the more managerial aspects of the business (Saayman, 2001a).

Classification framework uses the basic classification of methodology, i.e. qualitative and quantitative methods. Clifton and Handy (2001) believe that qualitative methods, used in conjunction with quantitative approaches, or on their own as an alternative to quantitative approaches, offer a powerful tool to help understanding complex situations and circumstances.

Qualitative methods, including focus groups, interviews, and participant-observer techniques, can help fill the gaps left by quantitative techniques. The reliance on survey data for forecasting and decision making has a number of shortcomings. Firstly, surveys are often used in circumstances when the issues under study are clearly defined and participant responses are anticipated. The survey instruments frame the questions and limit the range of answers to those questions. Secondly, data collection methods using traditional travel diaries or telephone recruitment can under-represent certain segments of the population (Clifton & Handy, 2001).

**Table 2.4: Quantitative and qualitative research (McDaniel & Gates, 2001)**

| Comparison dimension | Qualitative research | Quantitative research |
|---|---|---|
| Types of questions | Probing | Limited probing |
| Sample size | Small | Large |
| Administration | Requires interviewer with special skills | Fewer special skills required |
| Type of analysis | Subjective, interpretive | Statistical, summarisation |
| Typical methods | Group discussions in-depth interviews | Surveys |

A quantitative methodology is associated with the positivistic or hypothetic deductive paradigm (Jennings, 2001). Quantitative methods are classified based on how complex statistical analyses are incorporated into basic statistical analysis (mean, frequency, correlation analysis, complex statistical analysis, factor analysis, statistical analysis, clustering analysis, corresponding analysis and other tests) (Zhang, 2005). Table 2.4 shows the main difference between quantitative and qualitative research.

In understanding any research and when selecting the methodology, the researcher has to consider the nature of the setting being studied or the "question" being asked, as well as any possible limitations of the study, such as time and resources. There also needs to be a match between the study topic and chosen methodology (Jennings, 2001). There is unlikely to be a unique research method that is suitable for all kinds of tourism research. Tourism research methods have selected from mature research methodologies of other, related, disciplines based on the characteristics of tourism. Based on this premise, a tourism research methodology system can be built and that will make tourism research more abundant (Zhang, 2005). Table 2.5 shows the classification of research methods.

**Table 2.5: Classification of research methods (Zhang, 2005)**

| Research methods | General characteristics |
|---|---|
| Traditional qualitative methods | Provide descriptive and conceptual analysis of research content through referencing relative theses, books and field investigation. Mainly in words, or with minor statistical data. |
| Modernistic qualitative methods | Provide analysis of qualitative literature, statistical data, interviews and answers from open questionnaires, including frequency statistical analysis on |

| | |
|---|---|
| | qualitative data, setup index systems. |
| Combination of quantitative and qualitative methods | Provide qualitative and qualitative analysis based on interviews, questionnaires or official statistical data etcetera. |
| Basic statistical analyses | Provide analysis of quantitative data using mean, frequency, correlation analysis, statistical tests. |
| Complex statistical analyses | Provide analysis of quantitative data using, among others, regression analysis, factor analysis, clustering analysis, corresponding analysis. |

## 2.5 BENEFITS OF TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR RESEARCH

The latter half of the twentieth century saw tourism spread quite rapidly over the globe. Now, in the twenty-first century, most parts of the globe are touched by tourism in one way or another. This growth in tourism has precipitated a complementary need for growth in tourism information. Subsequently, research has become an important tool for the tourism industry, both nationally and internationally (Jennings, 2001).

In tourism, marketing research is imperative in order to develop the right product or package for the right market (Saayman, 2001a). Ryan (2003) said that good research is an indispensable aid to understanding phenomena in order to act more effectively. Marketing research in tourism is the systematic gathering, recording and analysing of data about problems related to the marketing of tourism services (Moutinho, 2000). Travel behaviour research has the literature value which is utilisable meaning within tourism marketing.

### 2.5.1 Marketing value

The marketing value is the priority value of travel behaviour research. Marketing and travel behaviour has a close internal relationship. Marketing decisions should be based on research; otherwise they may lead to expensive marketing activities that bear little, if any, fruit (Guo, 1999). The research should inform whether one is addressing the right market, having success in the advertising campaign, and growing the market or business in terms of visitation and spending (Saayman, 2001a). Tourism product is promoted to tourists, and thus tourism enterprise and marketing should form different strategies according to the different travel market segment behaviour. Meanwhile, the promotion activities will affect and restrict the travel behaviour of tourists. For today's tourism marketing strategy, it is vital to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage through in-depth analysis of touristic behaviour.

### 2.5.2 Economic and social value

Although one single tourist is negligible to the economy and society, when tourists' number increased in a large amount, especially when they have a certain regular or collective trend, the effect on both the economy and society will be obvious. Firstly, when the preference of large numbers of tourists changes in the same direction, this change will affect the market balance and market prosperity. Secondly, with the development of productivity and income, the demands of tourists would be changed regularly. Thirdly, the tourism source and productivity of any different country has its own characters and traits and just as the socio-economy and culture differ, it is necessary that the government should form a rational strategy and to adjust the balance of demand and supply for the development of the macro-economy and society (Guo, 1999). All of these activities should be based on the research of tourists' behaviour.

### 2.5.3 The exploitation value of tourism destination

The development of tourism shows that the arrival of a large number of tourists will affect the tourism destination. Meanwhile, it will have an impact into the local society, economy and culture. The demand will stimulate the economic development of local community, will create more job opportunities, and will thus improve the lives of the residents (Guo, 1999). But an economic leakage is created because domestic supply alone will be unlikely to cope, and products have to be improved to satisfy increasing needs of tourists. Tourists spend money freely; such an influx of tourists will stimulate the local economy and create some unrealistic expectations (Saayman, 2005). On the other hand, if the local community does not realise that the expenditure of tourists is a long term capital resource, then an inaccurate price policy would be formed and thus affect the tourism development adversely (Guo, 1999). Tourism research will help to examine the effect of the income, and to meet the needs of tourists. Thus it will assist in developing a series of strategies to assure the sustainability of the destination.

### 2.5.4 A harmonious blend of marketing and planning

Planning is applied to determine the potential market; whilst marketing seeks the opportunity of development (Guo, 1999). Marketing research examines product market situation to formulate sound marketing strategies and policies. Market research is therefore a process of discovery which can be used to make market forecasts (Saayman, 2001a). Any increase in tourism market is according to the optimised marketing strategy; and this strategy is derived from omnidirectional planning, and from the determined target market. In the process of marketing, some effective external factors, such as increased competition and new tourism destinations should be fully considered. The principle of marketing is fixed, but the methods and instrument of promotion can be varied (Guo, 1999). Tourism development planning should include a series of promotional tactics and techniques in order to ensure the successful implementation of the whole plan.

### 2.5.5 Establish an integrated information system of travel behaviour research

Travel behaviour research is foundational for the exploitation of tourism destination and economic development. Therefore, the research should emphasise the utilisation required and should establish an integrated information system in order to provide the reference to differentiated tourism research. An information system is an important aspect of marketing research. A suitable information system can go a long way in dealing with the problem of lack of collaboration (Saayman, 2001a). Territorial difference is the base of the creation of travel behaviour. Generally speaking, tourists feel like moving to a place which is different to their usual habitude. Travel behaviour research should provide references and methods to encourage travel to this different region (Guo, 1999).

## 2.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the theoretical discussion is presented to create the framework for this study. Some limitations were put in place to bring focus to this part of the theoretical discussion. Understanding tourists' needs and the travel behaviour is the foundation of effective tourism marketing. Depending on the different emphasis, travel motivation, destination choice, traveller type, and marketing activities regarding behaviour research were discussed. The research of tourists' behaviour is important for marketing purposes. For today's tourism marketing strategies, it is significant that tourism enterprise and marketer form different strategies according to the different travel behaviours. A variety of research methods could be used according to the different conditions. From the discussion about the effective factors influencing travel behaviour, it was clear that the specific tourist market should be analysed according to the different background of the tourists.

# CHAPTER 3

# AN ANALYSIS OF CHINESE TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The People's Republic of China is situated in the eastern part of Asia. China has an area of 9.9 million square kilometres and a population of 1.3 billion people, which makes China not only the largest country in Asia but also the country with the most inhabitants in the world. China has 15 neighbouring countries on land that include Russian Federation, Mongolia, Japan, Philippines, Korea, North Korea, Thailand, and India (Figure 3.1). China has 23 provinces, five autonomous regions, four municipalities directly under the central government and two special administrative regions. Thus there are 34 administrative units at provincial level within China.

China has defined three major economic regions. They are: the Beijing and Tianjin belt; the Yangtze River Delta which covers Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang; the Pearl River Delta which include Guangdong. In addition there is the special administrative region of Hong Kong and Macao. Traditionally, China was an agricultural society. In the past 50 years, as part of the reform and opening up policy, the Chinese society has undergone profound changes which result from the processes of transforming a traditional society to a modern society; an agricultural society to an industrial society; a process of transforming the system of planned economy to the system of socialist market economy. This transformation has found its expression on the changes in the structure of social stratum (WTO, 2003). Both the "China Economy Almanac" and "China Population Statistics Almanac" have indicated that the number of agriculture workers has greatly decreased. The upgrading of many enterprises and the adoption of

new technology has turned some former manual workers into modern technology users who have become "upwardly mobile" and members of the middle stratum of the society. A middle class is appearing and is beginning to take shape (WTO, 2003). According to a survey by the National Statistical Bureau in 2001, people of mid-level income constitute 10% of the urban population. People of middle level income would be expected to spend their money on houses, cars, regular travel and other social activities to meet their growing cultural or spiritual demands in addition to their daily expenses. They spend more money on higher-grade commodities. Another survey carried out in October 2000 by the Social Survey Institution of China (SSIC) in Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Guangdong and Wuhan, shows that the income of a family has a direct impact on the frequency of their travel (WTO, 2003).

**Figure 3.1: Map of China (Travel China Guide, 2006)**

From 1991 to 1998, the Chinese economy has seen rapid development with the average annual GDP growth rate at 12%. From 1995 to 1999, the annual average per capita spending rose from 100 US Dollars to 392 US Dollars. In 2000, the per capita GDP was over 7,000 Yuan, which equals 840-850 US Dollars (WTO, 2003). The consumption structure of both the rural and urban residents has made obvious changes. The proportion of spending on culture, education, tourism, recreation and sports is rising. In 2001, Beijing was elected to host the Olympic Game in 2008, and China joined the World Trade Organisation (WTO). All these are anticipated to have a favourable impact on the development of China's economy and on private consumption. The consumption confidence index rose to 98.1 in November 2001, an increase of 2.6 percentage points (CNTA, 2002).

Because of cultural background, Chinese tourists showed a specific travel according to previous research. The aim of this chapter is to indicate the important market value of Chinese tourists due to the rapid development of the Chinese outbound tourism market. Particularly, Beijing citizens showed a strong tendency in participate in the outbound tourism market.

## 3.2 AN ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISM

Chinese outbound tourism has been developing at an accelerating pace in accordance with the relaxation of policy, the degree of economic growth and the improvement of the general living standard of the Chinese people. To meet the increasing demand for outbound travel of Chinese citizens, and to align with the trend of expanding international cooperation, the Chinese government has approved more destinations for travel by Chinese citizens. By March 2006, 81 countries have achieved Approved Destination Status (ADS) by China. China has become a quickly growing and new business generating market for outbound tourism in Asia (CNTA, 2006).

Chinese outbound tourism is in the preparatory stage before high growth development (WTO, 1995). World Tourism Organisation has forecast that the average annual growth rate of Chinese outbound tourism will be 12.5% from 1995 to 2020, which is three times the average growth rate of the world in the same period. China will have 100 million outbound passengers in 2020, the fourth largest source of tourists in the world (WTO, 1995).

### 3.2.1 The prospects of outbound tourism

In the past 12 years, the total figure of Chinese citizens travelling abroad was over 130 million, with an average growth rate of 27.9%. By the end of 2004, the number of total outbound destination travellers from China reached 28.85 million with an increasing rate of 42.69% when compared to that of 2003. The annual increase rate reached 20% between 1993 and 2004 (Figure 3.2) (CNTA, 2005).

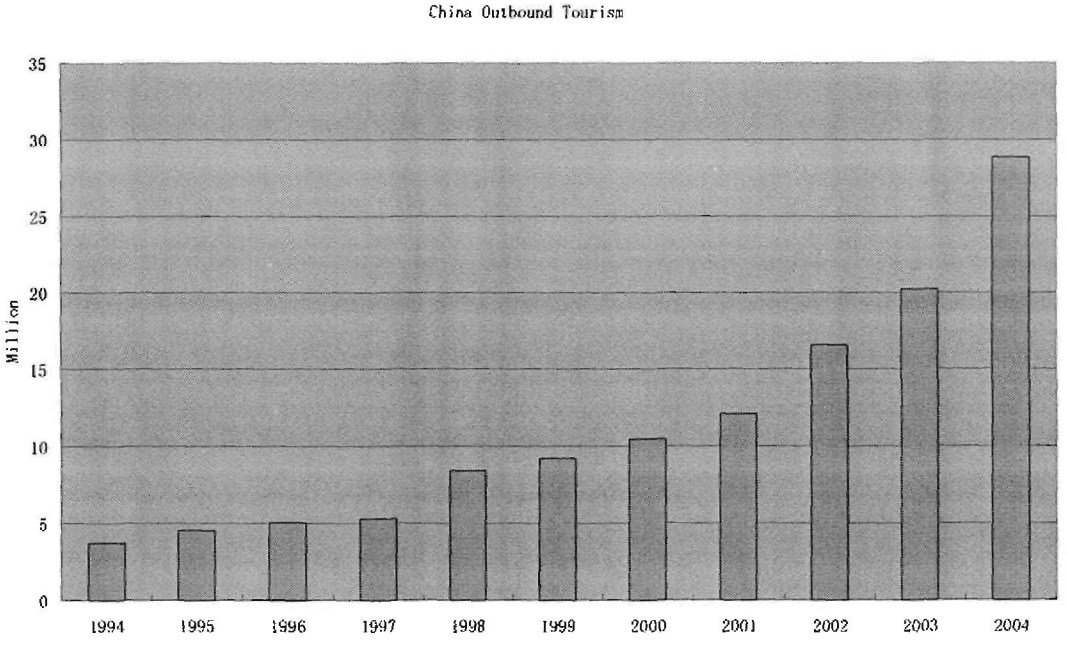



**Figure 3.2: The development of China outbound tourism (CNTA, 2005)**

In the coming 20 years, the standard of living of the Chinese people will rise further and the concept and modes of consumption of the people will be modernised. Their

purpose of travel will become further diversified. In addition to general sightseeing, demands for beach tours, leisure tours in the cities, cultural tours, fitness tours, incentive travel or taking part in large-scale cultural and art festivals or sports competitions are expected to grow quickly. More and more families make procession for outbound travel into their annual budgets. It is likely that in the 20 years to come, China's outbound tourism market will become mature (WTO, 2003).

According to the statistics published by CNTA, in 2000, China's outbound figure exceeded 10 million, with a growth rate of 15.4% over the previous year. At present, the peak season for outbound travel is the three "golden weeks", that is, Spring Festival (usually in January and February), Labour Day (which begins on 1st May) and National Day (which begins on 1st October). Many people, especially entire families, usually take outbound travel vacations during these holidays. Currently too many people try to travel abroad during those times; as a result, some of them are unable to travel because the outbound air ticket or tours are fully booked.

China has already introduced paid holidays for the working people in order to stimulate the development of the economy and to encourage people to travel frequently. Presently, holidays with pay will help a large volume of passengers to travel at the peak season. Thus, the Chinese outbound tourists may go further and stay longer in foreign countries, from one week, two weeks or even longer (WTO, 2003).

### 3.2.2 *Outbound travel policies*

The most important factor that determines the development of outbound tourism of China is the policy of the government. The year of 2000, at the turn of the new century, was a key year for China's tourism industry to inherit the past and to usher in the future. The principles and policies put forward in the year played a key and guiding role in development of the tourism industry (CNTA, 2001). In order to enhance the cooperation between China and the rest of the world, and to promote the economic development in China, the world should have a better understanding of

China and the Chinese people should know and understand more of the rest of the world. China's entry into the World Trade Organisation will facilitate the further opening-up of the country. Restrictions concerning the interflow of passengers between China and other countries will gradually be eased and some of the restrictions and regulations will be repealed, step by step. In the coming 20 years, the Chinese government will have adjusted its relevant policies and further loosened the restrictions on outbound travel (WTO, 2003).

The Chinese outbound policy has often been referred to with the explanation that China is a developing country and therefore must first develop internally and protect the interests of its domestic industries. In terms of further opening-up of outbound tourism, the Ministry of Public Security will be a restraining force. The policy can be characterised as a mix of containment and slow opening-up with the purpose of:

- Protecting the national tourism sector, and
- Limiting the outflow of foreign currency.

To meet these purposes, the following main rules are in operation:

- Chinese tour operators are not allowed to organise or promote tourism groups to overseas destinations that have not been granted Approved Destination Status (ADS);
- Foreign tour operators are not allowed to promote outbound tourism services;
- Foreign airlines are limited in both their frequency and capacities by means of restrictive air agreements (CNTA, 2004a).

### 3.2.3 Approved Destination Status (ADS)

The ADS-system is based on a bilateral tourism agreement whereby a government allows Chinese tourists to travel to its territory. The restriction regarding the promotion of tourism to non-ADS countries has an effect, in practice, only on group tourism. An individual Chinese passport holder, given the financial resources and visa,

has no restriction on travelling abroad, as long as the country of destination issues individual visas for tourists (WTO, 2003).

The ADS-system was introduced in 1990, when agreements were made with Hong Kong and Macao. In 1997, the first ADS-agreement was signed up with Australia, a non-"affiliated" country. Currently, 81 countries have made ADS-agreements with China (Table 3.1). Leisure travel is the main purpose of the trips to countries that have ADS agreements with China. These countries are officially approved by the Chinese government as travel destinations for organised leisure tours (Laitinen, 2004).

**Table 3.1: ADS Countries (CNTA, 2006)**

| List | Country | Start-up Time | Province for opening |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Hong Kong | 1983 | Whole country |
| 2 | Macao | 1983 | Whole country |
| 3 | Thailand | 1988 | Whole country |
| 4 | Singapore | 1990 | Whole country |
| 5 | Malaysia | 1990 | Whole country |
| 6 | Philippines | 1992 | Whole country |
| 7 | Australia | 1999 | Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, |
| | | 2004-7 | Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Jiaangsu, Zhejiang, Chongqing |
| 8 | New Zealand | 1999 | Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou |
| | | 2004-7 | Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Jiaangsu,Zhejiang, Chongqing |
| 9 | R.O. Koren | 1998 | Whole country |
| 10 | Japan | 2000 | Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou |
| | | 2004-9-15 | Liaoning, Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Jiaangsu, Zhejiang, |
| | | 2005-7-25 | Whole country |
| 11 | Viet Nam | 2000 | Whole country |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 12 | Cambodia | 2000 | Whole country |
| 13 | Myanmar | 2000 | Whole country |
| 14 | Brunei | 2000 | Whole country |
| 15 | Nepal | 2002 | Whole country |
| 16 | Indonesia | 2002 | Whole country |
| 17 | Malta | 2002 | Whole country |
| 18 | Turkey | 2002 | Whole country |
| 19 | Egypt | 2002 | Whole country |
| 20 | Germany | 2003 | Whole country |
| 21 | India | 2003 | Whole country |
| 22 | Maldives | 2003 | Whole country |
| 23 | Sri Lanka | 2003 | Whole country |
| 24 | South Africa | 2003 | Whole country |
| 25 | Croatia | 2003 | Whole country |
| 26 | Hungary | 2003 | Whole country |
| 27 | Pakistan | 2003 | Whole country |
| 28 | Cuba | 2003 | Whole country |
| 29 | Greece | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 30 | France | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 31 | The Netherlands | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 32 | Belgium | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 33 | Luxembourg | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 34 | Portugal | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 35 | Spain | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 36 | Italy | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 37 | Austria | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 38 | Finland | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 39 | Sweden | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 40 | Czech | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 41 | Estonia | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 42 | Latvia | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 43 | Lithuania | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 44 | Poland | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 45 | Slovenia | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 46 | Slovakia | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 47 | Senegal | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 48 | Denmark | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 49 | Iceland | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 50 | Ireland | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 51 | Norway | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 52 | Romania | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 53 | Switzerland | 2004-9 | Whole country |
| 54 | Liechtenstein | 2004-9 | Whole country |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 55 | Ethiopia | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 56 | Zimbabwe | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 57 | Tanzania | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 58 | Mauritius | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 59 | Tunisia | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 60 | Seychelles | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 61 | Kenya | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 62 | Zambia | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 63 | Jordan | 2004-12-15 | Whole country |
| 64 | Northern Mariana Is. | 2005-4-1 | Whole country |
| 65 | Fiji | 2005-5-1 | Whole country |
| 66 | Vanuatu | 2005-5-1 | Whole country |
| 67 | U.K. | 2005-7-15 | Whole country |
| 68 | Chile | 2005-7-15 | Whole country |
| 69 | Jamaica | 2005-7-15 | Whole country |
| 70 | Russia | 2005-8-25 | Whole country |
| 71 | Brazil | 2005-9-15 | Whole country |
| 72 | Mexico | 2005-9-15 | Whole country |
| 73 | Peru | 2005-9-15 | Whole country |
| 74 | Antigua and Barbuda | 2005-9-15 | Whole country |
| 75 | Barbados | 2005-9-15 | Whole country |
| 76 | Laos | 2005-9-15 | Whole country |
| 77 | Mongolia | 2006-3-1 | Whole country |
| 78 | Tonga | 2006-3-1 | Whole country |
| 79 | Grenada | 2006-3-1 | Whole country |
| 80 | Bahamas | 2006-3-1 | Whole country |
| 81 | St. Vincent | 2006-3-1 | Whole country |

The procedure of negotiation with China on ADS-agreements is of interest in order to explain the obstacles, especially for Schengen countries, in obtaining ADS. The procedure can be described as following:

- First Round

1. The applicant country sends an application letter to CNTA (China National Tourism Administration).
2. CNTA discuss with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Public Security.
3. A report is sent to the State Council.

4. Approved by the State Council.
5. Announcement of approval to the applicant country.

- Second Round

6. Discussion of details of the agreement.

7. A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) is agreed and signed.

8. The agreement is final and operational (WTO, 2003).

Despite more and more countries being awarded approved destination status, technically China still lacks the basic economic structure for the rapid development of its outbound market. Officially, the policy of "the expenses of 'outbound travel' have to be borne by traveller's overseas relatives and friends" is still valid, even though it is no longer the common practice for outbound travel. Aware of these developments, two new regulations came into force in 1997, clearly stipulating "at own expense" rather than "at the expense of overseas relatives and friends". They are "the Provision Regulation on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense" drafted by the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) and "The Means of Foreign Exchange for Private Outbound Purpose" drafted by China's National Foreign Exchange Administration (Guo, 2002).

Under these regulations, a first-time outbound traveller can buy a maximum of 2,000 US dollars at the official exchange rate. As Dou (2000) of the State Tourism Administration has pointed out, these regulations are the first Chinese government regulations governing outbound travel at the citizen's expense. In essence, they legalise the practice of outbound travel at "own expense" and create a basic structure on which the market and industry can develop. "It marks the overall opening of the Chinese outbound travel market" (Dou, 2000).

### 3.2.4 The characteristics of Chinese tourists

The impact of an individual Chinese traveller may be more like that of a group of travellers. A Chinese traveller makes purchases not only for their own family, but also for a whole group of friends, neighbours and relatives (Bailey, 1994). This is supported by the WTO (2000) report on growing markets. According to the data of WTO, the expenditure of Chinese outbound tourists rose from US dollar 2,797 billion in 1994 to US dollar 10,864 billion in 1999. If one divides the outbound expenditure of US dollar 10,894 billion in 1999 by 9.23 million outbound visitors the same year, then per person spending is US dollar 1176.73 (Table 3.2).

**Table 3.2: Chinese outbound travel expenditure (WTO, 2003)**

| Year | Expenditure (Million USD) | Change |
|---|---|---|
| 1994 | 2,797 | |
| 1995 | 3,036 | 8.5 |
| 1996 | 3,688 | 21.5 |
| 1997 | 4,474 | 21.3 |
| 1998 | 9,205 | 105.7 |
| 1999 | 10,864 | 18.0 |
| 2000 | 131.14 | 20.7 |
| 2001 | 139.09 | 6.3 |
| 2002 | 153.98 | 210.1 |

Potentially then, Chinese tourists could be high spenders for the following reasons (WTO, 2003):

- Chinese who hold a private passport can also apply for a visa in non–ADS countries. The regulation regarding ADS countries is mostly relevant for group tourism (WTO, 2003).
- When Chinese go on their first overseas trip they have often been waiting to do so

for a long time and are therefore willing to spend a lot.

- A Chinese proverb says 'economise at home, but take enough money en route'.
- Incentive travellers are growing in number, and such tourists have a higher ability to spend.
- Chinese are becoming more sophisticated, and are demanding 4- or 5-star accommodation, for example.
- Shopping is a popular activity with Chinese, especially for souvenirs to bring home to friends and relatives (WTO, 2003; Chen, 1998; Wen Pan & Laws, 2002).

Currently, most outbound holiday tourism from China is in the form of an all-inclusive coach tour (Wen Pan & Laws, 2002); free and independent travel (FIT) is currently very limited. Chinese holiday travellers want to experience "outstanding scenery, freshness and space". Other important attributes sought are safety and cleanliness (Scandinavian Tourist Board, 2002; Asia Pacific Foundation of Canada, 2002).

The Chinese people are very interested in the "outside world" and want to learn more about other cultures, especially Western culture. Chinese visitors to Australia reportedly wish to experience beaches, natural attractions and cultural heritage (Wen Pan & Laws, 2002). Despite this interest in foreign cultures, Chinese rarely speak English, and they also prefer to eat Chinese food, although Western food is occasionally experienced as part (sometimes a challenging part) of a specific cultural experience (Wen Pan & Laws, 2002). Chinese place great emphasis on status, which leads them to visit the most popular attractions within a destination (Asia Pacific Foundation of Canada, 2002), and to document these visits by the extensive taking of photographs (Wong & Lau, 2001).

Chinese people travel in Asia mainly for business reasons and for leisure travel. Business travel focuses mainly on countries that have not been designated by Chinese government as "tourism liberalisation countries".

In 1993, 61% of all outbound travel was for business purposes. In 1994 there was a decrease in business travel due to government criticism of outbound travel. This caused the private travel abroad to increase (Chen, 1998). From 1990 to 1999, overseas Chinese travellers increased at an average annual rate of 20%. Table 3.3 presents the incremental numbers over the ten years from 1990.

**Table 3.3: Outbound Chinese Travellers, 1990-1999 (in millions) (Source: CNTA, 1991-2000)**

| Type / Year | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Official Travel | N/A | 1.25 | 1.74 | 2.28 | 2.09 | 2.47 | 2.65 | 2.88 | 5.24 | 4.97 |
| Private Travel | N/A | 0.88 | 1.19 | 1.46 | 1.64 | 2.05 | 2.41 | 2.44 | 3.19 | 4.27 |
| Total | 0.98 | 2.13 | 2.93 | 3.74 | 3.73 | 4.52 | 5.06 | 5.32 | 8.43 | 9.24 |

**Table 3.4: Percentage Change of Outbound Chinese Travellers on Previous Year, 1990-1999 (Source: CNTA, 1991-2000)**

| Type / Year | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Official | N/A | N/A | 39.2 | 31.0 | -8.3 | 18.2 | 7.25 | 8.68 | 81.9 | -5.15 |
| Private | N/A | N/A | 35.2 | 22.7 | 12.3 | 25.0 | 17.6 | 1.24 | 30.7 | 33.8 |
| Total | N/A | 117.8 | 7.6 | 27.6 | -0.26 | 21.2 | 11.9 | 5.13 | 58.5 | 9.61 |

During this period, the number of Chinese overseas travellers increased more than five times. With official travel representing the majority of travellers, however, private travel was increasing at a much faster and steadier average annual rate, 22.56% (Table 3.4). The total increase of 2000 for private travel was 178.54%, while that of the official travel was only 172.8%. Again, business travel is usually combined with lots of leisure activities. Leisure travel is the main purpose of the trip to countries that have the ADS agreement with China (Chen, 1998).

As the Chinese outbound market develops, the desired travel destinations also change. Short-duration shopping trips within South-East Asia are popular especially in groups from Hong Kong. The main destinations for mainland Chinese are Macao and Hong Kong. In 2002, the top 10 destinations for Chinese travelling outside of China were: Hong Kong, Macao, Thailand, Russia, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the United States, Singapore, the Democratic Republic of Korea, and Australia (CNTA, 2004b). The studies also show that the most desired destinations for Chinese travellers are the western countries (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

## 3.3 PEOPLE LIVING IN THE CITY OF BEIJING

Beijing is a municipality directly under the Central Government and is the capital of the PRC, an area of 16,800 square kilometres with a population of 18 million. It is not only the nation's political centre, but also its cultural, scientific and educational centre, and a key transportation hub.

### 3.3.1 The economy of Beijing

During the Chinese planned economy strategies, every five year was clustered to a period of a plan according the relevant situation. The ninth Five-year Plan period (1996-2000) was important. During that period, Beijing established the strategy for its development and made major breakthroughs in implementing it. This period featured positive efforts by Beijing to probe ways of developing the capital into a modern international metropolitan city, and its success is constantly enhancing its capability of performing its due functions as the national capital, and in improving its international status. The period witnessed changes of great and historic importance in Beijing's social and economic life. Remarkable achievements were made in the municipality's economic development, significant progress was reported in the municipality's urban construction, and the target of enabling the local population to become more affluent was attained earlier than originally planned. In 2000, Beijing generated 246.05 billion Yuan in GDP, meaning an average of US$2,700 for each

member of the local population. Good results were achieved in redistribution to the economic structure. By 2000, work had basically been completed in building up the economic structure featuring an order of priority for the third, second and first industries with the added value generated by the third industry accounting for 58.9% of Beijing's GDP (Yu, 2004).

Significant improvements were recorded in the quality and proficiency of the local economic growth during the ninth Five-year Plan period. Initial success was achieved in gearing urban development to a combination of urban construction with urban management. Historical changes took place in urban infrastructure construction. As a result, restriction on urban development by inadequate urban infrastructure facilities was greatly alleviated. During these five years, urban infrastructure construction tasks involving a total of 17.3 US billion Dollars in capital investment were accomplished, 2.8 times the figure for the previous five-year plan period (Beijing International, 2006). Large numbers of modern public buildings were completed and put into use. The quality of the municipality's environment improved and changes kept taking place in the outlook of both the urban and rural sectors of the municipality. The various reforms were carried to still greater depths and breakthroughs were made in reforms in some areas. The task of building up a system of socialist market economy was accomplished.

The ninth Five-year Plan period also saw new developments in opening Beijing's economy generally, at all levels and in a broad range of spheres. International economic, scientific, technological, educational and cultural exchanges became increasingly activated. Beijing successfully hosted a series of international and domestic activities, by means of which it showed the world its new outlook in striving for development. The period also saw vigorous developments of various social undertakings, making Beijing as the top city of the nation in the level of integrated social development. New progress was reported in work to promote socialist moral

standards and in development of the socialist democratic legal system (Beijing International, 2006).

### 3.3.2 Outbound tourism from Beijing

In recent years, the two outstanding demands of Beijing residents are for housing and for tourism or cultural activities. According to the statistics of Beijing Capital International Airport, the Capital Airport handled about 236000 planes safely in 2003, over 23 million "passenger flights" (BCIA, 2004). Nearly ten thousands of Beijing tourists headed to Europe during the so called *"Golden Week"* of the National Day Holidays in 2004 (1-5$^{th}$ October), proving once again that Beijing was the centre of Chinese outbound travel (Xinhua Net, 2005). Figure 3.3 shows the increasing trend of outbound tourists of people living in the city of Beijing. According to the data from Beijing Holiday Office, the number of Beijing residents for outbound travel is increased by 40% per year.

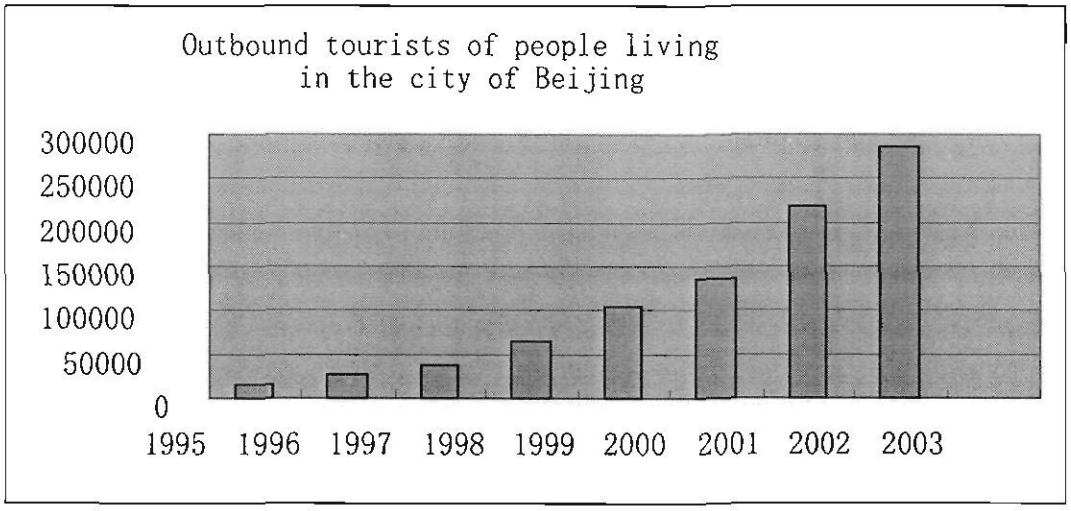



**Figure 3.3: Outbound tourists of Beijing (Du & Li, 2005)**

During the holiday, besides three hot points, i.e.: mountain climbing, far-views seeing, and folk-custom travelling, the recreation fashions of Beijing citizens have developed over a wider variety, such as visiting relatives and friends; recreation and fitness;

picnic and exploration of the wild. Self-drive travel has become the fundamental mode for travelling of many citizens.

The sample survey made by Beijing Tourism Bureau and Beijing Statistics Information Advisory Centre indicates that 98% of the tourists are satisfied with tourism in Beijing during the national holiday of 2001, which is increased by 2% compared to the previous period. The result of the survey showed that the proportion of outbound tourism in Beijing residents is 3.1%. The proportion of people who plan for outbound travel is 4.4% (WTO, 2003). Among the outbound passengers, the young and middle-aged employees tend to have their outbound tours in the peak season, while senior citizens prefer to the off-season because of the cheaper prices and better service. To the outbound passengers, it is more convenient to travel during tours of 8, 10, 12, or even 15 days duration in the Spring Festival. The majority of Beijing residents join tours handled by travel agencies when they undertake outbound trips. On average the household size in these tours is 1.5 persons. The averaged length of stay abroad is 6.6 days and the spending per person per day is $150 (WTO, 2003).

During the national holiday of 2004, the outbound travel of Beijing citizens via travel agencies creates the new peak record again, with 23,000 persons, which increased by 40% compared to the previous period (Du & Li, 2005).

Yu (2004) indicated that the top ten destinations for Beijing citizens are: Hong Kong, Thailand, Macao, Singapore, Malaysia, Korea, Australia, Japan, New Zealand, and Philippines.

There are several trends of Beijing outbound travellers that should be noted:

- The proportion of mass tours decreased.
- Fully independent tours became more popular.
- South-east Asia market is steady;
- Europe market is mature (Yu, 2004).

### 3.3.3 Travel behaviour of Beijing citizens

With the improving income, the people living in the city of Beijing are paying more and more attention to their quality of life. According to the statistics bureau of the city, the per capita consumption expenditure grew 15.3 per cent in the first half of this year, a rise of 18.1 per cent on inflation-adjusted basis, topping ten major Chinese cities.

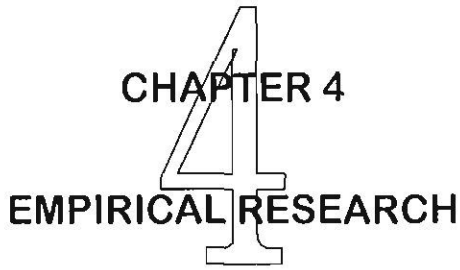
Along with a steady increase of incomes, the consumption spending of the citizens also increased. The first half of 2006 saw the per-capita consumption expenditure rise to 619 US Dollars, ranking the second. The real-term growth rate was 18.1 per cent, 1.9 per cent higher than the income growth, and 18 per cent higher than that of the same period of the previous year, leaping to the top of the ten cities from the bottom position.

This rapid growth of income and spending has brought about a more rational consumption pattern. The proportion of money spend on food, clothing and household appliances continued to drop while that on housing, health, transportation, communication, entertainment and education had risen. Expenditure on health, transportation and communication, entertainment and education as well as other cultural items stood at 35.9 per cent of the total spending, thus taking the first place. Also, consumption on service items (that is, non-commodity items in culture and life) registered at 178 US Dollars, occupying the second place (Li, 2002). According to Du and Li (2005), 72.1% Beijing people chose a travel service company to arrange their outbound tour. Further, 49.7% Beijing people believed that though the expenditure on outbound travel is high, it is not vital for the family. 71.9% Beijing people would like to travel with their family, the favourite season is, fairly obviously, school holidays. The winter in Beijing is very cold, so most people choose a warm country as a tourism destination, during Spring Festival (Du & Li, 2005).

## 3.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented information on the development of the Chinese outbound tourism. This was done by providing a framework for understanding the characteristics of Chinese outbound tourism. In this chapter, Chinese outbound tourism was analysed according to the development of Chinese economy and tourism policy. Despite its early stage of the development, China's outbound travel market has grown in size, value and sophistication since the middle of the 1980s. It has now become a valuable market for global tourism. As the nation's political centre, the travel trend of Beijing citizen shows the significant market value to the global tourism market.

As one of the largest tourism growth markets China presents an enormous opportunity for the South Africa Tourism. The study will help to identify the current Chinese outbound market, which can be used for further development of the destination positioning of tourism industry. People living in the city of Beijing have specific travel behaviour and show a significant improvement in outbound travel. Further research need to be conducted to obtain more information about Beijing tourists.




## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to reflect the results of the empirical research. This chapter focuses on the research methods used to determine the profile, and travel behaviour, of people living in the city of Beijing, China.

To fulfil the aim of this chapter the following objectives were framed:

- To discover the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists;
- To determine the profile of Beijing outbound tourists;
- To make suggestions for marketing and product development so as to improve South Africa's attraction to Chinese tourists.

The secondary data in this research project was used for building up the theoretical basis for this study. The information needed for the framework of the study included the concept of travel behaviour, motivation, market segmentation, market positioning, Chinese outbound market, and Beijing outbound market. Information for the theoretical discussion was mainly collected from the following sources: libraries, National and International organisations, conference papers, university dissertations, textbooks, journals, electrical journals, and web-sites.

The goal of this study is to determine and analyse the travel behaviour of the Beijing outbound tourists, and their views on South Africa as a tourism destination. To accomplish this, the researcher decided that empirical research designed from the quantitative perspective would be the best method. The nature of the empirical

research focused on the travel of Chinese tourists and required the collection of primary data from the target population. Hence, a survey focused on the travel motivation, travel habit, and image of South Africa was conducted during October 2006. The 1st of October is the National Day of China. Usually there is a seven day long holiday for Chinese from the 1st of October to the 7th. The survey was undertaken in October because the sample population was larger than it would otherwise have been the case.

## 4.2 SAMPLING

The target market for the survey was Chinese outbound tourists travelling from Beijing. It is difficult to determine the number of Chinese tourists from Beijing that travel abroad. Thus quantitative data was collected by fieldworkers at the Beijing International Airport, by intercept survey at the airport. Beijing Capital International Airport is located in northeast of Beijing, the capital of People's Republic of China. The data was processed using the SPSS programme and 2-way frequency analysis supported by the statistical service at the North West University.

The target population was those Beijing tourists who had the overseas travel experience from all age groups, genders, occupations and income levels. A survey using a self-administrated structured questionnaire was conducted at the Beijing International Airport to collect the primary data from the Chinese tourists. The questionnaire was compiled in co-operation with Prof. M Saayman, from the North West University, who is the supervisor of this study. The content covered by the questionnaire included demographic detail, tourists profile, the preference of tourists, the different perception about South Africa between people who had visited to South Africa and those who had not. The questionnaire was designed to assist the researcher to identify the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists. Due to simplicity and cost constraints, convenience sampling was deployed. Convenience sampling is a form of non-probability sampling method. Sample members are chosen on the basis of being

readily available and willing to complete the questionnaire. Thus selection is done on the basis of convenience (Tustin *et al,* 2005).

In order to ensure the validity of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted in September at Air China Travel Service Ltd in 2006. The pilot test targeted those Chinese tourists who have already visited South Africa and was organised by Air China Travel Service Ltd.

The tourists were asked to complete the questionnaire and give comments and make suggestions on the questionnaire. Attention was given to the time requirement for completion and on the clarity of the questions. Two screening questions were asked namely: "Are you a Beijing resident?" "Have you had experience of overseas trips?" The first question was to ensure that the respondents were residents of Beijing. The second question was to ensure that the answer was collected from outbound tourists.

Due to the budget and time constraints, 762 valid questionnaires were completed and used in this survey. All 762 valid questionnaires were captured in SPSS for analysis.

## 4.3 RESULTS: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The questionnaire is divided into four sections. In the first three sections, a quantitative analysis of the survey of Chinese tourists that addresses the demographic detail, outbound tourist profile and preference issues from the perspective of the respondent is presented. In the last section, mean rankings of questions are conducted to better understand travel purpose, image and information obtained of South Africa.

### 4.3.1 Gender

As is shown in Figure 4.1, the proportion of female tourists is slightly higher than male tourists.

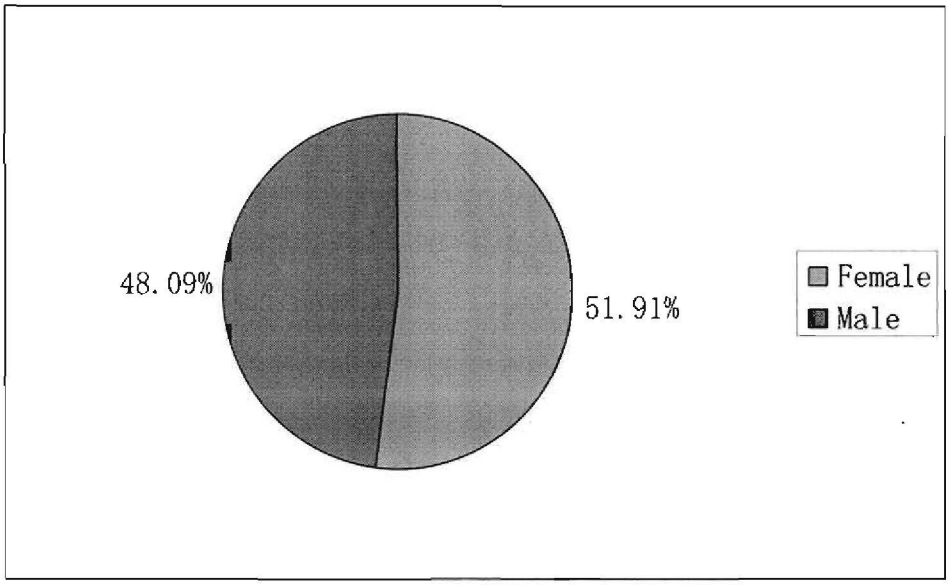



**Figure 4.1: Gender**

### 4.3.2 Age

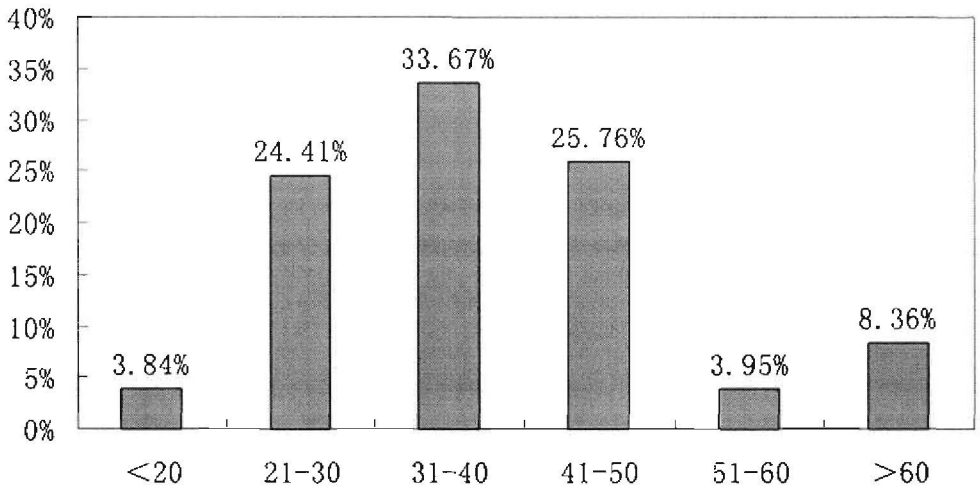



**Figure 4.2: Age**

The data was divided into five parts, below 20 years, 21-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, and 60+. It is clear that the majority of respondents are between 21-50 years old (see Figure 4.2). The group of 31-40 is the highest of all groups, the proportion is 33.67%. It is remarkable that 8.36% tourists are over 60. Most Chinese tourism operators have already noticed the increase in number of aging people and have begun to promote

their products to this market. The series tourism product named "the red setting sun" aimed at aging people is very popular in China. During the survey, several retired persons asked about the "the red setting sun" to South Africa.

### 4.3.3 Marital status

From Figure 4.3 it is clear that most respondents are married (53.70%). Unmarried people formed a quite high percentage (41.65%) in this section. Nowadays in China, more and more youngsters begin to think of marriage only after obtaining development in their careers. Hence, the average age of being married is tending towards the thirties, perhaps even the forties. These unmarried people with high income should be targeted by tourism marketers.

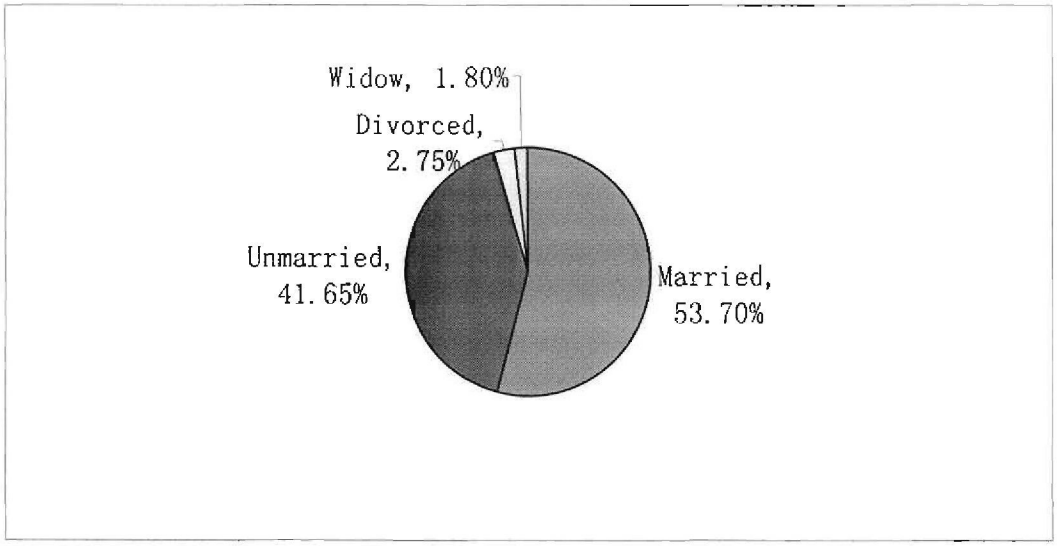



**Figure 4.3: Marital status**

### 4.3.4 Occupation

The occupation percentage is quite dispersed. As it shown in Table 4.1, the top three categories of occupation are administration (20.74%), clerk of company (14.44%), and civil service worker (16.00%).

**Table 4.1: Occupation**

| Occupation | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Professional | 7.12% |
| Administration | 20.74% |
| Technical | 9.49% |
| Clerk of company | 14.44% |
| Media | 2.89% |
| Sales person | 6.09% |
| Farmer | 1.75% |
| Civil Service worker | 16.00% |
| Student | 4.64% |
| Retired | 7.73% |
| Self-employed | 2.27% |
| Government officer | 6.81% |

### 4.3.5 Level of education

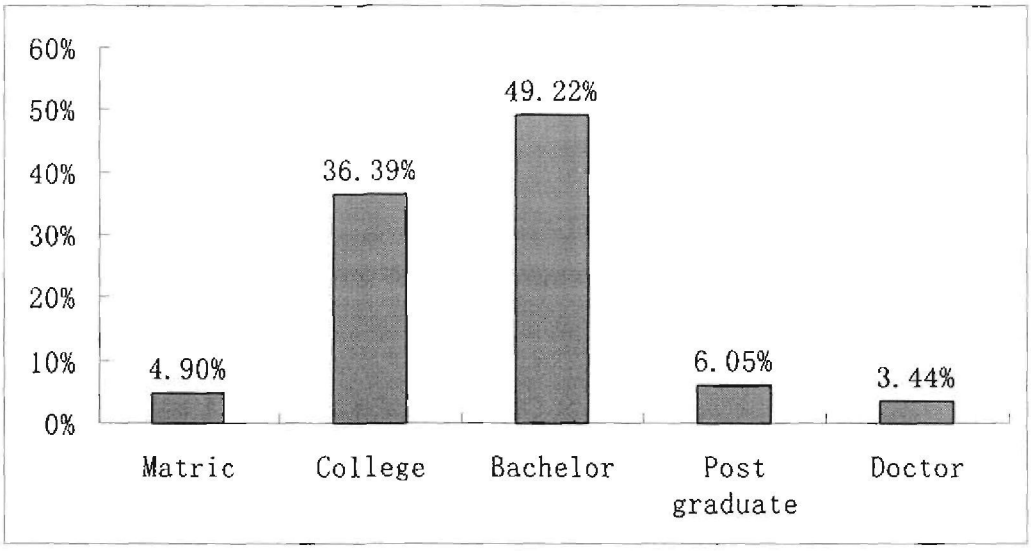



**Figure 4.4: Level of education**

Figure 4.4 illustrates that most of the respondents are well-educated with a degree. 49.22% respondents have a bachelor degree and 36.39% respondents were graduated from college.

### 4.3.6 Income per month

Figure 4.5 shows that 38.01% respondents earned 5001-10000 RMB per month, which equals 625-1328 US dollars per month. Such salary in China is higher than the average income of Beijing citiens in 2006 which is about 342 US dollars per month (Xinhua Net, 2007).

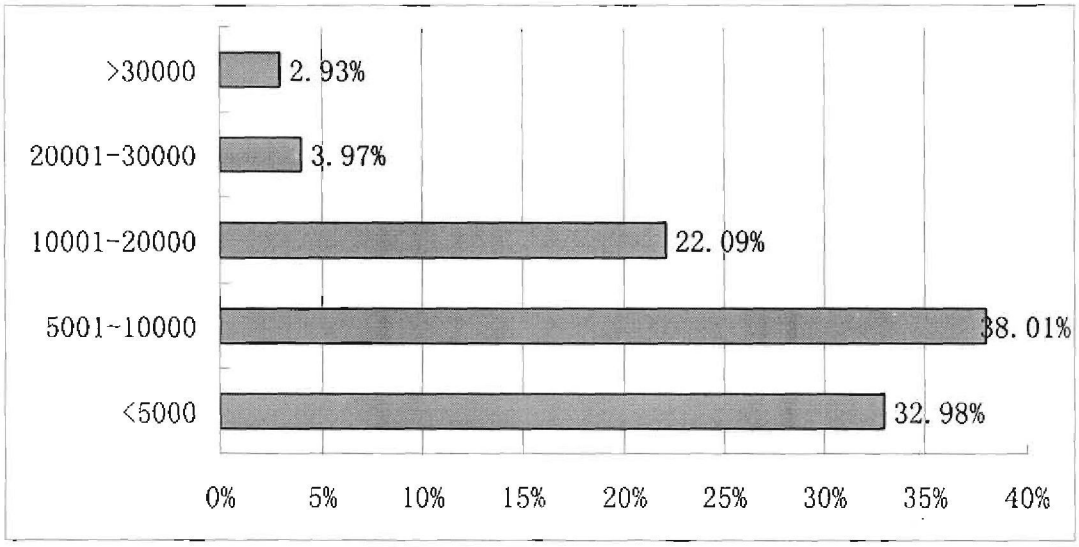



**Figure 4.5: Income per month**

### 4.3.7 Size of travelling group

Majority of respondents (36.6%) joined a quite large tourist group (more than 11 people) during previous travel (Table 4.2). Such groups are usually operated by a travel agency. It is clear that most Chinese enjoy travelling in groups. There is certainly comfort in numbers particularly when travelling in a country where both the customs and language are unfamiliar.

**Table 4.2: Size of travelling group**

| Group size | Percentage |
|---|---|
| 1 | 10.82% |
| 2 to 4 | 26.30% |
| 5 to 10 | 24.28% |
| 11+ | 36.60% |

### 4.3.8 Frequency of outbound travel

42.09% respondents indicated that they have visited another country at least once previously (Figure 4.6). From a tourism management perspective, it is necessary to maintain a high quality of service to persuade these repeat visits. As is shown in Table 4.5, 30.56% people have travelled 2-3 times and 27.35% people have travelled more than 4 times. Therefore 57% respondents have made an outbound trip before this time. The marketers need to seek opportunities to attract these tourists for repeat trips.

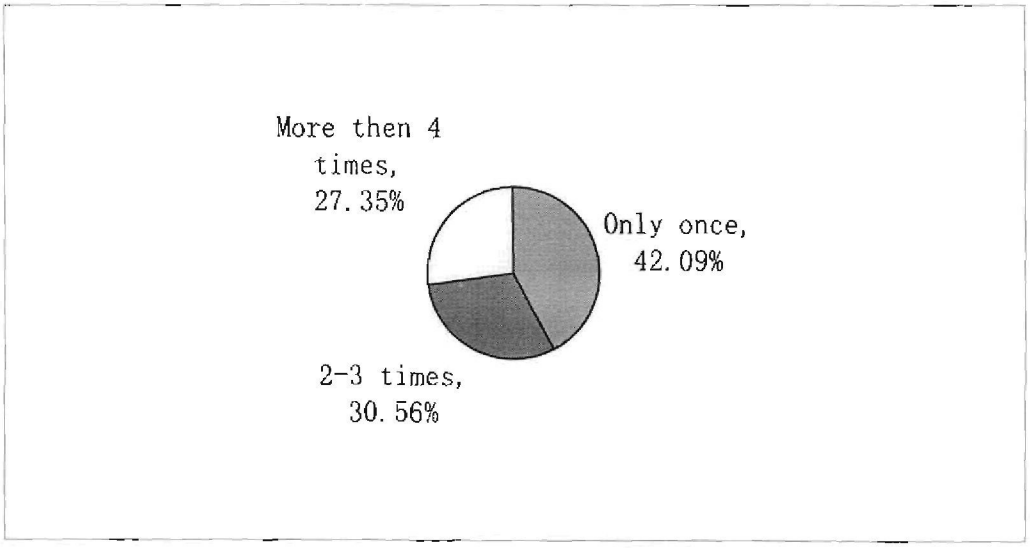



**Figure 4.6: Frequency of outbound travel**

### 4.3.9 Preference of travelling season

32.15% of respondents indicated that they would travel abroad at anytime if required (Figure 4.7). Apart from that, the most popular season to go aboard is the Golden holiday. This is also supported by the World Tourism Organisation in 2003. The three Golden holidays in China ($1^{st}$ -$7^{th}$ October, Spring Festival, and $1^{st}$ -$7^{th}$ May) are good seasons in South Africa. Especially Spring Festival, it is around January and February which is the coldest season in China. Most people choose a warm country as a tourism destination during Spring Festival (Du & Li, 2005). Countries in the southern hemisphere should not ignore this wide open door for sales opportunity.

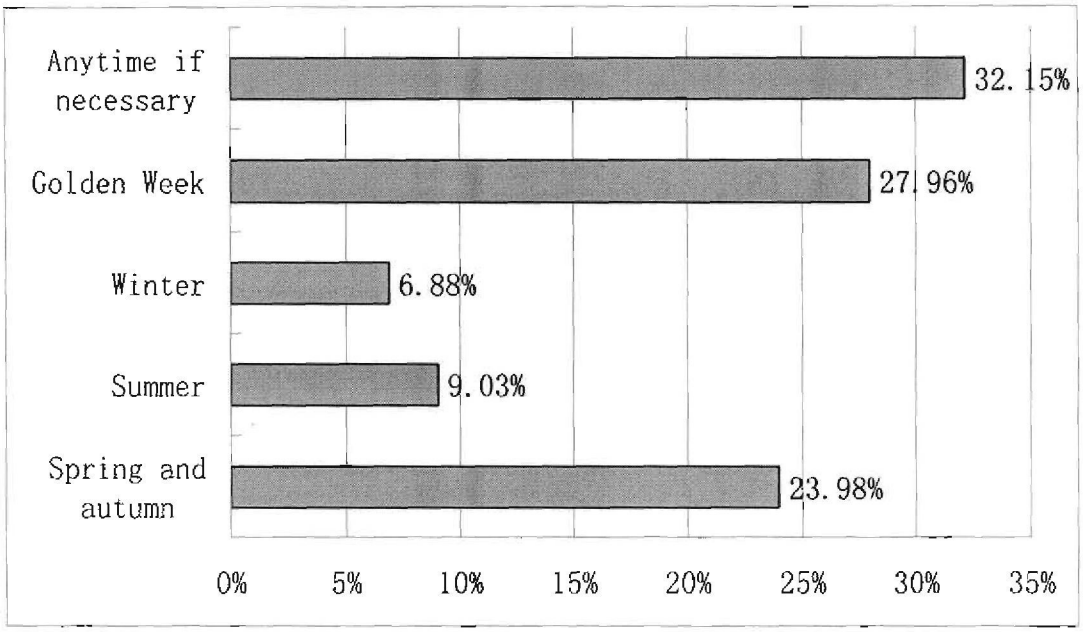



**Figure 4.7: Season**

### 4.3.10 The purpose of going abroad

Table 4.3 shows that the majority respondents travel abroad for relaxation and entertainment (53.06%). This is followed by business reasons (29.91%). Therefore the Chinese market as indicated by this survey has huge potential for the leisure and entertainment section of the destination tourism market.

**Table 4.3: The purpose of going abroad**

| The purpose of going abroad | Percentage |
|---|---|
| VFR | 9.28% |
| Business | 29.91% |
| Relaxation and entertainment | 53.06% |
| Study | 6.99% |
| Other please specify | 0.76% |

### 4.3.11 The type of travelling

From Table 4.4 it can be seen that most Chinese tourists prefer to join a group (53.65%) arranged by a travel company. As is shown in the size of travelling group (Table 4.4), most Chinese prefer travelling in groups. Such groups are usually

arranged by travel service companies. From another research study by Du and Li (2005), 72.1% of Beijing people chose a travel service company to arrange their outbound tour.

**Table 4.4: The type of travelling**

| Type of travelling | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Tour package | 53.65% |
| Backpack | 16.59% |
| Half-backpack | 15.38% |
| Fully independent traveller | 14.38% |

### 4.3.12 Travel companion

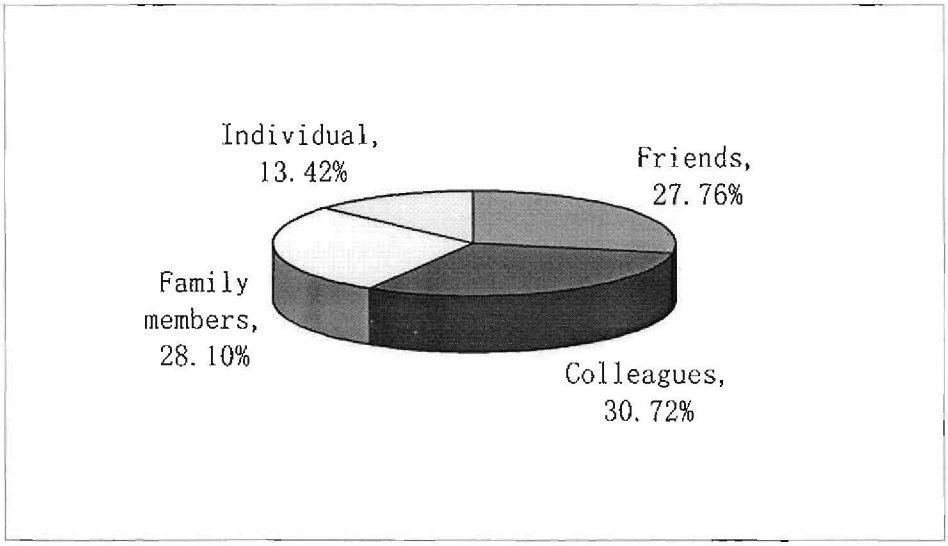



**Figure 4.8: Travel companion**

Figure 4.8 indicated that most respondents travel abroad with colleagues (30.72%), followed by family members (28.1%) and friends (27.76%).

### 4.3.13 Expenditure in foreign countries

The majority of Chinese tourists spend 5001-10000 RMB in another country (see Figure 4.9). That equals 625-1250 US Dollars or, approximately, R4000 to R8000.

This expenditure is mostly limited by the regulation that a first-time outbound traveller can only buy a maximum of 2,000 US dollars at the official exchange rate.

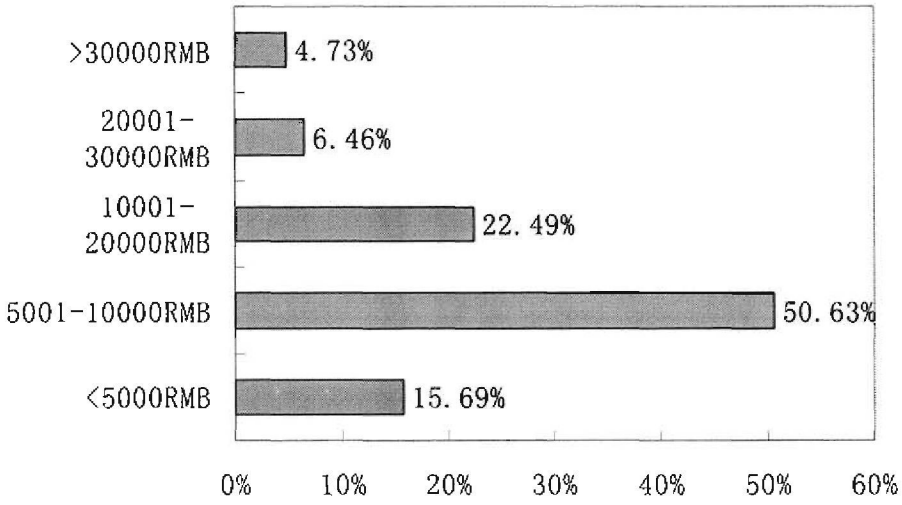



**Figure 4.9: Expenditure**

### 4.3.14 Sources of information

**Table 4.5: Sources of information**

| Sources of information | Percentage |
|---|---|
| TV | 5.25% |
| Internet | 30.22% |
| Magazine and newspaper | 27.07% |
| Radio | 1.75% |
| Friends and family members | 15.75% |
| The promotion of travel company | 19.49% |
| Other, Specify | 0.47% |

From Table 4.5 it may be concluded that the Internet (30.22%), magazines and newspaper (27.07%), family and friends (15.75%), and promotions of travel companies (19.49%) are important sources of information for tourists. It may conclude that as for the Chinese tourist market, Internet, magazines and newspapers are high-powered tools for sales promotion.

### 4.3.15 Favourite destination

**Table 4.6: Favourite destination**

| Favourite destination | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Asia | 2.27% |
| South America | 9.68% |
| North America | 19.59% |
| Africa | 13.26% |
| Australia and New Zealand | 15.41% |
| Europe | 39.78% |

Table 4.6 shows the favourite destination of the respondents. Europe (39.78%), North America (19.59%), and Australia and New Zealand (15.41%) are the most popular destinations to Chinese tourists. There are 13.26% of tourists that considers Africa as a favourite destination. With the China-Africa Summit hosted by the Chinese government in 2006, more and more Chinese are beginning to take notice of the African continent and tourism will undoubtedly develop.

**Table 4.7: The reason for choosing a destination**

| Reason of favourite destination | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Nature/scenic Beauty | 20.82% |
| For business | 6.48% |
| Different culture | 23.07% |
| VFR | 2.37% |
| Good climate | 3.99% |
| Cheap | 0.62% |
| Curious | 19.20% |
| No reason | 23.32% |

Not all of the respondents clarified their answer of "why you chose this destination as your favourite". Table 4.7 shows that most tourists like to experience different cultures (23.07%), seek nature/scenic beauty (20.82%), or they are curious to another country (19.2%).

### 4.3.16 The next travel destination

During the respondents of question "where do you plan to travel next" (Table 4.8), the majority of tourists (32.33%) planned to visit Europe next time. It is remarkable, however, that 19.50% tourists plan to visit Africa.

**Table 4.8: The next travel destination**

| Plan of next destination | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Asia | 13.48% |
| South America | 2.49% |
| North America | 16.36% |
| Africa | 19.50% |
| Australia and New Zealand | 15.84% |
| Europe | 32.33% |

For most respondents, the favourite destination is not necessarily the same as the next trip, when asked "why don't choose the favourite as the next", the reasons mainly include limited time (62.63%) and budget (27.47%). It is clear that if the tourist was unable to choose the favourite destination for planning, the main reason is discretionary time (Table 4.9). Other answers include "health", "No companion", "No direct flight" and so forth.

**Table 4.9: The reason for choosing another destination**

| The reason for choosing another destination | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Limited time | 62.63% |
| Budget | 27.47% |
| Historical reason | 0.94% |
| Language barrier | 2.04% |
| Other please specify | 5.49% |

### 4.3.17 Aspects influencing the travel decision

Figure 4.10 indicates the main aspects when tourists make the decision to go abroad. When the tourist decides on a destination, the main aspects that seem to be considered are unique culture (63.29%), scenic beauty (62.03%), and good climate (73.26%). During the process of forming the strategies, marketers need to do a SWOT (Strength,

Weakness, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis regarding the destination. The opportunities for development can be found by analysing aspects influencing the travel decision. South Africa has its various cultures as a "rainbow country", abundant scenic beauty and an amazing climate. The marketer should take advantage of all opportunities and to spread the good news in each category.

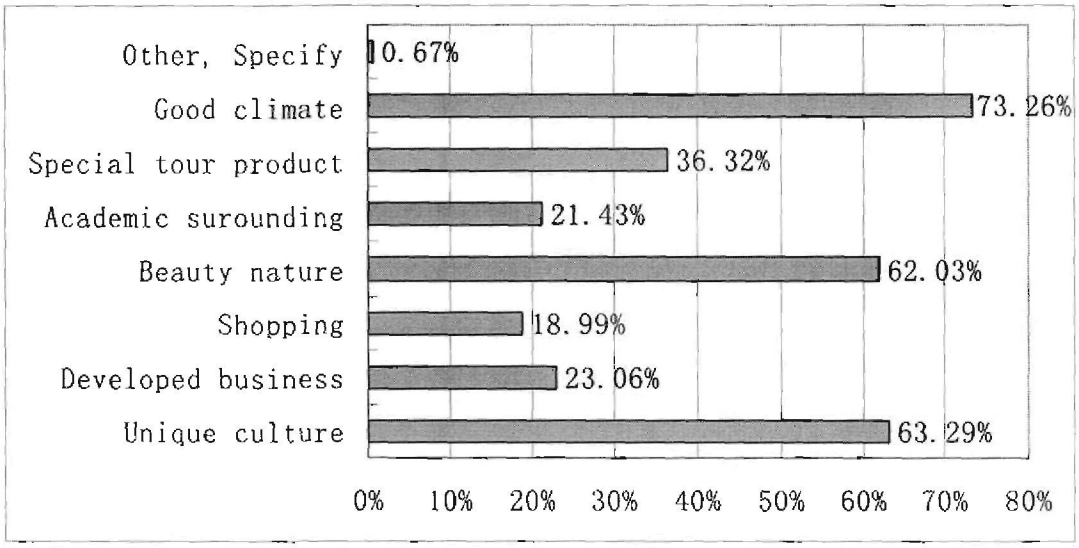



**Figure 4.10: Reason of choosing favourite destination**

### 4.3.18 Difficulties of imagination and experience

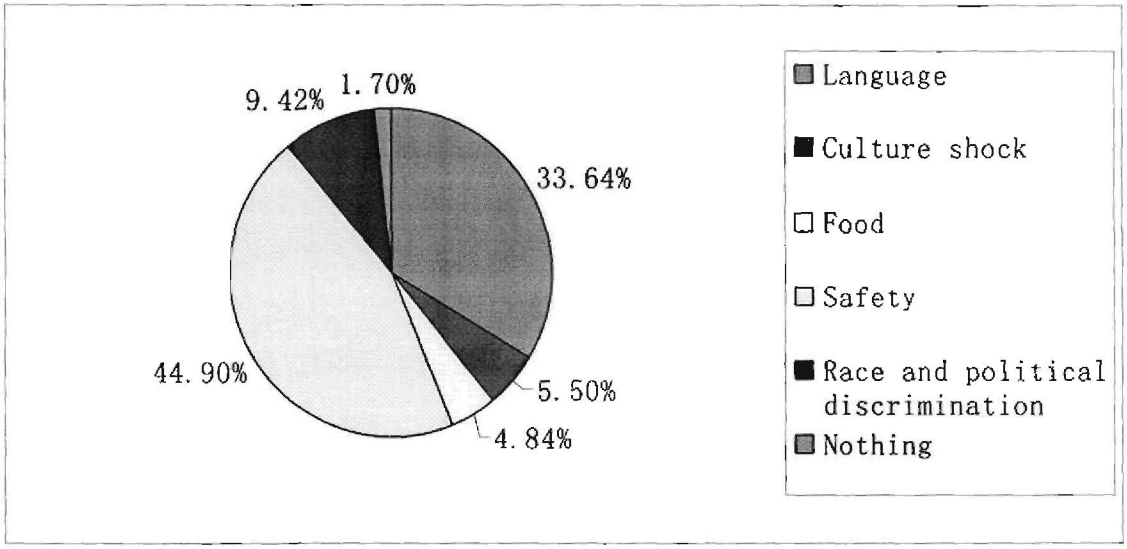



**Figure 4.11: Problems in imagination**

In this question, the respondents were asked to describe the aspects that concerned them most before travelling overseas, and which real difficulties they experienced during travelling. The answers show very interesting results - the image shows a significant difference from the real experience.

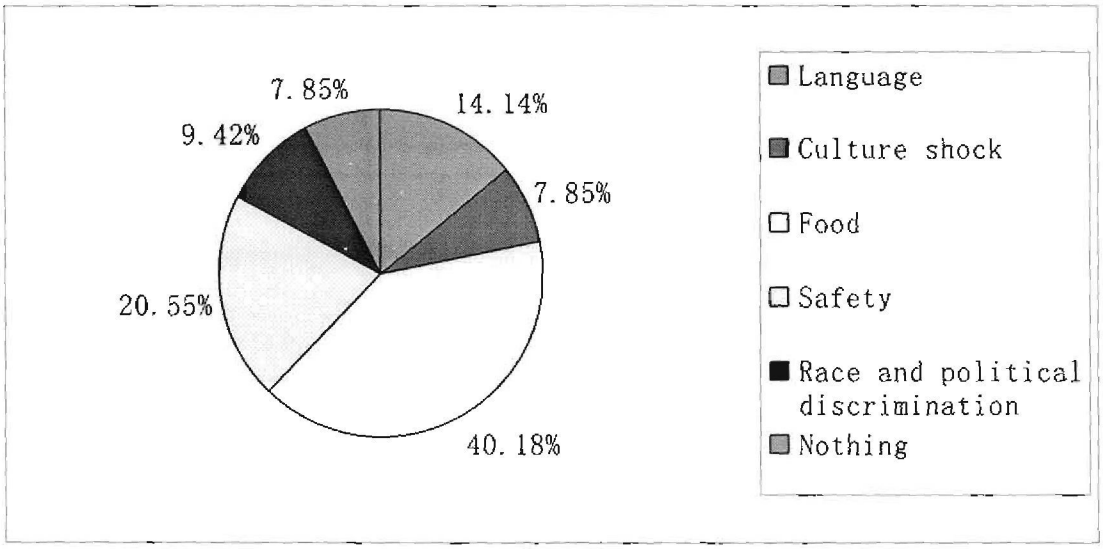



**Figure 4.12: Problems in experience**

The results can be seen from Figure 4.11 and Figure 4.12. From Figure 4.11 most people worried about the safety (44.9%) and language (33.64%) before going abroad. But from Figure 4.12 the problem that Chinese tourists met are unfamiliar food (40.18%) and safety (20.55%). As a matter of fact, most Chinese outbound complained about the food after going back, especially in a long trip around ten days. Even the Chinese restaurant in another country can not provide the genuine Chinese food due to the different ingredients and seasoning (Wen Pan & Laws, 2002). In July of 2007, a conference of a Chinese company was held in the Safari Park Hotel in Nairobi. During the conference the delegates went out for dinner several times to Chinese restaurants. The manager of Chinese dining-room of the hotel realised this problem and went to the Chinese restaurant to taste the tempting "hot pot" and add it on their menu. The Chinese company noticed the change in menu and decided to hold another conference in this hotel in September. From this example, the marketers should realise the important of Chinese food to a Chinese tourist.

### 4.3.19 Important aspect of choosing an outbound tour operator

**Table 4.10: Aspects in choosing a travel operator**

| Aspects of choosing a travel operator | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Branding | 6.94% |
| Service quality | 67.15% |
| Low price | 2.36% |
| Variety of tourism product | 14.01% |
| Convenient for contact | 2.36% |
| The introduction from others | 7.20% |
| Other, Specify | 0.00% |

When tourists chose a tour operator to arrange the trip, most of them focus on the service quality of the tour operator (67.15%) (Table 4.10). It should not be neglected that some 2.36% tourists emphasis the price. Price cutting is a big problem for the Chinese tourism industries. From the Chinese operator perspective the market is price driven, which means the operator must primarily compete in terms of price. But this also impacts on the quality of the travel experience.

### 4.3.20 Visited South Africa

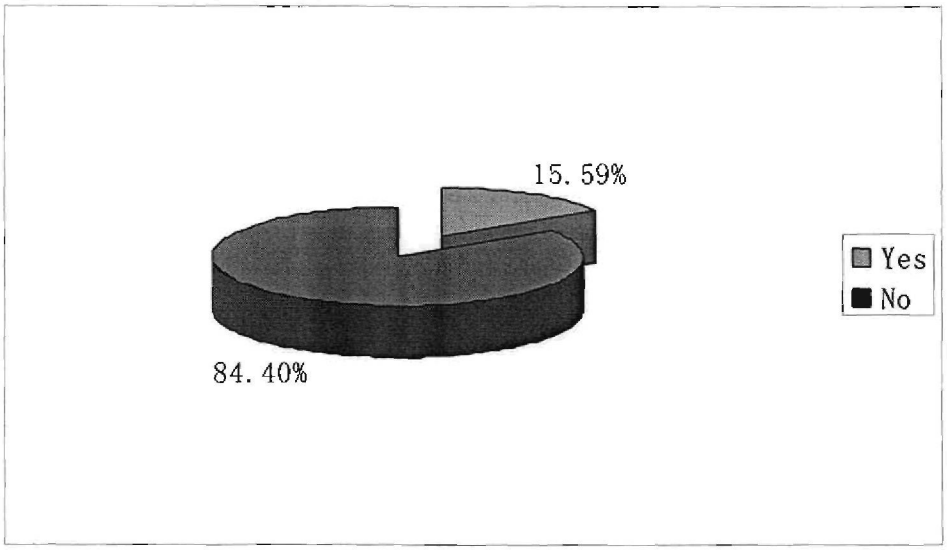



**Figure 4.13: Visited South Africa**

In this section, only 15% respondents have been to South Africa (see Figure 4.13). Therefore 84.40% of respondents have not been to South Africa. There is still a huge market that needs to be exploited.

### 4.3.21 Reason for not choosing South Africa

When the respondents were asked about the reason of not travelling to South Africa (Figure 4.14), some respondents had no chance or had just made the plan to travel to South Africa. The most significant reason was that 35.61% respondents know nearly nothing about South Africa. This should be noticed (and corrected) by South Africa tourism organisations. Promotions about South Africa have been undertaken several times in 2006, but there are still many people who do not know much about South Africa. It is clear that South Africa marketers need to promote the country more frequently, and to a higher number of people in China. It is noticeable that only 9.18% respondents seemed worried about their safety in South Africa although negative reports on South Africa's crime status still affects the destination's image. Not all the respondents answered this question, so the total of the percentages does not equal 100%.

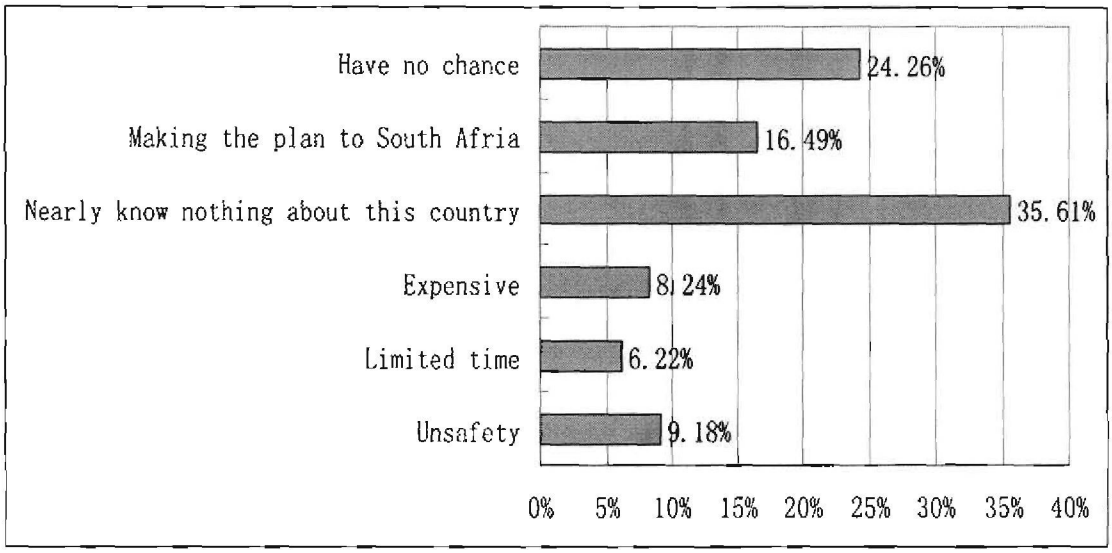



**Figure 4.14: Reasons of not choosing South Africa**

Of all the respondents who have been to South Africa (Figure 4.15), there are 55.08% visitors travelling for business. South African marketers should emphasise the needs of this segment. Here again, it is emphasised that climate, scenic beauty, and culture have not been listed as the main reason for visiting South Africa which shows the lack of knowledge of potential Chinese tourists. The marketers need to let more Chinese know the benefits of visiting South Africa.

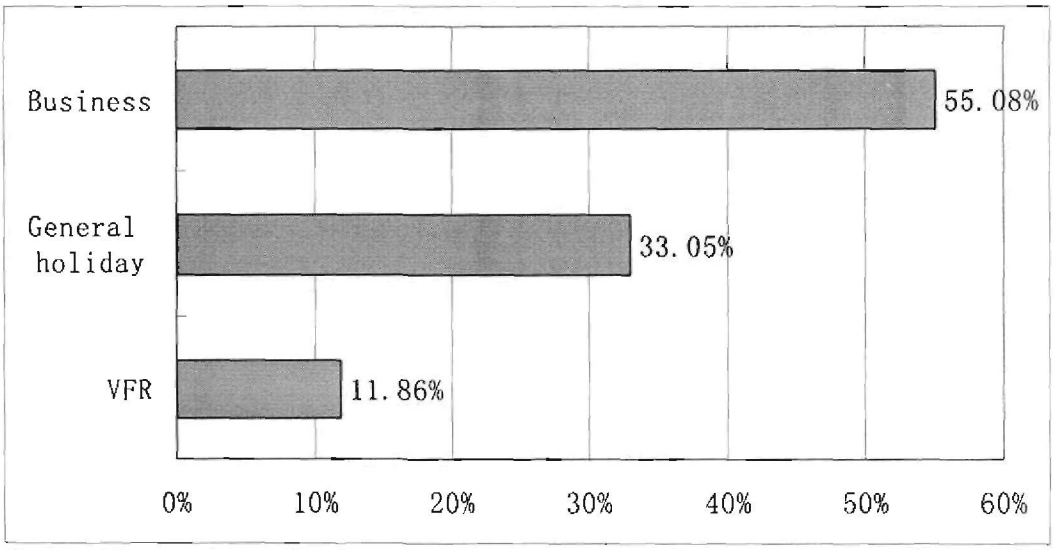



**Figure 4.15: Reasons for choosing South Africa**

### 4.3.22 Image of South Africa

According to Table 4.11, the three main images of South Africa are Diamonds and gold (75.29%), the variety of wildlife (55.71%), and "Rainbow Country" (33.07%). The percentages of negative images include HIV/ADS (28.84), racism (29.68%), and high crime rate (28.32%). It is acknowledged that image plays an important role in both positioning and the marketing mix process. How to improve the positive image and how to minimise the negative images can be an important step during the planning. South Africa marketers held an extensive promotion in 2006 in China. The theme of the promotion was to describe South Africa as a country of "all is possible". Such a promotion helps to create a new and attractive image of South Africa.

**Table 4.11: The image of South Africa**

| Image of South Africa | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Rainbow country with diversity culture | 33.07% |
| Variety of wildlife | 55.71% |
| Good climate condition | 18.54% |
| Diamonds and gold | 75.29% |
| High standards of cleanliness and hygiene | 10.29% |
| Well developed infrastructure for tourists | 2.25% |
| Good value of money | 1.03% |
| Handicrafts | 7.66% |
| Casinos and gambling | 0.78% |
| HIV/AIDS | 28.84% |
| Racism | 29.68% |
| High crime rate | 28.32% |
| Inconvenient public transportation | 2.20% |
| Knowing nothing about this country | 6.30% |

### 4.3.23 Information obtained about South Africa

**Table 4.12: Information obtained about South Africa**

| Sources of information | Percentage |
|---|---|
| TV | 20.08% |
| South African website | 3.28% |
| Chinese website | 11.94% |
| Magazine and newspaper | 22.05% |
| Radio | 3.15% |
| Friends and family members | 12.73% |
| The promotion of travel company | 20.47% |
| Knowing nothing about this country | 6.30% |

From Table 4.12 it can be seen that TV (20.08%), magazine and newspaper (22.05%) are important sources of information for tourists who wish to get to know South Africa. The percentage of Chinese website users (11.94%) is the third source of getting information. But when one typed Chinese characters of "South Africa" and "robbery" in a popular Chinese search website, approximately 314 000 pieces of information were easily founded. This is a serious problem that South Africa tourism

needs to address when promoting South Africa to Chinese tourists. The South African marketer needs to forge a good and positive relationship with Chinese media in the future.

### 4.3.24 Suggestions or recommendations

The respondents made the following recommendations:

- ✧ Implement a direct flight from Beijing to Johannesburg;
- ✧ Constantly work at changing the image of an unsafe country;
- ✧ Promote South Africa extensively;
- ✧ To keep a good relationship with Chinese media.

## 4.4 RESULTS: CONTINGENCY STATISTICS

Statistical significance tests are used to show that the results (for example difference between means) are significant. The *p*-value is a criterion of this, giving the probability that the obtained value (or more extreme) could be obtained under the assumption that the null hypothesis (for example, no difference between the population means) is true. The *p*-value is a criterion of giving the probability that the obtained value (or more extreme) could be obtained under the assumption that the null hypothesis (for example, no difference between the population means) is true. A small *p*-value (For example smaller than 0.05) is considered as sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant. Statistical significance does not necessarily imply that the result is important in practice as these tests have a tendency to yield small *p*-values (indicating significance) as the sizes of the data sets increase (Ellis & Steyn, 2003).

According to Steyn (1999) and Steyn (2000), the effect size is given by $w = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{n}}$, where $X^2$ is the usual Chi-square statistic for the contingency table and $n$ is the sample size. In the special case of a $2 \times 2$ table, the effect size $(w)$ is given by the

phi ($\phi$) coefficient. Cohen (1988) gives the following guidelines for the interpretation of it in the current case:

(a) small effect: $w = 0.1$ , (b) medium effect: $w = 0.3$ , (c) large effect: $w = 0.5$

A relationship with $w \geq 0.5$ is considered as practically significant.

After the data capturing, 2-way frequency analysis was supported by the Statistical Service at the North West University. It is important to know the difference from those who had been to South Africa, and those who had not been to South Africa. A 2-way frequency analysis (contingency tables) was used to help to set up a profile. The Phi coefficient gives the practical significance of differences in percentages of those who have visited South Africa and those who have not. Values of phi of 0.3 might indicate significant differences, while phi of 0.5 (or more) indicates practical significant differences. If phi is smaller than 0.3, it is not practically important.

In all 2-way frequency tables, the phi value of special purpose of travelling abroad and special ways of information obtained shows a significant difference. However, only six respondents gave the special answer of the purpose of travelling abroad, while three respondents gave the special answer of information obtained. The difference is not meaningful.

The phi value of the image of South Africa is bigger than 0.3. It is indicated that significant differences exist between people who had been to South Africa and those who had not (Table 4.13). The top positive image held by people who had been to South Africa is variety of wildlife (81.61%), while the top negative image is HIV/AIDS (19.7%). Compared with this, the top positive image held by people who had not been to South Africa is diamond and gold (72.88%), while the top negative image is high crime rate (33.03%). The remarkable phenomenon in this table is that people who had been to South Africa had a more positive image, but people who had not been to South Africa had more negative image (Figure 4.16). This phenomenon

needs to be taken into serious consideration when marketers promote South Africa to the Chinese nation.

**Table 4.13: 2-way frequency analysis about image of South Africa**

| Image | People had been to South Africa | People had not been to South Africa |
|---|---|---|
| Rainbow country with diversity culture | 14.29% | 36.55% |
| Variety of wildlife | 81.61% | 51.80% |
| Good climate condition | 23.73% | 17.22% |
| Diamond and gold | 89.67% | 72.88% |
| High standards of cleanliness and hygiene | 13.72% | 9.24% |
| Well developed infrastructure for tourists | 1.71% | 2.44% |
| Good value of money | 4.25% | 0.20% |
| Handicrafts | 13.70% | 5.84% |
| Casinos and gambling | 0.00% | 0.98% |
| HIV/AIDS | 19.70% | 31.11% |
| Racism | 18.93% | 31.24% |
| High crime rate | 9.45% | 33.03% |
| Inconvenient public transportation | 9.47% | 0.00% |
| Knowing nothing about this country | 0.00% | 7.47% |

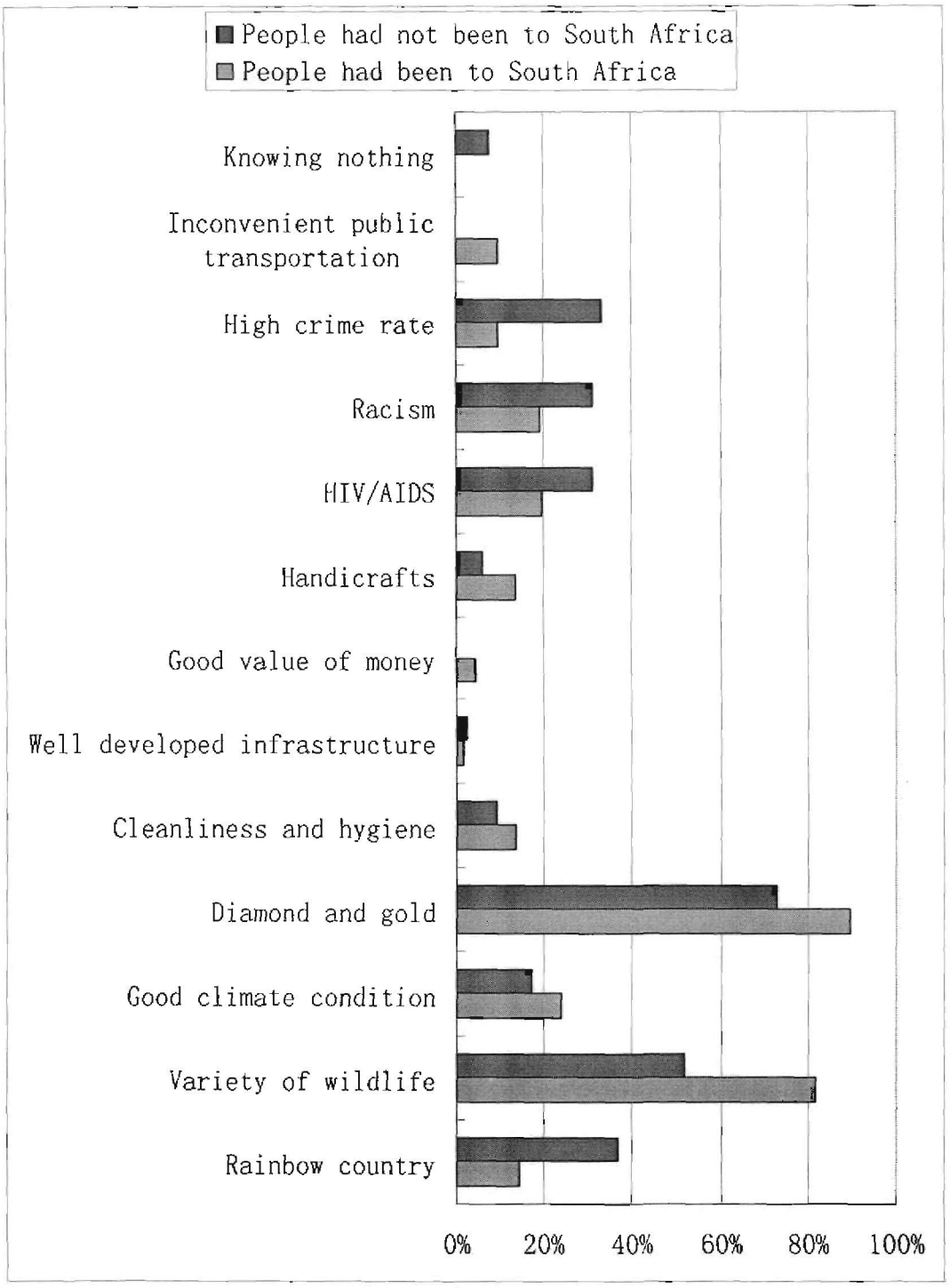



**Figure 4.16: 2-way frequency analysis about image of South Africa**

The ways of seeking information equally shows significant difference (Table 4.19). People who had been to South Africa prefer to obtain information from friends and family members (19.33%). People who had not been to South Africa prefer to obtain information from magazines and newspapers (23.17%). From Figure 4.17, it is clear

that South Africa website (18.49%) is significant for people who had been to South Africa when seeking information. As for people who had not been to South Africa, they use TV (20.68%), magazines and newspapers (23.17%) or the promotion of a travel company (21%) to seek travel information about South Africa more often.

**Table 4.14: 2-way frequency analysis of seeking information**

| | People had been to South Africa | People had not been to South Africa |
|---|---|---|
| TV | 16.81% | 20.68% |
| South African website | 18.49% | 0.31% |
| Chinese website | 9.24% | 12.44% |
| Magazine and newspaper | 15.97% | 23.17% |
| Radio | 2.52% | 3.27% |
| Friends and family members | 19.33% | 11.51% |
| The promotion of travel company | 17.65% | 21.00% |
| Know nothing about South Africa | 0.00% | 7.47% |

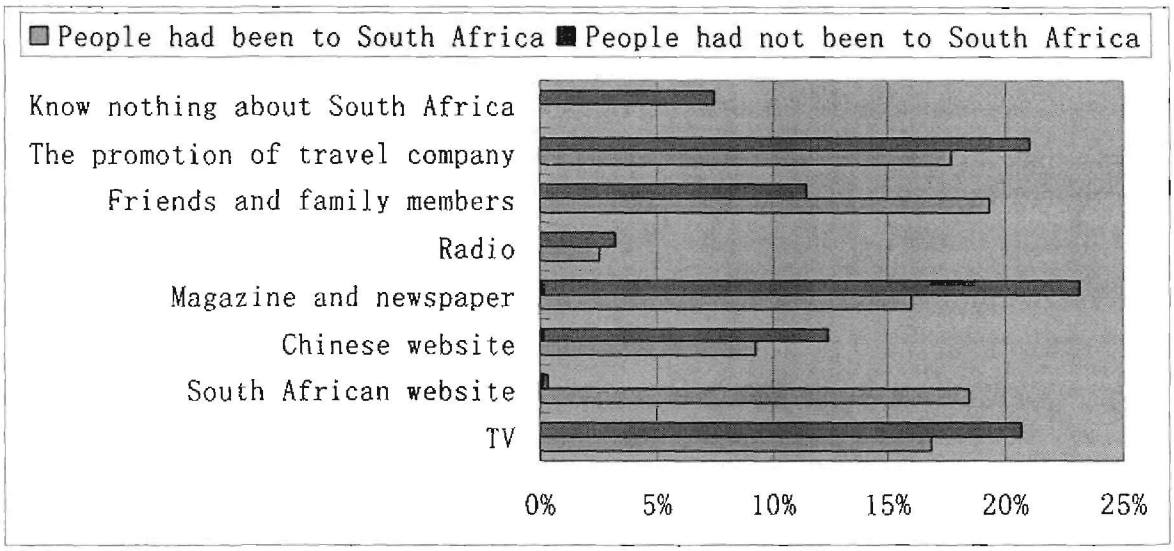



**Figure 4.17: 2-way frequency analysis of seeking information**

## 4.5 CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the chapter is to reflect the results of the empirical research in order to form an understanding of the travel behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists. These results will enable South Africa to improve its current image creation and promotion strategies as a tourism destination.

The profile of Beijing tourists is as following:

- ✧ The proportion of female tourists is slightly higher than male tourists.
- ✧ The group of 31-40 years old is the largest of all groups travelling, they provide 33.67% of travellers.
- ✧ Most respondents are married.
- ✧ The top three professions travelling are administrators, civil service workers, and clerks of companies.
- ✧ Most of the respondents are well-educated with a degree.

The travel behaviour of Chinese tourists is as following:

- ✧ Most tourists prefer a relatively large tour group.
- ✧ Majority of tourists have travelled overseas only once.
- ✧ Apart from the unfixed trip, most tourists prefer Golden Holiday period for the outbound trip.
- ✧ Most trips are used for relaxing and entertainment.
- ✧ Majority of tourists prefer an all-include tour package.
- ✧ Most tourists travel with colleagues, family members and friends.
- ✧ Majority of Chinese tourists spend 625-1250 US Dollars in another country.
- ✧ Majority of tourists obtained travelling information from Internet, magazines and newspapers.
- ✧ Europe is currently the favourite destination for most Chinese tourists.
- ✧ Most tourists can not go to the favourite destination because of limited time.
- ✧ Aspects influencing the travel decision are: good climate, scenic beauty and

unique culture.

- ✧ Most tourists worried about safety and language before the outbound trip.
- ✧ Majority of tourists felt unsatisfied with the food during the outbound trip.
- ✧ Majority of tourists choose a travel company according to the service quality.
- ✧ Most tourists have not been to South Africa.
- ✧ Tourists visited South Africa most for business.
- ✧ Diamonds and gold, variety of wildlife, and Rainbow Country are the main images about South Africa for Chinese tourists.
- ✧ Chinese tourists prefer obtain information about South Africa from TV, magazines and newspapers, and the promotion of travel company.

According to the 2-way frequency analysis, the following conclusions can be made:

- ✧ People who **had been** to South Africa had a more positive image, but people who **had not been** to South Africa had more negative image.
- ✧ People who had been to South Africa prefer to obtain information mainly from friends and family members. People who had not been to South Africa prefer to obtain information from magazines and newspapers.

From the results, it is clear that the South Africa tourism needs to develop a specific strategy focusing on Beijing tourists. The main reasons for travelling are different culture, natural beauty and good climate. For South Africa tourism sources, these three factors are well-known by European people. But most Chinese tourists only have the images of diamonds and gold, a variety of wildlife and "Rainbow Country". This result shows that the basic knowledge of South Africa in China is neither widely spread, nor particularly accurate. Compared with another African country, Egypt, nearly every Chinese knows that Egypt is a tourists' destination and knows something about pyramids. South Africa tourism industries need to undertake wider and deeper research aimed specifically at Chinese tourists to determine their preferences, and spread South African tourism information widely.

In order to make sense of the information obtained above, Plog (1976) recommended the personification of target groups, so that "dull statistics" are transposed into a "living" profile to which economists and marketers can respond more easily. Using this approach introduced by the Plog research group, the typical outbound tourist living in the city of Beijing can be named as "Aihua".

Aihua is living in Beijing in the Peoples Republic of China. She is married and 35 years old. Aihua is graduated, and currently a department manager of a company. She has travelled once overseas for relaxation with family numbers during Golden Week in past three years, and spent an average of 1000 US Dollars per trip. She got her tourism information from magazines and newspapers. Aihua's favourite destination is Europe because of the deep cultural history of the continent. She plans to visit Europe again next time. Usually Aihua and her family will choose a travel company with high service quality, and will travel in quite a large group. She has not been to South Africa yet because she knows little about South Africa. She has heard about South Africa from newspapers and magazines, and knows only that this "Rainbow Country" is connected with diamonds and gold.

The recommendations include the following:

- ✧ Reliable market research focussing on the wider Chinese tourist market;
- ✧ Comprehensive advertising regarding basic, generic knowledge of South Africa. Especially use TV, magazine and newspaper, a Chinese website and radio to promote South Africa to people who have not yet been to South Africa;
- ✧ Make good relationships with media and co-operate with them in promoting a positive image of South Africa;
- ✧ Forming an impressive, positive image and position of South Africa in China.

# CHAPTER 5

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The study seeks to highlight travel behaviour of Chinese tourists, especially tourists from the city of Beijing. By identifying the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists, the data were captured and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software. The study concludes with some recommendations regarding the marketing strategy focus on Chinese tourists, and some suggestions for further research directions.

The aim of the chapter is to:

- ✧ Provide conclusions of the research.
- ✧ Make recommendations concerning the research.

In Chapter One the overview of this research, the statement of the problem, and objectives were discussed. South Africa as a tourist destination, tourism marketers need to understand the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists. Research methods and some basic concepts were explained and clarified here.

Chapter Two focused on theories regarding travel behaviour and the research methods of travel behaviour. According to the different emphases, travel behaviour analysis includes travel motivation, destination choice, traveller type, and marketing activities connected with travel behaviour. The benefit of travel research and the influencing factors, such as personal factors, culture, social class, perception, motivation, attitude,

personality and lifestyle, economy, technology and discretionary time, were discussed at the end of Chapter Two.

In Chapter Three, Chinese travel behaviour was analysed as witnessed in the development of Chinese outbound tourism. As for the travel behaviour of people living in the city of Beijing, travel patterns were discussed according to the economic development of Beijing, outbound tourism from Beijing, and the travel behaviour of Beijing citizens.

In Chapter Four, the results of the empirical research were reflected upon in order to determine the travel behaviour of people living in the city of Beijing. Responses to the questionnaires were interpreted and formed the profile of Beijing outbound tourist.

From the research data, various conclusions can now be made regarding the research objectives.

## 5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn from the research completed, namely:

- ✧ Conclusions with regard to travel behaviour from the literature study.
- ✧ Conclusions with regard to previous research about Chinese tourists.
- ✧ Conclusions with regard to the survey.

The aforementioned are dealt with below.

### 5.2.1 Conclusions with regard to travel behaviour from the literature study

The following conclusions are regarded as the main conclusions drawn from the literature study:

- ✧ Travel behaviour includes the whole process of travel - creation of travel demand, travel planning, the decision process, the traveller type, motivation to travel, behaviour of tourists, and the actual expenditure incurred during the trip (cf. 2.2).

- ✧ Tourist behaviour is powerfully connected to and often contingent upon marketing activities, such as: segmentation, positioning and image building (cf. 2.2).
- ✧ Motivation is a major determinant factor of the tourist's behaviour (cf. 2.2.1).
- ✧ Individual tourist can move between different types over time, and travel behaviour changes in health, income, leisure time, family and work commitment occur (cf. 2.2.2).
- ✧ A positive image is essential for any destination and several factors help to create this positive image of the destination (cf. 2.2.3)
  - ➢ The efficacy of a destination;
  - ➢ A client orientation;
  - ➢ The "magic" of the destination;
  - ➢ Branding;
  - ➢ The sensory effect of the destination;
  - ➢ The history of the destination;
  - ➢ The virtue of the destination;
  - ➢ The atmosphere generated by a destination.
- ✧ Tourism marketing relies heavily on segmentation (cf. 2.2.4).
- ✧ Positioning is one of the most effective tools in tourism marketing. Successful positioning of a product is often associated with products and services possessing favourable connotations in the minds of customers (cf. 2.2.4).
- ✧ Positive image is essential to any tourism destination (cf. 2.2.4).
- ✧ Tourism enterprises and marketer should have different strategies according to the different travel behaviour of target markets (cf. 2.2.4).
- ✧ Destination choice is related to several internal factors of the traveller (such as health, disposable income, available leisure time, knowledge, attitude, and past experience), and external factors (such as global, political and technological factors, media effect, and marketing activities). Some of the main influences affecting travel behaviour (cf. 2.3):
  - ➢ Personal factors. Travel behaviour is affected by personal characters, such as

age, gender, occupation, income, life cycle and so forth.

- Culture. Culture is viewed in the traditional sense as representing that complex whole that includes knowledge, understanding, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by a person as a member of societies.
- Social class. Social classes are actually a special case of subcultures. Social classes are the consequence of the division of society on the basis of status and prestige. Travel behaviour in the same social class is found to be far more similar than in differing social classes.
- Perception. Perception means the subjective interpretation by individuals of the data which is available to them, which results in particular opinions of, and attitudes towards, products, places or organisations.
- Motivation. Motives, the forces that initiate and direct travel behaviour, should be examined first. Motives may be either physiologically- or psychologically-based. However, in developed economies, most travel behaviour is guided by psychological motives.
- Attitude. Travel attitudes and their connection to behaviour have been studied for many years, but generally the emphasis has been on the behaviour.
- Personality and lifestyle. Personality may be defined as the reflection of a person's enduring and unique characteristics that urge the person to respond in a persistent way to recurring environment stimuli. Lifestyle means the way of life adopted by an individual or group of people.
- Economy. The economy is a vital factor that can affect travelling behaviour. It involves the currency change, international trade, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and income.
- Technology. The development of transportation and information systems is significant factor that also affect travel behaviour.

- Discretionary time. Paid holidays provide the time guarantee for travelling. Tourists may travel further and stay longer at the tourism destination in a longer holiday.

- Travel behaviour can be analysed by analysing all the factors including the psychology and the behaviour of tourists, in order to, draw conclusions regarding the regular travel patterns of tourists (cf. 2.4).
- Travel behaviour research has the literature value which is utilisable meaning within tourism marketing (cf. 2.5).
- The specific tourist market should be analysed according to the different background of the tourists (cf. 2.6).

### 5.2.2 Conclusions with regard to Chinese tourists

- Chinese outbound tourism is in a preparatory stage for a high growth rate (cf. 3.2).
- Many people, especially entire families, usually take outbound travel vacations during Golden Holidays (cf. 3.2.1).
- The Chinese government is currently adjusting relevant policies to further loosen the restrictions on outbound travel (cf. 3.2.2).
- Chinese rarely speak English, and prefer to eat Chinese food (cf. 3.2.4).
- Chinese place great emphasis on status, which leads them to visit the most popular attractions within a destination, and to document these visits by the extensive taking of photographs (cf. 3.2.4).
- Chinese are very interested in the "outside world" and want to learn about other cultures (cf. 3.2.4).
- The most desired destinations for Chinese travellers are the western countries (cf. 3.2.4).
- Business travel is usually combined with lots of leisure activities (cf. 3.2.4).
- The Chinese travellers purchase not only for their family, but also for a whole group of friends, of neighbours and of relatives (cf. 3.2.4).

- ✧ Among the outbound passengers, the young and middle-aged employees tend to have their outbound tours in the peak season, while senior citizens prefer to the off-season because of the cheaper prices and better service (cf. 3.3.2).
- ✧ Chinese prefer outbound tours of 8, 10, 12, or even 15 days duration in the Spring Festival (cf. 3.3.2).
- ✧ The majority of Beijing residents join tours handled by travel agencies when they undertake outbound trips (cf. 3.3.2).
- ✧ The number of Beijing residents for outbound travel is increasing by 40% per year (cf. 3.3.2).
- ✧ There are several trends of Beijing outbound travel that should be noticed, namely: the proportion of mass touring is decreasing, more people are choosing special tour activities, such as mountain climbing, far-views seeing, and folk-custom travelling; fully independent touring is becoming more popular; the South-East Asia market is steady; Europe market is mature (cf. 3.3.2).
- ✧ Most Beijing people chose a travel service company to arrange their outbound tour (cf. 3.3.3)
- ✧ Most Beijing people would like to travel with their family, the favourite season is, fairly obviously, school holidays. Beijing tourists prefer a warm country as a tourism destination during Spring Festival (cf. 3.3.3).
- ✧ Most outbound holiday tourism from China is in the form of an all-inclusive coach tour (cf. 3.3.4).

### 5.2.3 Conclusions with regard to the survey

The objective of this dissertation is to determine the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists living in the city of Beijing to enable the enhancement of the South African tourism offerings to the Chinese people.

Regarding the profile of Beijing tourists, it can be primarily concluded that:

- ✧ The proportion of female tourists is slightly higher than male tourists (cf. 4.3.1).

- ✧ The group of 31-40 years old is the largest of all groups travelling, they provide 33.67% of travellers (cf. 4.3.2).
- ✧ Most respondents are married (cf. 4.3.3).
- ✧ The top three professions travelling are administrators, civil service workers, and clerks of companies (cf. 4.3.4).
- ✧ Most of the respondents are well-educated with a degree (cf. 4.3.5).

Conclusions with regard of travel behaviour of Beijing tourists:

- ✧ Most respondents earned somewhere between 625-1328 US dollars per month (cf. 4.3.6).
- ✧ Majority of tourists joined a quite large travel group more than 11 people (cf. 4.3.7).
- ✧ Most Chinese tourists indicated that they have visited another country at least once previously (cf. 4.3.8).
- ✧ Most travellers have no fixed season for going abroad. Notwithstanding this, the most popular season is the (Chinese) Golden Holiday period (cf. 4.3.9).
- ✧ The main reason for going aboard is for relaxation and entertainment (cf. 4.3.10).
- ✧ Most Chinese tourists prefer to join a group arranged by a travel company (cf. 4.3.11).
- ✧ Most Chinese tourists prefer travel with colleagues, family numbers, and friends (cf. 4.3.12).
- ✧ Most Chinese tourists spend 625-1250 US Dollars during the overseas trip which is more or less a month's salary (cf. 4.3.13).
- ✧ Most respondents get their tourism information from the Internet (cf. 4.3.14).
- ✧ Europe, North America, and Australia and New Zealand are popular destinations to Chinese tourists (cf. 4.3.15).
- ✧ Most tourists like to experience different culture and feel curious about another country (cf. 4.3.15).
- ✧ The majority of tourists will visit Europe next time (cf. 4.3.16).

- ✧ When the tourists start to choose a destination, the main aspects that need to be considered are unique culture, nature beauty, and good climate (cf. 4.3.17).
- ✧ Most respondents were worried about safety before travelling abroad (cf. 4.3.18).
- ✧ Most respondents face the problem of unfamiliar, perhaps unpalatable, food while in another country (cf. 4.3.18).
- ✧ The majority of tourists choose a travel operator with high service quality (cf. 4.3.19).
- ✧ 84.40% of the respondents have not been to South Africa (cf. 4.3.20).
- ✧ The main reason for not choosing South Africa is knowing nothing about this country (cf. 4.3.20).
- ✧ 35.61% of the respondents know little about South Africa (cf. 4.3.21).
- ✧ For most tourists, the purpose of visiting South Africa is for business trip (cf. 4.3.21).
- ✧ The three main images of South Africa are diamonds and gold, variety of wildlife, and a "Rainbow Country" (cf. 4.3.22).
- ✧ The three main negative image includes HIV/ADS, racism, and high crime rate (cf. 4.3.22).
- ✧ Magazines and newspapers are important sources of information for tourists who get to know about South Africa (cf. 4.3.23).

Conclusions with regard to 2-way frequency analysis:

- ✧ People who have been to South Africa had more a positive image, but people who had not been to South Africa had the more negative image
- ✧ People who had been to South Africa preferred thereafter to obtain information mainly from friends and family members. People who had not been to South Africa preferred to obtain their information from magazines and newspapers.

## 5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations are based on the literature review, the research results and the analysis thereof.

- ✧ Reliable market research focussing on the wider Chinese tourist market.
- ✧ In order to market South Africa or any other country as a tourist destination, travel behaviour needs to be better understood, therefore research remains important.
- ✧ Positioning South Africa will be aided strongly by completely understanding the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists.
- ✧ The market for mature tourists should be noted, and relevant tourism products should be designed.
- ✧ South Africa operators need to be trained and educated regarding Chinese culture and travel behaviour in order to provide quality service to Chinese tourists. Tourism product design and development should take into account the cultural differences.
- ✧ Comprehensive advertising regarding basic, generic knowledge of South Africa. Especially use TV, magazine and newspaper, a Chinese website and radio to promote South Africa to people who have not yet been to South Africa.
- ✧ Make good relationships with media and co-operate with them in promoting a positive image of South Africa.
- ✧ More promotion should be undertaken before Golden Holiday period, especially with regard to entertainment and relaxation.
- ✧ Promotion to Chinese tourists should focus on the scenic beauty, unique culture, and good climate of South Africa.
- ✧ More promotion activities should be undertaken in Chinese media, Internet, newspaper and magazines.
- ✧ Cooperation with local Chinese restaurants in order to try to update and authenticate the menus offered.

- South Africa Tourism should highlight the positive image of South Africa as having wildlife, beautiful nature and a variety of cultures.
- The South African marketer needs to be creative and change negative images in the minds of Chinese tourists.
- To spread the advertising of the South African tourism product to the whole China.
- Chinese travel agents and tour operators play an important role in the Chinese outbound market. South Africa tourism industries need to increase cooperation and familiarisation with them.

## 5.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

The following suggestions for further research on the subject are recommended.

- More research should be done on market segmentation as China has a very wide area an extremely large population.
- Research should be carried out in different areas of China. Effective marketing strategies for South Africa should then be created according to the needs of different areas.
- More research should be done focusing on the difference between business trip and relaxation.
- Further research on the population-group that has not been to South Africa should be completed in order to find out what is causing the resistance to travel.
- Further research on mature tourists should be done, relevant tourism products should be designed specifically for them.
- More research regard to the media and to discover the most efficient way for promotion.
- More research according to different age groups should be completed and form different strategies according to different age groups.
- Determine how Chinese travel agents and tour operators perceive South Africa

and how best these perceptions can be used to promote South Africa or to correct negative perceptions.

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# APPENDIX

## Questionnaire

本调查只做学术研究用，请您务必提供真实观点。

The information will only serve for academic resarch. We need your honest opinion.

## 第一部分 个人信息
## SECTION A DEMOGRAPHIC DETAIL

1. 性别/Gender?

| | |
|---|---|
| 女/Female | 1 |
| 男/Male | 2 |

2.年龄/*Age*?

3.婚姻状况/Marital status

| | |
|---|---|
| 已婚/Married | 1 |
| 未婚/Unmarried | 2 |
| 离婚/Divorced | 3 |
| 寡居/Widow | 4 |

4. 职业/Occupation?

5. 学历/Please indicate your level of education

| | |
|---|---|
| 高中/Matric | 1 |
| 大专/College | 2 |
| 大学/Bachelor | 3 |
| 研究生/Post graduate | 4 |
| 博士/Doctor | 5 |

6. 月收入/Income per month

| | |
|---|---|
| <5000 | 1 |
| 5001-10000 | 2 |
| 10001-20000 | 3 |
| 20001-30000 | 4 |
| >30000 | 5 |

7. 同行人数/How many people are travelling in your group?

## 第二部分 出境游概况
## SECTION B OUTBOUND TOURIST PROFILE

8. 出境游频率
Frequency of outbound travel

9. 您通常的出游时间
Which season do you prefer for travelling abroad?

| | |
|---|---|
| 春秋季节/Spring and autumn | 1 |
| 夏天/Summer | 2 |
| 冬天/Winter | 3 |
| 黄金周/Golden Weeks | 4 |
| 随时/Anytime if necessary | 5 |

10. 出境目的/The purpose of going abroad

| | |
|---|---|
| 探亲访友/VFR | 1 |
| 商务考察/Business | 2 |
| 休闲度假/Relaxation and entertainment | 3 |
| 学习/Study | 4 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | |

11. 出游方式/Choose the type of your travelling

| | |
|---|---|
| 参团/Tour package | 1 |
| 自助游/Backpack | 2 |
| 半自助游/Half-backpack | 3 |
| Fully independent traveller | 4 |

12.通常和谁一起出国/Your companion for going abroad

| | |
|---|---|
| 朋友/Friends | 1 |
| 同事/Colleagues | 2 |
| 家庭成员/Family members | 3 |
| 自己/Individual | 4 |

13. 通常在国外的花费/Expenditure in foreign countries

| | |
|---|---|
| <5000RMB | 1 |
| 5001-10000RMB | 2 |
| 10001-20000RMB | 3 |
| 20001-30000RMB | 4 |
| >30000RMB | 5 |

## 第三部分 偏好
## SECTION C PREFERENCE

14.您通常从哪里获得旅游信息？
Where do you usually obtain the travel information

| | |
|---|---|
| 电视/TV | 1 |
| 网络/Internet | 2 |
| 报刊杂志/Magazine and newspaper | 3 |
| 电台/Radio | 4 |
| 朋友或家人介绍/Friends and family members | 5 |
| 旅游促销/The promotion of travel company | 6 |
| 其他请注明/Other, Specify | 7 |

15a.您最想去旅游目的地
Which is the place that you want to visit the most?

| | |
|---|---|
| 亚洲/Asia | 1 |
| 南美/South America | 2 |
| 北美/North America | 3 |
| 非洲/Africa | 4 |
| 澳大利亚和新西兰/Australia and New Zealand | 5 |
| 欧洲/Europe | 6 |

15b. 第15a题的选择理由/The resaon of 15a.

16a.您下一次出国计划是到哪里？
Where do you plan to travel to next?

| | |
|---|---|
| 亚洲/Asia | 1 |
| 南美/South America | 2 |
| 北美/North America | 3 |
| 非洲/Africa | 4 |
| 澳大利亚和新西兰/Australia and Zealand | 5 |
| 欧洲/Europe | 6 |

16b.您为什么不能去您所喜爱的目的地？
Why can't you Choose your favorite destination?

| | |
|---|---|
| 时间有限/Limited time | 1 |
| 资金有限/Budget | 2 |
| 历史原因/Historical reason | 3 |
| 语言障碍/Language barrier | 4 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | 5 |

17. 以下哪三方面在您的出游计划中比较重要？
Which three aspects are the most important when you plan to go abroad?

| | |
|---|---|
| 独特的文化/Unique culture | 1 |
| 发达的经济/Developed business | 2 |
| 购物/Shopping | 3 |
| 优美景色/Beauty nature | 4 |
| 学术气氛/Academic surounding | 5 |
| 新奇的旅游项目/Special tour product | 6 |
| 舒适的气候/Good climate | 7 |
| 其他请注明/Other, Specify | 8 |

18. 您出国前最担心的是什么？
Which aspects concern you the most before you go abroad?

| | |
|---|---|
| 语言/Language | 1 |
| 文化冲突/Culture shock | 2 |
| 饮食/Food | 3 |
| 安全/Safety | 4 |
| 种族及政治歧视/Race and political discriminatio | 5 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | 6 |

19. 您在国外实际遇到的最大困难是什么？
Which is the biggest problem that you have experienced in another country?

| | |
|---|---|
| 语言/Language | 1 |
| 文化冲突/Culture shock | 2 |
| 饮食/Food | 3 |
| 安全/Safety | 4 |
| 种族及政治歧视/Race and political discriminatio | 5 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | 6 |

20. 您选择出境游旅行社的标准是什么？
Which aspect is the most important when you choose an outbound operator?

| | |
|---|---|
| 品牌/Branding | 1 |
| 服务质量/Service quality | 2 |
| 低价格/Low price | 3 |
| 丰富多样的产品/Variety of tourism product | 4 |
| 联系方便/Convenient for contact | 5 |
| 别人的介绍/The introduction from others | 6 |
| 其他请注明/Other, Specify | 7 |

## 第四部分 南非旅游
## SECTION D TRAVELLING TO SOUTH AFRICA

21. 您以前去过南非吗？
Have you ever been to South Afrca?

| | |
|---|---|
| 去过/Yes | 1 |
| 没有/No | 2 |

21a. 如果没有去过，原因是什么？
If not, why don't you choose this destination

_____

_____

21b.您去南非的目的是什么？
The main purpose for you visiting South Africa is:

| | |
|---|---|
| 探亲访友/VFR | 1 |
| 度假/General holiday | 2 |
| 商务/Business | 3 |
| 购物/Shopping | 4 |
| 赌博/Gambling | 5 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | 6 |

22.选出您对南非的三个主要印象
The three main positive images of South Africa

| | |
|---|---|
| 多种文化的彩虹国度/Rainbow country with dive | 1 |
| 丰富的野生资源/Variety of wildlife | 2 |
| 独特的气候/Good climate condition | 3 |
| 钻石和黄金/Diamonds and gold | 4 |
| 干净整洁/High standards of cleanliness and hyg | 5 |
| 完善的旅游设施/Well developed infrastracture f | 6 |
| 实惠的货币汇率/Good value of money | 7 |
| 手工艺品/Handicrafts | 8 |
| 赌场/Casinos and gambling | 9 |
| 艾滋病/HIV/AIDS | 10 |
| 种族歧视/Racism | 11 |
| 高犯罪率/High crime rate | 12 |
| 公共交通不发达/Inconvenient public transportat | 13 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | 14 |

23.您从哪里知道南非是一个旅游胜地？
Where did you get the information about South Africa

| | |
|---|---|
| 电视/TV | 1 |
| 南非网站/South African website | 2 |
| 中文网站/Chinese website | 3 |
| 报刊杂志/Magazine and newspaper | 4 |
| 电台/Radio | 5 |
| 朋友或家人介绍/Friends and family members | 6 |
| 旅游促销/The promotion of travel company | 7 |
| 其他请注明/Other please specify | 8 |

_____

您对南非旅游发展的建议
Any other suggestions or recommendations

_____

_____

感谢您的大力协助!!!
**Thank you for your co-operation!!!**