Travel Behavior and Expenditure Patterns of the Chinese University Student and the associated Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFRs) markets in New Zealand

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A thesis submitted
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT
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31st December 2008

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation was written in the period from 2006-2008. I have received guidance and inspiration from a number of people, to whom I am greatly indebted.

First and foremost, I would like to express my special gratitude to my principal supervisor, Professor Chris Ryan, who encouraged me to pursue this topic and directed me to address the most important issues within it. His broad experience and skills in supervision of PhD research has successfully guided me through the ups and downs of the research. His knowledge, insight into statistics and commitment to supporting this thesis has allowed me to explore and discover my own views and propelled me towards the finish line. In addition, his understanding and cheerfulness always helped ease my ongoing stress. Without his good logical advice, continuous support, critical and thoughtful scrutiny of the whole written document, the thesis would have taken much longer to finish. It is indeed an honor to work with this most popular name in the tourism academic world.

Second, I would like to thank my co-supervisors, Associate Professor Asad Mohsin and Professor Alison McIntosh for their solid support and continuous encouragement. They have patiently read through each of the chapters and provided intellectually stimulating comments. Their valuable feedback has been extensively incorporated into this thesis. I am grateful for their insightful advice. Also, I sincerely thank assistant administrator Leonie Pope for her valuable contribution and support to the successful completion of this thesis.

Third, I am also very grateful to my colleague Dr. Shih-Shuo (Sam) Yeh for his probing questions, which were helpful in establishing my research framework. I truly appreciate his suggestions and sharing his experience throughout my research process. I also greatly appreciated the participants who were patient enough for my survey. This research would not have been possible without you. I would also like to thank all

the staff from the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Waikato Management School for providing me with opportunities for intelligent discussions and debates that have contributed enormously to my understanding of relevant topics and statistics.

The University of Waikato also deserves my sincere thanks for providing me with its generous financial support in the form of a University of Waikato Doctorial Scholarship. This allowed me to embark on such interesting, practical and important research.

Last but by no means least, thank you to my dad, who has supported me throughout these years for helping me stretch and reach for the best. Though thousands of miles away in China, he has constantly supported, encouraged and believed in me during my overseas study at the University of Waikato, New Zealand. I also want to thank my friends at the University of Waikato for inspiring and helping me in several ways. Their support is priceless and memorable. I look forward to continuing the journey of life with all of you!

ABSTRACT

This thesis examines travel behavior and expenditure patterns of Chinese university students and the associated VFRs in New Zealand. It also investigates the effects of socio-demographics, travel-related, and psychographic variables on travel behavior and expenditure patterns. The thesis involves both interviews and questionnaire surveys with Chinese university students. Analysis of the interviews was based on a Cat-Pac method, while analysis of survey questionnaires was using SPSS 14.0.

From a theoretical perspective, this study contributes to the body of literature on segmentation regarding the student travel market. It shows that it is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on travel motivation and activity attributes of New Zealand. In addition, this study also contributes to the body of literature in relation to travel behavior and expenditure patterns by examining the variables identified in predicting travel behavior and expenditure. The results of this study provide a more comprehensive and holistic picture in the search of travel behavior and expenditure patterns regarding the student travel market. This study finds travel motivation contributes to overall travel satisfaction directly or indirectly via travel activities, which affects the loyalty. In terms of the VFR market, the valid existence of the effect of travel inhibitors on satisfaction is confirmed in this study, which affects the likelihood of further VFR trips in the future. Moreover, this study makes contribution to the role of students as catalysts for inbound VFR tourism to New Zealand. This study also finds that a socio-demographic variable (i.e. immigration status) is the most influential variable affecting student tourism expenditure, while the socio-demographic variable (i.e. age) and travel-related variables (i.e. purpose of visit and length of stay) appear to have significant impacts on VFR tourism expenditure. Further, this study suggests the VFR market is far from homogeneous.

From a practical standpoint, this study sheds light by providing information about travel behavior and expenditure patterns of Chinese university students and their VFRs in New Zealand, and how their socio-demographics and trip characteristics affects travel satisfaction and travel expenditure pattern. Destination marketers may use this information to better segment their target market, allocate their marketing dollars more effectively, tailor their products to compete with other destination countries and develop better strategic marketing tools to satisfy and fulfill needs of Chinese university students and their VFRs and understand certain reasons behind their travel behavior and spending patterns. In addition, because Chinese university students are a significant market segment for New Zealand's VFR tourism industry, promotional campaigns encouraging them to invite friends and relatives and informing them of activities in which they can engage with their VFRs are encouraged.

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DEFINITIONS AND TERMINOLOGY

- The definition of an ***international student*** encompasses all student types enrolled at an institution providing education, and the students are from another country (Taylor, Shanka & Pope, 2004).

- The definition of a ***university student*** market in this paper is anyone who studies full time at the university.

- Throughout this paper, the acronym "**VFRs**" refers to **V**isiting **F**riends and **R**elatives' travelers. The acronym "**VFs**" refers to **V**isiting **F**riends' travellers, while the acronym "**VRs**" refers to **V**isiting **R**elatives' travellers.

- The definition of ***VFRs*** in this paper is implicitly a motivational one determined by the responses to two questions: "What is/was the main purpose of your trip?" and "Does this trip have any other purposes?" In this study, respondents were classified as VFRs if:
  (1) they reported "visiting friends and relatives" as a main trip purpose of their trip or
  (2) they indicated a main trip purpose other than VFR but reported VFR as a secondary purpose.

- For the purpose of the study a ***day trip*** was defined as "any pleasure trip taken to a tourist destination involving a round trip on the same day" and an ***overnight trip*** as "any pleasure trip taken to a tourist destination involving at least one night's stay away from home".

- For the purpose of the study, definitions of a ***longer holiday*** and a ***shorter holiday*** were not provided to survey respondents. Individuals tend to have their own varied perceptions/definitions of the longer holiday and shorter holiday and such definitions might predispose them to orient their responses accordingly.

- For the purpose of the study, the ***"PR"*** category refers to persons who enter New Zealand to study but now possess permanent residential status, and the ***"Non-PR"*** category refers to persons who enter New Zealand but only possess the rights inherent in their visa classification.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTORY

1.1 Introduction

As the global travel markets mature and destinations become more competitive, the need to discover new market segments is paramount (Yaman, 1996). Whilst other markets have begun to falter in the face of economic uncertainty, the relatively constant demand generated by students has brought this market increasingly to the attention of researchers and marketers. The continuing rapid growth in international student numbers all over the world is an optimistic prospect for the tourism industry. Notably, it is apparent that international students not only contribute directly to the New Zealand tourism industry by undertaking domestic leisure travel during their educational stay but also indirectly through visits by family and friends from their home countries (Weaver, 2004). As such, the sub-segment of VFR travelers initiated by the international student market can be expected to grow considerably in countries which host international students. However, in spite of the importance of the student and associated VFR travel markets, the current body of knowledge regarding these markets is quite limited. Therefore, this thesis aims to unravel the complexity of the Chinese university student and associated VFR travel markets, drawing on their travel behavior and expenditure patterns. This chapter initially provides a background for the study, including the profile of an emerging new market niche (the student travel market), the development of the student travel market with regard to size, growth and potential and the significant contributions that international students have made to the tourism industry. It then identifies the significance of the subject. Finally, the structure of the thesis was identified.

1.2 Background to Research Study

There is growing interest in the linkages between tourism and education among academics as well as the managers of tourism products and destinations (Cooper & Latham, 1990; Holdnak & Holland, 1996; Ritchie, 2003 and Wood, 2001). This

section evaluates the linkages between tourism and international education. Tourism is one of the world's largest and fastest growing industries. In 2006, tourism comprised around 35 per cent of the world's exports of services. International arrivals grew by 5.4 per cent to 846 million tourists and international tourism receipts increased by 8.4 per cent to US$733 billion (World Tourism Organization, 2007). On average, 2.3 million people undertook travel per day in 2006 to a country outside their place of residence, and spent an average of US$2 million on travel expenditures in transportation, accommodation, meals, entertainment and shopping. WTO forecasts that international arrivals are expected to reach approximately 1.6 billion by 2020. In the global context, New Zealand is a small player, with just 0.3 percent of international arrivals and 0.6 percent international tourism expenditure. However, tourism plays a significant role in the New Zealand economy. In 2004/2005, it contributed $12 billion or 9.4 per cent of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In addition, it was also responsible for 18.5 per cent of New Zealand's total export earnings (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism, 2006). Tourism was the largest export earner, ahead of other key export product groups such as dairy, meat and wood. It is also an important source of employment. Tourism accounted, directly and indirectly, for one in ten jobs in the New Zealand workforce in 2004/2005 (New Zealand Ministry of Economic Development, 2005). Recently, international tourism has been one of New Zealand's best performing export sectors. In the decade between 1992 and 2002, visitor arrivals grew by 6.8 percent per annum and visitor expenditure increased even faster. In 2007, New Zealand hosted a total of 2.467 million international visitors aged 15 years and over. International tourism increased by 2.4 percent or 58,000 tourists compared with the previous year (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism, 2007). International tourist arrivals are forecast to increase to 3.2 million visitors in 2013. This is equivalent to an average annual growth rate of 4.0 per cent, a pattern of continued strong growth which is consistent with the historic growth pattern of the past three decades (New Zealand Ministry of Economic Development, 2005). Also, international expenditure is forecast to increase $10.5 billion in 2013, an average growth rate of 7.4 percent per annum (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism,

2007b). These forecasts suggest that the industry has strong potential for growth and reinforce the increasing importance of international tourism to the New Zealand economy.

One of the emerging distinctive segments in the overall tourism market that possesses potential for the international tourism industry is the youth tourism market (Park, Latkova & Nicholls, 2006). In 1995, the European Travel Commission published a study specifically dedicated to Europe's youth travel market covering 26 countries. The study concluded that the 15 to 26 age group took around 80 million trips and made 100 million border crossings per year, representing a fifth of all international trips and around a quarter of all holiday travel (Horak & Weber, 2000). The Federation of International Youth Travel Organizations (FIYTO), a global trade association consisting of more than 400 member companies specializing in the youth travel market in 60 countries, estimates that more than 8 million air and surface tickets are sold annually to youth and student travelers, generating an annual turnover of more than US$8 billion (FIYTO, 2001).

As a significant sub-group of the larger youth travel market, the international student market is a noteworthy segment of the international travel market and accounts for approximately 20 per cent of all international travelers (Bywater, 1993 and Frost & Shanka, 1999). It represents a multibillion-dollar business (Bywater, 1993; Chadee & Culter, 1996; Josiam, Clements & Hobson, 1994). Hobson & Josiam (1992) pointed out that students were a market that not only possessed purchasing power, but also had the desire to spend it. Furthermore, the changing demographics of the international travel would indicate that students represent a growing proportion of international travelers (Frost & Shanka, 1999). Educational activities, especially international education, will normally lead to other travel activities. International students would behave like tourists when they engage in typical tourist activities while studying overseas (Tourism News, 2002). Students travel to other countries either during their vacations or for revitalisation after a few years of study towards

their degrees and spend a few nights at the destination (Frost & Shanka, 2000). This phenomenon revealed that international students were not entirely focused upon their studies. As American students believed, they learned more from their travels than they did from their academic courses (Gmelch, 1997). This is because students perceive the opportunity for travel as being an important part of their overseas educational experience that enhances their understanding of local cultures and appreciation of the western lifestyle (Ryan & Xie, 2003). Students also enjoy travelling away from a familiar environment because it gives them exposure to different cultures and ideas. In many cases, it gives them a fresh look at themselves and their surroundings (Josiam, Clements & Hobson, 1994 and Leung, 1999). Similarly, Heung & Leong (2006) argued that university students in Hong Kong perceived academic learning could be enhanced through travelling, as it could widen their horizons. Carlson *et al.* (1990) found that one of the most valuable activities that American students engaged in while abroad in Europe is travel. Sung & Hsu (1996) found that international students had a better understanding of the U.S. culture and the appreciation of American people by visiting various parts of the United States. This finding supports Hunt's (1992) contention that most people, including international students, want to learn about the cultural, natural and historical world in which they live. These motivations were heightened by the fact that many international students lack a desire or ability to stay in a host country like the U.S. beyond their time at a university (Babin & Kim, 2001). Consequently, many international students would like to see as much of the country as possible during their time of study (Babin & Kim, 2001). In addition, the university environment has encouraged students to travel and take holidays. This situation was developed through the presence of travel agencies catering specifically to university students (Smeaton, Josiam & Dietrich, 1998).

The benefits of international education to the tourism industry are significant. International students represent a multibillion-dollar business for the tourism industry, which represents a potentially viable and lucrative target for many tourism marketers (Bywater, 1993 and Mattila, Apostolopoulos, Sonmez, Yu & Sasidharan, 2001). The

international student population consists of avid travellers who are prepared to save to ensure that their trip meets the ‘once in a lifetime’ requirement, even if the trip does not end up being a one-off, which is clearly not judging by the high number of repeat visits (Richards & Wilson, 2005). Also, it was found the development of student products was increasingly likely to revolve around student travel “enclaves” (Richards & Wilson, 2004), where consumers and producers congregate. In other words, the service providers could be lifestyle entrepreneurs who are building a career on their own travel experiences. Such suppliers are able to get much closer to their customers and assume market leadership through product innovation based on their ‘life on the road’ experience (Richards & Wilson, 2005, p.44). In many ways, the shift into lifestyle entrepreneurship is an extension of the ‘travel career’ which enables these suppliers to combine their work and leisure activities and develop adapted products (Richards & Wilson, 2005). The development of such ‘travel career’ would in turn create a thirst for more travel. These people expand their horizons by choosing increasingly challenging destinations as they become more experienced travellers (Richards & Wilson, 2005). Other factors which have contributed to the growth of student travel include, changing perceptions of social class boundaries, the growing importance of parental income, the rise of budget and low-cost airlines, the growth of long-distance coach services specifically targeted at student travellers, the growth of dedicated student travel suppliers, the global rise of Internet culture, opening up new destinations via exposure through this medium, the growth of independent travel guidebooks, the growing tendency for students to work or study during their travel as a means of funding their trip create new opportunities for students to explore the world (Aviation and Tourism International (ATI), 1995 and Shoham, Schrage & van Eeden, 2004). Shorter employment contracts offer more opportunities to travel between jobs. Although they spend less per day than the average tourist, international students remain in the destination country for a longer period of time compared with most mainstream tourists and have more opportunities to travel during semester breaks and the summer vacation in the country where they study. Thus, international student travel represents a considerable value to the world tourism industry (Theuns,

1992 and Son, 2003). In addition, the international student market is less susceptible to external shocks caused by political or social uncertainty (such as war, terrorist incidents and political unrest) (Weaver, 2004). For example, the 9-11 terrorist attack in the US did not appear to have induced a decrease in the number of international students in the US or of American students studying abroad (Marklein, 2002). Richards & Wilson (2004) also highlighted that as other markets have begun to falter in the face of economic uncertainty, the student market generated relatively constant demand, which brought the student market increasingly to the attention of researchers. Furthermore, there is a growing propensity of students to travel to destinations that older tourists tend to avoid because of accessibility, infrastructure and political issues. Student travel is a major potential growth market as the international student population expands, incomes rise among young people and new markets are opened up in the newly industrialized economies (Richards & Wilson, 2004a). The future of the travel industry, to some extent, relies on the student travel market, because it provides an important basis for the travel decisions of future generations (Richards & Wilson, 2004a).

1.3 The Significance of the Subject

The growth of international student population in the last decade has brought the student travel market onto the research agenda (Richards & Wilson, 2004). This was first emphasized internationally in November 1991 with the first World Tourism Organization (WTO) conference on youth tourism in Delhi. In 2002, the International Student Travel Confederation (ISTC) and the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) conducted the global independent travel survey, which was indicative of the growing research interest in student travel by the tourism industry and academic researchers. ISTC and FITYO co-hosted an annual globally attended trade fair and conference in 2003 devoted exclusively to the youth and student travel industry, while in 2003 the Student and Youth Travel Association of North America (SYTA) hosted its seventh annual conference on youth travel in Quebec. In addition, nine academic articles and book reviews were published in 2004 by "*Tourism Review*

International". This represented a substantial contribution to the broadening knowledge base of students and tourism, in which a diversity of themes and methodologies was used. However, while the student travel market has captured considerable attention, this market has not been studied in great detail. This deficiency could be due to several factors. In many previous studies, there is a failure to differentiate between youth travelers and student travelers (Cohen, 2004). Apparently, the activities engaged in by student travelers are no different from those of other young tourists. In addition, given that the WTO's definition of youth tourism includes all travel by young people aged between 15 and 29 years (WTO, 1991), student travel has tended to be subsumed within the wider youth travel market. Consequently, even though the growing number of student travelers is significant, the major studies of the youth travel market have tended to neglect student travelers as a discrete market segment within the wider youth market (Richards & Wilson, 2004). This in turn results in relatively fewer studies on student travel. On the contrary, Carr (2001) argued that it is important to recognize that university students are a population that is distinct from the youth population, with different age, socio-cultural, educational and economic characteristics. According to Pritchard & Morgan (1996), there is a clear distinction between the holiday patterns of students and those of young people in full time employment. For example, it has been noted that students' low income limits their travel behaviors, such as destination choice. Hence, the need for this research is related to the fact that university students represent a separate and distinct proportion of the youth tourist population.

There is a perception that student travelers represent the less profitable market which is associated with working holidays, backpacking, youth hostels, and in general low budget travel (Frost & Shanka, 2000). The prevailing misconception that the student market is low value in terms of its spending levels, has led to limited research into student travelers' perceptions, images and behaviors, and this has also resulted in the under-marketing of this segment (Carr, 1998; Seekings, 1998; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Richards & Wilson, 2004). However, this notion has been challenged. Seekings

(1998) emphasized that the low-spender assumption is a result of failure to differentiate "between spend per transaction and spend per visit" (p.49). Weaver (2004) highlighted that international students exert considerable economic impact which is disproportionate to their actual numbers. Park, Latkova & Nicholls (2006) argued that although student travelers tend to be price sensitive, they remain in the destination country for a long period of time compared with other tourist segments. Consequently, they are likely to generate a higher number of transactions and their spending per visit is often equivalent to mainstream travelers' spending. Leung (1999) noted that relative to their incomes, student travelers were willing to spend more than non-student travelers. They would normally do a lot of shopping, and participated in various forms of entertainment and activities. Fun and enjoyment were their priority rather than cost. Richards & Wilson (2005) discovered that students would save and work so that they could travel, and the total spendings on the students' major trips were higher than other market segments, even if the daily average spending tends to be lower. All these findings demonstrated that student travel was far from budget holidays in terms of total spending. Furthermore, studies by Butts, Salazar, Sapio & Thomas (1996) and Hobson & Josiam (1992) revealed that many destinations relied heavily on the spring break travel market for a large percentage of their annual tourism receipts. The student market is a profitable lucrative business if it is appropriately targeted and handled. This is because they have few external commitments and generally have over 20 weeks of free time outside of the study term each year (Carr, 2003). Additionally, limitations on international entitlements to work and the fact that students studying overseas do not have homes close by to visit, mean they have free time to travel during their spring and summer breaks. They also develop travel patterns that feed into subsequent life stages. To the travel industry, international students are seen as the mature travelers of tomorrow with a significant amount of discretionary income to spend on travel (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2002). With a high level of qualification, it is not surprising to predict that international tertiary students gain jobs which pay above average incomes, thereby permitting them to undertake travel while they are pursuing their career goals (Shoham, Schrage & van

Eeden, 2004; Ryan & Gu, 2008). Therefore, students will become the "bread and butter" of the regular industry after graduation (Shoham *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, satisfied student travelers can become a future target market as they represent potential returning visitors (Seekings, 1998). According to the Australian Tourist Commission (ATC), student travelers of today are likely to become the high-yield repeat visitors throughout their life. The ATC (2003) also says that capturing the travelers early in their 'traveling lifecycle" is likely to result in multiple return visits, including:

- The initial visit as a student or backpacker (also drawing additional visitors)
- Potential second visit as a young professional couple, including perhaps a wedding or honeymoon
- Potential third visit as a family
- Potential fourth visit as an 'empty-nester' or retiree

On the contrary, destinations that currently de-market themselves to student travelers may be dissuading future repeat visits from today's 'global nomads' who may be keen and high-spending independent travelers in the future.

While the college student travel market has received some attention in previous research, these studies have mainly focused on student-related travel phenomena in Western countries, such as the US spring break market (Hobson & Josiam, 1992; Josiam, Clements & Hobson, 1994; Hobson & Josiam, 1995). Economic growth in Asia means that more families are able and willing to send their children abroad to study, as well as growth in international trade, are likely to increase the probability of Asians traveling overseas (Chadee & Culter, 1996). Therefore, the shift in research focus on student travel demand is gradually changing from "Western" to Asian regions (Richards & Wilson, 2004). Notably, as a result of China's fast growing economy and the country's integration into the global market, in recent years, more and more Chinese people have chosen to send their children abroad for study (Xinhua News, 2007d). A report by New Zealand International Education Marketing Network

(NZIEMN) identified Asians as one of the biggest groups of international students in New Zealand. In 2006, there were 35,261 Chinese international students enrolled in colleges, universities and other institutions of higher education in New Zealand (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007). This could potentially represent a sizeable segment of the travel market. The emergent market of overseas Chinese university student offers a good opportunity for destinations to attract these student travelers. While there is a significant number of Chinese students enrolled in the tertiary institutions in New Zealand, there is a dearth of studies on the characteristics of the Chinese university student travel market in tourism research.

While the increasing numbers of studies on the student travel market has helped to acknowledge the growing importance of this market, the international student travel market is still relatively under-researched. Specifically there is a lack of research about travel behaviors of the international students. The previous research that has been conducted on the university student travel market has tended to focus on specific areas rather than provide an investigation of all aspects of student population's holiday behavior. For example, Sirakaya & McLellan (1997) focused on the factors that affected the choice of holiday destinations by US students, and ignored the nature of the students' holidays or behavior while on vacation. Chadee & Culter (1996) studied the holiday motivations of New Zealand students, but did not discuss how these students behaved while on vacation. In contrast, the study by Hsu & Sung (1997) and Field (1999) have partially filled the research gap in that they examined the holiday behavior of international students in US universities. Richards & Wilson (2005) conducted a case study of the general travel behavior of the international student travel market from eight countries with forty-two different nationalities.

The associated travel generated by the friends and family (VFR) of international students provide an interesting area of research (Shanka & Taylor, 2003). There is considerable indirect evidence to suggest that the participation rate in VFR tourism, in both a host and traveler role, is significantly higher among international students than

the general population (Chadee & Cutler, 1996, Hsu & Sung, 1997; Chen & Kerstetter, 1999; Field, 1999; Leiper & Hunt, 1999; Shanka *et al.*, 2001; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Michael *et al.*, 2003; Taylor, Shanka & Pope, 2004). Since New Zealand has a high population of international students, it is likely that the student-generated VFR international market in New Zealand is strong. Student-generated VFRs have an influential ongoing effect on the travel market of the destination country. It is important to the tourism industry in terms of volume. Many international students always host VFRs during and outside study term times (ETC, 2002). Attending student graduation ceremonies also attracted many family members of international students to the destination. At all levels of education, the graduation ceremony is a celebration of achievement of major significance. There is evidence to suggest that many visitors combine a VFR trip (catch up with friends and/or relatives) with a holiday or short break at the destination. However, with a significant number of students attending higher education institutions overseas, it is surprising that research on student-generated VFR sector is limited to Australia and the UK. It is also evident that even though international students play an important role in initiating visits from their friends and relatives, there is limited marketing of destinations at universities. The country of origin of the student seems to have an impact on VFR travel, with Chinese students more likely to host such visits. There may be a connection between Chinese ethnicity and capacity to pay, as well as a demonstrable interest in engaging in family reunion among the Chinese student population (Isa, 2004). Therefore, the significant number of Chinese students studying overseas could contribute to the continued expansion of the VFR sector. As China continues to improve its national economy, liberalize its 'open door' policies toward the outside world and increase the number of public holidays and leisure vacations, the country is expected to become a major source of international travel in the world. There have been significant increases in the number of Chinese traveling overseas. In the late 1990s, China as an outbound market for travel and tourism was described as a sleeping giant (Davidson, Hertrich & Schwandner, 2004). As predicted, the giant has awaken and is growing by leaps and bounds (Li, Bai & McCleary, 1996; Zhang, Chong & Ap, 1999). Chinese

citizens made 16.6 million outbound trips in 2002, 20.22 million in 2003, 28.85 million in 2004 and 25.76 million in the first 10 months of 2005. This is equivalent to an 8.3 percent growth year-on-year, according to the National Tourism Administration (NTA, in China Daily 2006). Compared with 20 years ago, the number of Chinese citizens going abroad with a private passport has increased 50-fold (China Daily, 2006). According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), China would become the world's fourth-largest source of outbound tourists by 2020 with more than 100 million people traveling abroad each year (WTO, 2000). According to the WTO's estimates, until 2020, China's outbound market would grow the fastest in the Asia/Pacific region, at an average rate of 12.3 percent per year (WTO, 2000). However, the Chinese student associated VFR market appeared to be the most neglected aspect of the tourism phenomenon.

Overall, international students represent a distinct travel market with specific needs and preferences. It is important for travel marketing practitioners and researchers to better understand the characteristics of international students and develop specific products to meet their needs and desires. To understand this distinct market, it is important to examine their travel behavior. For instance, what motivates international students to take a trip, what activities do they undertake, what their preferred and actual modes of travel are, which mode of transport, type of accommodation and restaurants they use during their travel, which information sources they use to plan a trip and how much do they spend on traveling. In addition, given the importance of international students as an important contributor to the VFR sector, it is necessary for marketers to be aware of the role which university students can play in attracting VFR trips as well as the characteristics and travel behavior of the VFR market. The requirements of associated VFRs in regard to the products and service that tourist providers offer may differ from those of all other tourist types. Thus, it is necessary to examine these variances and act upon them accordingly in order to maximize the potential for student-generated VFR business. The results of this research provide insights into the international student travel and associated VFR travel phenomenon

that would be helpful to marketers in formulating marketing strategies and tailoring their products and services to the needs of Chinese students and their VFR markets and reap the financial benefits of their spending. The research is also designed to serve as a basis for future research on international students and their VFR travel trends. It will form the foundation of a detailed database upon which travel and marketing researchers can build on.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is structured into eleven chapters. Chapter 1 has provided a background for the research. It includes problems that this study addresses and the significance of the research. Chapter 2 examines the context of the study, concerning Chinese university students in New Zealand, the student population size, their role in VFR tourism and the economic contribution of student-generated VFRs. Chapter 3 reviews a wide range of literature relevant to the student and VFR travel markets. Chapter 4 identifies study gaps and research objectives, highlights research framework and outlines the methods used to analyze the data. Chapter 5 presents the results of a qualitative study. It helps avoid researcher determined questions and understand what respondents think in order to identify questions, as discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 6 discusses the questionnaire design and justifies the methodology used. Chapter 7 describes the nature of the sample and presents broad descriptive statistics. Chapter 8 illustrates the findings of the role of socio-demographics on travel behavior and expenditure patterns regarding the Chinese university student and VFR markets. Chapter 9 demonstrates the results of factor and cluster analyses, which helps identify market segments of the Chinese university student travelers. Chapter 10 provides detailed information on regression analysis to explain the travel behavior of Chinese university students and their VFRs so as to develop appropriate marketing strategies for these markets. The final chapter summarizes the findings from the research, justifies the contribution of this research to the literature and management and marketing practice, as well as discusses the limitation of the study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

CHINESE STUDENTS IN NEW ZEALAND

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the Chinese outbound market in general and the Chinese student market in New Zealand, in particular, the role of official government initiatives both in China and New Zealand, and the importance of the Chinese student market to New Zealand.

2.2 The Development of the Chinese Outbound Travel Market—A General Overview

Outbound tourism by Chinese citizens is a more recent phenomenon. Before the late 1970's, outbound leisure travel from China was unheard of (Wang & Sheldon, 1995). Like many of the former socialist countries of Eastern Europe, China had travel restrictions both within and outside the country, for fear of Western ideological contamination (Zhang & Heung, 2001). At the eleventh Congress of the Chinese Communist Party's Third Plenary in 1978, the party leadership decided to shift its emphasis from political struggle to economic reconstruction (Zhang, Jenkins & Qu, 2003). The Four Modernizations of industry, agriculture, science and technology, and national defenses were the guiding principles of President Deng Xiaoping's new era (China Market Research, 2004). These principles, which were reflected in a more open stance to the outside world and the open door policy, have dramatic impacts on the development of mainland Chinese outbound tourism sector.

For the past decade, the Chinese government has further relaxed the traditional controls over outbound travel. Chinese outbound travel was for many years restricted to cross-border travel, business and official travel as well as visiting overseas friends and relatives (Roth, 1998). Hong Kong and Macao became the first international destinations that Chinese tourists could visit in the mid-1980s, when travel to these "territories" of China was opened up on an "experimental" basis for business travel

(Lew, 2000). A major change in the central government's policy on international travel occurred in 1990 when Chinese nationals were officially allowed to join leisure tours organized by the China Travel Service (CTS) to Hong Kong, Macao and several Asian countries (Yatsko and Tasker, 1998). These were the first officially designated "tourism liberalizing countries" (Zhang, Jenkins & Qu, 2001). Travel barriers that once prevented Chinese nationals from traveling abroad have continually been eliminated since China joined the WTO in 2001. According to the WTO, the Mainland Chinese government must reduce its restrictions on foreign companies operating Mainland Chinese tourism businesses. Likewise, limitations on the percentage of foreign capital allowed in stock shares of joint ventures were also reduced in 2003. The government was also required to ease constraints on branches of foreign travel agencies and reduce registered capital of joint venture travel agencies by the rules of WTO, granting them domestic status by the end of 2005. More travel agencies in Mainland China have received permission from authorities to organize outbound travel for Mainland Chinese citizens, and their number had grown to 582 by 2002. In addition, the government launched various reforms on outbound travel policies, such as not requiring invitations from overseas destinations when travelling abroad for non-business purposes. A licensing system for outbound travel services was introduced by the CNTA for Mainland Chinese travel agencies, all of which were required to maintain high performance standards before they were granted certificates. In this way, the outbound product was kept in order and consumers' rights and business interests were also protected, which helped the growth of Mainland Chinese outbound pleasure travel (Gao, 2002).

As well as the opening up of the outbound tourism market, simplification of passports and visa applications has made a great contribution to the growth of Chinese outbound travel (Xinhua News Agency, 2003c). Guo (2002) pointed out that since August 1, 1999, application procedures for private passports used for business trips and visiting relatives have been simplified. In most areas of the country, private passport application has been made much easier without complicated examinations

and approvals (Zhang, 2006). As from April 2001, a simplified passport application procedure was established which requires only ID cards and permanent residence documents (Eastday.com, 2003). Apart from this, recently, passports are being issued in five working days, down from twenty, and there are fewer situations in which registration with the tourism authority is required before the citizens can travel (Laurent, 2005).

The visa issuance is also linked to the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system (Lim & Wang, 2005). The ADS is a bilateral tourism agreement between China and overseas destinations which allows Chinese leisure tourists to travel to these countries (Lim & Wang, 2005). The liberalization of visa issuance for Chinese citizens is an ongoing process as more foreign countries sign the ADS agreements with China. With 134 countries and regions now granted the ADS status, the Chinese State Council is actively extending the status to other potential overseas destinations for organized package tours of Chinese outbound tourists (Jang, Yu & Pearson, 2003). According to Zhang & Lew (1997), getting a passport was once the biggest obstacle to overseas travel. Getting approved status has gradually made it easier to apply for private passport and visa to visit approved destinations, with the processing period reduced from six months to one month or within ten days for urgent situations (Lim & Wang, 2005). The ADS agreement has benefited foreign destinations with the volume of Chinese outbound tourists. In 1999, a special tourism agreement between the People's Republic of China (PRC) and New Zealand was signed, which meant that New Zealand was designated as an approved tourism destination for Chinese outbound tourists. Therefore, China represents a potentially important market for New Zealand. In addition to travel restrictions in the past, mainland Chinese tourists had limited access to information on tourism products in other countries (Zou, 2006). Thus, potential outbound Chinese visitors had to make travel decisions, not on the basis of "what do I want?" but "with my interests, what choices do I have?" With the ADS, countries are able to market their travel products directly to Chinese outbound travelers in Mainland China. For example, Australia has attracted many Mainland

Chinese by holding travel exhibitions and marketer training courses for a total cost of RMB500,000 each year. Travel companies from South Korea launched their promotional activities in conjunction with the 2002 FIFA World Cup, which was held in Japan and South Korea. Among all of Singapore's major tourism source markets, Mainland China has always been considered important, and many efforts were made to exploit the market. New Zealand also promotes itself as a leisure holiday destination in China with a legal status and broadened New Zealand's market base in China by adding leisure tourism to the two existing markets, namely business and VFR tourism (Lim & Wang, 2005).

Since China adopted its open-door policy, the emergence of Chinese outbound travel seems inevitable, particularly in the light of the country's large population (Murray, 2000). In January 2005 it was estimated that the Chinese population of more than 1.3 billion, would increase by about 10 million a year between 2005 and 2010, reaching a peak population of 1.46 billion by 2010 (Carnell, 2005, BBC News, 2005 and International Travel Survey, 2005). With about 1.3 billion people, China could become the world's largest tourist generating market. Mainland Chinese outbound travel market has increased rapidly since the beginning of the 1990s. It has only taken a decade for China's outbound tourist numbers to increase at an annual growth rate of 19.4 percent from 3.7 million in 1993 to 20.2 million in 2003 (Lim & Wang, 2005). From 1996 to 2006, outbound travel from Mainland China has increased by a staggering 580 percent, and has reached 34.52 million in 2006 (de Jong, 2007; China's Ministry of Public Security, 2007). In 2007, there were over 40 million Chinese tourists traveling abroad, which makes it the largest outbound tourist source nation in Asia, surpassing Japan, the previous leader in the Asia-Pacific region (Verikios, 2008). According to Zhu Shanzhong, a tourism promotion official with the China National Tourism Administration, the growth rate of outbound Chinese tourists has outpaced the world's tourist arrival (Xinhua News, 2007). The WTO has estimated that Chinese outbound tourists would increase from 10.47 million per year in 2000 to 50 million by 2010, and 100 million by 2020 (MacLeod, 2001). Therefore,

China is projected to become one of the leading tourist source countries in the world. With more than a million mainland Chinese visitors each month at present, those destinations or outbound operators who wish to tap into the ever-growing China travel market have to keep a close eye on the changes and shifts that are occurring in the market place (de Jong, 2007).

The growth in Mainland Chinese outbound travel is highly correlated with China's economic development. Ryan (2003) states that more travel is only possible when the increases in leisure are accompanied by increases in income. China is the most populous country and it is one of the fastest developing economies in the world. China's GDP has increased at its fastest pace in 13 years, when the economy grew by 11.4 percent from 2006 to 2007, to US$3.42 trillion (The State Council Information Office, P.R.C., 2008). This represented a fifth year of double-digit economic growth for the world's fourth largest economy after the US, Japan and Germany (China Daily, 2008). As a consequence of China's rapid economic growth, the living standards of the Chinese people have also improved rapidly. In the period of 1978 to 2000, the average growth rate of the Gross National Income (GNI) per capita for China was 7.15 percent. In 2000, the GNI per capita of Chinese citizens was US$840, which was more than four times that in 1978 (The World Bank, 1978-2000). In 2005, the country's GNI increased to US$1,000 nationally, over $5,000 in some large cities and more developed regions (Zhang, 2006). China's economic boom has provided the Chinese with higher disposable income. The average disposable income of Mainland Chinese urban households increased from RMB1700.6 in 1991 to Chinese RMB9421.6 Yuan in 2004. In 2006, the annual disposable income was RMB21,739 per household, representing a robust 50 percent increase over 2001 in real terms. As a result of the increased disposable income, Chinese outbound travel spending powers increased dramatically (ACNielsen, 2005). The latter accounted for US$15.4 billion in tourist spending globally in 2002, up 11% over the previous year (People's Daily, 2005). As a result of the rapid development of the Chinese economy the income of the Chinese population has increased substantially, especially for the residents of the

major urban centers. It is estimated that by 2015 almost half of China's population will live in major urban areas, by 2030 that figure is expected to reach over 60 percent (de Jong, 2007). Urban Mainland Chinese dominate consumption in the country in general, so it is no surprise that they also dominate demand for international travel. The growth of disposable income among urban Mainland Chinese has become an important stimulus for increasing expenditures in education, cultural activities and recreational services, which can be linked directly or indirectly to international travel demand, and the level of disposable income for each urban household (Guo, Kim & Timothy, 2007). In line with the country's impressive economic growth, the Chinese middle class is expanding strongly, and concentrated mainly in urban areas where greater jobs and business opportunities exist (Hodgson, 2007). The middle class in China is defined as comprising households with an annual income between RMB60,000 and RMB500,000 (Hodgson, 2007). The China State Information Center, by contrast, considers those earning 50,000 yuan (US$6,227) per year to be middle class – and expects 25 per cent of the populace to qualify by 2010. It comprises entrepreneurs and managers in high-tech companies, foreign firms and financial institutions as well as some self-employed private entrepreneurs. They comprise the most important target consumer group for both local and international companies who want to secure long-term success in the country due to their significant purchasing power (Hodgson, 2007). It is estimated that China's middle class has grown from 65.5 million in January 2005 to 80 million in January 2007. This is expected to expand to 700 million by 2020, driven by continued strong economic growth (Hodgson, 2007). Unlike the United States, where income typically peaks between the ages of 45 to 54, it is predicted that the wealthiest consumers in China will be between 25 to 44 years old because the younger generation will be more highly educated and intent on enjoying the fruits of their labor (Chao, 2008).

The Chinese booming economy and associated increases in household income were attributed to as the major influencing factors on overseas travel demand, since higher disposal income made it possible for Chinese people to finance their international

trips. Another important push factor for the increasing demand for outbound travel from Chinese citizens is related to time availability. As economic reforms have reached wider geographical areas and productivity has steadily improved, Chinese workers are given more holidays so that they have more leisure time for travel. In the early 1990s, the Chinese government and State-Owned companies in some cities started to implement an 11-working day fortnight (Zhang & Lew, 1997). This was subsequently changed to the five working day week in 1995. Under this new policy, Chinese can have more leisure time to travel. Additionally, the introduction of the three 'golden week' holidays in 1999 has a tremendous influence on the tourism industry in China. This resulted in a total of 114 free days each year, which enables Mainland Chinese to travel to short and long haul destinations. At present, Chinese people enjoy three days each given for the International Labour Day in May, China's National Day in October and the Spring Festival between January and February. The weekends prior to the three main holidays are designated as two working days. It is normal practice to take those two days off during the following week making the International Labour Day, National Day and Spring Festival holidays as seven consecutive days each. They are known as the "Golden Week" as the holidays gave people time to travel. Since the year January 2008, the Chinese government has shortened one of the country's three "golden week" holidays, which is the Labor Day Golden Week holiday from three days to one day, and introduced three new one-day traditional festival holidays (Xinhua News, 2007a). The new national public holiday plan increases the number of legal national holidays from 10 to 11 days by adding three traditional festivals – Tomb-Sweeping Day, Dragon-boat Festival and Mid Autumn Festival to the list of public holidays (Xinhua News, 2007b). Annual leave entitlement is not a countrywide labour market policy. For Chinese civil servants, paid annual leave has been part of their non-wage benefits. This can vary from 5 to 25 days according to the length of services. In 2004, some prosperous cities/provinces such as Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang have made the granting of annual leave entitlement compulsory for civil servants. The employees of the Baoshan district in Shanghai are also entitled to an allowance for travel on top of their paid leave. In 2007, the

Legislative Affairs Office of China's State Council has announced that all employees of government organizations, civil organizations, enterprises and public-service institutions are entitled to take paid vacation after serving the same employer for one year (Xinhua News, 2007c). Employees who have worked from one to ten years, ten to twenty years or more than twenty years would have five, ten or fifteen days paid vacation, respectively. Public holidays and weekends will not be included as paid vacation. With the introduction of the paid holiday system, leisure tourism and holidays may gradually become a part of life for more and more people in China as it gives more free time to employees of the public sector to undertake travel. Moreover, some enterprises in Mainland China have begun to organize incentive tours for their employees, which further facilitates longer stays abroad which otherwise would not be possible (Guo, Kim & Timothy, 2007).

The favorable exchange rate has also influenced outbound travel demand. Chinese overseas visitors need to exchange RMB with foreign currencies when they travel abroad. From 1994 to mid 2005, the exchange rate between US dollar and yuan remained stable, ranging from 8.7 to 8.3 yuan per US dollar (Verikios, 2008). In 2006, the value of yuan continued to rise by 3.28 percent against the US dollar, to the value of 7.81 yuan per US dollar, which breached the mark of 7 yuan per US dollar (Xinhua News, 2008). According to Industrial & Commercial Bank of China (2008), the foreign exchange rate of RMB to one US dollar could rise to 7.24 yuan in 2007. Analysts attributed the continuous rise of the yuan to a weakening US dollar. They forecast that the Chinese currency would appreciate at least 7-10 percent against the US dollar during 2008 (Verikios, 2008). With the appreciation of the RMB against the US dollar, more Chinese tourists are expected to travel to overseas destinations. For Chinese travelers, it means stronger purchasing power in the United States and other countries and regions that use US dollars or peg their currencies to it. For example, since Chinese tour groups are still unable to organize trips to the United States, destinations such as Hong Kong, with its currency pegged to the US dollar, tend to attract tourists from Mainland China. According to Guo Guang, manager with

ctrip.com, an online travel service, the number of customers who purchase Hong Kong tour products from ctrip.com has increased by 70 percent annually (China Daily, 2008). However, it is important to realize that outbound travel is not being seriously driven by the rise of the yuan, rather, the current yuan appreciation can only serve as an auxiliary factor to the booming outbound tourism market.

Meanwhile, the limit of foreign currency brought by residents out of the country has been lifted several times. Given that the Chinese currency is not traded in the money market, Chinese tourists can only obtain limited amount of foreign currency from the Bank of China due to the exit currency restriction. In 1993, the Chinese government officially allowed a maximum of US$1,000 to be taken out of the country on the condition that a traveler was able to show a valid passport and visa (Wang & Sheldon, 1995). The State Administration of Foreign Exchange (SAFE) in China eased restrictions on the amount of foreign currency Chinese citizens can take for overseas travel in April, 2001. The new regulation stipulated that each person can take a maximum of US$2,000 per trip abroad, compared to the past when they could only take US$2,000 per person for overseas travel for the entire year. This change in foreign exchange management is an obvious step in preparation for the opening up of the foreign exchange market after China's entry into the World Trade Organization (Jang, Yu & Pearson, 2003). From June 2003, the amount of foreign currencies that Chinese travelers can bring overseas had increased to US$5,000, a considerable rise from the previous limit of $2000 (Travel and Tourism Intelligence, 2004). This growth has facilitated increased purchasing of foreign goods and services, including increased consumption of overseas travel. Moreover, the SAFE also launched several new policies aimed at relaxing limitations on Mainland Chinese citizens being able to purchase foreign currency with Chinese Renminbi Yuan. In July 2005, the Mainland Chinese government allowed its currency to appreciate by 2.1 percent, which provided yet another incentive to go abroad (China National Tourism Administration, 2005). Additionally, various credit cards (dual-currency credit cards in particular) have made the limit of foreign currency brought out of the country nominal (Zhang,

2006). In short, relaxed travel regulations have given the Chinese more opportunity to travel overseas.

Along with economic changes which have taken place in China, Chinese society has also gone through a period of rapid change. The latter has contributed tremendously to the increasing trend in the Chinese overseas travel market. The dynamic economic reform and being open to the outside world have changed the country's economic system as well as the operating mechanism. At the same time, they have imposed strong impacts on people's lifestyle and the traditional way of thinking. For example, frugality was regarded as a virtue in Chinese culture and under the influence of such a cultural value, consumption and materialism were discouraged and even not allowed in China a half century ago (Redding, 1990). When people had some money, they would save as much as possible (China Embassy, 2004b). In contrast, many Chinese people have begun to change their traditional way of spending. At least, three philosophical changes are noticeable, namely, from "money saving" to "money spending", from "save for others" to "enjoy themselves", from "purchase of goods" to "seeking for personal experience and well-being" (Zhang, 2006). As a result, Chinese people spend more money on housing, communication and traveling (CYTS, 2004). The Western idea that "consumption is the route to happiness" is more appealing to many Chinese, particularly the youth who have more disposable money than their parents 20 years ago, and more importantly, they are willing to spend (Cheng, 1997 and Wen, 1998). The transition of this concept contributes to the outbound tourism development in China as more and more people would like to spend money on leisure activities like travel instead of saving it in banks (Zhang, Jenkins and Qu, 2001). In addition to higher income and an eye on lifestyle, Chinese demand travel to see the world (Pan, 2007). For most Mainland Chinese people, they have been forbidden for several hundred years to travel abroad. Until quite recently, they had only minimal contact with the outside world. Therefore, they are likely to "walk outside and have a look" and have an avid appetite for experiencing foreign cultures and experiencing other countries (Pan, 2007). Indeed, travel has become a "lifestyle essential" for most

Chinese residents (Zhao, 2006). Chinese people are well known for enjoying travel to broaden their minds. As the old sayings go, "He who travels far knows much" and "traveling for one thousand Li (equivalent to about 311 miles) equals reading ten thousand volumes of books" (Jang, Yu & Pearson, 2003). In China's culture, a person with lots of travel experience is regarded "a wise man" or "an experienced man", who is highly admired by others (Chen & Harrah, 1998). Hence, with increasing personal incomes, Chinese people would love to travel in order to increase their knowledge. This innate cultural value on travel will continue to push Chinese citizens to travel abroad once they have the money and time, and political barriers removed to take an overseas trip. Moreover, Mainland Chinese people are motivated to travel abroad by factors such as sightseeing, resort vacations, VFR, education, cultural enhancement and visiting historic sites. Many Mainland Chinese enjoy taking part in or visiting international sport events and cultural festivals. Likewise, studying abroad is an important part of education for many young Mainland Chinese, which could influence the future patterns of overseas travel once they have completed their studies and returned to Mainland China. Shopping is also a significant motivation, owing to lower prices, product quality and variety in other countries. Finally, Mainland Chinese outbound travelers often desire to escape their daily routines, make new friends, seek adventure and novel experiences, increase their social status by engaging in the prestigious and admired company of those who are able to travel abroad (Guo, Zhang, Song, Chen & Zhang 2004).

The development of technology in China has accelerated the growth of Chinese outbound travel market. Technology plays an imperative role in influencing Mainland Chinese travelers as they make outbound travel decisions. There is a fast growing media and Internet industry in China, which makes information more widely available within China (Leisure Market Profile, 2005). Yu (2005) believed that the rapid adoption of the Internet in China, which was delivering a wealth of new information to Chinese travelers, was expected to accelerate tourism demand for both travel diversity and choices. According to Abacus.com (2004), China has more than 80

million Internet users in 2004, the second largest market in the world behind the US, and is forecast to be the largest internet provider by 2005. While Internet penetration was comparatively low at 6 percent, the annual growth was expected to be about 30 percent (Leisure Market Profile, 2005). Chinese outbound travelers from the three key cities, namely Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong, are also turning to the Internet for their travel bookings. Chinese travelers booking via online travel agents and hotel or transport operators websites (29% and 16% respectively) are on the rise, with their numbers expected to continue to increase (PATA communications, 2007). It is important to note that for many Chinese, the Internet acts as a medium for disseminating information (WTO, 2003). Arnold (2005) emphasized that the Internet strengthens its role in China not only as a means of information but also as a means of organizing and booking trips. 'Do-it-yourself' is becoming more and more common, particularly for the mature and experienced travelers, vigorously stimulated by the possibilities offered by low-cost airlines and the Internet (Jimenez, 2004). Another important finding in relation with the technology impacts on Chinese outbound travel market is that the socio-economic trends also worked in favor of the online travel services — the emerging middle class will drive the growth of the online travel market (Chiang, 2005). Stanley (2005) estimated in 2010, there would be a total of 100 million middle-class families. Soon, many of these consumers will be able to afford more travel, both overseas and within the country (Pleumarom, 2005). Most importantly, many Chinese within this middle class are well-educated young adults, belonging to the Internet generation (China Market Research, 2004). About 58 per cent of the Internet users in China have tertiary education (Hotelmarketing.com, 2005). This segment of the population is already a major user of online services and has a high propensity to use the online channel to arrange their travel (Chiang, 2005). All these findings suggest a potential for phenomenal growth of mainland Chinese outbound travel market.

"Given the astounding growth in China's online population, the Internet will become the most efficient way to quickly understand consumers across China's vast markets;

marketers have to innovate to leverage the Internet to reach consumers as standard online advertising may not be adequate to capture the attention of the increasingly technology-savvy Chinese online population" (Pan, 2007).

The rise of China's outbound travel has been a recent phenomenon in international travel due to a substantial number of Chinese immigrants, expatriate and international students overseas. As early as 1963, the World Tourism Organization had already recognized that international students were a type of tourist (Page & Connell, 2006). However, they are often excluded in the formal definition of a 'tourist' because of their long stay in the host country. In other words, international students undertaking a period of study of less than one year seem to be regarded as 'tourists' while those studying for more than a year are not. For the purpose of this study the length of stay in the host country will be ignored since—at least while people are involved in their study programme—it is largely irrelevant in terms of their motivation for engaging in overseas study and their experiences while abroad. It is therefore interesting to examine the experience of international students in the light of key models of tourism.

The increasing disposable income and the relaxation of outbound travel restrictions by the Chinese government affect the demand for study overseas. According to a report by the China's Education Department, government scholarships (grants), scholarships from overseas institutions and self-funding are the three main ways in which Chinese students finance their overseas studies. From 1978 to 2003, more than 7 million Chinese went abroad to study, and the numbers are increasing all the time. Currently, there are 3.6 million studying and researching in foreign countries (China Youth, 2004). As a consequence of the open-door and economic liberalization policies and the rapid economic growth of over 8 percent per annum for much of the past two decades, China has created an emergent wealthy middle-class group with high disposable income (Yang & Campbell, 2006). These citizens have now started to seek opportunities to go abroad to expand their horizons after many years of isolation from the outside world due to political reasons. This movement can take the form of traveling abroad as international tourists, by studying abroad, or sending their children

for overseas study for the sake of future career development (Yang & Campbell, 2006).

It was recognized many years ago that the international student travel may make a considerable contribution to the outbound tourism market because of the time available to students to travel in the host countries during vacations and semester breaks (Gmelch, 1997). Recent studies suggest that international student travel is a significant sizeable segment of the outbound travel market. The provision of education and training services to international students has become an increasingly important source of income for many countries (Bird & Owen, 2004).

2.3 Chinese Students to New Zealand

In recent years, there has been a steady growth in the number of students seeking formal tertiary education abroad (Ma & Abbott, 2006). In 2004, it was estimated by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) that there were about 2.65 million students worldwide studying in tertiary education institutions outside of their own countries (Ma & Abbott, 2006). This figure is estimated to reach five million over the next twenty years (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2001). Traditionally the United States and the United Kingdom were the two most popular destinations for international students (Ma & Abbott, 2006). Recently, however, countries such as Australia and New Zealand have also become attractive educational destinations for international students. According to a report by the Ministry of Education, international students are "an established part of the New Zealand scene" (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2005a). Over the period 1994 to 2004, New Zealand has experienced a strong growth in the numbers of foreign fee-paying (FFP) students in public tertiary institutions (Ryan & Zhang, 2007 and International Division, 2007). As shown in Table 2.1, the total enrolments of international students in the public tertiary education institutions of New Zealand rose by 223 percent, from 2000 to 2004. Although there was a reduction in total enrolment within the public tertiary education institutions in 2005 and 2006, the number of international students

still represented a significant proportion of enrolments in New Zealand, with 40,706 and 35,261 students respectively (International Division, 2007).

Table 2.1: International Enrolments

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Public Tertiary Education Institutions	13,326	20,405	30,714	39,009	43,047	40,706	35,261

Sources:

2000-2005: Ministry of Education Single Data Return database

2006: Export Education Levy database for the full calendar year.

A report by the New Zealand International Education Marketing Network (NZIEMN) has argued that New Zealand is becoming one of the more popular destinations for international students from non-English speaking countries, especially Asian students who are keen to experience Western culture as well as learn English (Tourism News, 2002). The growing importance of Asian economies in the world, has resulted in many Asian students choosing to undertake their higher education in the western countries (Kirby, Woodhouse & Ma, 1996). In 2000, 79.1 percent of all public tertiary foreign fee-paying students were from the Asian region (Ryan & Zhang, 2007). In 2004, most international students (about 85 percent of foreign fee-paying students) at tertiary institutions in New Zealand came from North Asia (China, South Korea and Japan) (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2005b). These three countries provided 65 percent of all enrolments in 2006 (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007). In terms of proportional growth, the fastest growth has come from China (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2005). Numbers of students from China to New Zealand had increased threefold from 1999 to 2002 and much the same in the period 2002 to 2004 (Ryan & Zhang, 2007). In 2002, almost two in five international students were from China (Asia 2000 Foundation, 2003). In 2004, there were 29,898 Chinese students in formal programmes at public tertiary institutions and publicly funded private tertiary institutions, accounting for 59 per cent of all international students (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2005). However, the number of the Chinese students at public

tertiary institutions had decreased since 2004 in New Zealand, from 25,970 in 2004 to 18,359 in 2006 (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007). Although there is a decline in student numbers, the Chinese student market still remains by far New Zealand's most significant source of foreign students at public education institutions, with a ratio of 2:1, which means for every 3 overseas students, 2 are from China (New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2006).

Nevertheless, the medium to long-term outlook for the Chinese student market remains positive. The Chinese student market is one that will continue to grow in the foreseeable future. This may be due to a number of reasons. The major push factors include the inadequate provision of tertiary education in China (such as the limited range of courses offered, the shortage of study programmes and the lack of higher education institutions) and the highly competitive university entrance examination. The National College Entrance Exam (NCEE) is described by Chinese as "thousands of troops on a single-log bridge" due to its low acceptance rate. In 2007, the Ministry of Education informed that a record 10.1 million people had applied for the NCEE and about 5.67 million (56 percent) would be able to enter college. Even though this translates into the application-participation ratio of 2:1 in 2007, access to higher education in China remains competitive (Brandenburg & Zhu, 2007). With the increasing competition and the unequal demand and supply of education system in China, there is keen interest in studying abroad. Due to China's vast population, it is very difficult to pass the university entrance exam, especially for the top universities. As the income level in China is growing, more and more Chinese families can afford to send their children to study abroad if they do not pass the university entrance exam to elite Chinese universities. This can be regarded as an 'exit option' for these students to go abroad. Moreover, the statistical data shows that there will be 5.5 million graduates from universities or colleges, and 14.85 million graduates from senior high schools in China in 2008. This means the population base of those who want to study abroad would increase by approximately 25 percent over 2007. In addition, it has been forecasted that additional factors, such as the 2008 Beijing

Olympic Games, the country's employment situation, appreciation of the RMB and the development of new visa processes may lead to a 30 percent increase in students choosing to go abroad (Chinese Studying Abroad Online, 2008). As China is gradually becoming a freer society, talented Chinese students are able to pursue studies either at good universities in China or overseas to further their education. Some talented students are attracted to the research expertise of foreign institutions and they are attracted to study abroad. Furthermore, the financial aid offered by foreign governments, institutions and other sources, the experience of living, studying and working in a foreign land, and the exposure to new cultures, languages and traditions are all important pull factors for global education. One of the benefits of international education is to equip as many young students as possible with the competence to operate effectively in an increasingly international world (Roppolo, 1996). Studying abroad makes the students well-rounded and internationally aware citizens, which in turn makes them more marketable in a competitive job market (Schuler, 1995). Moreover, the prestige of foreign qualifications is very helpful in securing a decent job in China. After China's entry into the WTO, there was a greater demand for internationally oriented and competent human resources, and this pushed more parents to send their children abroad. In the case of Chinese students, it is a combination of these push and pull factors that make them continue to be important for the New Zealand international education sector to target in the next decade. The latest research has demonstrated this phenomenon. According to Shen (2007), China is now officially recognized as the largest sending country for international students, with the students spread over 100 countries across the five continents. According to the official statistics of the Chinese Ministry of Education, more than 930,000 students left China to study abroad between 1978 and 2005. The 'Global Education Digest 2006' published by UNESCO, has highlighted China as the largest source country for students studying abroad, with one out of seven international students coming from China. Further evidence from China Daily (2007) also demonstrated that more Chinese students were studying overseas in 2007. With more visas granted and application processes streamlined, more and more Chinese students are studying

abroad. It is stated that to date, Britain and New Zealand are the two favourite educational destinations, with a total of 60,000 Chinese students in Britain and 30,000 in New Zealand at present.

2.4 What Do China and New Zealand Do to Encourage and Legislate the International Chinese Student Market

The American and Oceanian area is always one of the priority areas for China's international exchanges and cooperation in education sector. Since the founding of the People's Republic of China, especially after China's adoption of the policy of reform and open-up policies, friendly ties between China and most countries in the American and Oceanian area have been strengthened steadily, and the scale of educational exchange and cooperation has been widening day by day. Since 1978, there were 930,000 Chinese students studying abroad (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2006). In recent years, the number is increasing substantially. In 2004, the Chinese education authorities placed a greater emphasis on international education exchanges, including permitting large numbers of young Chinese to study abroad at their own or government expense. As a result, according to the statistics of the Ministry of Education, it was found that 380,000 Chinese students were studying abroad in 2004 ("Students Studying abroad", 2004). Recently, the Chinese Ministry of Education has signed 'exchange and cooperation agreements' or 'memorandums of understanding' in the field of education with governments of the U.S.A. , Australia, New Zealand and the provinces of Quebec, British Columbia, Alberta of Canada; established regular Joint Working Group Consultation Mechanism for educational exchanges at ministerial-level with New Zealand and Australia. In October 2003, the Arrangement of Higher Education Qualifications Recognition between the Government of the P.R. China and the Government of Australia and the Arrangement on Mutual Recognition of Academic Degrees in Higher Education between the Ministry of Education of the P.R. China and the Ministry of Education of New Zealand were signed. The MOE has also signed educational exchange agreements with the Ministries of Education of Fiji and Republic of the Marshall Islands. In Latin America, the Chinese government has

signed cultural and/or educational exchange agreements with 15 countries. In accordance with these agreements or memorandums, China has been conducting extensive exchanges with these countries in forms of exchange of educational delegations, international students, scholarly visits and educational resources; establishing institutional links, teaching each other's languages, cooperatively running schools and joint researchers.

Under the guidance of the government agreement framework, institutions of higher learning in China have been conducting a variety of exchanges and cooperation with their counterparts in the American and Oceanian area, and the contents of cooperation have evolved from general academic exchange activities in the past to concrete exchanges such as cooperatively running schools. The American and Oceanian area is endowed with a large number of first-class education resources. Amongst the 137 cooperatively-run programs that confer foreign degrees approved by the Office of Academic Degrees Committee of the State Council, 89 involve foreign partners from the American and Oceanian area, accounting for 65 per cent of the total.

Countries in the American and Oceanian area such as the U.S., Canada, Australia and New Zealand are the major destinations for Chinese citizens to study abroad. At present, according to incomplete statistics, the numbers of Chinese students studying in those countries, regardless of the nature and form of their study, are as follows: over 200,000 in the U.S., some 35,000 in Canada, around 35,000 in Australia, and nearly 40,000 in New Zealand. The majority of these Chinese students are on their own expenses. In recent years, the number of foreign students from this area coming to study in China has seen extensive growth (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2004).

The main reasons for the initial rapid growth in enrolments from China in New Zealand include the positive education relationship between New Zealand and China, the relaxation visa entry requirements for Chinese students, the English-speaking

environment, the internationally recognition of New Zealand qualifications and the quality of education, the reasonable costs of tuition fees and living expenses, due partly to the lower value of the New Zealand dollar, perceptions of New Zealand as being relatively safe, the variety of qualifications and scholarships on offer, the release of a new Funds Transfer Scheme and New Zealand's relatively open immigration system at the time, compared to the other 'main English-speaking education destination countries'. Firstly, there is a strong foundation for the relationship between China and New Zealand in terms of education links (Clark, 2005). In the last decade, China has grown to become one of New Zealand's most important and active education partners (New Zealand Education Counts, 2005). The governments of New Zealand and China have been working hard to consolidate the education relationship. The New Zealand Minister of Education has been a frequent visitor to China and a Joint Working Group on education issues has been established between the two countries (Clark, 2005). In addition, the New Zealand government has now sent a New Zealand education counselor to its Embassy in Beijing, China, which was New Zealand's first such position anywhere in the world (Clark, 2005). More New Zealand education is now being delivered in China itself. Moreover, the New Zealand government is keen to expand its education and research links with China. New Zealand has become well known in China as a place to earn a world-quality Ph.D., and other quality post-graduate degrees (The New Zealand Education, 2006). The government is also extending extra support to the top international Ph.D. students (Clark, 2005). From 1st January 2006, students who are accepted for Ph.D. study under the supervision of one of its many leading researchers (generally defined as grade 'A' and 'B' researchers under New Zealand's research assessment exercise) will pay domestic tuition fees only, a ninety per percent saving on fee levels of previous years. Their partners will be able to work in New Zealand and their children can attend schools without having to pay international student fees. As a result, in 2006, the numbers of Chinese students enrolled at doctoral level studies expanded significantly, albeit from a very low base, just 13 Chinese students) (Ryan & Zhang, 2007). Moreover, there is the New Zealand International Scholarship launched in

2005. The program includes 40 fully-funded doctoral research scholarships, covering full tuition, travel and living expenses, worth around US$30,000 per annum (Taylor, 2005). New Zealand also attempts to bring Chinese undergraduates to New Zealand on a fully funded basis and for the whole length of their degree study. Twenty university scholarships and twelve polytechnic awards were available by 2005 (Taylor, 2005). China is one of just 17 countries whose students are eligible to compete for these awards (Taylor, 2005). It is mutually believed that there exists a huge potential for strengthened educational co-operation with China, and this contributes to the increasing numbers of Chinese students to New Zealand. Secondly, New Zealand relaxed visa entry requirements for Chinese students and the student visa can be obtained more easily from New Zealand than from other competitive education exporting countries, such as the US, UK or Australia (Barnard, 2002). As part of a series of immigration legislative reforms, from 1st July 1998, a transitional change was made to end visa restrictions on Chinese students by extending the former quota of 400 to 1,000 (Taylor, 2005). These changes were part of a transitional move towards the ending of country restrictions on student visas as part of a series of immigration legislative reforms that were consistent with APEC Ministers' agreements as a result of the Seoul meetings of 2000 (Taylor, 2005). The transition phase allowed an additional 600 places under the PRC Student Quota with no special restrictions and was on a first come, first served, basis (Taylor, 2005). By 2002, the quotas had been abolished and Chinese students were able to enter New Zealand on a student visa subject to having first secured a place at a recognized educational establishment (Taylor, 2005). Thirdly, as the English language is one of the crucial communication tools in the world, there is a significant demand within their own countries for those non-English nationals who have studied English in an English speaking environment. As a result, New Zealand has become a popular destination for Chinese students (Ryan & Zhang, 2007). Fourthly, New Zealand's high-quality education system hosts over 93,000 international students from around the world every year (New Zealand Embassy, 2007). It is acknowledged that a combination of factors that include internationally recognized educational standards, and the high

quality of eight publicly funded universities spread across the entire country (with six appearing in the world university rankings, and two, the University of Auckland and the University of Otago, appearing in the world's top 200 universities). Also, the New Zealand government works with officials worldwide to ensure its qualifications are recognized. This provides the Chinese student with an assurance that whether they continue studying in New Zealand or move to another country's education system, they will be able to credit their New Zealand qualification towards their future study (New Zealand Educated, 2007). Fifthly, the reasonable cost of tuition fees (US$11,000 –US$20,000 per year) and living expenses (US$9,000) have made New Zealand one of the most popular destinations for international tertiary students (Rogers, 2007). Sixthly, according to Global Peace Index (2007), New Zealand is the second-most peaceful nation in the world. Its political scene is stable and has a good relations with its neighbors (New Zealand Educated, 2007a). Seventhly, the variety of qualifications on offer, one-year masters programs and a minimum of three-year PhD research programs also stimulate Chinese students to study in New Zealand. Most universities in New Zealand provide a shorter graduation diploma to those students seeking either a change in academic direction or without the relevant prerequisite entry qualifications (Rogers, 2007). Eighthly, New Zealand offers graduate scholarships both centrally by the New Zealand Government and individually by the universities. "From 2005, about 33 scholarships are available annually for international students at doctoral (PhD) level and there will be 33 scholarships at the undergraduate level. By 2007, there will be 200 of these scholarships available. This will include 100 scholarships at post-graduate level, and 100 at under-graduate level" (International Division & Data Management and Analysis, 2005). Ninthly, New Zealand's attractiveness as a destination for Chinese students is set to increase as new work rules for international students and their partners came into force on Monday 4 July 2005. The international student policy changes, which were announced by Immigration Minister Paul Swain in April, give international students more opportunity to gain work experience and supplement their funds while studying. They

will also make it easier for them to work in New Zealand as they complete their studies. The changes are:

- Eligible students will be able to apply to work for up to 20 hours a week during the academic year, instead of the previous 15 hours.
- International students who have graduated from a course that would gain points under the Skilled Migrant Category will be eligible for a six-month open work permit, provided certain conditions are met.
- The pool of students eligible to work part time while studying will be expanded to include Year 12 and 13 school students and some English language students, provided certain conditions, including English language standards, are met.
- Anyone undertaking a course of 12 months or more will be able to apply to work full-time over the summer holidays.
- Partners of students studying in areas of absolute shill shortage and partners of all postgraduate student will be able to apply for an open work permit valid for the duration of the student's course of study (Department of Labor, 2005).

The changes align New Zealand with competitors like Australia, UK and Canada, who all permit 20 hours work per week during term. Increasing work rights for students and their partners will make New Zealand more attractive to students from existing markets like China and Korea as well as emerging markets in Latin America and Eastern and Central Europe. By increasing the opportunity for foreign students to work while studying, it eases their transitions into the New Zealand workforce when they graduate (Department of Labor, 2005 and The Ministry of Education, 2005). Tenth, in 2007, New Zealand has developed a new Funds Transfer Scheme, which will smooth the process of Beijing students from China thinking of studying in New Zealand (New Zealand Embassy, 2007). The scheme allows prospective Beijing students from China to deposit money into a remittance account in Beijing, and this deposit will be accepted by Immigration New Zealand as evidence of the applicant's ability to support their intended study plan in New Zealand. When the student arrives in New Zealand to study, he or she can access a portion of the money each month to help cover their living costs, while another transfer will go to the New Zealand education institution to cover tuition fees. Although the scheme is currently only

available to Beijing residents, it might be extended to other areas following the evaluation of the pilot scheme in 2008 (New Zealand Embassy, 2007). Finally, the changing nature of migration in New Zealand has led a growing proportion of student permit holders becoming permanent residents in New Zealand. Around 20 percent of temporary students gain permanent residence within five years. From 30th July 2007, bonus points for study in New Zealand and gaining New Zealand recognized qualifications have been restructured to:

- Bonus points awarded for recognized qualifications in an identified future growth area will increase.
- Bonus points will be available for a post-graduate recognized New Zealand qualification (e.g. Masters or Doctorate), and it will increase to 10 bonus points
- Bonus points for a principal applicant's partner's recognized qualification will increase (Immigration New Zealand, 2007).

All of these changes have resulted in more bonus points for skilled employment being available, which will benefit Chinese students' EOI residence applications in New Zealand. Research has found 27 percent of all international students who began study between 1999 and 2001 gained residence or stayed in New Zealand to work (Cunliffe, 2007).

2.5 The Importance of the Chinese Student Market to New Zealand

The economic contribution of the export education industry (foreign fee-paying students studying in New Zealand educational institutions) to New Zealand economy has become significant as a result of the significant international student market. International students provide economic benefits from inbound tourism that are otherwise scarce. In 1994, the economic contribution to New Zealand GDP was estimated at $545 million. The effect on GDP had more than doubled to $1,250 million by 2001. For 2004, the international education sector's contribution to the New Zealand's GDP was estimated at approximately $2,210 million, an increase of over 75 percent on 2001 (New Zealand Education Counts, 2006). Of the total economic values, $1,194 million were generated by public tertiary education

institutions. Unfortunately, owing to the decrease of the numbers of international students at public tertiary education institutions, there has been a fall in the economic contribution to the New Zealand education sector since 2004, with a decrease of $20 million in 2005 and $119 million in 2006. However, the economic value by public tertiary education institutions still remains a significant source made to New Zealand education sector, with 57.7 percent and 56.6 percent respectively between 2005 and 2006.

A majority (79.1 percent) of all public tertiary foreign fee-paying students were from the Asian region, and of these students a significant proportion of them are students from China (Ryan & Zhang, 2007 and New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2005). Chinese students play an important role in New Zealand export education. According to New Zealand Education Counts (2006), the total number of 35,261 international students represents an economic value of $1,075 million to the New Zealand education sector in 2006, it can be estimated that, in 2004, the total number of 25,970 Chinese students at public education institutions contributed approximately $791 million (66 percent) to the New Zealand education sector; in 2005, the total number of 23,469 Chinese students contributed $715 million (61 percent); and in 2006, the total number of 18,359 Chinese students at public education institutions contributed approximately $560 million (52 percent). These figures demonstrate that expenditures by Chinese tertiary students are substantial to the New Zealand education sector.

The increase in the number of international students to New Zealand can also generate indirect economic contribution to the education sector. As an example, according to New Zealand Ministry of Education (2006), employment directly attributable to foreign student expenditure is over 18,000 Full Time Equivalent (FTE) positions. Multiplier effects raise this to about 40,000 (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2006). Of the direct effect, about 65 percent is accounted for by the education industry. Hence, one could claim that for every job generated directly in the education industry (through having foreign fee-paying students in New Zealand) another 2.3 FTE jobs

are generated elsewhere – approximately 0.5 jobs in industries which directly supply goods and services such as food and transport to students, another 1.0 jobs in industries which supply those industries and the education industry, and another 0.8 in the industries which benefit from the associated increase in consumer spending power (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2006). Additionally, export education initiatives means access to courses of study that might not otherwise be available for both sets of students as higher numbers could mean lower cost per capita provision (Ryan & Xie, 2003). Also, the education institution benefits from the income generated from export education activities. Such income can be invested in ongoing development, for example by improving facilities and increasing staffing. Moreover, the New Zealand economy benefits substantially from planned and managed growth of the export education sector. It can help build international relationships, skills and knowledge that are vital to New Zealand's future in a global economy (Asia-New Zealand Organization, 2002). Furthermore, the New Zealand government perceived success in attracting overseas students as another opportunity for taxation revenue, and imposed a levy on educational establishments based on numbers of overseas students institutions attracted in 2002. It was argued that this levy would help finance new initiatives in this direction (Ryan & Xie, 2003). On the other hand, New Zealand Ministry of Education (2001) recognizes that any increase in foreign exchange earnings can advantage not just the education sector but other sectors of the economy that provide services to international students, such as the tourism sector. According to Tourism News (2002), Laurenson also points out that there is a natural overlap between study and tourism. "Students engage in tourism experiences during their stay as do their friends and family when they come to visit" (Tourism News, 2002, p.10). Consequently, it is creating inbound tourism that can stimulate the economy of an education destination.

With the increasing numbers of international students, it becomes understandable that economic benefit of the travel market of international students is significant. Substantial contributions are made directly through excursions to local tourist

attractions when travelling within the country as a vast majority of students plan to travel domestically at some stage during their stay (TNT Magazine, 2004). The school recesses and semester breaks (students have over 20 weeks of free time outside of the university term each year in New Zealand, according to Carr, 2003), and other public holidays such as Christmas provide students relatively large time blocks free from work and/or school commitments. Besides, unlike their US or Australian counterparts, not all Chinese students work part-time, because their parents want them to fully concentrate on their studies (Heung & Leong, 2006), which allows them to have a great many opportunities to travel. Additionally, international students are not allowed to work off-campus more than 20 hours a week during term in New Zealand, leading them to have a great amount of disposable time to travel (The Minister of Immigration New Zealand, 2007). Moreover, according to Josiam, Clements & Hobson (1994), students typically have a lack of mental and physical constraints, which enables them to take holidays. Also, most of them do not have the financial and moral responsibilities involved in raising a family (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004). Although money may be limited for many international students, they typically have little commitment to housing or children and appear to be willing to pay for travel that holds the promise of relaxation, and adventure (Josiam, Clements & Hobson, 1994). As such, Chen & Kerstetter (1999) believed that international student travelers are a lucrative segment of the pleasure travel market due to their economic contribution. A review of literature revealed that past research paid a lot of attention to the Australian market. Weaver & Oppermann (2000) find international students are among the highest per capita tourism spenders in Australia. As Weaver (2004) explained, it is estimated that each student would generate approximately between AUD12,000 direct tourism-related expenditure within Australia during and following the student's educational experience. In research undertaken by Tourism Australia (2007), international education visitors are high yield visitors who generate over $5 billion in export earnings for Australia each year, comprising approximately 5 percent of inbound arrivals to Australia and contributing 20 percent of total visitor expenditure. Australian Government (2007) indicates that in the year ending June 2007, there were

336,000 international visitors to Australia aged 15 and over who stated education as their main reason for visiting Australia. Although these visitors accounted for only 6 per cent of all international visitors to Australia, they accounted for 28.3 percent of international visitor nights and 28.3 percent of total international visitor expenditure in Australia.

Similarly, New Zealand education market, especially the Chinese student market, contributes significantly to the tourism industry. Tourism Research Council New Zealand (2002) reported that international visitors averaged 22 days during their visit in 2002. Of those international visitors, visitors from China also had a relatively high proportion (24 percent) of long stayers, mainly students, which contributed to the high average length of stay. The longer average length of stay contributes to the overall tourism spending in New Zealand. Besides, because students have more time to travel compared with working people who are in full-time employment, it provides new market opportunity for accommodation, transportation and restaurant services, at an otherwise slow time of the year (Hobson & Josiam, 1995). Tourism Research Council New Zealand (2003) identified that the total expenditure by China in 2002 was about 418,750,850. New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (2005) reported that over 76,000 Chinese tourists visited New Zealand in 2002 while the number of Chinese students studying in New Zealand doubled to over 30,000 making China as New Zealand's largest source of foreign students. It can be seen that Chinese education market accounts for approximately 39.5% of all Chinese tourists in New Zealand in 2002. According to this number and the total tourism expenditure by Chinese people in 2002, it can be further calculated that the total travel expenditure by the Chinese student market in New Zealand would be approximately 165,406,586 in 2002, which accounts for a multi-million dollar business in New Zealand (Tourism Research Council New Zealand 2003).

In addition, Leiper & Hunt (1998) claimed that whilst a large percentage of tourism expenditure remains in urban areas, the real benefit from international student

expenditure is in regional areas, due to the location of some universities in rural and regional areas which are less able to attract large numbers of conventional tourists (Weaver & Oppermann, 2000). International students studying in regional areas provide economic benefits from inbound tourism that are otherwise in short supply (Weaver, 2004), thus allowing international student expenditure to be more widely distributed (Taylor *et al*, 2004).

In addition to their direct contributions to the tourism industry, there are also significant indirect contributions that should be noted. Indirect contributions occur when visiting friends and relatives (VFR) travel from overseas to visit the student. International students play a significant role in expanding the tourism industry. Taylor *et al* (2004) explained that when properly positioned, higher education students form a profitable market segment for the leisure travel industry and they also encourage visits from family members. Other authors agreed with these assertions, saying that the education sector generates revenues from international students and at the same time acts as catalysts for associated tourism that would otherwise not occur had the students not been there, notably VFR tourism arising from friends and relatives of students who may come for graduation ceremonies or to help students to set up the start of the academic year (Shanka & Taylor, 2003, Bischoff & Koenig-Lewis, 2007 and Taylor, *et al*., 2004). In addition to attending graduation ceremonies, Williams & Hall (2000) argue there is a strong relationship between VFR tourism and migration. One of the reasons why the VFR is becoming the second largest group of international visitors to New Zealand is because New Zealand has a significant number of migrants living in this country (Isa, 2004). International students are international temporary migrants as study overseas might be regarded as a form of temporary migration. Temporary migration by students who travel to study overseas generate VFR tourism by students' families and friends. Also, international students represent a potential to become permanent migration. A research on ethnic diversity in New Zealand by Statistics New Zealand (2002) found that immigrants who are established tend to bring in additional family members. This shows there is a linkage between

immigration and VFR tourism (Isa, 2004). With the changing nature of immigration in New Zealand, there is a growing proportion of international student permit holders who have become permanent residents in New Zealand. In turn, permanent migration can generate a demand for tourism, particularly for the purpose of VFR. Seen as potential immigrants, the significant number of international students, particularly from China, is a great contributor to the expansion of VFR market in New Zealand. This number is considerable substantial for a country that only has 4 million population. Dockery, Thorpe & Haselhurst (1999) claimed that benefits to the local area are gained when international students host friends or family members who come to visit during their studies. Taylor *et al* (2004) agreed, arguing that the expenditure of visiting friends and relatives on travel is of great significance to the tourism industry.

There are also some other indirect economic contributions made by international students. Roppolo (1996) suggested that friends and relatives who come to visit the students while abroad are also likely to spread the news of their positive travel experience to other travelers upon return to their home country, and return for future visits. In addition, a high proportion (58 percent) of the international students surveyed by Shanka *et al* (2001) stated that they had returned to Australia since their graduation for holiday purposes. Weaver (2004) and Taylor *et al* (2004) found that it was highly likely that international students would revisit the country of their study after graduation. In the study conducted by Smith, Morey & Teece (2002) it was found that more than half of the respondents intended to extend their stay by continuing to study after they finish the current course.

With a substantial number of Chinese tertiary students in New Zealand, they attract family members and friends to visit New Zealand. Unfortunately, the research on the economic importance of international student-generated VFR visits to New Zealand is quite limited. The significance of the Chinese tertiary students' VFR travel contribution to the New Zealand tourism sector, and its magnitude, has remained un-quantified. In contrast, attention has been paid to the Australian market. Ritchie *et al*

(2000) reported that 51 per cent of the surveyed international students stated that they hosted friends or family members from their home country during their study time in Australia. Other examples from studies conducted by Taylor *et al* (2004) involving international students enrolled in a university in Perth, Western Australia, indicated that around two out of three international students have at least one visit from their families during the course of their studies. Taylor, *et al*. (2004) also find the importance of tourism arising from visits by family and friends of international (higher education) students within Western Australia (WA) is estimated at between A$10.3 million and A$17.4 million per annum. This represents between 1.0% and 1.7% of international tourist expenditure in WA in 1999. In a study conducted by Michael, Armstrong & King (2004), it reveals that tourism related activities undertaken by international students contributed approximately A$8.2 million to the economy of the state of Victoria, Australia. The figure more than doubles to approximately A$ 17.2 million if the expenditures of VFRs are included.

VFR trips represent a great "amount of hidden tourism". On the one hand, VFRs spend a significant amount on ground products prior to their departure such as accommodation, car hire, and indeed seeing more than four walls of 'Uncle Jim's' house (White, 1996). Over half of visiting family members and friends would use commercial accommodation facilities during their stay. Shopping or gift/souvenir purchases topped the expenditure list with visitors from Asia. On the other hand, they stimulate the expenditure of international students. Consumption – an international student's provision of transport services (e.g. driving the family and friends to a distant destination), or the service produced in the preparation of meals (e.g. preparing and serving meals for the family and friends in a self-catering lodging on a trip). The increase in the consumption of international students due to the purchase of goods required to provide those services or the direct purchase of services for the benefit of the visitor (an invitation to a restaurant or a show) is recorded as a transfer in kind, and hence as consumption of the visitor.

Moreover, international students bring substantial economic benefits not only to the New Zealand education sector but also accrue disproportionately within the non-tourism economy, such as the housing market, grocery stores and used car dealerships, thereby benefiting the local community more broadly (Weaver, 2004). Whether they stay three weeks or one year, international students reduce leakages from the economy by paying bills, purchasing locally produced goods, keeping merchants employed and creating new jobs (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004 and Roppolo, 1996). Besides, according to Statistics New Zealand (2003), the total expenditure by international students at public education institutions consists of the expenditure on tuition and living costs. Table 2.1 illustrates that the direct foreign exchange earnings attributable to foreign students total an estimated $1.8 billion, corresponding to tuition fees of $780 million and expenditure on other goods and services (living costs) of $1100 million in 2006 (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2006). Therefore, the expenditure by Chinese students at public education institutions in New Zealand consisted of approximately $243 million (31.2 percent of the total expenditure by international students) directly to educational institutions and $477 million (43.4 percent of the total expenditure by international students) on other goods and services (living costs) in 2006.

Along with the economic benefits to New Zealand, Chinese students also make political contribution. Education and tourism play a vital role in the success, growth and prosperity of countries around the world. Collaborations between countries give them the competitive edge needed to succeed in global markets (Roppolo, 1996). As countries become more interdependent, cross-cultural experiences will be critical for nations to compete successfully in the future. As a result, nations look for strong leaders with international experiences in their backgrounds. Students' study abroad fosters competent and effective leaders. In spite of the national leader, the demand for internationally experienced and bilingual employees also rises. The countries success and growth will then largely depend on the ability of education and tourism industries to create the venue necessary to support international exchange and learning (Roppolo,

1996). The experience of studying abroad will make the students more marketable in the competitive job market. Students are required to have a better understanding of foreign history, languages and political system. The development of such an internationalized work force will enable countries' political interests to be well represented in the global arena, which represents a long term benefit of international students (Roppolo, 1996). Moreover, because of their educational qualifications, relative broad-mindedness, and exposure over a long period to the local population, it may also be argued that international students have a strong potential to contribute to world peace and increased harmony among nations (Weaver, 2004). In addition, the expectations on youth tourism as agents of change are high as illustrated in this statement:

> *"Tourism may bridge gaps between people, relieve tensions and effectively contribute to mutual understanding and world peace… The role of youth tourism in respect to its lasting political effects and attitudes adopted by young people towards their own country and other nations is therefore invaluable." (WTO, 1985, p.82)*

Besides the economic and political contributions, international students may also have positive socio-cultural influence. Research showed that brief visits for holidays or conferences did not build international understanding (Nakamura, 1997). Conversely, long-duration visits, which allow visitors to form close ties with the residents and cultures in the host country can achieve a lot (Leiper & Hunt, 1998). International students fit that criterion, as they tend to stay longer and have more chance to have contact with local people compared with other types of travelers (Son & Pearce, 2005). As a result of the extended interaction between international students and local people, not only do international students experience foreign culture but also local people have a chance to learn about diverse cultures from various countries. On the one hand, international students have a desire to experience the unknown, and particularly to explore cultures different from one's own. Rather than engaging fully with the host culture, or entirely leaving their home culture behind, it seems that many students are "suspended" between their desire for escape and their need for a degree of familiarity

and home comfort (Richards & Wilson, 2004a). This state of "suspension" (Richards & Wilson, 2004b) reflects the experience of many students on extended study visits or exchange programs, which often end up spending more time with other international students than with people from the host culture. This environment becomes a breeding ground for an international student subculture, based on a shared experience of travel as part of a global youth culture (Richards & Wilson, 2004a). Because they tend to stay longer at the destination, international students have more chance to have contact with local people and learn their cultures compared with other mainstream tourists (Son, 2003). Ryan & Xie (2003) point out that international students may consider traveling in New Zealand as part of their education experience that can enhance their understanding of New Zealand culture and appreciation of the 'Kiwi people' as being representative of 'The West'. This stimulates a broader view of the world. Indeed, there were significant changes in travelers' personal, social and cultural attitudes as a result of travel. The social and cultural aspects of the trip were also likely to be seen as more beneficial by the participants than earning money, gaining qualifications or professional experience. Travel provides wider personal, social and cultural benefits to the student travelers. After travel, an increasing proportion of students begin to identify with their continent or the idea of a global community, rather than just their own nation or region. They feel that they broaden their horizons and become more open-minded, flexible, confident and tolerant as a result of their experience. Those who had more contact with local people were particularly more likely to see themselves as "global citizens" after the trip (Gmelch, 1997). On the other hand, local residents also have the opportunity to learn about various cultures through international students from different countries. International students play an important role in developing a destination's tourism product (Theuns, 1992). For example, Bly (2002) reported that students used their spring breaks to help build destination communities not only in the US but also overseas, such as church tours and visits to hospitals in Jamaica, cross-cultural service programs in Peru, and teach conversational English in Mexico, Ecuador, Ireland and Poland. Students gained more appreciation of cultures in general, more appreciation of the local culture and felt that

they contributed something to the places visited. Additionally, international students contribute to the development of community services and facilities. The facilities and activities sought by international student travelers are also those desired by local residents. Accordingly, tourism provides local and regional government, and businesses with the demand necessary to sustain higher-grade hospitality, recreation, sporting, entertainment and leisure facilities and services, which boost the society development (New Zealand Ministry of Economic Development, 2005).

International students also impose light demands on environmental and cultural resources, and often call for the protection and preservation of the culture heritage and environment (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004). New Zealand's unique natural environment and cultural heritage are core components of its tourism value and appeal. Preserving and enhancing New Zealand's environment and culture heritage are goals consistent with, and necessary for, the continued success of tourism (New Zealand Ministry of Economic Development, 2005).

2.6 Conclusions

It is evident that the opening up of and changes to the Chinese outbound market have the potential to transform the international tourism market. Chinese international student market represents a large and growing market with tremendous potential, especially for the New Zealand tourism industry. They are attractive targets for travel-related consumption for a number of reasons. Their direct and indirect contributions are of significance to the New Zealand economic growth, socio-cultural experience, political stability and environmental development. Sustainable competitive advantage for New Zealand lies with New Zealand tourism marketers successfully penetrating the Chinese international student as well as their VFR markets. Thus, it is important for travel marketers to understand how Chinese university students travel and their role in inducing VFRs to travel when visiting them.

CHAPTER THREE

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to identify and describe literature on actual student holidaying/travel behavior, present literature pertaining to the role of students in inducing VFR travel and build a body of knowledge in the area of the associated VFR travel markets, addressing travel behavior and expenditure patterns individually. Further, this chapter also reviews the tourism literature regarding student market segments, the impact of socio-demographic variables on travel behavior and expenditure patterns, as well as the role of satisfaction. Overall, in this chapter, the literature covers seven main sections: (a) travel behavior of the student travel market, (b) Chinese VFRs in New Zealand and the role of students in inducing VFR travel, (c) travel behavior of related VFR market, (d) travel expenditure pattern of the VFR market, (e) socio-demographic variables, travel behavior and expenditure patterns, (f) student market segments and, (g) the role of satisfaction.

3.2 Travel Behavior of the Student Travel Market

This section reports the finding of the literature associated with travel behavior of the student travel market in terms of travel motivation, travel activity, length of stay, travel party size, type of travel party, transportation, accommodation, food, travel time, travel planning effort, information source and destination choice.

Travel motivation

As tourist motivations play a key role in shaping their travel behavior, understanding the motivation-behavior relationship is critical for predicting the appeal of new products and evaluating the effectiveness of marketing activities (Engle, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995). Research has been undertaken regarding travel motivation and behavior in the tourism literature (Dybka, 1988; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Crompton (1979) stated that motivation should be considered as a

critical variable because it is the impelling and compelling force behind all behavior. Conceptually, travel motivation is recognized as a driving force to govern different kinds of travel behavior toward making decisions such as certain types of activities, developing preferences and arriving at some expected satisfactory outcome (Backman, Backman, Uysal & Sunshine, 1995). In other words, travel behavior can be predicted by underlying motivations (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983). Pizam *et al.* (2004) investigated the effect of different travel motivations (i.e. risk-taking and sensation-seeking) on students' pleasure trips. The results illustrated significant differences in travel behaviors, activities, and demographic characteristics that existed among student travellers. An understanding of student's travel motivation is helpful to identify individuals' travel behaviors or patterns, develop products or programs to effectively address their travel decisions and desires to travel and thus develop a competitive edge in the tourism industry (Crompton, 1979; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Josiam, Smeaton & Clements, 1999, Fluker & Turner, 2000; Klenosky, 2002).

Previous studies associated with the travel motivation of students can be divided into two main categories, namely domestic and international students. In terms of the domestic student market, Hobson & Josiam (1992) and Joshian, Clements & Hobson (1994) conducted the studies of spring break travel by U.S. college students. The findings illustrated that the main motive was to "get away" and "relax". Heung & Leong (2006) identified the travel motives of university students in Hong Kong to travel overseas, and the results indicated that "experience new and different styles", "go to places I have not been before" and "outstanding scenery" were perceived as important motives. Carr (2001) also found that New Zealand university students were strongly motivated by "relaxing". Chadee & Cutler (1996) reported the major reasons for New Zealand university students to travel were found to be "experience another culture" and "adventure" while few students (8 percent) wished to travel overseas to seek employment opportunities, which was contrary to the conventional wisdom that most students travel overseas to seek employment (Chadee & Culter, 1996). In addition, Smeaton, Josiam & Dietrich (1998) and Carr (2001) found that domestic

students were strongly motivated by “party and dance/drink” and “meeting/being with friends/relatives” and “friends going there”. In regard to the international student market, Hsu & Sung’s (1997) and Richards & Wilson’s (2004) studies revealed that “culture” was the major travel motivation. Babin & Kim (2001) found “safety” concerns to be a prime important influence on international students’ travel within the US. However, all these studies did not identify motivation dimensions. Dimensionality of travel motivation has been investigated in other studies and more details are presented in the “*student market segments*” section.

Moutinho (2000) stated that motivation is a state of need or a condition that drives an individual toward certain types of action, e.g. to take a holiday. Measuring the tourists’ attitudes towards holiday-making is important in tourism studies. According to Fishbein (1967), the strength of attitudes was the product of the importance attached to an attribute, and an evaluation of the degree to which the object of the attitude possessed the attribute. Therefore, studies on the importance and satisfaction associated with travel motivation help explain the university students’ attitudes toward travel. As noted, the importance-evaluation mode of attitude measurement has been adopted in previous tourism literatures as one approach with the purpose to assess various forms of tourist perceptions of need and outcome need (Kay, 2006). It is “an established method of attitude measurement based upon a theory of reasoned action—namely that consumers are more likely to repeat behaviors or recommend to others behaviors where they are satisfied in those things that are important to them” (Ryan & Mo, 2001, p.14). Therefore, it is a useful approach for managerial decisions to fill the need for effective managerial information as well as for destination marketing strategies (Duke & Persia, 1996 and Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Also, it is a method that has the advantage of being an economical technique easy to understand and able to provide critical insights regarding the relative significance of factors influencing travel behaviors (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002). It helps identify areas that deserve more attention, as well as discover areas where there may be too much emphasis on places (Martilla & James, 1977). Moreover, the importance-evaluation

approach is a more accurate method as it overcomes the objection regarding SERVQUAL that its survey respondents are often being asked to recall expectations after actually experiencing the service (Ryan & Gu, 2008). Importance is arguably a more general concept than expectation, and respondents' possible amendment of their estimate of levels of importance in the light of current experience, matters less than do revisions in expectations when one is trying to assess future managerial action (Oh, 2001 and Ryan, 1991, 1995). In applying the importance-evaluate matrix, it did not test gaps, as some studies have done, because it is possible to question what the gap actually represents.

Defined as being a model of reasoned action by Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw (1988), the importance-evaluation approach has been commonly adopted in a number of studies reported in the tourism literature. For example, Duke & Percia (1996) used the approach to assess escorted tours. Sop & Stubbles (1998) examined resident attitudes to tourism, Novatorov (1997) examined internal markets in Leisure Centers, Hudson & Shephard (1998) analyzed users' perceptions of ski resorts, Go & Zhang (1997) evaluated perceptions of Beijing. Further, researchers have been continually interested in applying the importance-evaluation approach to their studies. Recent examples include those of Ryan & Glendon (1998) who measured attitude of British holidaymakers to holiday, Ryan (2002) who investigated the attitudes of respondents toward Maori tourism products, Ryan & Huyton (2002) who observed the degree of an interest in aboriginal culture, Ryan & Pike (2003) who discovered attitudes toward Rotorua as a short break destination and Ryan & Mo (2001) who identified attitudes of Chinese visitors to New Zealand. These authors suggested that the importance-evaluation approach provides a relatively efficient method of identifying the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of attributes that influence traveller choice.

However, these studies reported in the tourism literature did not test how well that model is applied to predict behavior and behavioral intention. A further review on the literature has suggested the model has been tested in general marketing studies.

Sheppard, Hartwich & Warshaw (1988) reviewed the results of 87 such studies in the more general marketing literature and found a weighted average multiple correlation of 0.66 for the relationship between attitude and subjective norm on the one hand and, on the other hand, behavior intention. An average correlation of 0.53 was found between behavioral intention and behavior. In a later study by Van den Putte (1993) which reviewed 150 such studies, and Manstead (1996), the respective mean weighted correlations were reported as being 0.68 and 0.62. These results have demonstrated that the model "has performed quite well in terms of the ability of the construction in the model to predict behavior and behavioral intention" (Manstead, 1996, p.16). As a result, researchers have sought to adapt the model in their studies. For example, Tribe & Snaith (1998) assessed holiday satisfaction in Cuba by use of importance-expectation indices to develop their own HOLSAT scale.

A review of the literature also suggested that criticism of the importance-evaluation approach has been found in the past literature. For example, the measurement of importance is not without its difficulties. The issue of what is important to whom at what time implies that it is possible that results derived from an importance scale may not necessarily be consistent. Ryan (1995) pointed out that one reason why such a lack of consistency can arise was related to the actual techniques. As he argued,

> "Direct elicitation requires an opinion based on a holistic view of the variables under consideration, while rating methods require a serial consideration of those variables, and perhaps a series of comparison are being forced. Sometimes the distinctions between variables may be fine, so fine, in fact, that while possibly close in scores, differing levels of importance may be attributed to variables over different trials" (p.84).

Therefore, it is necessary to distinguish between salience, importance and determinance and that such measures as those cited above may be better at indicating salience rather than determinance. More recently, it has been argued that evaluation and importance are not necessary independent variables and that a reiterative relationship exists between the two sets of variables (Ryan & Huyton, 2002). Nonetheless, "the approach possesses the value of presenting clear data for

management, which data, in turn, possess value especially when adopted as part of a structured procedure of continuous monitoring" (Ryan & Mo, p.15).

Based on the results of the literature review, the lack of research on the application of importance-evaluation approach to the student travel market there was a gap in the literature. The purpose of this study was to measure attitudes of Chinese students to holiday in New Zealand by utilizing the importance-evaluation approach as well as the Leisure Motivation Scale derived from Beard & Ragheb (1980, 1983).

Travel activity

Activity is a key component in student travel experiences. Therefore, it is important to analyze the students' travel activities to allow the tourist-receiving destinations to plan for organizing tourist-preferred activities. Field (1999) examined travel activities of the domestic and international college student markets in US using a four-point scale: "never", "seldom", "sometimes" and "frequently". The results revealed that international college students frequently participated in "sightseeing" and "touring a city", while domestic college students frequently "went to beach" and have activities that are more socially satisfying such as "visiting friends" and "shopping". It was found that Hsu & Sung's (1997) and Shanka, Ali-Knight & Pope's (2002) studies supported the findings by Field (1999) that international students tended to participate in "sightseeing" and "touring a city". In addition, in line with Field's (1999) findings, Gmelch (1997) and Richards & Wilson (2004a) discovered that "shopping" was the popular activity in their studies of international travel by students. However, inconsistent with Field's (1999) findings, Carr (2001) found that the most frequently engaged activities undertaken by domestic university students were "relaxing/resting" and "visited sites of natural beauty/parks". In Leung's (1999) study of the travel preferences of Hong Kong university students, the finding showed that students demanded more "cultural and historical attractions". Michael, Armstrong & King (2004) identified cultural activities were preferred by international students in Australia, including "festivals", "national parks", "arts and theatre", "theme parks"

and “museums”. Gmelch (1997) found American university students were also interested in cultural activities such as “museums”, “galleries” and “looked at great architecture”. Richards & Wilson (2004a) also observed that “visiting historical sites” was the most frequently mentioned activities by students from eight origin countries, including Sweden, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Mexico, Canada, UK, Hong Kong and South Africa. In addition, Leung (1999), Gmelch (1997) and Carr (2001) noted that students also undertook activities such as “mountain trekking”, “para-gliding”, “rafting”, “horse-back riding” and “cycling”. However, in their study of travel activity preferences of international students from Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia and other Asian countries, Shanka *et al.* (2002) found only 10 per cent of students involved in adventure activities. Michael *et al.* (2004) and Carr (2001) highlighted that students also enjoyed activities such as “dining” and “sampled local cuisine”. Further, Carr (2001) identified activities such as “drink alcohol” and “gone to nightclubs” were preferred by New Zealand university students.

However, these studies did not profile the student travel market associated with travel activities. It may also be possible to learn more from segmenting the student travel market on the basis of travel activity preferences. By looking at activities in combination with other similar types of activities and other different types of activities, it provides tourism marketers with a greater insight of population characteristics and trends and more precise ideas for purpose-adapted products development. Under increasingly competitive market conditions, the need to create and deliver purpose-adapted products is becoming more urgent (Field, 1999).

Length of stay

A review of the literature reveals that there are mixed results regarding the length of stay. Josiam, Clements & Hobson (1994) highlighted that the average length of stay for the US spring travel market was five nights and with a peak of 7 nights. This is because most colleges were closed for 9 days. They also noted that those who took a longer vacation had friends and relatives at the destination. This is supported by

Chadee & Culter's (1996) study in that the length of time students wished to travel was highly influenced by the cost of travel. They found that those students who planned to use paid accommodation while travelling were likely to travel for a shorter time than those who planned to use unpaid accommodation (such as staying with friends and relatives). In contrast, Carr (2005) found UK students on average took 2 holidays a year averaging 16.6 days. In terms of international travel, Gmelch (1997) found that American students travelled frequently and never stayed long in one place when studying in Europe. Their city-a-day approach to travel was due to several factors, mainly because they wanted to travel as many places as they could when they were abroad for six weeks. Moreover, Sung & Hsu (1996) in their study of international students' travel in the USA indicated that about 76 percent of those respondents were likely to stay up to 6 nights in their destinations. Similarly, in Frost & Shanka's (1999) study of the international travel pattern of students from Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Indonesia and Thailand in Australia, it was found that a majority of students stayed up to 10 nights in the destinations, and the average number of nights spent overseas was 7. However, Heung & Leong (2006) found that a majority of university students (59 percent) in Hong Kong travelling to Japan and Korea stayed shorter in the destination than the findings of Frost & Shanka (1999), and the majority of the trips ranged in duration from 3 to 6 days (44.2 percent). And, Carr (2001) also reported that the majority of the holidays taken by the New Zealand students lasted between 1 and 7 days. On the contrary, in their study of the international student market in eight countries, Richards & Wilson (2005) found that students travelled 74 days on average, with 34 days in Europe, 84 days in the India sub-continent, 90 days in North America, 128 days in Australasia. The long trips taken by student travellers tended to be aimed at increasing the quantitative extent of travel experience (Richards & Wilson, 2005). Those travelling for longer visited more countries.

Travel party size

A mixed result regarding travel party size has been identified in the tourism literature. Gmelch (1997) investigated the number of companions American students travelled with, both during the journey and once they arrived at their destination when studying abroad in Europe. The average group size during the journey was 5.2 students, shrinking to 4.6 students once they arrived at their destinations. This was because, for most students, this was their first time abroad, and being understandably nervous about travelling alone or even in pairs, they found security in numbers. On the other hand, some students also liked to travel in small numbers, which was due to several factors. First, as the students learned their way around and became more confident over the summer, the size of the groups declined. The decline in numbers occurred as the students became aware of the liabilities of looking for accommodation, going to restaurants, and visiting places in large groups (Gmelch, 1997). Second, as some students mentioned, travelling in a large group meant that it was 'a pain' to appease a large crowd, and they had to listen to constant complaining. Other problems included with travelling in large groups, was a lessening of the educational potential of their trips (Gmelch, 1997). This is because when travelling in a large group, students spent more of their time interacting with one another and less time observing their surroundings. Consequently, they limited their contact with local people and isolated themselves from absorbing and trying to fit in to the cultures that they were visiting. Third, some students noticed that when travelling with a large group, they often followed the "herd" rather than deciding for themselves how they really wanted to spend their time. However, the findings showed that few students ever travelled alone, and those who did were mainly travelling to meet someone else they knew who was also in Europe (Gmelch, 1997). These students stated they were quite excited to be in Europe all by themselves. They enjoyed the experience of independence by making all the decisions without having to consult anyone. It should be recognized that international students who are abroad for the first time often feel the need to travel in larger groups until they are secure enough about their ability to negotiate their way in foreign places (Gmelch, 1997). Only when they have had the time to develop a few

close relationships will they feel comfortable travelling and spending a lot of time with one or two people (Gmelch, 1997). Independent travel in a foreign culture is also a catalyst for personal growth in students, and should be encouraged.

Type of travel party

Type of travel party referred to the manner in which travellers chose to travel, that is, travelling on package tours or travelling independently (Mok & Armstrong, 1995). A view of the literature suggests travel party types vary from country to country. Researchers found that youth travellers in the West seldom used traditional tour services and they tended to travel more independently (Chadee & Cutler, 1996; Vogt, 1976). Carr's (2001) study supported Chadee & Culter's (1996) suggestion that university students preferred to organize their own vacations rather than take package holidays. Because students have more time to travel compared with working people who are in full-time employment, they might also prefer less fixed schedules, and more flexible itineraries and more independent travel. Leung (1999) examined the type of travel by Hong Kong university students. The findings indicated that the poor service quality of the tour guides, both in terms of their attitude and knowledge was the major reason why students chose independent travel. Additionally, accommodation and catering arrangements were not well balanced between variety, quality and cultural novelty. Leung (1999) also found that the worst part of joining a package tour was not the tour itself but the process of buying it. Especially during the peak seasons, clients have to wait until it is too late as to when they would get their confirmation on whether their tour can really take off. Because they did not see the current travel products, (especially packaged tours) as being designed to cater for their needs, students had a slightly stronger will to travel on their own. Samples of students from other countries suggested a different situation. Many Asian students prefer to join package tours (Hobson & Josiam, 1992 and Mok & Armstrong, 1995). In a package tour, people are deprived of much freedom, but economy and convenience were the most frequently cited reasons for purchasing a package tour (Touche Ross & Co., 1975). That is the case with Asian students. In their study of travel behavior of

university students in Hong Kong, Heung & Leong (2006) found that a majority of the respondents (75.6 percent) chose to join package tours.

Transportation

A review of the literature suggests students use a variety of transports on holiday. It was found that student travellers travelled by public transportation. For those young independent travellers, bus and rail were their major choices. Josiam *et al.* (1994) suggested that given the low cost of bus travel in US, it would appear that there was a lot of potential for bus companies in the student travel market. Bywater (1993) also revealed that student travellers chose to travel by bus. They usually join package bus tours. In addition, in the study of the travel behavior of American students on terms abroad in Europe, Gmelch (1997) found that with Eurotrain Explore Passes which provide purchasers with unlimited train travel for a single price meant students travelled throughout Western Europe and parts of Central Europe. Students went wherever the trains would conveniently take them. The idea was that travel would be more efficient with public transportation as a result of parking and traffic difficulties in large cities or regions in Europe (Shoham, Schrage & van Eeden, 2004). Moreover, Josiam *et al.* (1994) also found students travelled by air. The high figure bodes well for the future of the airline industry, with the younger generation showing such a high usage. Heung & Leong (2006) investigated the transportation used by university students in Hong Kong when they were travelling overseas. The results showed that more than half of the respondents (60.5 percent) travelled by air. Hobson & Josiam (1992) explained that given the distance between the university and many of the destinations, coupled with the factor of limited time, it was not surprising to see that many students flew to their destinations. Furthermore, Josiam *et al.* (1994) discovered that US students also tended to use cruise ship travel. In addition, student travellers were found to travel by automobile, including their own cars, rental cars or their friends' vehicles (Hobson & Josiam, 1992; Josiam *et al.*, 1994; Shanka *et al.*, 2002; Shoham *et al.*, 2004). Students chose cars as their favorite transport modes because they enjoy the independence of being able to come and go as they please (Shoham *et*

al., 2004). Additionally, Asian students are probably more likely to travel in groups than their European and Australian counterparts (particularly females), thus car transport for a small group is probably not substantially more expensive than using public transport (Shanka *et al.*, 2002). Further, in their study of transportation modes by international university students, Shoham *et al.* (2004) also argued that students could use different combinations of transportation modes (e.g. plane to get to the major entry point and trains onward).

Accommodation

Similar to transportation, students were found to use a mixed type of accommodation while travelling. Shoham *et al.*, (2004) found both international and domestic American university students were more likely to choose to stay with friends and family because they perceived it as an opportunity to save money. Chadee & Culter (1996) reported that 35 percent of respondents indicated that they would stay with friends and relatives. Josiam *et al.* (1994) also noted that most US spring break travellers stayed with friends and relatives. However, a review of the literature suggested since student travellers are constrained by limited budgets, budget accommodation such as backpackers and hostels was also the most popular choice. Clarke (1992) suggested that young people were prepared to sacrifice benefits of home comfort in favor of keeping accommodation costs down. Heung & Leong (2006) discovered unlike staying in hotels or motels, university students in Hong Kong who live in hostels can prepare their own meals in hostel kitchens and make a lot of friends in the social setting. This way of self-help cooking is less expensive than eating out, and if this is done throughout the trip, the total travel budget will be smaller as well. However, many Asian women would not find the co-ed philosophy of many western backpackers something that would suit them (Shanka *et al.* 2002). As a result, they were most likely to stay in hotels/motel (53 percent), followed by holiday dwellings/chalets (16 percent) (Shanka *et al.*, 2002). Chadee & Cutler's (1996) study also demonstrated the same findings that the majority of Asians were inclined to stay in hotels/motels, and this number was significantly greater than that of Europeans.

Therefore, cultural differences between the Asian students and their European/Australian counterparts who exhibit a preference for self-catering accommodation, particularly youth hostels and backpackers' hostels, should be taken into account when travel planning (Field, 1999; Chadee & Cutler, 1996). Further, a review of literature argued that students did not typically look for cheap accommodation. Indeed, the results suggested that the student market was not different from other markets in demanding higher quality standards than in the past. Students chose hotels and motels for accommodation (Chadee & Cutler, 1996; Hobson & Josiam, 1992; Josiam *et al.*, 1994; Hsu & Sung, 1997; Shanka *et al.*, 2002 and Shoham *et al.*, 2004). Because Asian students are probably more likely to travel in groups, hotel/motel rooms or chalets that sleep three, four or more individuals are probably not much more expensive than many backpackers' hostels or other forms of budget accommodation (Shanka *et al.*, 2002).

Food

Mixed findings regarding the choice of restaurants by students on vacation were obtained from the literature review. Independent student travellers usually chose fast-food restaurants for meals in order to keep the costs low (Hsu & Sung, 1997). Similar findings were obtained from other studies on university student travellers' eating habits (Field, 1999, Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Heung & Leong, 2006). Shoham *et al.* (2004) used five eating options to explore the eating preferences by both international and domestic American university students, including fast food restaurants, home-style restaurants, prestigious restaurants, self-prepared meal and deli foods. The results illustrated that fast food restaurants and home-style restaurants were the most popular choices when travelling. Low incomes might well be the determining factor for this finding. In addition, in the study of the American students eating habits, Gmelch (1997) found that there was nothing remarkable about when they on terms abroad in Europe, except perhaps that an average of 1.5 times per weekend they went to American style or franchise restaurants (e.g. McDonalds, NY Bagles, Pizza Hut). He further pointed out that American students' interest in American franchise

restaurants was strongest when they were in countries like Hungary, where none of the students spoke the language and waiters spoke little or no English, making it difficult to decipher the menu.

Travel period

Generally, semester breaks and other holidays provide students with relatively large time blocks free from work and/or school commitments, which stimulate students to travel. Most students planned to travel during spring breaks and summer in the US (Hobson & Josiam, 1993, 1995; Fields, 1999; Mattila *et al.*, 2001 and Josiam *et al.*, 1998) and "Schoolies Week" in Australia (an end-of-high school celebration) (Weaver, 2004). However, the travel period varies from country to country. All colleges and universities in US have a one-week break somewhere between late February and early April. Popularly referred to as "spring break", it is during this time that students have an opportunity to travel together (Hobson & Josiam, 1995). Clarke (1992) found that in the UK, July, August and September were the peak months for student travel. The secondary peak was May. Leung (1999) and Heung & Leong (2006) examined the travel period of university students in Hong Kong, and the same findings revealed that the three-month summer vacation was the major time for travelling. In addition, Heung & Leong (2006) found that Christmas holidays, Chinese New Year holiday and Easter holiday were the peak periods for respondents. Carr (2001) discussed the strong seasonal pattern to the holidays taken by the New Zealand students. The results indicated that the peak holiday period was between December and February when 56.1 percent of all the holidays recorded were taken. This period coincides with the summer holiday vacation period of the University of Otago. In addition, the school recesses and semester breaks (students have over 20 weeks of free time outside of the university term each year in New Zealand, according to Carr, 2003), and other public holidays such as Christmas also provide students relatively large time blocks free from work and/or school commitments.

Travel planning effort

A review of the literature finds that students varied in their travel planning behavior. Gmelch (1997) observed that the decisions of American students on term study abroad in Europe about where to go next were often spontaneous, made with little planning. In their study of travel arrangement of the US spring break market, Josiam *et al.* (1994) revealed that a majority of the student travellers (46 percent) had no need to make prior bookings. This might be due to the fact that most travelled by car and then stayed with friends or relatives at the destination. In contrast, other researchers found student travellers did plan their travel. Richards & Wilson (2005) stated that the travel planning lead time is significantly longer for long haul destinations. For example, the average travel booking lead time was six weeks, rising to two months for trips over four months in duration. Sung & Hsu (1996) explored the international student travel characteristics in the U.S. The results indicated that the majority of respondents had taken 2 to 3-day trips, with an average of 12 days advance planning. The majority of respondents had also taken trips lasting longer than 3 days, with 26 days as the average advance planning time. For the longest trip in the U.S. in the last 12 months, respondents stayed away from home an average of 10 nights, and planned the trip 30 days in advance.

Information sources

A variety of information sources are utilized by student travellers when deciding where to go on holiday. Travel agents were usually the information sources used by student travellers to plan their trips (Clarke, 1992; Josiam *et al.*, 1994; Sung & Hsu 1996; Richards & Wilson, 2005; Heung & Leong, 2006). In their study of the spring break travel market in US, Hobson & Josiam (1995) found that using a package deal, either offered through a travel agency or an on-campus organization became the most popular. Richards & Wilson (2005) investigated the international student travel market in eight countries, and the results revealed that less experienced travellers relied more heavily on travel agents for information. However, surprisingly to note in Shanka *et al.*'s (2002) study, as the university has a number of travel agencies

strategically placed on university campus, such as the Student Travel Association (STA), which specializes in student travel, only about 11 percent used a travel agency for information. With increasing travel experience, student travellers tended to prefer to make their own travel arrangements rather than using travel agencies. Importantly, it was suggested that the role of friends and word-of-mouth information played a much stronger role than travel agents (Josiam *et al.*, 1994 and Frost & Shanka, 1999). This is because the travellers felt that the wrong choice might involve money and time losses (Heung & Leong, 2006). That the bulk of information came from friends and relatives suggested that the experience of one group of student travellers influenced those in the years to come and this finding stressed the importance of effective public relations activities to tourism operators (Shanka *et al.*, 2002). Regarding sources of information about the travel destinations, Shanka, *et al.* (2002) found that the majority of international university students in Australia (59 percent) learnt about the destinations from friends. Moreover, travellers' own prior experience, travel clubs, pamphlets and brochures, and visitor welcome centers were also sources of information (Sung & Hsu, 1996; Gmelch, 1997; Leung, 1999; Frost & Shanka, 2000). Leung (1999) pointed out that the selection of destination for Hong Kong University students was normally based on the availability of information, especially TV promotional documentaries. Richards & Wilson (2005) found that just as in many other niche markets, the use of the Internet was the main information source used by students in planning the trip (71 percent). This implied that with higher levels of computer literacy and competence, barriers to the use of new information and booking channels would disappear quickly. Bai, Hu, Elsworth & Countryman (2004) also found that online travel planning was a preferred choice by college students in their study. With regards to the Internet, college students were becoming leading edge Internet users so much so that their online habits could demonstrate the future direction of the Internet (Bai *et al.*, 2004). Borgerding (2001) reported findings about college student travel from a market survey conducted by Futurepages/Memolink.com. According to this survey, the Internet was found to be the most effective method to reach and communicate with the college student market, as they have been receptive

to online promotions and discount deals. Richards & Wilson (2005) suggested that internet reservation systems will have a significant impact in future. However, Carr (2001) used a five point Likert scale to assess trust in holiday information sources. The results demonstrated that on average, the Internet was the least trusted source. The results were similar to those reported by Carr (2002) in his study of British university students. Students were also concerned about the total time used on the online vacation planning process (Bai, *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, it should be noted, websites must be easy to navigate and their contents must be concise, up-to-date, and easy to understand. Otherwise, the possible outcome will be reduced traffic to the Website, and more importantly, prospective college travellers may switch to competitors for information searches and business transactions.

Destination choice

A review of the literature suggests that destination choices are influenced by various factors, such as familiar destinations, new experiences, the image of the destinations, accommodation costs, easy driving distance, availability of infrastructure and the influence of family and friends. Hobson & Josiam (1992) examined activities of students in a US university over a semester (term) break and concluded that there was a substantial student travel market for renowned and familiar destinations. In line with this finding, Shanka *et al.* (2002) noted a substantial interest by international students in familiar destinations in Western Australia. Hobson & Josiam (1995) also found that domestic travel remains the primary focus of spring break. In contrast, Chadee & Cutler (1996) investigated most international university students in New Zealand who travel overseas sought adventure and viewed such travel as lifetime experience. As a result, with the cultural similarities and proximity of Australia to New Zealand, Australia was rated as a less adventurous destination for New Zealand university students. Instead, the most probable destinations were Europe (59 percent), followed by USA (15 percent) and Asia (9 percent). Similarly, in their study of the student travel market in eight countries, Richards & Wilson (2005) concluded that the least experienced student travellers were visiting the Westernized areas of Europe and

North America, while more experienced student travellers tended to visit more 'challenging" destinations, including South America, China/Japan and the Indian sub-continent. This implied that many student travellers took their initial long trips in relatively 'easy', familiar or 'safe' destinations before striking out for more adventurous ones. This 'development trajectory' indicated the need to develop new products to meet the demands of the student travel market (Richards & Wilson, 2005, p.44). In addition, the image of destination influences the choice of destination. Images are considered to be a mixture of both positive and negative perceptions (Chen & Kerstetter, 1999). On the positive side, Butts *et al.* (1996) revealed that "image of sun" was one of the most important factors attracted U.S. college students to the destination. Bywater (1993) also found that destinations of sun and sand were also the choices of many young travellers. Conversely, on the negative side, the three factors having a noticeably deterring effect on students' destination decisions were images of "golfing opportunities" and "fishing opportunities" and images of "a family oriented area" (Butts *et al.*, 1996). Waitt (1996) conducted a study of Korean students' images of Australia as a tourist destination and the results indicated that cultural heritage and shopping opportunities were perceived negatively. A review of the literature also reveals that student travellers also usually chose destinations where accommodation costs were low (Bywater, 1993; Butts, *et al.*, 1996). Moreover, Josiam *et al.* (1994) highlighted that the destination selection was related to tourism infrastructure in the destination. Josiam *et al.* (1994) found that students chose the destinations based on the easy driving distance. For example, Florida was rated as the most popular destination, because it has many beaches within easy driving distance of each other. Gmelch (1997) studied the travel patterns of US students to European destinations and found that destination selection was attributed to the travel time factor. Because students frequently travelled by train, the choice of where to go was often determined by where the next available train was heading. Furthermore, the influence of family and friends was a primary basis for students when choosing their destinations (Hobson & Josiam, 1992; Josiam *et al.*, 1994; Gmelch, 1997). In the study of the destination choice of U.S. college students, Butts, *et al.* (1996) revealed

that word-of-mouth recommendations from friends or peers was the factor they thought most influenced their destination decisions. Research on international students' perceptions of destination image, however, has been conducted solely with US and Australians and has not given much attention to international students' interest in other countries, such as New Zealand. In addition, a review of literature suggested that few studies have focused on Chinese students' image of travel destinations.

3.3 Chinese VFRs in New Zealand and the Role of Students in Inducting VFR Travel

Based on Tourism New Zealand (2005), China is New Zealand's fifth largest source of international visitor expenditure, with education tours as the top-spending segment among Chinese people, followed by business tours and VFR segments. Between the year 1999 and 2007, Chinese VFR visitor arrivals grew by 34.3 percent per annum in New Zealand (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism, 2007c). In the year of November 2007, of the total 119,880 visitors from China, 12.2 percent of Chinese visitors (14,582) came to New Zealand for visiting friends and relatives (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism, 2007c, 2007f). According to expenditure by all VFR markets was the NZ$1.3 billion of all international visitor expenditure, it can be estimated that Chinese VFR visitors spent a total of NZ$86 million with an average of $5,898 per VFR visitor. In 2005, Chinese visitors came to New Zealand to visit friends and family and spent nearly $75 million (27.4 percent of total expenditure) (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism, 2006). Therefore, expenditure by Chinese VFR visitors to New Zealand increased up around 14.6 percent from 2005. According to the annual report of Tourism New Zealand (2004-2005), and to a continuing survey on International Visitors (2004-2005) to New Zealand, through March 2005, 41 percent of Chinese visitor nights were spent in private homes of friends/relatives, compared with 21 percent in the year ended March 2004.

The importance of Chinese VFR market to New Zealand is also closely related to the effects of immigration. Immigration can generate tourism flows, in particular through the geographical extension of friendship and kinship networks, which as Hall & Williams (2002, p38) state, potentially may be translated into VFR tourism flows (see also Jackson, 1990; King, 1994; Navarro & Turco, 1994; Paci, 1994; Braunlich & Nadkarni, 1995; King & Gamage, 1994; Meis *et al.*, 1995; Morrison *et al.*, 1995, Morrison & O'Leary, 1995; Seaton, 1994; Seaton& Tagg, 1995; Yuan *et al.*, 1995 and Feng & Page, 2000). Hall & Williams (2002) identified two forms of migration, which are: (a) production-led and (b) consumption-led migration. In terms of production-led migration, the globalization of the economy has led to the globalization of human resources in labour markets (Aislabie, Lee & Stanton, 1994 and Dawkins *et al.*, 1995). In addition, the relaxed immigration policy in New Zealand has provided many Chinese people potential opportunities to work in New Zealand, which also enhanced the connections between Chinese residents and those Chinese people living in New Zealand (Zhao, 2006). By contrast, the consumption-led migration systems consist of many different forms of migration, which include "seasonal migration and second home ownership, permanent migration at or near the retirement life-cycle stage, and non-tourism led "lifestyle" migration (Williams & Hall, 2002, p.242). It is argued that consumption-led migrants are attracted by quality of life considerations while remaining '…economically engaged in metropolitan economies' (Williams & Hall, 1998, p.7). The consumption-led migrants to a new country may also be followed by their friends and relatives who choose to visit them in their new country. As Feng & Page (2000) highlight, "these flows of tourism are very much structured by the life course of migration, with each round of migration creating a new spatial arrangement of friendship and kinship networks, which potentially generate a complex array of VFR tourism flows" (p.246).

In addition, the emerging Chinese VFR market also appears closely linked with education. Asian culture stresses the importance of family closeness with their extended family members. Kawato (1995) classifies Asians on the hand as group-

oriented and Westerners on the other hand as individualistic. For Asians, children are seen as central to a family and parents tend to be protective over their children and their relatives (Nicholson, 2003). Parents or the elderly have a strong obligation to look after their children who are not married. This responsibility becomes stronger with girls. Hence, Asian VFR tourists are a great contributor to the VFR market all over the world, especially for a place which has a significant number of Asian students. Take the Australian VFR market for an example, from information received by the Australian Tourist Commission and Tourism Victoria's office in Asia, parents and friends of children studying in Australia provide a significant source of the VFR market to Australia (White, 1996). Similarly, this area appears to be growing as education courses such as those offered by language colleges and universities in New Zealand are more actively marketed to the Asian markets. New Zealand is particularly attractive to overseas students. Such students are often visited by their parents, by other family members and by friends. Such groups consisting of students studying in New Zealand, their relatives and friends visiting from overseas, offer potential business, particularly for regional areas. In Asian cultures, VFR activities form a very important aspect of their lifestyle. People from Asia are living within the culture of strong family ties and connections including with their relatives and friends wherever they are (Isa, 2004). Hence, it is not surprising to learn that Asians are expected to be the largest market of VFR outbound travellers in the future (Omstedt, 1997). One Asian country which is considered as vitally important in generating international students' VFRs in the world is China (World Tourism Organization, 2002). This is because, according to Seaton and Palmer (1997), VFRs are a population-sensitive market. As a result, it can be predicted that the volume of VFR tourism in the study destination is somewhat directly related to the size of the international student population in the destination. Education has a positive relationship with VFR tourism. This positive relation implies that when education flows keep on growing, VFR tourism flows will be growing as well. The influx of Chinese students can also attract a significant number of VFRs to New Zealand, making it an important contributor to the New Zealand VFR sector, as hosts receiving visits from friends and relatives both

during and outside term times. In addition, motivated by rapid domestic economic growth, coupled with increased public holidays and the desire of the Chinese people for overseas travel, Chinese citizens have a strong demand for outbound travel, which further offers good prospects for the Chinese tertiary students' VFR travel industry in New Zealand. Chinese tertiary students act as a pull factor for VFRs to visit the place where they are studying (i.e. New Zealand) and play an essential role in hosting their VFRs (Bischoff & Koenig-Lewis, 2007 and Isa, 2004). Those students who act as hosts are likely to make additional expenditures entertaining their guests by attending plays, cultural sports events, taking them out to restaurants, groceries and alcohol purchases (Meis, *et al.*, 1995 and Seaton & Palmer, 1997). Meis *et al.* (1995) referred to these expenditures as having an 'unseen' multiplier effect. Moreover, VFRs not only represent a source of revenue for the tourism industry by itself, but also act as information channels that informally link networks of friends, relatives and other potential travellers to the destination, which generates additional revenue to the tourism industry (Peerapatdit, 1999).

Furthermore, it is worthwhile noting the issue and implications of the family structure of the vast majority of mainland Chinese families. The one child policy is important, because it determines how many relatives and possibly friends that Chinese students are likely to bring to New Zealand. In a family of three (mother, father and the child) the single child is the centre of parental attention. The parents want their child to have a good education and therefore many families send their child abroad for an education believing this will benefit that child. However, because of the one-child policy, Chinese students tend not to have any brothers or sisters which mean there are limitations on the number of immediate family members who might make a visit. Nevertheless, in Chinese culture, the extended family is still valid. The extended family is important, because they are also likely to visit the students. In addition, in most rural areas, families are allowed to apply to have a second child if the first is a girl. And, in many cases, the parents can obtain permission to have a second child by paying a fee to the government, especially those with affluent family background.

This means that one cannot automatically assume that all students come from a one-child family.

3.4 Travel Behavior of Related VFR Market

The following section identifies the characteristics of the VFR market, examines the heterogeneity within VFR market and investigates the inhibitors of VFR travel.

The characteristics of the VFR market

The traditionally marginal interest in the VFR market has been replaced by a recent upsurge of research about these travellers. The size, nature and economic values of the VFR market make it an important travel and tourism segment, one warranting serious marketing attention. To accomplish the objective of this study, an extensive review of past literature on the VFR market was undertaken. Lehto *et al.* (2001) identified that, in comparison with other pleasure travellers, VFRs have unique characteristics in terms of travel motives, the duration of the trip, accommodation usage, choices of travel times and destinations, levels of repeat visitations and income elasticity, as well as travel information search and trip planning behaviors, spending patterns, trip types and vacation activities.

A review of the literature suggested that although many authors claim that VFR is one of the most popular reasons given by people to travel, nonetheless VFR travel is under-researched and under-reported. There has been a widely held perception that VFRs are not really tourists and market analysts have tended to ignore them as they are believed to spend less and to be difficult to influence (Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000). As a consequence, it is symptomatic of much of the literature on tourist motivation and tourist sociology that they bear little relevance to VFR and other segments (Angus, 1990). Knowledge of the key factors that motivate VFRs to travel is an important area of study in the VFR travel behavior. VFRs are substantially different in motivation and behavior from mass tourists and package holiday markets (Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000). For instance, the motivation of VFRs is broadly defined as

"personal", such as strengthening or building closer family ties and friends, as opposed to cultural or physical motives (Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000). Wahab (1975) pointed out that travel motivators can operator at two levels: the general and the specific. General motivators mean motivators operate at a general level when they induce a person to engage in tourism, while, specific motivators means a selective motive made by a tourist in choosing a destination based on a few factors like security, language affinity, friends at the destination or less cost. From this statement, it can be concluded that VFR falls under the specific motivators since VFR visitors choose to visit one place because they know a person who is staying or living there permanently. Additionally, the Mexican social scientist Cuebro Ramumbo had divided travel motivators into four categories, as Collier (2003) cite, that is:

1 ***Physical motivators***: people travel to satisfy their physical needs, such as participate in sports, relax, improve their health (e.g. spas, baths, etc). and reduce tension through activities related to physical factors.
2 ***Cultural motivators***: people travel to learn different cultures, experience another way of life and satisfy their curiosity about other places.
3 ***Interpersonal motivators:*** people travel to get away from routine, escape from work, meet new people, visit friends and relatives.
4 ***Status and Prestige motivators***: people travel to meet the needs of esteem and personal development, such as for recognition, attention, and admiration.

Based on their identification of travel motivations, VFR falls under the interpersonal motivators since most VFRs take a trip to visit their friends and/or relatives to satisfy their needs to maintain the relationship between them. Moreover, NZTB (New Zealand Tourism Board, 1998) further developed the model of tourism motivation, which identified six distinct segment needs. As Collier (2003:p261-2) demonstrate,

1 ***Energizing***: people travel to meet the needs of experiencing a felling of excitement, exhilaration and interaction through physical activity, experiencing oneself as a physical being and being challenged.
2 ***Sociability***: people travel to meet the needs of participating with others and having fun together in a lively, outgoing and sociable environment.
3 ***Learning***: people travel to meet the needs of understanding and learning the world in an inquiring and intellectual way.
4 ***Relaxation***: people travel to meet the needs of relieving stresses, restoring the spirit.
5 ***Status:*** people travel to meet the needs to distinguish themselves from others

and expressing their own individuality.

6 ***Connections***: people travel to meet the need of feeling connected with the world.

According to this model, VFR falls under the connection motives since most VFRs take a trip to visit their friends or relatives are motivated to satisfy their needs to be connected with people i.e. their friends and relatives. Besides, the World Tourism Organization classified travel motivations under a number of headings the simplest of which characterizes them according to whether they are obligatory or non-obligatory. Under this classification, VFR and business are obligatory motivations. Furthermore, Bleasdale & Kwarko (2000) found that the motivation of VFRs has been closely associated with the motivation to visit friends and/or relatives and thus form a feature of Nash (1996)'s notion of tourism as a 'personal' transition.

McKercher (1995) and Hall (1995) also suggested that VFRs are motivated by social obligation reasons. VFR tourism is desirable and indeed necessary for people with distant network ties because even highly regular phone calls, text messages and e-mails are not sufficient to sustain strong ties, which depend on periodic face-to-face meetings. It is argued that the increase in "VFR tourism" stems from a "compulsion to proximity" (the desire to be physically co-present with people) and from various obligations that require people's physical co-presence (Boden & Molotoch, 1994). In fact, there are many, more or less binding and more or less pleasurable obligations that require face-to-face co-presence, such as birthdays, Christmas parties, funerals, hen nights, stag nights and the weddings of close friends and family members, even if they require substantial travel (Larsen, 2006). Not fulfilling such social obligations often has significant social consequences: social status and relationships are likely to be damaged (Larsen, 2006). While social obligations required relatively little travel when social networks were socially and spatially close-knit, they trigger much long-distance travel today, when social networks are widely distributed and the world is becoming compressed due to historically cheap and fast transport (Larsen, 2006). It is arguable that these motives are reinforced by cultural moves that emphasize social ties

and mutual responsibilities – which norms are traditionally associated with Asian cultures (Hofstede, 1980).

The travel motivation literature also indicated that there was a problem to identify the motivation for people to travel not only because motives differ from one person to another, involving as it does human behavior and psychological aspects, but also because motivations are diverse, dynamic and complex, and people may travel for several motives and it is not always easy to separate motives in their minds (Angus, 1990, Teye & Leclerc, 2003 and Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). This is often the case with VFR travellers. VFRs' motivations vary and this impacts upon their travel behavior. For example, for some the primary motivation for travel is to visit friends and relatives, for others friends and relatives are just a source of cheap or free accommodation. Additionally, for some the primary reason is to visit friends, and for others is to visit relatives. Hence, Seaton (1994) argued that for this reason visiting friends should be distinguished from visiting relatives as those visiting friends were likely to behave more like mainstream tourists. Moreover, while many travellers visit friends and relatives on their journeys their main reason for visiting may, in fact, be a holiday. Therefore, VFR, as a motivation, can never be considered in isolation from other motivations (Angus, 1990).

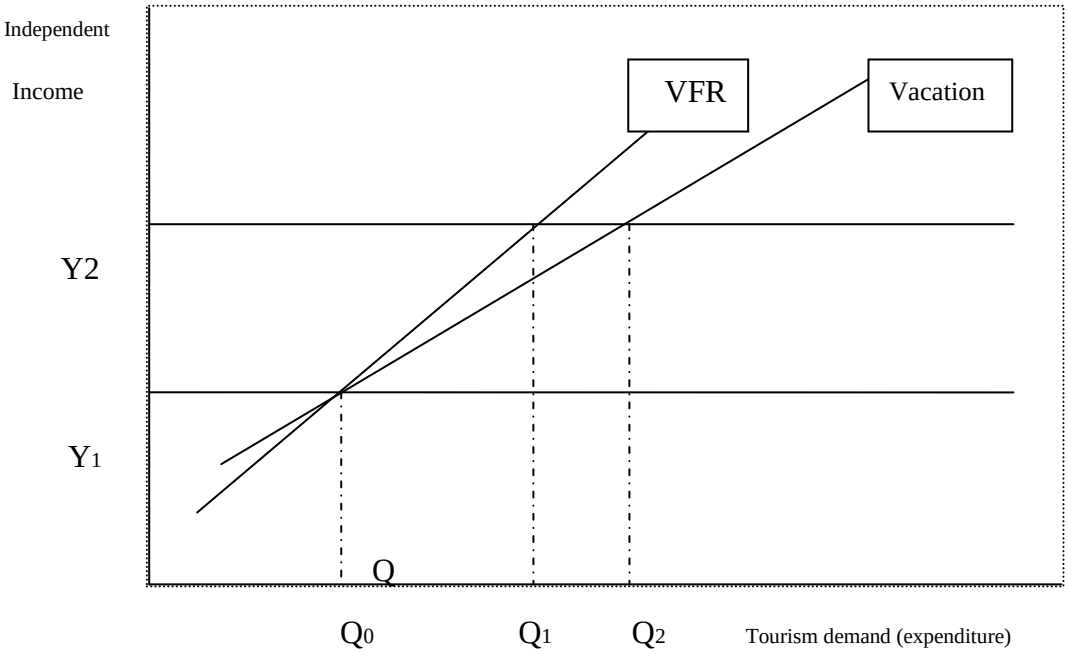
In addition, VFRs differ from other leisure travellers in the duration of the trip. Some studies, such as Fache (1994), found that VFR trips tended to be shorter than other leisure travellers. However, other studies confirm a different result in that VFR travel is characterized by above-average trip durations, and the length of stay of VFR tourism is in most cases longer than the other forms of tourism. Hu and Morrison (2002) gave an example that between 1979 and 1991, US travellers stayed on average eight nights. By contrast VFR travellers had an average duration stay of 14 nights, which is almost twice as long. Seaton and Palmer (1997) explained this divergence by the different patterns of domestic and international VFR. Bleasdale & Kwarko (2000) asserted that VFRs were more likely to make long stays than other travellers. Yuan *et*

al. (1995), Seaton & Palmer (1997) and Müri & Sägesser (2003) suggested that domestic VFRs (short-haul) stayed shorter and international (long-haul) VFRs stayed longer periods at their destinations than other leisure travellers. Despite this, VFRs are also typified by the choice of travel times. That is, they are willing to make trips in the off-season periods, which means VFR travel was more equally distributed throughout the year and actually peaked in months of traditionally low general tourism volumes (Seaton & Palmer, 1997). The absence of pronounced seasonal fluctuations is another feature of the VFR market (Hu & Morrison, 2002; Lehto *et al.*, 2001). Lehto *et al.* (2001) noted that this can function as a moderator to compensate for seasonal variations typically found in tourism destinations and businesses. That is, it represents a form of seasonal compensation for more general tourism markets. VFR tourism is therefore beneficial to regions because it provides visitors in low and shoulder-season periods (Boyne, 2001). Hence, VFRs are a suitable target group to better use the capacity of the tourism industry. Because VFRs travel for social obligation reasons, the time at which they usually choose to travel is determined to a degree by special occasions, such as Christmas time, weddings, wedding anniversaries, birthdays, semester break and summer break, and these periods can be outside of peak summer periods. Also, VFRs have different choices of destinations. That is, VFRs are more likely to be concentrated in non-holiday destinations. VFRs choose travel destinations based on the place where their friends or relatives are staying. Bischoff & Koenig-Lewis, (2006) found that in the UK VFR market, large cities/towns and small towns were the main types of destinations, with 41 percent and 28 percent of trips respectively being to these locations. The remaining 31 percent tended to be to hosts living in traditional tourist destinations (UKTS, 2003). Indeed, only 10 percent of VFR trips were made to the seaside and 21 percent to the countryside or smaller villages. They also pointed out that the destination choice is largely a reflection of the population distribution. Smith (1995) found that "the attractiveness of the destinations was assumed to be proportional to their population, reflecting the fact that the single most popular motivation for travel in Canada is to visit friends and relatives" (p.137). Moreover, VFRs differ from other tourists in terms of the usage of accommodation.

They can either be staying with those friends and family or staying in commercial accommodation. Previous studies found that VFRs do not primarily stay in commercial accommodation houses but with friends and relatives as definition; but some usage of commercial accommodation has been identified. For example, by comparing with other pleasure travellers to the East North Central census region in the USA, Braunlich & Nadkarni (1995) were among the first to study VFRs' expenditures on commercial lodging facilities and to define the VFR hotel user market. The results showed that over 20 percent of VFRs were hotel users with VFR travel constituting 8.7 percent of all trips in which a hotel room was purchased. Moreover, they found that VFR hotel users stayed longer, but spent less per night on hotel rooms than other pleasure travellers. Additionally, VFRs display a high level of repeat visitation, which Paci (1994) noted was one good reason to stop undervaluing VFR and represent a core market for many tourism activities (Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000). A study of Australian VFRs to New Zealand showed that about 80 percent of the VFRs were repeat visitors (Angus, 1990). In spite of this, VFRs are less responsive to the availability of tourist attractions at the destination. For a developing destination therefore VFRs can generate a sizable, stable and recurring demand (McKercher, 1996). Further, because of the strength of personal motivation among VFRs, they were also believed to be relatively less sensitive to income-changes than general vacationers and perhaps the least sensitive to income variations (Bull, 1995; Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000). This reflects a degree of social obligation rather than choice (Bull, 1995). Figure 3.1 demonstrates the effect on tourism demand of different income elasticities. If income rises from Y_1 to Y_2, the levels of increased expenditure on VFR tourism (from Q_0 to Q_1) will be less than general vacation expenditure changes (from Q_0 to Q_2) (assuming Q_0 to be merely a starting index for each type of tourism rather than an identical expenditure in ease case). Similarly, any decrease in real income (e.g. due to price inflation exceeding wage inflation) results in a less proportional fall in tourist expenditure in the VFR sector when compared to the non-VFR segment. Last but not the least, VFRs are less likely to be on traditional tourism product, and more likely to include more locally made product and products

away from the main tourist destinations. This then suggests that the VFR market creates a lower potential for economic leakages, hence their expenditure creates a higher multiplier effect and economic impact. Since a high level of tourism leakage is arecognized problem for many developing country destinations a focus on VFR tourists may have very positive benefits (Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000).

Figure 3.1 Income Elasticity of Demand for Different Types of Tourism



Source: Bull, A. (1995). *The economics of travel and tourism (2nd Ed.).* Melbourne: Longman Australia Pty Ltd. P.37.

In short, some market advantages are perceived to characterize VFR tourists. VFRs represent a stabilizing factor for many destinations given that tourism generally demonstrates high income and price elasticity, instability of demand, unstable levels of repeat visitations, strong seasonality, and dramatic fluctuations in the popularity of specific destinations and products. Because of these unique characteristics, the traditional assumption that VFRs are not noticeably different from other leisure/vacation travellers does not seem to be accurate. It seems that VFR market has distinct behavior patterns that call for tailor-made marketing efforts (Chen & O'Leary, 1998; Morrison *et al*., 1995; and Seaton & Tagg, 1995).

The heterogeneity within VFR market

A common approach in studying the VFR market has been to regard it as one homogeneous market without significantly different component market segments (Morrison *et al.,* 1995). However, more recent research studies are questioning this approach. Due to the apparent diversity of the VFR market, its segmentation is an important step for destination marketers who are assessing its potential as a target market niche. Seaton (1994) first questioned the utility of 'visiting friends and relatives' as an aggregate category for understanding these people's behavior (Hu & Morrison, 2002). Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green, & O'Leary (2000) also questioned the homogeneity of the VFR market, identified variations within the VFR market and proposed types of VFR travel, differences in travel behaviors, and distinct VFR market niches. Moscardo *et al.* (2000) identified five initial categories of the VFR market, and Hu & Morrison (2002) added the sixth. This typology is not only useful in reviewing the existing literature on the VFR market, but also provides a pathway for future research on VFR travel patterns (Hu & Morrison, 2002). The six categories are:

1 Scope: whether the travel is international vs. domestic
2 Effort: whether the travel is long haul vs. short haul
3 Accommodation used: whether Accommodated solely with Friends and Relatives (AFR) vs. Not Accommodated solely with Friends and Relatives (NAFR)
4 Sector: whether VFR is the main purpose for a trip vs. VFR as an activity or one of a number of holiday motives
5 Focus of visits: whether visiting friends (VF) vs. relatives (VR) vs. Visiting Friends and Visiting Relatives (VFVR)
6 Destination-use pattern: single vs. multiple destinations visit

Seaton & Palmer (1997) and Moscardo *et al.* (2000) raised the issue of possible distinctions between domestic and international VFRs and short-haul and long-haul

VFRs. The same authors also suggested there were variations in this market resulting from differences in accommodation use and travel purposes, such as VFR as a primary travel purpose versus VFR as an activity. Seaton proposed a number of hypotheses on the differences among VFs and VRs behavior. Seaton & Tagg (1995) provided the first empirical study that disaggregated VFRs into VF, VR and VFVR, and tested some of the hypotheses proposed in Seaton's (1994) earlier study. Their study drew attention to the role of specific family occasions such as weddings and funerals, and that, on the other hand, friends trips are 'less structured by obligation and have a greater voluntaristic element.' Thus, the travel behavior of VFs was significantly different from that of characteristics as VRs. Hu & Morrison (2002) found that destination use patterns provide another dimension that enhances understanding of the VFR market. They stated that a trip to visit a friend or relative might be a combination of several trip types, that is, those VFRs who visit friends and relatives might take other trips on their way to or from a primary destination. Wall (1978) suggested that single- and multi-destination trips should be differentiated and modeled separately, because single-destination VFRs differ from multi-destination VFRs in socio-demographic and tripographic characteristics. Lockyer & Ryan (2007) also found significant differences between VF and VR behaviors within New Zealand sample, but also found that some differences would be explained by reference to age and life-stage. Moreover, recent studies have also been carried out where different types of VFR travellers were compared with each other in terms of their expenditure patterns. Tables 3.2 and 3.3 summarize past studies on distinctions in travel behavior between/among the variables included in the VFR types as well as distinctions in their spending pattern between or among the variables included in the VFR types. Recognizing the shortcomings of previous research on this topic, as mentioned earlier, the researcher in this study investigate the within-group differences of Chinese VFRs in terms of their expenditure patterns and key trip-related variables. To the researcher's knowledge, the current study, albeit explanatory in nature, delineates the most in-depth knowledge about this understudied group of tourists, Chinese VFRs, with respect to their destination behaviors in overseas destinations.

3.5 Travel Expenditure Pattern

This section first examines the differences between the VFR and non-VFR market in terms of travel expenditure pattern, followed by the heterogeneity within VFR market in terms of travel spending pattern.

In comparison with other mainstream visitors, VFR total spending levels are lower than 'holiday' and 'business' travellers. Jackson (1990) noted that inbound VFRs spend, per person per day, was half of the holiday traveller and one third of the business travellers. This is because holiday visitors are more likely than VFRs to move around the country and visit a number of locations. As a percentage of total visitors for any one location VFRs do not appear in significant numbers. However, there is some evidence to suggest that a good percentage of VFRs visit areas other than the VFR destinations they are bound for, particularly in the main centers. In addition, this difference of expenditure rests, mostly in the fact VFRs spend less on accommodation than other travellers. These percentages suggest the VFR spend at least as much as other visitors on transport to the VFR destinations, attractions, food and beverage, shopping and other amenities while at the destination and undertake some travel away from their hosts, contributing positively to the local economy. Notably, in some cases, VFRs spent more than other traveller groups. Beioley (1997) found that VFRs accounted for 13 percent of total tourism spending in the United Kingdom in 1995 and that besides spending considerable amounts of money on entertainment and travel, they stimulated additional spending on the part of their local hosts. Furthermore, when local impact is analyzed in terms of person-nights VFRs make up a far more significant proportion. There is clear evidence to suggest that VFRs stay substantially longer in most destinations than holiday visitors. In spite of this, visits from friends and relatives stimulate additional spending by their hosts, which represent a great amount of hidden tourism, sometimes referred to as the 'invisible' multiplier effect, thus considerably increasing the impact of VFR tourism

(Meis *et al.*, 1995; Beioley, 1997). Some of the multiplier effects of visits to friends and family can be seen from the research ETC carried out. A staggering 88 percent of hosts said that they usually buy in extra food when people come to stay with them. The research also showed that the average spent by hosts on extra food for their visitors was £37 thereby generating additional revenue for shops and supermarkets as a direct result of VFR trips. Further evidence of the multiplier effect that the VFR sector has on the economy can be seen in terms of the type of activities carried out by hosts and visitors. Entertainment centered around eating or drinking was the most popular activity for a host and visitor to spend time doing together with 68 percent of respondents saying that they visited a restaurant, café, pub, bar or nightclub with their host. Shopping was the next most popular activity with hosts with 51 percent saying they had done this during their last visit.

Research on VFRs has more recently focused on the heterogeneity of the VFR market in terms of expenditure patterns of VFRs. It was found that the distinctions in spending patterns existed between and among the different VFR typologies. The purpose of the trip has a strong influence on activity participation and thus expenditure patterns of VFRs. For example, VFR travellers whose primary purpose is to visit, VFR generally choose to stay with friends and relatives, and those travellers for whom VFR travel was linked to multiple trip purposes and activities were more likely to pay for their accommodation in a range of establishments. Lehto, *et al.* (2001) differentiated VFR as primary motive and as a trip activity by examining US inbound VFR travellers in 1997. They reported that in the case of international VFRs, they spent less on the accommodation if VFR was their main purpose for visiting, rather than simply being an activity. In addition, when VFR is one of several activities of a visit, VFR travellers are more likely to participate in a range of tourist activities. By contrast, if VFR is the main trip purpose, there may be less interest in other tourist activities and the whole travel experience may be entirely focused on social obligations (Moscardo *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, it can be anticipated that there is a tendency that VFRs with VFR as main purpose have a lower expenditure on

entertainment and activities than those VFRs with VFR as one set of activities. In addition, Lehto *et al.* (2001) noted that there were significant differences between VFRs who stay at commercial accommodation and those who exclusively use friends and relatives' private homes in overall spending and for each expenditure category. Similarly, Pearce & Moscardo (2005) found that the commercial accommodation user group (NAFRs) also tended to spend more on food and beverages, transportation, lodging souvenir shopping and entertainment. Also, research has shown that while VFs were slight more common in the lower categories of spending than VRs, they were about as likely to spend at least something on accommodation and food as VRs (Seaton & Tagg, 1995). VFs were less likely to spend money on transport and souvenirs than VRs, and much less likely to spend money on shopping than VRs (Seaton & Tagg, 1995). Hay (1996) also noted that because VR trips exhibit longer length of stays than VF trips, which suggest a higher economic impact. Moreover, among the VFRs, particularly among the young travellers, spending levels are higher when visiting friends compared to visiting relatives. With relatives, the hosts might just stay at home and have a coffee, while with friends; they would go to the coffee shop for morning tea or breakfast. "You probably stretch yourself more when you are visiting friends. You just enjoy the time together and tell yourself you'll catch up on the finances later" (Brisbane Marketing, 2006). Further, it was found that the multi-destination VFRs made greater use of commercial lodging facilities. Approximately, one-third of the multi-destination VFRs stayed in hotels, motels or B&Bs for at least one night, compared with only 10 percent of the single-destination VFRs (Hu & Morrison, 2002). As such, single-destination VFRs tend to spend more on accommodation than multi-destination VFRs.

3.6 Socio-Demographics, Travel Behavior and Expenditure Patterns

This section reports the findings of the literature review with regard to the relationship between socio-demographic variables and travel behavior, the relationship between socio-demographic variables and expenditure pattern and the relationships between travel behavior and expenditure patterns.

Socio-demographic variables and student travel behavior

Unfortunately, based on the review of literature, researchers were slow in incorporating gender differences into travel motives and activities with respect to the student travel market, with the exception of Reisinger & Mavondo (2004). Their study investigated differences between female and male travel behavior regarding undergraduate university students in US and suggested women and men differed in their motivation and thus engaged in different activities. The apparent lack of meaningful analysis and presentation of gender differences in tourist behavior inhibits the construction of social theories (Carr, 1999). The differences in travel activities were examined on the basis of ethnicity. However, the role of nationality in predicting variance in travel activities was not consistent in the literature. Kim & Jogaratnam (2003) compared the travel activity preferences of domestic American and Asian college students. The results revealed that differences in travel activity preferences rooted in such a classification were found to be minimal at best. That is, despite the two statistically significant differences, the remaining 14 areas assessed on the mean responses of both Asian and domestic American students were surprisingly similar. Field (1999) also found that foreign students tended to discard their native travel preferences and adopt American ways, even if they have been in the USA only a short time. Alternatively, Shoham *et al.* (2004) examined the differences in entertainment activities undertaken across four samples: private US university students, public US university students, South African university students and Israeli university students. The results demonstrated that all four groups were significantly different. Private US university students were the heaviest users, followed by South Africans, public US university students and Israeli university students. The mean scores for sports were comparable for private US university, public US university and South African university, and lower for Israeli university. The mean for Israeli students was significantly lower than for the other three. As for nature-related leisure activities, Israel was highest, whereas the other three were lower and comparable. The

differences between Israeli students and the other three groups were significant. Finally, the findings for cultural activities parallel those for nature-related activities.

With respect to the number of overnight trips taken by international students in the US, Sung & Hsu (1996) observed that significant differences were found by socio-demographic variables, such as gender, age, degree sought, and marital status. Married, female graduate students who were 27 years old or above tended to take fewer overnight trips than single, male undergraduate respondents who were 26 years old or younger. Young and single individuals may have relatively few professional and family obligations, and therefore had a higher propensity for travel (Sung & Hsu, 1996). They also found undergraduate international students stayed away from home longer than graduate international students while travelling. Shanka *et al.* (2002) investigated the length of stay by international university students in Western Australia. The results showed that overall more respondents stayed two or three nights at destinations, about one-quarter of respondents took day trips to various destinations. Of those students who stayed overnight in a destination, students from Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia mostly stayed up to three nights, while 7 percent of respondents from all countries (Malaysia, Singapore, other Asia, except Indonesia) stayed four nights or more. There was no statistically significant difference among the international students on the length of stay at destinations.

In addition, the review of the literature suggested that travel party size was found to be influenced by socio-demographic variables. For example, Frost & Shanka (1999) examined the difference between the number of travel companions among students from Australia, Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand and Hong Kong. The findings indicated there was no single outstanding preference for travelling alone or with others. However, whilst there was a spread between travelling in groups, with family or with a companion, collectively these forms of travel accounted for 79.2 percent as against only 16.6 percent that elected to travel alone. In addition, in their study of international student travel characteristics in the U.S., Sung & Hsu (1996)

found respondents who were 27 years old or above, had been in the U.S. for 4 years or more, sought a graduate degree, were married, had no children living with them and received financial support totally from assistantship/scholarship, were more likely to travel in smaller numbers. It is probable that once students were older, more mature, and more familiar with the American culture, they became more comfortable travelling in smaller parties.

A review of literature also revealed that there were differences between demographic groups in relation to advance trip planning. For example, Sung & Hsu (1996) observed that the length of time spent planning a trip by international students in the U.S. differed depending on socio-demographic variables. For respondents who were 27 years old or above, had been in the U.S. for 4 years or more, sought a graduate degree, and received financial support totally from assistantship/scholarship, the length of time spent planning a 2 to 3 day trip was more likely to be longer. This may be due to the fact that students had become more knowledgeable about how to plan their trips and knew the importance of advance planning once they were older, better educated, and more familiar with travelling in the U.S. (Sung & Hsu, 1996).

In regard to sources of information, Richards & Wilson (2005) also found that travel guidebooks were used far more by slightly older (over 26 years old) student travellers. Sung & Hsu (1996) investigated the use of sources of information by international students in U.S. and found these differed on the socio-demographic variables. Respondents who were 26 years old or younger were more likely to use past experiences as a source of information both before and after a travel destination had been selected. Undergraduate students also were likely to use more information sources, such as past experience, pamphlets/brochures, billboards/signs, travel agents and travel wholesalers more than graduate students. Respondents receiving financial support totally from parents/family more frequently used a number of information sources in exploring a travel destination. This group may have realized that they could

afford to visit various travel destinations and therefore they were more likely to seek information from a variety of sources (Sung & Hsu, 1996).

Shanka *et al.* (2002) evaluated the differences of five demographic variables on aspects of a destination choice, and only one (gender) showed statistically significant differences. The results revealed that more females (44 percent) compared with males (30 percent) mentioned natural landscape as one aspect of the destination with which they were most impressed. In contrast, more males mentioned history and atmosphere as well as facilities as the impressive aspects of the destinations. Gender and religious beliefs were also found to affect destination choice for spring break travel (Mattila *et al.*, 2001).

The impact of students' socio-demographic variables on accommodation, transportation and restaurant choices when travelling was also found in the tourism literature. In the study of the impact of socio-demographics on accommodation choices, Shoham *et al.* (2004) found many differences were significant. The use of hotels was comparable for US university students and Israeli university students with South African university students being the lowest users of hotels. The use of friends/family differed across all comparisons, with South African university students averaging highest among the three nationalities, followed by US university students and lowest for Israeli university students. Use of Bed & Breakfast was highest for Israelis, followed by South African and US university students. Finally, the use of parks was the lowest of the four accommodation modes. They also examined the gender impact on accommodation modes. The results showed that males tended to use friends/family less often and camping site in parks more often than females. This is because females are taught to be more social and boys are taught to be more rugged in many societies (Shoham *et al.*, 2004). Shoham *et al.* (2004) also examined the differences in modes of transportation used across the nationalities. The results suggested that most differences were significant. The use of planes was highest for the Israeli sample, followed by the US and the South African university students. The use

of trains was much lower across the samples, with Israelis averaging highest among the three nationalities, followed by South Africans and US university students. Use of ships was the lowest of the four modes. The use of cars was highest for US university students, followed by South African university students and Israeli university students. Finally, the use of buses was heavier by Israelis and South Africans than by US university students. With respect to restaurant choices, Shoham *et al.* (2004) revealed that US university students used home-style restaurants most, followed by Israeli university students and South African university students. Prestigious restaurants were used most often by US university students, followed by Israeli university students and South African university students. South Africans were the heaviest users of self-prepared meals, while the other samples (US and Israeli university students) used such meals similarly. Additionally, Israelis and South Africans used deli foods most frequently, followed by US university students. Moreover, the results showed that females tended to prepare meals themselves more often than males. This is because in many societies, males are still not taught nor encouraged to cook (Shoham *et al.*, 2004).

Overall, based on the above literature review, there have been few studies that attempt to examine the role of socio-demographic variables in tourist behaviors. The purpose of this study was to investigate the difference between selected sociodemographic variables of gender, immigration status, age, education level, financial background and marital status in relation to the variables of tourist behaviors and provide insights for destination marketers into the decision making differences.

Socio-demographic variables and VFR travel behavior

Past studies have analyzed VFR tourist behavior using socio-demographic variables (Strategy & Insight Division, 2004; Braunlich & Nadkarni, 1995; Pennington-Gray, 2003; Hu & Morrison, 2002; Seaton & Palmer, 1997; Seaton & Tagg, 1995; Meis *et al.* 1995 and Jay, 1996). Strategy & Insight Division (2004) compared the importance of VFR as a travel purpose on the basis of nationalities. The results revealed that a

different “purpose mix” for visits existed between British and non-British nationals, the importance of VFRs being three times more important for British than for non-British national. In contrast, British nationals were approximately half as likely to visit Britain in order to take a holiday or business trip than non-British nationals. In regard to the choice of accommodation, socio-demographic variables such as income, occupation, age and education were found to be a significant predictor. In examining the VFRs in the US market, Braunlich & Nadkarni (1995) revealed that those VFRs who stayed in hotels were younger than those VFRs who did not stay in hotels. The former group was more likely to be either retirees or students with lower incomes and a higher propensity to have graduated high school or had a college degree, than the latter group who did not stay in hotels. In addition, Pennington-Gray (2003) also investigated the difference in the travel purpose and choice of accommodation in relation to socio-demographic variables in the US market. She divided the VFR market into three types: those whose main purpose was to visit and stay with friends and relatives (AFR), those whose main purpose was to visit friends and relatives and stay in commercial accommodation (NAFR) and those whose main purpose was not visiting friends and relatives but who stayed with friends and relatives (OAFR). The results revealed that the AFR market was the youngest segment. They tended to be single, living in all adult homes, had lower incomes, had some college or a college degree and were either employed full time or were students. NAFRs were the oldest group of the three segments. Couples living in all-adult homes represented this VFR segment. They had both higher incomes and higher levels of education. This group tended to work full time, although a large portion was retired. The OAFRs were younger couples living in all-adult homes and had varying levels of income.

It was also found that single and multi-destination VFRs were significantly different in socio-demographic characteristics. Hu & Morrison (2002) found in their study that older VFRs were more likely to be on multi-destination rather than single-destination trips. VFRs of 35 years old and older accounted for approximately 61 percent of all multi-destination VFRs. In addition, female travellers were more likely to visit more

than one place than males. Married VFRs had a lesser tendency to travel to multi-destinations than singles. Since many married couples took their children with them on VFR trips, they might consider travelling to multiple destinations to be less convenient and more expensive. The single-destination and multi-destination VFRs were also significantly different in education and household income levels. VFRs with a college education or higher were more likely to travel to several places rather than just to one destination. VFRs with household incomes above $50,000 were also more likely to have more than one destination. In addition, Hu *et al.* (2002) conducted a study on the variety seeking behavior of the US VFR market. Based on two major influences on travel variety-seeking behavior—trip purposes and destination patterns—VFRs were classified into four types: single destination/ single-purpose, multi-purpose, multi-destination and multi-destination/ multi-purpose. Their finding suggested that generally, the middle-aged and seniors were the major force in the VFR multi-destination travel, because they have the time, money and desire to travel. In addition, household size was another significant demographic factor distinguishing the four VFR groups. Travellers from smaller sized households had more of a tendency for multi-destination and multi-purpose trips, while VFRs from large households were more likely to stay at one destination.

The previous studies also identified the differences between VFRs' travel activities on the basis of nationalities. Seaton & Palmer (1997) revealed that UK VFRs were significantly less likely to engage in activities while on their trips. In contrast, Seaton & Tagg (1995) found that in Northern Ireland between 1991 and 1993, a total of 44 per cent of VFRs visited the Giant's Causeway (the country's national monument), 44 per cent visited other national monuments, and 25 per cent visited museums and exhibitions. In Australia, Morrison *et al.* (1995) found that VFRs also engaged in such a range of activities. In addition, Morrison *et al.* (1995) also identified travel activities that differed in relation to socio-demographic variables. In their study of the Australian domestic VFR travel market, they clustered the VFR travel groups on the basis of activity participation, including low activity VFR group, touring VFR group,

beach and relaxation VFR group and multi-activity VFR group. It was found that there was a significant difference in the age, gender, income groupings of the four VFR groups. The low activity VFR group appeared to be the oldest group with 41.3 per cent over the age of 55, had the lowest male to female ratio (41.3 per cent: 58.7 percent). and lowest incomes, with 33.1 per cent having incomes of less than $20,000. The touring VFR group had the highest proportion in the middle-age category, with 38.2 per cent aged between 36 and 55. The beach and relaxation VFR group was the second youngest group, and had the highest percentage in the 26-35 age category. The multi-activity VFR group were the youngest group, with only 9 per cent over 55 years old, and 66.1 per cent aged 35 and under, had the highest male to female ratio (53.6 per cent: 46.4 percent) and the highest incomes, with 35.7 per cent earnings of $40,000 or more.

With respect to the frequency of VFR trips, Meis *et al.* (1995) found that those U.S. VFRs who had made more trips to Canada in the last five years tended to be slightly older. The average age of Five Plus Visitors was 54 years; by contrast, One Trip Visitors were on average, 49 years of age. Meis *et al.*'s (1995) study also found that the percentage of households with two or more wage-earners steadily decreased with increasing VFR trip frequency. This might probably be related to the age factor and the increasing incidence of retirement. However, no trend was observed with respect to income levels in their study. In addition, past studies have also investigated the impact of occupation on the frequency of VFR trips. In examining the domestic VFR tourism within the UK, Hay (1996) noted that unskilled manual, unemployed and state pensioners had a low propensity to take VFR trips. Conversely, respondents with other occupations in the study appeared to take about 10 per cent more trips.

In regard to the duration of stay, differences existed between domestic and international VFRs. Several studies suggested that domestic VFRs (short-haul) stayed shorter and international (long-haul) VFRs stayed longer periods at their destinations than other leisure travellers. For example, Seaton & Palmer (1997) observed that VFR

trips in the UK were shorter than all other complements. Fache's (1994) study also found that 68 per cent of UK shortbreak holidays took place in the homes of friends and relatives. However, it conflicted with a Northern Ireland study of international VFR travel which found that almost 50 per cent of VFR stays were 6 nights or more. Additionally, Seaton & Palmer (1997) also examined the difference of duration of VFR stay in terms of other socio-demographic variables. They stated that VFR trip nights were overwhelmingly dominated by the 15-34 years old age group and by young singles or couples without children. However, their study was focused on domestic VFR travel market and contradictory results may exist in international VFRs.

Also, the time of VFR travel differed according to nationalities. The timing for VFR trips suggested that seasonal festivals in western countries (Christmas, Easter, Muslim, Jewish and Hindu festivals) were a main motivation for people to return to their family and friends at specific times of the year (Seaton, 1996). In Seaton & Palmer's (1997) study of the UK VFRs, the results indicated that VFR travel peaked from December to April, maybe due to the fact that Christmas and Easter act as a focus for relatives visiting families. With regard to Chinese VFR travel market, the peak month for VFR visitors from China, was mainly February, which is the Chinese New Year. In contrast, the peak months for Korean VFRs to Philippines were November, December, January, July and August. In addition, the Tongan tourism authorities emphasized Easter as a more significant time for Tongan VFRs to Australia (King, 1996).

Overall, the major findings suggested that there were differences in VFR tourist behavior among socio-demographic groups. However, the majority of past VFR studies have been conducted on the U.S. and U.K. markets. Unfortunately, the Chinese student-generated VFR travel in the New Zealand market has been neglected in the tourism literature. Therefore, this study directed its attention to the Chinese VFR market, and empirically examined the impact of selected socio-demographic variables on their travel behavior.

Socio-demographic variables and tourist expenditure pattern

Based on the review of the literature, socio-demographic variables were regarded as effective significant predictors in travel expenditure. Spending patterns of females and males may vary in significant way. However, several studies found gender not significant in tourism expenditure since much tourist behavior is group (especially family) and not individual in nature and thus gender is probably not such an important segmentation variable for the tourism industry as for many other products (Lawson, 1994). However, men and women may vary with different purposes and different preferences for travel experiences. Men traditionally seek adventure and are not scared of taking risks, while women are more likely to be searching for cultural and educational experiences with security being a priority (Mieczkowski, 1990). In addition, women are more likely to travel on a package tour or visit a destination for shopping or to visit friends and relatives (McGehee, Loker-Murphy & Uysal, 1996). As a consequence, expenditure patterns varied in gender terms. The relationship between age and travel expenditure has also been reported in the recreation and tourism literature. Statistics from the Consumer Expenditure Survey (2000) on Travel expenditure revealed the significant relationship between age of travellers and their expenditure patterns. That is, the highest spenders, on average, were age 65 and older, while the lowest were under the age of 25. In addition, studies by Dardis *et al.* (1981) and Cai, Hong & Morrison (1995) revealed that the marital status of the household head was found to be a significant factor in tourism expenditure behavior. In addition, income was found to be a significant factor explaining variations of tourist expenditure. According to the 2000 Consumer Expenditure Survey (CES), 58 per cent of consumer units with reported incomes over $50,000 took a trip or vacation in 2000, which was almost double the share of consumer units with reported income of less than $25,000. With more discretionary income at their disposal, higher income consumer units would be expected to spend more on travel and trips than lower income groups (Peerapatdit, 2004). Fish & Waggle (1996) also stated that in macroeconomics the higher income families were clearly expected to have higher trip

expenditures than lower income families. They concluded that family decisions regarding vacation and pleasure travel were based on their income. Jang *et al.* (2003) examined travel expenditure patterns of Japanese pleasure travellers to the USA. Their findings indicated that high-income travellers spent significantly more than the other categories of income. Occupation and education were also used to represent social class, which also influenced travel expenditure. The findings from Cai (1998) indicated that the amount of vacation food spending rose as the household's education level increased. Study by Cai (1999) also supported a positive relationship between level of education and lodging expenditure. Dardis *et al.* (1981) concluded that education was positively related to recreation expenditures while there were no definite trends with respect to occupation. The relationship between occupation of the head of household and travel expenditure categories was uncertain, even though it was expected that white-collar professionals would be likely to spend more while travelling in general (Cai *et al.*, 1995).

Unfortunately, the impact of socio-demographics on the student expenditure patterns was underestimated. Nevertheless, little study had been done on the impact of socio-demographic variables on VFR expenditure, with the exception of Lee, Morrison, Lheto, Webb & Reid's (2005) study. The authors segmented the VFRs into two groups: high-spending and low-spending VFR travellers, their findings showed that there was no statistically significant difference in socio-demographic variables between high- and low-spending VFRs except for marital status. The low-spending VFR group mainly composed of single persons while a majority of the high-spending VFRs were married. Although not statistically significant, there was a descriptive difference in the income variable between the high and the low-spending VFR groups. There were more high-spending VFRs in the higher income levels.

Travel behavior and tourist expenditure patterns

Given the magnitude and economic effects of travel spending, a significant amount of emphasis has been placed on gathering travel expenditure data. However, most of the

research in this area has been motivated by the practical consideration of documenting the economic impacts of tourism (Mok & Iverson, 2000). As a consequence, travel expenditure is typically scrutinised by policy-makers, planning officials, marketers and researchers for monitoring and assessing the impact of tourism on the local economy (Wang, Rompf, Severt & Peerapatdit, 2006). However, travel expenditure is a core component of the travel decision. Implicit in a decision to travel is the amount of funds available or required for a planned trip (Eugenio-Martin, 2003). From this perspective, the growing contribution of tourism to the economy of an area has been accompanied by an increased interest in understanding the determinants which influence tourist expenditures. Measurement of tourist expenditures assists marketers in making efficient and effective marketing and development decisions. A number of variables have been proposed to measure or estimate the tourist expenditures. Socio-demographic variables such as income, age, education and occupation have been widely used to predict the level of travel expenditure (Dardis, Derrick, Lehfeld & Wolfe, 1981, Davies & Mangan, 1992; Dardis, Soberon-Ferrer & Patro, 1994; Cai, Hong & Morrison, 1995; Fish & Waggle, 1996; Cai, 1998, 1999; Hong, Kim & Lee, 1999). Pizam & Reichel (1979) compared socio-economic and demographic variables of "big spenders" versus "little spenders" in tourism by discriminant analysis. The results showed that variables such as residence, race, marital status, education, occupation, value of home, and number of cars appeared to be significantly discriminating. In terms of travel-related variables, seasonality, travel party size, the number of children in the travel party size and previous visits to the destination are also important in accounting for travel expenditure (Oppermann, 1996; Hsieh, Lang & O'Leary, 1997). In addition, Spotts & Mahoney (1991) found that greater involvement with recreation and greater propensity to use information disseminated by the region's travel industry were discriminating factors of travel expenditure. Archer (1995) revealed the magnitude of the contribution made by tourism to the economy of Bermuda. He found that the expenditure pattern of tourists was according to the type of accommodation. Relevant literature also suggested that individual travellers differ in important ways apart from demographics and travel-related

variables. Consequently, there is a growing interest to examine the influence of psychographic factors, such as travel personality, on travellers' destination decision making processes as well as travel expenditures (Lehto *et al.*, 2002; Peerapatdit, 2004). Mason (1975) found differences in expenditures of visitors travelling to a specific area as compared to those individuals travelling through the area en route to another destination. Although anecdotal research has been conducted focusing on the impact of potential factors affecting travel expenditure, such as socio-demographics and tourist behaviour characteristics, it is anticipated that the importance of these factors varied by the type of travel market. Moreover, Qiu & Zhang (1995) examined determinants of tourist expenditures in Canada. Using regression analysis, they found that determinants of tourism expenditure vary from country to country. Therefore, determinants of tourism expenditure should be explored in depth and understood by destination marketers associated with various travel markets in different countries. The past studies to date have failed to look at the impact of determinants on travel expenditure patterns regarding the student travel market. In addition, although there are a few studies on VFR travel expenditure, they are very descriptive. Most prior studies that examined the determinants of travel expenditures have not investigated VFR travellers. This study intended to fill the gaps by examining the determinants of expenditure patterns of students and their VFRs on travel, controlled by income. Specifically, in this study, the relevant variables might affect student expenditure included the length of trips, number of party size, type of accommodation, and usage of information sources, while those variables affect VFR expenditure contained travel purpose, length of VFR stay, month of VFR visits and the type of accommodation.

Expenditure vs. Travel Party Size

According to previous studies, number of party size was one of the most influential variables affecting tourism expenditure. For example, Mak, Moncur & Yonamine (1977) suggest that the number of individuals in the party, tends to be an important determinant of tourism expenditure. Spotts & Mahoney (1991) found that heavy spenders were distinguishable from the other segments on the basis of their larger

party sizes. The findings by Dardis, Soberson-Perrer & Patro (1994) indicated that the number of party size had a significant impact on expenditure. A later study by Hsieh, Lang & O'Leary (1997) found that travel party size was one of the most important factors positively affecting the level of travel expenditure. On the other hand, Jang *et al.* (2003) revealed that the number of party size was not an important factor to explain variance in the travel expenditure model.

Expenditure vs. Length of Trips (Length of Stay)

The length of stay influenced the level of tourist expenditure in the country of visit (Clerides & Pashourtidou, 2007). Considering the length of stay as a substantial part of quantitative measures in estimating tourism performance could provide destinations with some advantages, such as giving visitors an opportunity to have more experiences at the destination and positively influence the amount of money they spend on vacation (Kozak, 2004). From a practical standpoint, the amount of money spent increases as the opportunities to have more experiences increases. The longer the tourists choose to stay, the more likely they are to become aware of facilities and services at the location where they are staying and also at neighbourhood locations. This will widen the size of the multiplier effect of tourism revenues at the destination. In the tourism literature, the length of stay has a critical role in total tourist spending on a vacation, despite the fact that the findings are contradictory. Findings of some studies support the proposition that those staying longer spend more than those with short visits (Mules, 1998 and Spotts & Mahoney, 1991). In other words, the longer the respondents stayed, the more they spent. Agawal & Yochum (1999) conducted a survey of overnight visitors at Virginia Beach during the summer of 1997. Their finding reported that duration of stay was found to be a significant determinant of visitors' expenditures. Jang *et al.* (2003) revealed that the number of nights staying in the United States was found to be a positive and significant effect on travel expenditures. This may be because travellers who stay longer have to use hotel rooms more often, have more meals, and use more

transportation services. In contrast, Mok & Iverson (2000) found those with shorter stays are likely to spend more than longer-staying visitors.

Expenditure vs. Purpose of Travel

In the tourism literature, the purpose of VFR travel can be effectively used to predict VFR satisfaction. VFR can be an activity as well as a primary travel motivation or trip purpose, and sometimes VFR is only one of several activities in which travellers participate (Hu & Morrison, 2001). Depending on the importance of the VFR aspect of their trip, VFRs may or may not visit more attractions rather than socializing with their friends and relatives. Therefore, the purpose of the trip has a strong influence on activity participation and thus expenditure patterns of VFRs. In addition, Seaton & Palmer (1997) speculated that whether VFR was a primary or secondary travel motivation might result in commercial accommodation stay differences among VFRs. That is, VFR travellers whose primary purpose is to visit VFR generally choose to stay with friends and relatives, and those travellers for whom VFR travel was linked to multiple trip purposes and activities were more likely to pay for their accommodation in a range of establishments. Lehto *et al.* (2001) also differentiated VFR as primary motive and as a trip activity by examining US inbound VFR travellers in 1997. They reported that in the case of international VFRs, they spent less if VFR was their main purpose for visiting, rather than simply being an activity on the accommodation. Also, the use of commercial accommodation significantly affects travellers' overall expenditure levels (Seaton & Palmer, 1997 and Braunlich & Nadkarni, 1995). What is more, Moscardo *et al.* (2000) were also concerned with the connections between different types of VFR travellers and the extent to which they used commercial tourism providers or engaged in the tourist activities available at a destination. They found that VFR travellers who have VFR as the prime motivation for their travel would be very different from those VFRs for whom VFR is only one of a set of activities attracting them to a region or destination. When VFR is one of several activities of a visit, VFR travellers are more likely to participate in a range of tourist activities. By contrast, if VFR is the main trip purpose, there may be less

interest in other tourist activities and the whole travel experience may be entirely focused on social obligations (Moscardo *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a tendency that VFRs with VFR as main purpose have a lower expenditure on entertainment and activities than those VFRs with VFR as one set of activities.

Expenditure vs. Purpose of Travel through Length of Stay

Based on the review of literature, the purpose of trips can effectively contribute to the length of stay. Seiler, Hsieh, Seiler & Hsieh (2002) developed a model showing Taiwanese travellers travelling to see friends and/or relatives were likely to take longer trips. The result of their study indicated that people who took trips to visit friends and relatives tended to stay longer, and the tourists who stay longer on their trips tended to consumer more. Therefore, it was anticipated there are relationships among the purpose of VFR visits, length of VFR stays and VFR expenditures. In effect, the purpose of VFR visits appear to affect VFR expenditures in one of two ways, either directly or indirectly as mediated by length of VFR stays.

Expenditure vs. Month of Visits

Travel expenditure may also be affected by the season of travel. The relationship between travel expenditure and season seems to be based on the temperature and weather. The effect of season of travel expenditure does exist. Season has an impact on the selection of travel activities, because a traveller can choose an activity specific to the season. In a travel destination where there are four distinct seasons, a traveller may stay outdoors longer and participate in more activities in warmer months than in colder ones (Jang, Cai, Morrison & O'Leary, 2005). From this perspective, tourists are expected to spend more in summer than winter time. Although the evidence does not suffice, some prior research suggested that seasons of travel had an impact on travel expenditures. Spotts & Mahoney (1993) investigated seasonal differences in travel characteristics including expenditure. The study showed that per-day and per-trip spending were lower in the autumn than in the summer. Although the evidence

does not suffice, travel seasons may be presumed to be an important variable affecting travel expenditures (Snepenger, Houser & Snepenger, 1990; Donatos & Zairis, 1991 and Uysal, Fesenmaier & O'Leary, 1994). Bonn *et al*., (1992) indicated in their study on visitors to Hilton Head Island, South Carolina that lodging expenditures tended to be smaller during the winter season because of the larger percentage of room nights spent at campgrounds, timeshares and rental properties, while visitors tended to select hotels, motels and inns during the summer, and spent more on lodging than the other seasons.

In line with the above theoretical discussion, the following hypotheses are drawn to evaluate such stances:

Hypothesis 1: Socio-demographic variables are related to travel behavior
Hypothesis 2: Socio-demographic variables are related to expenditure pattern
Hypothesis 3: Travel behavior determines travel expenditure

3.7 Student Market Segments

This section reports the findings of the literature review relating to motivation segmentation, activity segmentation, segmentation approach and the association of segmentation with socio-demographics and trip characteristics.

Predicting consumers' behavior has been of major interest to marketers for the last decade (Peter & Olson, 1999). Its research typically involves understanding consumers' feelings, thoughts, attitudes and actions about products and services provided in the market. To extensively comprehend the various behaviors of tourists, segmenting a target market is essential in identifying many of the characteristics possessed by specific individuals or groups (Formica & Uysal, 1998). Perez & Nadal (2005) stated that "instead of examining average responses to questions, a segmentation analysis provides more accurate reflection by forming different units with a low degree of intra-group and high degree of inter-group variation" (p.931). In the tourism literature, market segmentation has been shown to be a useful tool in developing appropriate marketing strategies and target marketing (Bryant & Morrison,

1980; Cha *et al.*, 1995; Jurowski, Uysal & Noe, 1993; Loker & Perdue, 1992; Mo, Havitz &Howard, 1994; Mudambi & Baum, 1997; Sung, Morrison & O'Leary, 2000). Generally, market segmentation does not seek to satisfy all travellers. Instead, it relies on specialization, and provides something special to a small, but defensible part of the market (Cho, 1998). Tourist product success and destination development depend on an identification of market segments with consumption potential and the development of suitably differentiated products. Many characteristics/variables have been recommended as viable segmentation bases in tourism studies, such as travel planning, patterns, motivation and activity participations. There have inevitably been arguments about the superiority of some over others. However, researchers agree that there is no single ideal segmentation base that fits in every situation, nor can the same set of variables be used in every situation (Morrison, 2002; Sung, *et al.*, 2000). Likewise, no optimal number of segments has been identified, in spite of efforts to develop appropriate models (Ladany, 1996). The criteria used to segment a market will vary depending on the situation and the needs of the organization (McKercher, Ho, du Cros & So-Ming, 2002). As such, segmentation relies heavily on the professional judgements of the researcher(s). Caution must, therefore, be used when identifying segments to ensure that spurious or unreliable segmentation techniques are not applied that produce segments where no valid causal link with behavior is evident (Dibb & Stern, 1995). In the tourism literature, travel motivation and activity are two important segmentation bases which provide important product-related or psychographic information to assist in developing tourism products and promotion strategies for selected markets (Bryant & Morrison, 1980; Cha *et al.*, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Goodrich, 1977; Lang, O'Leary & Morrison, 1993 & 1996).

Motivation segmentation

In 1983, based on dimensions found by Patrick (1916 and cited in Beard and Ragheb, 1988), White (1957), Ellis (1973) and those suggested by the work of Tinsley and his colleagues (1977, 1978), Beard and Ragheb (1983) proposed an instrument for measuring leisure motivation dimensions— the Leisure Motivation Scale. The

researchers reported that the 48 items of the Leisure Motivation Scale were derived from more than 150 categories associated with the motivation to take part in leisure activities. They performed a factor analysis to create a four-dimensional factor model with 12 items representing each factor. The four dimensions were labeled Intellectual, Social, Mastery/Competence and Stimulus Avoidance. The four-dimensional motivational factors were verified in a number of studies (Loundsbury & Franz, 1990; Ryan, 1993; Kleiven, 1999), revealing alpha values of the scales were above 0.80. Moreover, these four-dimensional factors represent the foundation of Leisure Motivation Scale which has been replicated by other researchers (Sefton & Burton, 1987; Sefton, 1989; Loundsbury & Hoopes, 1988; Loundsbury & Franz, 1990). Operationally, the analysis initially employed a four factor model using the same approach as Beard & Ragheb (1983) to analyze responses to the leisure motivation scale. The data was then re-analyzed using different factor solutions to see if one of these solutions was more appropriate and interpretable. Results demonstrated that the Leisure Motivation Scale has been shown to possess constant and reliable results across different research. For example, Loundsbury & Polik (1992) found a similar factor structure for 146 adults engaged in a variety of occupations. Loundsbury and Hoopes's (1988) study established the stability of the motivational factors. They utilized rankings of factors, one of several ways to assess stability, over a five-year period, containing the factors selected from the Leisure Motivation Scale, and contended that:

> The present results indicate a most encouraging and even surprising level of stability over a five-year period for leisure activity participation as well as, to a lesser extent, the leisure motivation variables studied (Loundsbury & Hoopes, 1988, p.130).

While past research has found some medium-term consistency in motives, it is arguably such consistency is not inherently opposed to the concept of a long-term "holiday career" as proposed by Pearce (1988) and Laing (1987). Nevertheless, some studies such as Key & Mannell (1990) have revealed that the factor structure can also differ from that reported by Beard & Ragheb (1983). They found a six factor solution

was the most satisfactory for those 45 years of age or older Chinese respondents while a four factor solution explained 54.2 percent of the total variance. The six factor solution to determine the most interpretable solution includes “Competence-Mastery”, “Intellectual”, “Stimulus-Avoidance”, “Social Interaction”, “Learning” and “Solitude”.

A review of the literature revealed a few studies have applied the Leisure Motivation Scale model to measure students’ motivation to travel, while these studies were associated with the international student market. Analysis of the existing studies showed some mixed results. Some of them were consistent with the four-dimensional factor structure, while the others did not parallel Beard & Ragheb’s (1983) findings. For example, using the Leisure Motivational Scale, Mohsin & Ryan (2007) conducted a study of the attitudes of over 1,000 Indian students at four Indian universities toward holidaying in New Zealand. The study replicated a finding of four dimensions, albeit with a modification relating to the intellectual and challenge factors. Additionally, Heung & Leong (2006) examined the leisure motivation of university students in Hong Kong. The results identified four factors with 24 attributes and these factors were the same as Beard & Ragheb (1983)’s findings. Also, Wu (1995) measured the leisure motivation of university students in Taiwan. The same four factors were extracted from the results. The Crobach alpha coefficient in entire instrument was significantly greater than 0.9, and each dimension greater than 0.8. Hence, high internal consistency of the survey instrument was revealed. Additionally, in studying the travel motivation of Chinese students, Ryan & Xie (2003) confirmed that the four-dimensional factor solution was also applicable to Chinese students. Richards & Wilson’s (2005) study of international student travel in eight countries revealed the same four major factors underlying the travel motivation of students. Moreover, a five factor solution was found in Ryan & Zhang’s (2007) study of the Chinese university student market associated with the Leisure Motivation Scale model, labeled “Intellectual”, “Stimulus-Avoidance”, “Social”, “Competence-Mastery” and “Self development”. However, the reliability of the data was not reported in their study.

In addition to the Leisure Motivation Scale dimensions, a review of the literature on tourist motivation indicates that the push-pull framework has been widely discussed in the tourism literature and regarded as a simple and intuitive approach for explaining the motivations underlying tourist behavior (Dann, 1977; Crompton 1979; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Goossens, 2000; Jang & Cai, 2002; Rusk, 1998, Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kim, Oh & Jogaratnam, 2007). For instance, push and pull forces were initially identified by Crompton (1979) using unstructured in-depth interviews with 39 adult residents to analyze the motivational factors influencing the selection of types of pleasure vacations and destinations. The results empirically revealed nine motivations of pleasure vacationers: "escape from a perceived mundane environment", "exploration and evaluation of self", "relaxation", "prestige", "regression", "enhancement of kinship relationships", "facilitation of social interaction", "novelty" and "education". In his study, the pull motivation factors were "novelty" and "education", and remainders were push motivation factors. Yuan & McDonald (1990) identified five push motivation factors for overseas travel: "escape", "novelty", "prestige", "enhancement of kinship relationships" and "relaxation/hobbies" and seven pull factors: "budget", "culture and history", "wilderness", "ease of travel", "cosmopolitan environment", "facilities" and "hunting". Kim & Lee (2002) examined the push and pull motives of 2,720 tourists visiting Korean national parks. Factor analysis established four push forces, namely "family togetherness and study", "natural resources and health", "escaping from everyday routine", and "adventure and building", and three pull forces, including "various tourist resources", "information and convenient facilities", and "easy accessibility to national parks". The underlying idea of the push and pull model is the decomposition of an individual's choice of a travel destination into two forces. One is the internal force that pushes people away from home and attempts to develop a general desire to travel somewhere else, without specifying where that may be (Lam & Hsu, 2005). The other is an external force that pulls people toward a destination due to destination attributes (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). To put it simply, the push

motivational forces have been useful in explaining the internal force that raises a desire to take a vacation (i.e. to travel outside of the normal daily environment), while the pull motivational forces are helpful in illustrating the external force to select an actual destination over another once the decision to travel has been made (Christensen, 1983; Crompton, 1979). Therefore, both push and pull forces are important and need to be understood since they help identify the attributes that are to be promoted to match tourist motivations, or to identify markets in which destination features and resources match tourist motivations (Kozak, 2001).

A review of the literature reveals that segmentations within the student market has focused on push and pull travel motivations. The results revealed students were motivated by different push and pull factors. Kim, Oh & Jogaratnam (2007) examined how US college and university students were motivated to travel by push forces. The results found seven push motivational forces, labeled "knowledge", "sports", "adventure", "relax", "lifestyle", "travel bragging" and "family". Kim *et al.* (2006) and Kim (2007) also analyzed both push and pull motivational forces of university students in U.S. The result indicated they were pushed to travel by "escape", "education", "seeing and learning", "adventure and thrill", "VFR", "indulgence", "nature", and "fun and entertainment" and pulled by "sun and beaches", "time and cost", "sports", "attractions", "family" and "natural environment". Richards & Wilson (2004) noted international student travellers were importantly motivated by "excitement", "increasing knowledge", "relaxing mentally" and "social". Josiam, Clements & Hobson (1994) identified both push and pull motivational forces of the domestic student spring travel market. The results showed that the most common push forces were "get away", "need to relax" and "wanted a dose of sun, surf, sand", while the most important pull forces included "friends and relatives living there". Sirakaya & McLellan (1997) examined college students' destination choice decisions and found nine pull motivational factors, including "trip cost and convenience", "perception of a safe/secure environment", "entertainment and drinking opportunities", "personal and historical link", "cultural and shopping services",

"unusual and distant vacation spot", "local hospitality and services", "change in their daily environment" and "recreation and sporting activities available". Hallab, Price & Fournier (2006) analyzed the level of importance of pull forces to hospitality management students in Switzerland when selecting a tourist destination. The findings indicated that respondents attached a high level of importance to "cost/price", "security", "scenery", "accessibility", "food and beverage", "hotels" and "nightlife/entertainment". Therefore, the push and pull forces should be explored in depth and understood by destination marketers associated with various student travel markets.

Moreover, it was noted that operationally, push and pull travel motivations are two separate decisions made at two separate points in time—one focusing on whether to go, the other on where to go (Kenosky, 2002). Whilst the two sets of forces may seem to be conceptually distinguished from each other, a review of the literature contends that they should not be viewed as operating entirely independent of each other. Crompton (1979) noted that "push forces may be useful not only in explaining the initial arousal, energizing, or "push" to take a vacation, but may also have directive potential to direct the tourist toward a particular destination" (p.412). Dann (1981) stated that "pull factors of the resort both respond to and reinforce push factor motivation" (p.191). Kent (1990) suggested that the pull forces are offering the potential to satisfy the push motives. In addition, other researchers also found that people travel because they were initially pushed by internal psychological or physical desires or emotional forces such as their personal escape, physiological or physical health, thrill and adventure, and social interactions, and simultaneously pulled by external forces such as natural or artificial attractions that destinations possess (Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Kim, Jogaratnam & Noh, 2006). All these studies implied that there is a relationship between the push and pull forces. Through simultaneous examination of the relationship between push and pull motivations, destination marketers will have a clearer understanding of why their products are in demand for each market segment

group, which in turn will enable them to tailor their products (i.e. provide appropriate facilities and tourism resources) that more closely meet the needs of their customers. If several destinations have the same attraction attributes, preference is likely to be given to a destination which is perceived as most likely to match push motivations with pull destination attributes. In addition, it would be useful in selecting advertising and sales messages to inform and persuade tourists to buy products (Holloway & Plant, 1988). Empirical studies of the interrelationships between push and pull forces have been found in the tourism literature (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Crompton, 1979; Kim and Lee, 2002; Klenosky, 2002). Uysal & Jurowski (1994) found that there is a reciprocal relationship between push and pull factors of tourist motivations for pleasure travel by using the data from the Canadian Tourism Attribute and Motivation Survey. Their study showed that a reciprocal relationship existed between the push and pull factors, which can have product development implications in tourism. Baloglu & Uysal (1996) assessed the relationship between push and pull forces by using secondary data, a total of 1,212 respondents, from Tourism Canada and the US Travel and Tourism Administration. Their study concluded four determined push factors were significantly associated with four determined pull factors. In addition, Kim & Lee (2002) examined the relationship between push and pull motives of 2,720 tourists visiting Korean national parks. Factor analysis established four push forces, namely "family togetherness and study", "natural resources and health", "escaping from everyday routine", and "adventure and building", and three pull forces, including "various tourist resources", "information and convenient facilities", and "easy accessibility to national parks". The results also demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between push and pull motivational forces and suggested that this approach was an effective means by which to understand and predict individuals' motivation to travel.

Activity segmentation

Travel activity set based segmentation has proved useful in a number of studies of tourist market segments, including: culture tourists (McKercher *et al.*, 2002;

Kerstetter, Confer & Bricker, 1998), nature tourists (Lang & O'Leary, 1997), ecotourists (Wight, 1996), adventure tourists (Sung, Morrison & O'Leary, 1997; Schneider, Vogt & Smith, 2006), and the visiting friends and relatives (VFR) tourist market (Moscardo *et al.,* 2000). Such segmentation helps destinations to predict personal expectations and benefits sought (Formica & Uysal, 1998), understand tourist destination choice (Moscardo *et al.,* 1996) and enhance destination image (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Trauer & Ryan, 2005).

Travel activity preference based segmentation has also proved useful in the student travel market. The student travel market is not homogeneous and different types of activities will appear to different types of student travellers. Hsu & Sung (1997) largely identified travel patterns and activities of international students using a mail survey and delineated seven activity factors names as "action", "event", "touring", "sports", "recreation", "leisure" and "zoo". Their categories were adopted initially and rejected because they produced contradictory results when tested for internal validity (Field, 1999). Field (1999) grouped the 25 travel related activities undertaken by college students in US. into six categories, labeled "cultural", "gratification", "resort", "passive/low intensity event", "active/high-intensity event" and "group events". The findings indicated that college students frequently undertook Gratification activities, such as shopping and visit friends. On the contrary, the Group Event (i.e. cruise and package tour) and Active/High intensity Event (i.e. hike, bicycling, skiing, fishing, sailing, hunting and golfing) were lowest interested activities undertaken by college students. Carr (2001) also examined travel activities of the New Zealand university students. The results revealed that the students had a desire to engage in a combination of passive, social and hedonistic activities. Kim & Jogaratnam (2003) examined travel activity preferences of domestic American and Asian university students. A set of 16 travel activity items was factor analyzed into four factors: "cultural", "sports", "leisure" and "touring". Shoham *et al.* (2004) measured 24 leisure activities preferences of international university students and obtained four sub-dimensions of activities, labeled "entertainment", "sports", "nature"

and “culture”. Kim & Jogaratnam (2003) adopted a cluster analysis to identify groups of university students based on similar responses to the 16 travel activity items. The two-cluster solution was revealed and based on the higher importance attached to each activity attribute by the members of Cluster 1 than for Cluster 2, the two clusters were labeled “enthusiasts” and “moderates”, which accounted for 53.7 per cent and 46.3 percent of the respondents respectively.

Segmentation approach

A review of the literature suggests that two principal segmentation approaches have been widely adopted in the tourism literature: *a prior* approach and *a posteriori* approach. They have been frequently undertaken to gain an in-depth understanding of parts of the tourism market in order to improve the possibilities of targeting marketing activities towards attractive sub-markets. The *a prior* approach requires the researcher to first choose variables of interest, generally easy to assess, such as age, income, country of origin (e.g. German versus American or British tourists), length of their stay (e.g. those who stayed one week or less versus those who stayed more than one week), or the type of tour package used, and then classify tourists according to that designation; while the *a posteriori* approach typically involves the use of less tangible consumer characteristics such as benefits, attitude and personality to identify segments that were previously unknown or unarticulated (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003). The essential difference between the two approaches lies in the selection of a basis for segmentation.

> In *prior* segmentation, the variables upon which a market will be segmented are selected at the discretion of the researcher. In *posteriori* segmentation, the basis for segmentation is exclusively determined by empirical means. It is then left to the researcher to profile the segments and identify differences on the basis of various criteria, for instance demographic characteristics (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003, pp.262).

As a subject, the *a prior* segmentation approach has a relatively long history in tourism research. Take Hsu & Kang’s (2008) study for an example, they used the *a prior* approach to identify and profile market segments among international travellers

to Hong Kong on the basis of age, income level, the purpose of a trip and whether the visitor has been to the destination before. The researchers identified six distinct market segments: pleasure travellers 55 years or younger, first time mature pleasure travellers aged over 55, repeat mature pleasure travellers, business travellers with annual incomes of less than US$50,000, business travellers with incomes of US$50,000 or more and travellers who were visiting friends and relatives in Hong Kong. The *a prior* segmentation approach has several advantages. First, the concept of the *a prior* segmentation approach is easy to assess and understand. For example, by applying the geographical *a prior* segmentation, the respondents are split into groups by their country of origin (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). Second, targeting is quite easy due to the fact that advertising and promotion activities are limited to the borders of nation chosen (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). The media landscape of only this nation has to be accounted for. Third, no advanced expertise in data analysis is needed (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). Once the tourists are split into the countries of origin simple frequency and means computation are sufficient to describe the target segment. However, the *a prior* approach, while useful, has the danger of mixing very heterogeneous tourists from the same age group or the same country of origin and artificially treating them as one market (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). For example, the *a prior* approach may guarantee within segment similarity by ensuring all segment members come from similar geographic regions and income ranges, but this does not necessarily mean that all segment members will respond in the same way to marketing stimuli (Hoek, Gendall & Esslemont, 1996). This underlying heterogeneity is not accounted for thus endangering any marketing communication not reaching either one of the possible subgroups (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2004). In addition, there has been evidence of changing consumer behavior within contemporary affluent societies, including an increased emphasis on the personalisation of consumer behavior patterns, which were not well explained by socio-demographic criteria (Gonzalex & Bello, 2002). Therefore, there has been a growing emphasis in marketing on the human behavioral sciences which has led to the *a posteriori* segmentation approach seeking to measure less tangible consumer characteristics such as benefits, attitude and

personality. The popularity of the *a posteriori* approach has increased dramatically since its introduction into tourism research in the early Eighties. In contrast to the *a prior* approach, the *a posteriori* approach is capable of generating a richer description of the segments, thereby producing more comprehensive outcomes. The approach identifies or constructs segments on the basis of information that is highly relevant to the tourist experience, which is seen as having a much wider range of applications than the *prior* approach since it provided marketers with a fuller picture of customers (Frochot & Morrison, 2000). In addition, the *a posteriori* approach is exploratory in nature and consists of a number of steps that are crucial to the quality of the solution derived (Bailey, 1994; Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Arabie & Hubert, 1994 and Wedel & Kamakura, 1998). These steps include the data collection stage, the data pre-processing state, the segmentation stage and the validation stage.

It is interesting to note that in Dolnicar's (2006) study, she reviewed the *a posteriori* segmentation studies undertaken in the field of tourism research over two decades, and found that half of the *a posteriori* segmentation studies factor analyze their data before clustering it, thus reducing the segmentation base from the original set of the variables to six factors on average. The number of factors ranges from a minimum of three to a maximum of 19. Cha *et al.* (1995) used the *a posteriori* approach to define the travel motivation dimensions that influenced Japanese visitors in their choice of a destination. They identified six motivational factors and categorised three cluster groups, namely "sports seekers", "novelty seekers" and "family/relaxation seekers". Age and education were found to be significant differentiators of these three groups. In addition, Jurowski *et al.* (1993) adopted the *a posteriori* approach to designate the site preferences of visitors to the U.S. Virgin Island National Park. Based on the factor analysis of 16 preference statements, they identified three factors which provided the basis for the identification of two cluster groups, namely "consumptive/tour types" and "conservationist types" (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003).

However, based on the literature, the application of both *a prior* and *a posteriori* approaches to the student travel market seems to be in its infancy and needing careful assessment. Cho (1998) used the *a posterior* approach to segment the Korean college student market in Australia based on destination attractiveness attributes. Three market segments were identified: "cultural and ecotourism seekers", "activity and variety seekers" and "tourist resort stylists". More detailed information was delivered to each segment, which served as major advertising points to Korean college students when selling Australia as a holiday destination: "cultural and ecotourism seekers" may like to engage in those activities at a given destination; the "activity and variety seekers" group would need more information about nature-based adventure tourism opportunities and "tourist resort stylists" were keen to attend urban entertainment or tourist facility oriented activities.

Segmentation vs. socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics

A review of the literature also suggests even if researchers can identify groups with similar characteristics, tourists often possess different socio-demographic and trip characteristics. This implies that other factors (e.g. socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics) need to be added to explain segment differences, which can make the results to be even more comprehensive. Understanding the influence of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics on identified factor and cluster groups should contribute to an increased understanding of tourist behaviour, which in turn, helps tourism marketers develop more appropriate marketing strategies to better satisfy travellers' needs and to attract them to a particular destination (Gnoth 1997; Zhang & La 1999; Heung, Qu & Chu 2001; Jang & Wu 2006). As such, it was found that in the tourism literature, the segments have been compared according to socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics. Baloglu (1997) examined motives of West German travellers to the United States in terms of socio-demographic and trip characteristics. The six image factors that emerged in his study were found to vary significantly with travellers' socio-demographic and trip characteristics. In addition, Formica & Uysal (1998) used the *a posteriori* approach to segments visitors attending

the Spoleto Festival in Italy on the basis of travel motivations. They delineated six motivation factors that explained 61.9 per cent of the total variance and subdivided the market into two groups, namely enthusiasts and moderates. Age, income and marital status were found to be significant differentiators of the two segments, which suggested marketing strategies that could be developed for each segment in terms of such socio-demographic variables. In Heung, Qu & Chu's (2001) study, travel motivation factors perceived by Japanese leisure travellers to visit Hong Kong were also found to vary with socio-demographics such as gender, age and times to Hong Kong as well as trip characteristics such as length of stay and sources of information.

Based on the tourism literature, studies of the segmentation can be used in conjunction with socio-demographics and trip characteristics have been found in the student travel market adopted by a cluster analysis to identify groups of university students based on similar responses to the 16 travel activity items. The two-cluster solution was revealed and based on the higher importance attached to each activity attributed by the members of Cluster 1 than for Cluster 2, the two clusters were labeled "enthusiasts" and "moderates", which accounted for 53.7 per cent and 46.3 percent of the respondents respectively. In the study of travel activity segments, Kim & Jogaratnam (2003) conducted cross-tabulation analysis based on various demographic characteristics on each cluster to gain a greater understanding of the characteristics of each cluster. The analysis highlighted that statistically significant differences exist between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 in gender, age, source of income, length of stay, marital status and travel group size. In general, the "enthusiasts" were composed of unmarried, younger males who were likely to travel in larger groups, were still dependent on parents and family for their finances and preferred vacations of four to six days duration. In contrast, the "moderates" were more likely to be older and married, independent in terms of their finances and preferred to travel in smaller groups and enjoyed longer vacations. This segmentation approach is capable of generating a richer description of segments, thereby producing more comprehensive

outcomes. However, its focus was on travel activities alone, which is only one of several possible factors that might influence travel behavior. Further studies that explore other travel behavior-related factors such as travel motives, expectation, and destination characteristics are necessary in order to better understand the student travel segments.

Based on the findings of the above literature review, the following hypotheses are postulated to identify the student travel market segments:

Hypothesis 4: The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Chinese university student travel market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions

Hypothesis 5: It is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on travel motivation and activity attributes of New Zealand by using the *a posteriori* approach

Hypothesis 6: Socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics are related to travel motivation and activity dimensions and segments

3.8 Satisfaction in a Tourism Context

This section reports the findings of the literature review associated with the cause and effect relationships of satisfaction with related variables for Chinese university student travellers, the relationships between travel behavior, travel inhibitors and satisfaction and the effects of satisfaction on the level of visits for the VFR market, as well as the relationships between student satisfaction and VFR tourism.

Understanding tourists' overall satisfaction is of utmost importance for the tourism industry, especially because of its effect on the choice of destination, the consumption of products and services and the decision to return (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). In the tourism literature, researchers within the area of satisfaction including tourist satisfaction tend to solely focus on perception of products and product elements, by focusing on the level of satisfaction received. Satisfaction is then defined as "a judegment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfilment" (Oliver, 1997, p.13). MacKay &

Crompton (1990) defined satisfaction in a similar way by focusing on the "psychological outcome which emerges from experiencing the service" (p.48). In the tourism literature, an assessment of tourist satisfaction has been attempted using various perspectives and theories. Most of the studies conducted to evaluate consumer satisfaction have utilized models of expectation/disconfirmation (Chon, 1989; Francken & Van Raaij, 1981 and Oliver, 1980), equity (Fisk & Young, 1985; Oliver & Swan, 1989), norm (Cadotte, Woodruff & Jenkins, 1987) and perceived overall performance (Tse & Wilton, 1988).

In addition, satisfaction has been analyzed by tourism researchers within a variety of dimensions of tourist trips. Ross & Iso-Aloha (1991) studied satisfaction with cultural tours, while Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison (1994) studied differences among packaged and non-packaged tours. Other researchers focused on satisfaction with certain aspects of a tour, e.g. hotels (Saleh & Ryan, 1992; Heide, Gronhaug & Engset, 1999). Tourists' shopping satisfaction was studied by Reinger & Turner (2002). Toy, Kerstetter & Rager (2002) evaluated customer satisfaction with a leisure activity. Several researchers investigated tourists' satisfaction levels with destination attributes (Chon & Olsen, 1991; Danaher & Arweiler, 1996; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Joppe, Martin & Waalen, 2001). The main goals of these studies are to develop instruments or measures of satisfaction with tourist product-elements, often with the purpose of suggesting tourists' perceived importance regarding overall satisfaction and, to a certain extent, making suggestions for the industry as to what to focus on regarding product developments (Prebensen, 2007).

While the customer satisfaction literature, including those within tourism, has been dominated by measurement of how customers perceive products and services, less has been done with regard to the assessment of why that is what causes the level of satisfaction in addition to the product and service encountered. In an increasingly saturated marketplace, customer satisfaction is the key driver of performance, making its measurement and management crucial (Matzler, Fuller, Renzl, Herting & Spath,

2008). As a consequence, there is a strong need to focus on the cause and effect relationships of satisfaction rather than just describing travel patterns or activities. Then, the major question is "What important constructs should be considered when analyzing tourist satisfaction?" This implies that the determinants of tourist satisfaction and effects of tourist satisfaction are a focal point for research. By acknowledging important constructs affecting tourist satisfaction and the subsequent tourist intention to re-purchase and recommend the product, the tourism marketers will receive better information of what product elements to focus on in their attempts to improve their offerings and performing goal directed marketing communication (Patrick, 2004).

As a substitute of discussing tourists' satisfaction gaps, some studies have explored the determinants of tourist overall satisfaction with a destination. Determinants of tourist satisfaction have been known as "desire congruence" (Ekinci, 2004), "self-concept congruence" (Ekinci, 2004), "place attachments" (Hwang *et al.*, 2005), "culture and perception" (Reisinger & Turner, 1999), "push/pull motivations" (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), "perceived value" (Gallarza & Saura, 2006), "service quality" (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Master & Prideaux, 2000; Ekinci, 2004) and "quality of the opportunity" (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Of these empirical researches, a study by Gallarza & Saura (2006) attempted to investigate the degree to which perceived value would influence the satisfaction of Spanish university students for spring break. Further, accordingly, satisfaction with travel experiences contributes to destination loyalty. The degree of tourists' loyalty to a destination is reflected in their intentions to revisit the destination and in their recommendations to other friends and relatives (Oppermann, 2000). Matzler *et al.* (2008) suggested that customer satisfaction and loyalty are key drivers of financial performance. Hence, information about the relationship between travel satisfaction and loyalty is also important to destination marketers and managers. This causal relationship between the constructs could facilitate a better understanding of the nature of behaviour and intention (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

While satisfaction has been thoroughly examined in the tourism literature to promote tourist visits, there has been relatively little information about the relationships associated with it and other related variables to better predict travel behaviour. The causal relationships between travel motivations, satisfaction and loyalty have been primarily conceptually or superficially discussed in the tourism literature. Conceptual clarification, distinctions and logical linkages among the constructs have been lacking (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). This is also the case with the student travel market. This thesis aims to the cause and effect relationships of satisfaction with related variables for Chinese university student travellers. In the following discussions, overall tourist satisfaction with the visited destination is presented as "a state" which is affected by antecedents such as travel motivations, tourist behavior and individual attribute satisfaction, respectively, and which affects tourist behavioral intention after the trip.

Overall satisfaction vs. travel motivation

Tourism literature identifies motivation as something that occurs when there is a need. The underlying principle is that people are trying to reach a state of equilibrium among physical, psychological and social aspects within one's self (Crompton, 1979). Identifying various reasons for travel is fundamental for travel businesses to communicate with potential travellers (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Cha *et al.*, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Kozak, 2002; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987 and Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). According to well-known travel researchers (e.g. Crompton, 1979 and Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987), travel motivations should be considered as the starting point of understanding and modelling various travel behaviors. Numerous tourist motivation studies utilize the "push" and "pull" dichotomy, first presented by Dann (1977). Therefore, researchers suggested that push/pull motivations be the first construct (cause) that gives direct effects on other constructs.

Satisfaction was found to be better related directly to the consumer's motives than are place attributes. According to Moutinho (1987) motivation is linked to satisfaction by the following definition: "motivation is a state of need, a condition that exerts a 'push' on the individual towards certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction". Millan & Esteban (2003) and Oliver (1997) considered expectations as important antecedents of satisfaction. Other researchers considered expectations as "the needs or the desires of the customer, identified by what the consumer feels should be delivered by the provider of the service before receiving it" (Millan & Esteban, 2003, p.3). When a tourist becomes satisfied or dissatisfied with a trip or a single product during the vacation, it is a product of how the tourist perceives the actual obtained result relative to what was expected. By focusing on tourist needs and expectations, it is possible to reveal some of the determinants that are causing the level of satisfaction in addition to measuring the level of customer satisfaction. The relationship between motivation and satisfaction is claimed in a study among tourists going on a sightseeing tour by bus (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). Their study revealed that the high overall satisfaction (over 90 percent) among respondents can be explained significantly by the motivation dimensions. As shown, people evaluate positively if their motives are fulfilled after purchasing and they have enjoyed a product (the journey). Studies on tourist motivation for attending festivals have discussed potential differences in tourist's satisfaction (Lee, Lee & Wicks, 2003). Their study identified six motivational factors among tourists attending festivals. The results further showed that visitor satisfaction was influenced by motivation. A review of the literature suggests that a number of researchers have segmented the college student travel market using various segmentation bases including travel motivations (Josiam et al., 1999); Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Klenosky, 2002; Richards & Wilson, 2004) and travel satisfaction (Babin & Kim, 2007). However, they failed to look at how motivations influence students' travel satisfaction. Therefore, there is a strong need to focus on the relationships between motivation and satisfaction regarding the student travel market.

Overall satisfaction vs. travel motivations via tourist behavior

Travel motivation is also found to be indirectly related to overall tourist satisfaction through tourist behaviors. The following discussions focus on the impact of travel motivation on tourist behavior, with further on effects on overall tourist satisfaction.

When consumers recognize the need for a vacation, goal directed behavior activates. In other words, people go on holiday to fulfill one or several of their needs. To achieve this, people try to behave in a rational way. Therefore, the time between need recognition and actual travel is important when analyzing tourist satisfaction (Prebenson, 2007). Motivation is defined as "to provide with a motive" or urge to drive forward; a motive "is something (as a need or desire) that causes a person to act" (Woolf, 1974, p.458). Researchers have long studied the factors affecting travel behavior. They suggest that individual travellers are motivated by psychological factors, and that motivation functions as the driving force behind all tourist behavior (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981 and Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994). Iso-Ahola (1982, 1983) concluded that motivation is a more important determinant of travel behavior than other psychological factors. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) proposed that travel behavior could be greatly explained and predicted by these underlying motivations. Crompton (1995) noted that even though motivation is not expected to explain a large portion of variance in trip behaviors, it is a critical variable in predicting and explaining behavior. Chhetri, Arrowsmith & Jackson (2003) also identified the underlying travel motivation dimensions influencing visitor behavior amongst hikers in a national park in Australia. Further, Pittmann (1998) links travel motivation to satisfaction by the following definition: "… motivation is the activation of internal desires, needs, and concerns, energizes behavior and sends the organism in a particular direction aimed at satisfaction of motivational issues that gave raise to the increased energy" (p.549). Behavior is basically a function of expectations about future consequences of behavior. After buying and consuming the product, the actual performance of travel behavior variables is compared with the expectations. If the actual performance is better than their expectations, this leads to positive

disconfirmation, and vice versa (Oliver, 1997). Therefore, it can be speculated that tourist behavior could be the link between motives for travelling and perception of satisfaction. A review of the literature reveals that two components of travel behavior (e.g. travel activity and the length of trips) can be viewed as the link between motives for travelling and perception of satisfaction.

Past literature suggests that there are relationships between motives for travelling and activity choices made, and motivation is an antecedent to the pursuit of different thematic sets of activities. For example, as Kotler (1984) and Moutinho (1987) suggest, understanding the distinctive characteristics of vacation activity pursuits involves consideration of individual traveller's psychological factors, such as motivation, attitude, preference, learning and beliefs. Ruskin & Shamir (1984) stated that the individual's prime motivation influences the level and extent of engagement in particular physical activities. In addition, travel motivation is defined by Pizam, Neuman & Reichel (1979) as a "set of needs which predispose a person to participate in a touristic activity" (p.17). Empirical support in the study about the relationships among tourism motivation and activity has been found in the tourism literature. Guinn (1980) found that tourists who were motivated by rest and relaxation were less interested in games, sports and appreciation activities, and those who were motivated by games and sports engage in sports whereas those who were motivated by nature appreciation and socio-cultural activities do not engage in sports. In their analysis of Australian outbound travellers, Moscardo *et al.* (1995) found a link between the benefits travellers seek during their vacation and the activities that they pursue. Such relationship is further presented in a study among travellers in North Carolina (USA) (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1990). Their study revealed that the type of activity engaged in during the trip is significantly associated with benefits sought. For example, individuals who fish, camp or hike evaluated the 'relaxation' dimension as more important than those visitors who did not enjoy these activities. The same results obtained for the 'social' dimension. Additionally, tourists playing golf during their vacation rated the "explorer" dimension as less important than non-golfers, while

respondents who visited a museum, camp or go hiking during their stay rated the explorer dimension as more important than tourists who did not enjoy these activities. In a similar vein, Kleiven (1999), in a study among inbound tourists in Norway, found tourist motives could be used as attributes to predict the tourists' choices of activities, albeit with some restrictions. Gomez-Jacinto, Martin-Garcia & Huyze (1999) presented more direct empirical support in their study about the relationships among tourism motivation, satisfaction and tourist activities. In their research, path analysis manifested a strong link between cultural motivation and tourist destination activities: the nature and intensity of the cultural motivation increased the quantity of activities that the respondents engaged in while on the trip. The results of that study implied that a considerable amount of variance in activity pursuit can be explained by motivational factors. These findings not only support the existing theories around tourism motivation, but also suggest a possibility to develop a motivation-activity typology. On the other hand, Iso-Ahola (1980) argued that the relationships between motivation and activities were affected by different social environments and social influences. In other words, low correlations between motivation and the level and extent of activities may exist because of a number of problems such as the lack of specification of the distinct activities in surveys, the respondents' lack of time or finances to participate in activities, lack of the facilities available (Ruskin & Shamir, 1984), inadequate information about activities, perceived incompetence, or sociocultural constraints (Iso-Ahola & Mannell, 1985). In addition, in their study of the comparison of motivation and actual activities, Richards & Wilson (2004a) found that there was a distinct gap between the ideology and practice of student travel. That is, although students express a motive to explore other cultures, the cultural activities that they undertook tended to reflect relatively "normal" modes of tourist consumption, such as visiting museums and other cultural sites. This was also a fairly passive form of cultural exploration when compared with the express motivation to interact with local people (Richards & Wilson, 2004a). Carr (2001) examined travel activities of the New Zealand university students. The results suggested that while not

being an important holiday motivation, sexual experiences were a fairly important component of university students' holiday activities.

Based on the literature, it was found that past studies have failed to look at systematic links between push and pull motivational factors and vacation activity participation patterns. Recent studies reveal a multi-motive approach within tourism and many of these studies apply a factorial design to describe motive-factors/dimensions of tourist motivation for travelling. In reducing the gap in the tourism literature, this thesis conducts empirical tests purporting to answer following questions: do different motivational push and pull factors lead individual tourists toward different vacation activities pursuit? Moreover, the fact that people's choice of activities performed during the vacation affect their satisfaction is not surprising. Many studies of tourist motivation presume that tourists will choose activities that they believe will best satisfy their desires and/or needs (Crandall, 1980; Crompton, 1979 and Dann, 1981). However, a review of the literature suggests that there is a lack of empirical support regarding the relationship between travel activity and satisfaction.

In addition, the tourism literature considers the length of trips as one of the major issues that need to be resolved in a visitor's decision-making process (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). There are many factors which may influence the choice of a destination and the decision to stay for a certain period of time (Stevens, 1992). Investigating the amount of time tourists devote to visit a destination aids tourism marketers to decide on the type of tourism product(s) they will offer and the type of tourism demand they intend to attract (Gokovali *et al*., 2007). As visitors are provided by a variety of destinations, more choice of accommodation, and a wide range of activities and tours which are designed for specific interests for each year, it has become fairly difficult for an individual to decide where to go and how long to stay (Laws, 1995). At this stage, Morrison (1989) presented two criteria on the supply side, namely, objective and subjective, which help tourists decide which meets their own criterion best. While the objective criterion includes prices, locations and physical

characteristics of facilities and services, the image of a place is considered as the subjective criterion. On the demand side, a visitor's socio-demographic profile (age, income and family status) and psychographic attributes (e.g. motivation or preferences) are important personal factors in choosing a location for a vacation and the length of stay (Alegre & Pou, 2006). Prebensen (2007) also suggested that people try to behave in a rational way to achieve satisfaction. This tendency of rational behavior illustrates that there are relationships among motives for travelling, choices made and satisfaction (Prebensen, 2007). However, the relationships between travel motivation and the length of trips have received little attention in literature. Further, there are mixed results regarding the relationship between the length of stay and satisfaction. The length of trips as a substantial part of quantitative measures in estimating tourism performance could provide destinations with some advantages, such as giving visitors an opportunity to have more experiences at the destination (Kozak, 2004). As the longer tourists choose to stay, the more likely they are to become aware of facilities and services at the location where they are staying and also at neighborhood locations, which also affect the overall trip satisfaction. On the contrary, Odunga (2005) proposed that length of stay is likely to be negatively associated with satisfaction due to a decline in novelty, discovery and enthusiasm as one becomes familiar with a new environment. However, the author found that the longer stay on the island in Cyprus tended to increase the probability of satisfaction and make visitors more inclined to repeat their visit. Despite these studies, little empirical support has been found in the literature.

Overall satisfaction vs. individual attribute satisfaction

One issue in the literature is the degree to which trip or holiday satisfaction is a holistic assessment, or is perceived as a series of individual experiences encountered each in turn (Ryan, 2002). Indeed, a tourist trip involves various experiences in several situations. While the tourist's overall satisfaction with a destination may reflect a type of tourist overall satisfaction with a journey, satisfaction with transport, travelling party, accommodation, activities performed while staying at the destination

and so forth, could also impact upon the total judgement of the travel experience with a particular destination (Prebensen, 2007). The distinction between overall satisfaction and attribute satisfaction is important, given that overall satisfaction is based on the overall experience, not just a single feature of the product (Spreng, Mackenzie & Olashavsky, 1996). There are two approaches "transaction-specific" and "cumulative satisfaction" in measuring tourist satisfaction (Anderson & Fornell, 1995). The former approach focuses on the actual meeting between the customer and the service provider, while the latter discusses satisfaction as the customer's overall experience of the whole process of consuming a product, which indicates that the tourist's perception of satisfaction should be more of an "overall attitude-like" evaluation (Johnson *et al.*, 2001). There has emerged an attribute-level conceptualization of the determinants of satisfaction in the tourism literature (Oliver, 1993). Under an attribute-level approach, overall satisfaction is a function of attribute-level evaluations. The tourist's evaluation of situations and product elements will affect his or her satisfaction with single elements experienced, which further typically capture a significant amount of variation in overall satisfaction with the destination and the journey (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Oliver, 1993). Experiences and their subsequent evaluations depend on the importance given to the different elements (Prebensen, 2007). Ajzem & Fishbein (1980) pointed out that the overall satisfaction is seen as the result or the sum of the relative importance and the level of satisfaction experienced of all the single attributes. A tourist's satisfaction with a trip or a destination can be the result of many aspects, such as the evaluations of the single elements/products tied to the journey, as well as the customers' expectations before and during the trip. In their study of the shopping satisfaction of Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and Australia, Reisinger & Turner (2002) found a significant relationship between product attribute importance and satisfaction for those visiting Hawaii. However, a review of the literature reveals that there is a lack of studies regarding the relationship between attributes and overall satisfaction for the student travel market. Therefore, this thesis aims to study the relationship between overall

evaluation and attribute-level evaluation by focusing on the customers' expectations before and during the trip.

Overall satisfaction vs. consumer loyalty

Although a considerable volume of research focusing on the concept of consumer loyalty has been reported during the past three decades in the marketing literature, a review of the literature revealed that the concept of loyalty has emerged as a relatively recent research focus in tourism products, destinations or leisure/recreation activities (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Moutinho & Trimble, 1991; Lee, Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Backman & Backman, 1997; Oppermann, 1998; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, Mazanec, 2000; Baloglu, 2001). Tourist satisfaction is demonstrated by an abundant body of literature to be linked to the customers' loyalty in terms of the intention to revisit the destination as well as the tendency to communicate via positive word of mouth (Anderson & Sullivan, 1990; Barsky, 1992; Beeho & Prentice, 1997; Hallowell, 1996; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Fornell, 1992; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Oliver, 1980; Oliver & Swan, 1989; Pizam, 1994 and Ross, 1993). The underlying goal of studying the relationship between satisfaction and consumer loyalty is to predict future behavior in terms of repeat purchase of and willingness to recommend particular products targeted by loyalty marketers (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). As destinations strive to increase their share of visitors, they are not only focusing on attracting new customers and giving them a memorable experience during the stay, but also to be more aware of the importance of repeat visits and word-of-mouth recommendations. Many previous studies in marketing analysis concluded that higher customer loyalty often lead to higher profitability and a more stable customer basis, which further reduce marketing costs (Gould, 1995; Reiccheld, 1996; Peter & Olsen, 1996). On the contrary, studies also show the opposite relationship. For example, dissatisfaction leads to negative word of mouth and increases willingness to travel to alternative destinations (e.g. Peter & Olsen, 1986; Pizam, 1994).

Studies in the tourism literature show mixed results, regarding the relationship between travel satisfaction and loyalty. Tourist destination loyalty was found to be positively affected by tourist satisfaction with their travel experiences. Their positive experiences of products and services could produce repeat visits as well as positive word-of-mouth recommendations of destinations to potential tourists such as friends and/or relatives (Anderson & Sullivan, 1990; Barsky, 1992; Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1995; Hallowell, 1996; Postma & Jenkins, 1997; Bramwell, 1998; Oppermann, 2000; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). Alternatively, some researchers argued that satisfaction may not truly represent tourists' loyalty. It may be true that satisfied tourists are more inclined to use the same airline and stay in the same franchised hotel wherever they travel, however, the tenet may not be necessarily applied to the selection of travel destinations (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). Gitelson & Crompton (1984) noted that although satisfaction with a particular destination appears to be a necessary condition for explaining much repeat visitation, it is not sufficient to explain the phenomenon since many respondents reported satisfactory experiences and yet did not return to the same destination. Keaveney (1995) and Reichheld (1996) found that some customers switched services even when satisfied with the service provided. Keaveney (1995) demonstrated that satisfied customers switched because of convenience, competitive actions or prices. Oliver (1999) also identified novelty seeking as a probable cause of brand switching among satisfied customers. Those who do not return to a particular destination they had previously visited may simply want to seek different travel experiences in new destinations, and yet remain satisfied with the previously visited destination. In contrast, Oppermann (1998) commented that a somewhat dissatisfied tourist might return because it is perceived to be less risky to go to a place with known deficiencies rather than visit a new destination that might be even worse. As a consequence, Steward (1997) ascertained that the assumption "satisfaction and loyalty move in tandem" is simply incorrect, because different tourist markets may have varying motivations for visiting particular destinations and react differently.

In addition, while tourist satisfaction was demonstrated a significant effect upon tourist loyalty in terms of intention to repeatedly visit certain destinations as well as the tendency to communicate via word-of-mouth, studies such as Kozak & Rimmington (2000), have revealed that the repeat business and positive word-of-mouth communication were influenced in various ways by different satisfaction factors. This might be due to the fact that possible differences exist among different destinations and different people (Kozak & Rimmington, 1998; Kozak, 2003). Kozak & Rimmington (2000) found that respondents' intentions to repeat their visits to Mallorca in the future was influenced by their satisfaction with destination attractiveness, facilities and services at the destination airport, the level of overall satisfaction and tourists' previous experiences. They also noted the intention to recommend holidays in Mallorca to their friends and relatives was influenced by their satisfaction with destination attractiveness, availability of English language and facilities and services at the destination airport. In a related study, Kozak (2001) found the three most important satisfaction attributes were related to intention to re-visit, including the level of overall satisfaction, satisfaction with destination airport services and satisfaction with local transport services. Further, in a study of tourist satisfaction with multiple destination attributes and subsequent intention to repeat visitation and recommend to others among four different groups of tourists visiting two different destination: Mallorca, Spain and Mugla, Turkey, Kozak (2003) noted overall tourist satisfaction and the intention to recommend and repeat visit were affected by multiple attributes and differ from one customer group and from one destination to another. This implies tourism researchers should carefully employ appropriate variables to assess loyalty of tourists with different nationalities visiting a variety of destinations, thus preventing marketers from receiving invalid information regarding tourist loyalty.

Overall, the review of previous research reveals relationships between travel motivation, travel behavior and attribute satisfaction and tourist satisfaction, and further on the effects on tourist behavioral intentions after the trip, such as word-of-

mouth recommendations and repeat visits. Unfortunately, a review of literature revealed that few studies have been conducted in the measurement of the relationships among the push and pull tourist motivations, satisfaction and destination loyalty in the student travel market except for Kim's (2007) study, which confirmed that the proposed hypothetical model by Yoon & Uysal (2005) was applicable to the student travel market. However, his study was focused on U.S. university students who took a pleasure trip to either domestic or international destinations. It might be thought that some differences should exist between Chinese and American student travellers due to cultural differences that result in different relationships between travel motivations, satisfaction and destination loyalty. Of central concern in this thesis is how motivation, travel behavior, attribute experience to predict overall student satisfaction, and further how satisfaction impacts on a Chinese university student traveller's intention to revisit and recommend the product. The following hypothesis is therefore formulated:

Hypothesis 7: There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation, travel behavior, attribute satisfaction and loyalty

VFR satisfaction vs. travel behavior (e.g. the length of stays and month of visits)

As discussed earlier, the length of stay can effectively be used to predict trip satisfaction. This study examined the relationship between length of VFR stay and VFR satisfaction. In addition, the month of visit can also be effectively used to predict satisfaction. In Odunga's (2005) study, respondents were found to be more satisfied with their overall stay when they visited Cyprus between July and November, which is the time of the year that the sea-and-sun product is at its best. However, visiting Cyprus in June or March appeared to affect the probability that tourists leave the island negatively pleased. As a result, those who came to the island in May, September and April were the most likely to repeat their visit, while those who visited Cyprus in June were those who were least likely to return. The concept to include length of stay in the satisfaction regression model can be found in the study by Neal (2004), who examined the effect of length of stay on travellers' perceived satisfaction.

In addition, the empirical results in CTO (2007)'s research indicated that there was a positive relationship between the duration of stay and tourist satisfaction.

VFR satisfaction vs. travel inhibitors vs. the level of VFR visits in the future

In the past three decades, a growing number of research studies on constraints or inhibitors to leisure activity participation have emerged. A leisure constraints model, originally proposed by Crawford & Godbey (1987) and further elaborated by Crawford *et al.* (1991), has made a significant contribution. The model explains that an individual's desire to participate in leisure-related activities is inhibited by three dimensions of constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. Intrapersonal constraints are individual psychological states and attributes that affect preference, rather than intervening between preference and participation, and lead to nonparticipation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Examples of intrapersonal constraints include lack of interest, stress, depression, anxiety, religiosity, kin and non-kin reference group attitude, and perceived self-skill. Interpersonal constraints occur because of unavailability of other people, which prevents an individual from participating in activities that require at least one partner or in which there is a strong preference for a co-participant. Individuals experience this constraint when they are unable to find a friend, family members, or partner to participate with them in the activities of interest. Structural constraints are the intervening factors between leisure preferences and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Examples of structural constraints include lack of time, money, opportunity, information and access and bad weather (Walker & Vitden, 2005). In the context of travel and tourism, a review of literature revealed travel inhibitors have not been thoroughly investigated (Oppermann, 2000). Although travel constraints are not a new concept, the literature focuses on narrowly defined supply-side and socio-demographic constraints (Nyaupane & Anderech, 2008). Nevertheless, early on researchers commonly considered that constraints were common across all types of recreationists. However, Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (1999) found that the types of constraints were not consistent across types of tourists. Based on a review of the past tourism literature,

travel inhibitors research is more heavily focused on international travellers. VFR travel, however, received comparatively little attention regarding travel inhibitors. In addition, based on the tourism literature, most of the empirical studies on perceived travel inhibitors have focused on the VFR market in the North American, European and Australian countries. There are relatively few empirical studies that have examined the phenomenon of perceived travel inhibitors associated with Asian countries.

There is also a lack of studies regarding the relationships of travel inhibitors with other related variables such as satisfaction and the level of visits. An individual's access to holiday experiences is the product of a variety of facilitators and inhibitors, which are linked to the personal characteristics and circumstances of the individual and his/her motivations (Carr, 2005). Simply put, facilitators of leisure promote the formation of leisure preferences and encourage participation. On the contrary, travel inhibitors are factors that enter "both overtly and covertly, into the decision-making process of individuals at all stages of leisure engagement… limit the formation of leisure preferences and … inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure" (Jackson 1991, pp.279-280). People evaluate positively if their motives are fulfilled. Since travel inhibitors prohibit people travelling to a particular destination to fulfill their needs, it is assumed that travel inhibitors are negatively related to trip satisfaction. In addition, it has been widely accepted that the more favorable the image of destinations, the greater likelihood that potential travellers will visit them (Chon, 1990 and Goodrich, 1978). However, it is interesting that destinations with positive images have not always been selected as the final vacation choice. Therefore, it is interesting to examine why some visitors do not undertake travel to such destinations. A review of the literature reveals that travel inhibitors impact the decision to travel to certain destinations or not. For example, Sonmez & Graefe (1998) noted that "regardless of whether real or perceived, the presence of risk has the potential to change the nature of travel decisions" (p.171). In the tourism literature,

there are relatively few studies that have examined the phenomenon of travel inhibitors associated with the level of visits.

This thesis aims to assess the influence of travel behavior on VFR satisfaction as well as the impact of the travel inhibitors of Chinese students' VFRs on satisfaction and the level of visits to New Zealand. The following hypothesis is therefore postulated:

Hypothesis 8: There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and VFR travel behavior, travel inhibitors and the level of VFR visits in the future

Student satisfaction vs. VFR tourism

It is also worth noting that satisfied students make a more significant contribution in initiating VFR tourism. That is because a student's satisfaction levels influence his/her subsequent behavior. For instance, a satisfied tourist has a higher probability to be a host for VFR visits and engage in positive word of mouth recommendation behavior. In contrast, highly dissatisfied tourists also tend to engage in the most word of mouth recommendation activity (Anderson, 1998). Eventually, satisfied students tended to generate more VFR visits. Additionally, Tham Min-En (2006), in a study of the international student market in Australia, stressed the importance of satisfied international students in generating repeat visits. The author suggested that students who have had repeat visits from family and friends were those who enjoyed their stay in the country. Also, satisfied students tended to host more VFR visits. However, based on the literature review, few empirical studies include student satisfaction in inbound VFR tourism. This thesis examines the relationship between student satisfaction and VFR tourism in terms of VFR satisfaction, the level of VFR visits in the future, the likelihood of receiving repeat visits by VFRs and the willingness of being the host for future VFR trips. The following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 9: There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and VFR tourism

3.9 Conclusions

After examining different aspects relating to travel behavior of the student and VFR travel market, it is apparent that there are many issues to identify and discuss in order to have a good understanding of travel behavior concept. Given the need for information about Chinese student market travellers and their VFRs, the effort of this study is to investigate travel behavior of Chinese university students who are studying or have been students and provided some insights into the nature and characteristics of Chinese student-generated VFR traffic in New Zealand. This study is interested in the similarities and difference in travel behavior between Chinese university students and other student travel markets, as well as Chinese students' VFRs and other VFRs as identified in the literature. The results of this study will provide relevant information for tourism planners and managers to develop new marketing strategies for future marketing subject to some important caveats. First, it needs to be noted that the literature upon which the research design is based is derived from studies undertaken in different nations at different times, thereby raising the issue of applicability to a Chinese situation. Certainly there is a lack of literature directly relevant to the type of student travel under investigation, especially with reference to the issue of Chinese students as a catalyst for VFR travel. These issues of context of time and place therefore need to be borne in mind, although it is argued that the data within this study does meet statistical tests of reliability and, it is contended, validity.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, PROPOSITIONS, FRAMEWORK, DESIGN AND METHODS

4.1 Introduction

Having reviewed existing literature relating to the student travel market, their travel behavior and role in inducing VFR tourism as well as the literature regarding the travel behavior and expenditure patterns of the VFR travel market, this chapter identifies research objectives, propositions, framework, design and methods. Followed by the outline of the research objectives, propositions and framework, it presents research design and details methods in the current study to evaluate the travel behavior of the student and VFR markets. Further, ethical issues are addressed in this chapter.

4.2 Research Objectives, Propositions and Framework

Based on a thorough review of the literature, it was suggested that marketers should consider students as a niche market segment worldwide. However, the students should not be seen as a uniform group (Shoham, Schrage & van Eeden, 2004). The results of literature review demonstrated that the differences in travel behavior among different student travel markets existed due to cross-cultural impacts. While a number of researchers have examined the student travel market, previous studies in the literature reviews signified that most studies have focused on specific student-related travel phenomena (e.g. the US spring break market). In contrast, the Chinese student travel market has not drawn a great deal of research attention. You *et al* (2000) pointed out that tourism is "culture-specific", people with different culture backgrounds have different travel motivations toward travelling in the same destination and travel experiences. Therefore, in competing for Chinese student travellers, it is important to understand their distinct travel habits so as to match travel products with this specific market. Therefore, the thesis tends to identify a whole picture focusing on demographics and trip characteristics of Chinese university student travellers.

A review of the literature also revealed that the VFR travel market displayed separate characteristics quite distinct from other travel and tourism markets. Hence, there is a need to establish a well-organized network of specialists to cater specifically to VFRs. Unfortunately, past research revealed that most analyses on VFRs are carried out in the USA and Australia. Again, culture differences amongst VFRs in various countries can cause significant variations in travel behavior. Previous cross-cultural studies have consistently revealed differences in various cultural dimensions (Hofstede & Bond, 1984), calling for empirical tests in different cultural settings. Nevertheless, the student-generated VFR market appeared to be one of the most neglected aspects of the tourism phenomenon. Therefore, this thesis attempts to examine travel behavior of the Chinese student associated VFR market in New Zealand. Further, the review of the literature also highlighted that in studying travel behavior of VFRs, it is important to note that there are different types of VFRs, such as VFR as main purpose or trip type and VFR as an activity, VFR who are accommodated solely with friends and relatives and not accommodated solely with friends and relatives, and those who solely visit friends, or relatives and those visiting both friends and relatives (Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green & O'Leary, 2000). These different types of VFR tourists may differ in terms of their travel behavior and spending patterns. Hence, this thesis intends to identify differences in travel behavior and expenditure patterns of VFRs in terms of travel motives, accommodation usage and focus of visits (i.e. whether VF or VR).

In addition, a review of the literature also suggested that marketers should appreciate the influence of socio-demographic variables in tourist behaviors and construct their marketing strategies accordingly (Sussmann & Rascovsky, 1997). Whilst there have been a number of studies that have considered socio-demographic differences in travel behavior and expenditure patterns, a comparatively small number of tourism researchers have considered such differences in travel behavior and expenditure patterns regarding the student travel market, especially Chinese university students.

To bridge this gap, this thesis attempts to analyze the impact of a set of socio-demographic variables on travel behavior and expenditure patterns regarding Chinese university students in New Zealand. In addition, apart from the student travel market, past studies have suggested there were differences in VFR tourist behavior and expenditure patterns among socio-demographic groups. However, the majority of past VFR studies have been conducted on the U.S. and U.K. markets, the Chinese VFR market has comparatively remained largely unresearched. Therefore, this thesis empirically examines the impact of selected socio-demographics on travel behavior and expenditure patterns of the Chinese student associated VFR market. Moreover, whilst socio-demographics have been widely used to predict the level of travel expenditure, the review of past literature on the influence of socio-demographics on expenditure patterns of VFRs is limited. This thesis intends to fill the gap by examining socio-demographics differences in travel expenditures of Chinese student associated VFRs.

In tourism literature, market segmentation has been shown to be a useful tool in developing appropriate marketing strategies and target marketing. However, the review of the literature pertaining to the student travel market suggested that there was a lack of studies focusing on segmenting the student travellers. The current thesis employs the Beard & Ragheb (1983) leisure motivation scale and push and pull motivational forces as a foundation for segmenting Chinese university student tourists on the basis of travel motivation in New Zealand. In addition, this thesis also employs a long established principle of effective market segmentation in the analysis that different types of activities will appeal to different types of Chinese university student travellers. The thesis adopts the *a posteriori* approach to identify segments of Chinese university student travellers on the basis of motivation and activity. Moreover, the tourism literature suggested the segments should be compared according to socio-demographics and trip characteristics, which could contribute an increased understanding of tourist behavior, and in turn help tourism marketers develop more appropriate marketing strategies to better satisfy travellers' needs. Therefore, this

thesis also attempts to profile student travel segments by using descriptive variables (i.e. socio-demographics and trip characteristics).

Further, recent research has begun to recognize the importance of measuring satisfaction as a cumulative construct (Johnson & Fornell, 1991 and Johnson *et al.*, 2001). While satisfaction should be thoroughly examined in the tourism literature, there has been relatively little information about the relationships associated with it and other related variables to better predict travel behavior. Nevertheless, the cause and effect relationships of satisfaction, such as relationships between travel motivations, satisfaction and loyalty, have been primarily conceptually discussed in the tourism literature with few empirical supports. Therefore, this thesis attempts to test and expand current theoretical underpinnings and relationships among important constructs in tourist behaviors regarding the student travel market, including motivation, tourist activities, satisfaction and loyalty in a systematic theoretical network. In addition, this thesis also attempts to explore importance antecedents and consequences of satisfaction regarding the Chinese student associated VFR travel market. Furthermore, while international students have been realized as an important contributor to the VFR sector (ETC, 2002), it is surprising that the student-generated VFR market is underestimated. Unfortunately, there is still a lack of empirical support regarding the role of students in VFR tourism. Therefore, this thesis provides some insights into the role of Chinese students as catalysts for VFR tourism to New Zealand by looking at the influence of student satisfaction in the VFR sector.

Overall, in this context, this thesis aims to build on the existing studies, and to fill gaps in the existing literature by exploring the dynamics of the Chinese university student travel and associated VFR markets with particular focus on New Zealand destination. Theories and patterns will be made based on findings in order to achieve the following objectives:

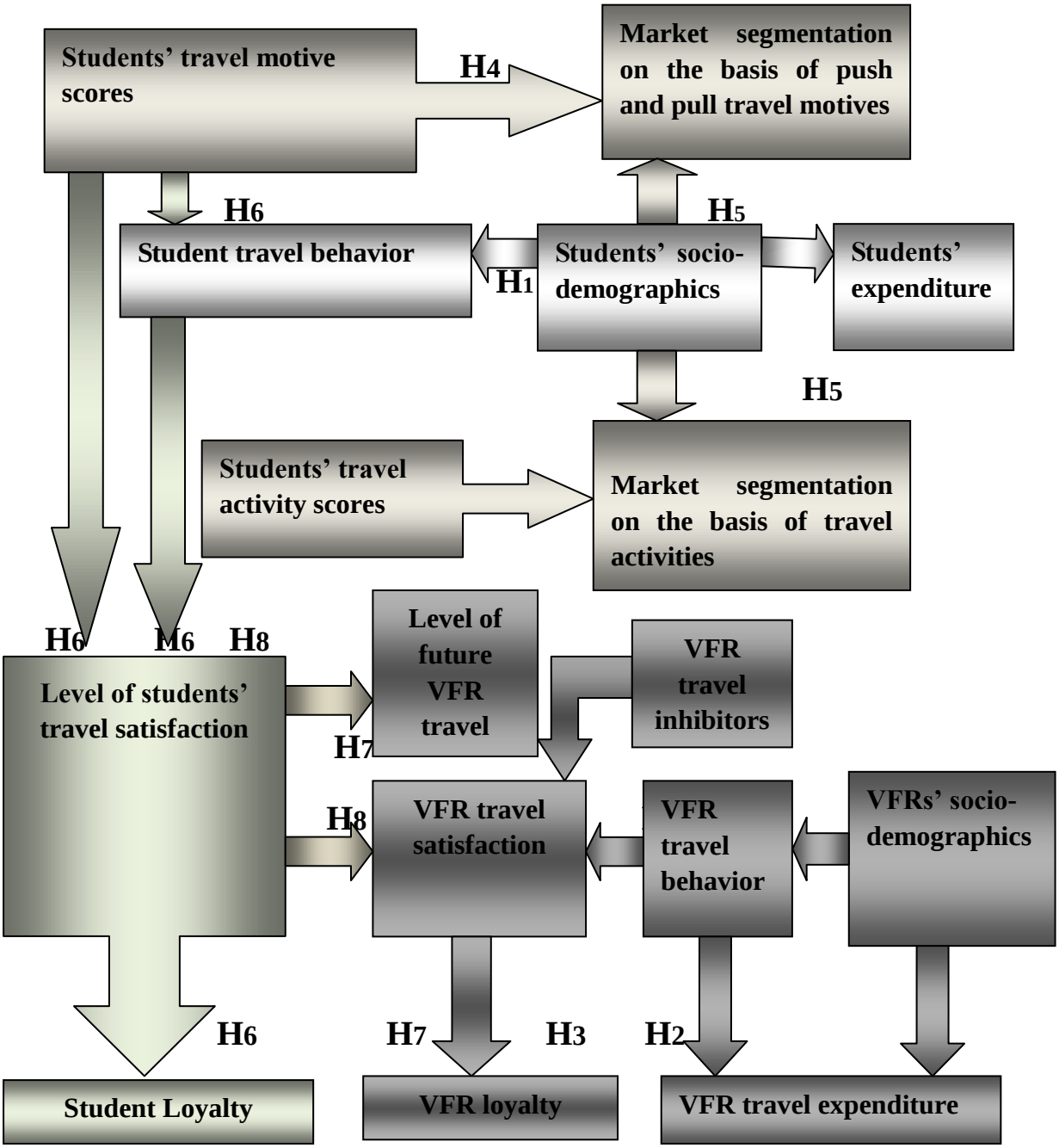
1) To identify a whole picture focusing on demographics and trip characteristics of Chinese university student travellers and their VFRs (Chapter 7)
2) To investigate the impact of socio-demographics on tourist behavior and expenditure patterns (Chapter 8)
3) To identify the relationship between travel behavior and expenditure (Chapter 8)
4) To fill the research gap on market segments of the student travel market (Chapter 9)
5) To explore the determinants of segments according to socio-demographics and trip behavior (Chapter 9)
6) To determine the relationship between travel motivations, travel behavior, satisfaction and loyalty regarding the student travel market (Chapter 10)
7) To examine the relationship between VFR travel behavior, travel inhibitors, satisfaction and loyalty (Chapter 10)
8) To explore the influence of overall student trip satisfaction in inbound VFR tourism (Chapter 10)

Based on the above objectives, this thesis then proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Socio-demographic variables are related to travel behavior
Hypothesis 2: Socio-demographic variables are related to expenditure pattern
Hypothesis 3: Travel behavior determines Travel expenditure
Hypothesis 4: The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Chinese university student travel market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions
Hypothesis 5: It is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on travel motivation and activity attributes of New Zealand by using the *a posteriori* approach
Hypothesis 6: Socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics are related to travel motivation and activity dimensions and segments
Hypothesis 7: There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation, travel behavior, attribute satisfaction and loyalty
Hypothesis 8: There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and VFR travel behavior, travel inhibitors and the level of VFR visits in the future
Hypothesis 9: There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and VFR tourism

A detailed conceptual framework that outlines the objectives and hypotheses is presented in Figure 4.1.

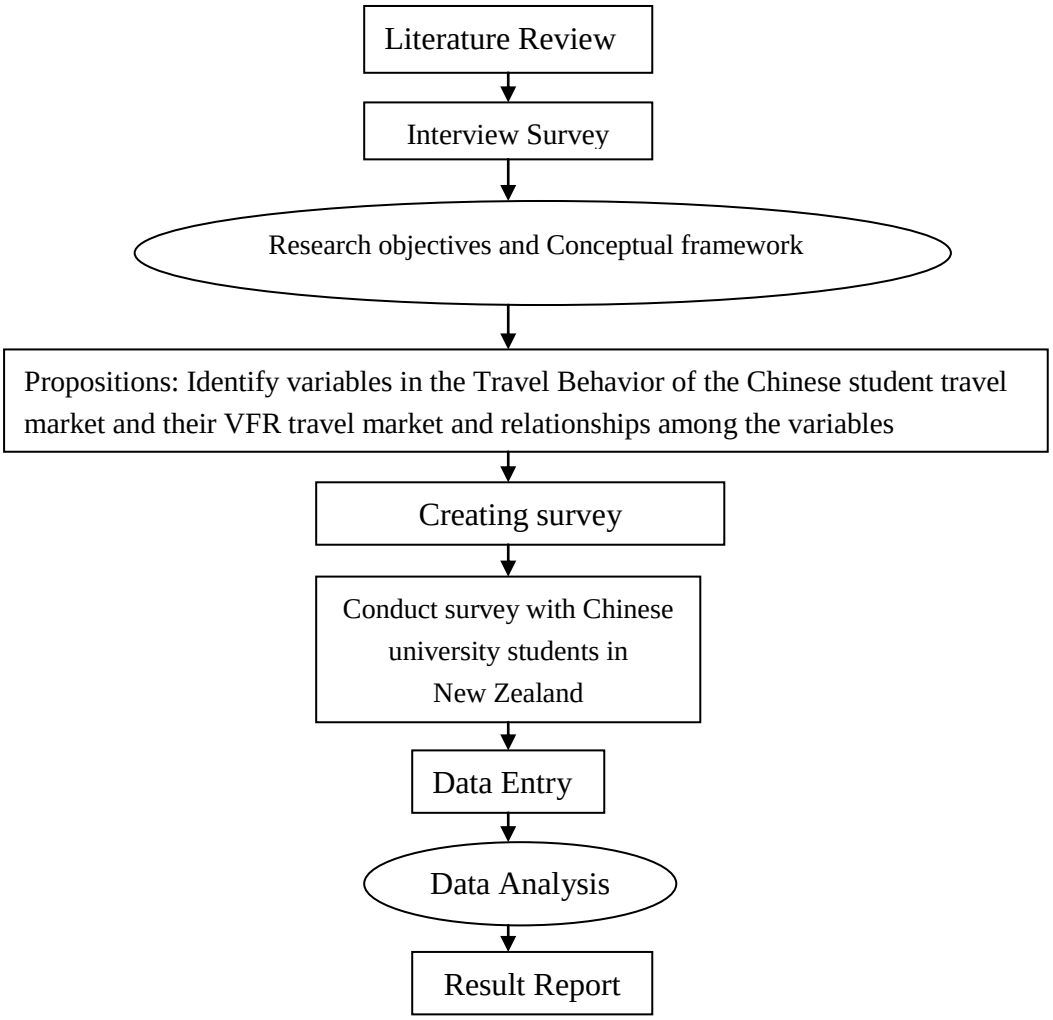
Figure 4.1 Research Framework



4.3 Research Design

As Figure 4.2 indicates, the research design involves nine phases. First, the literature review is conducted, which provides a conceptual framework for assisting in an understanding of the travel behaviors of Chinese university students and their VFRs in New Zealand. To test the conceptual framework, semi-structured interviews are conducted on an individual basis with the researcher. The findings of the interview data are concluded, with the purpose of avoiding researcher determined questions and understanding what respondents think in order to identify questions. The research propositions are based on the literature review. The subsequent questionnaire is based on these propositions and interview results. Then, the questionnaire is distributed, collected, inputted and analyzed by the researcher, and the findings are discussed.

Figure 4.2 The Process of Research



4.4 Research Methodologies

Tourism researchers are required to select proper research paradigms to probe the minds of tourists and to better understand their travel behaviors. Usher (1996) described that a research paradigm is "an exemplar or exemplary way of working that functions as a model for what and how to do research, what problems to focus on and work on" (p.13). Phillimore & Goodson (2004) identified four major paradigms guiding the research, namely positivist, post-positivist, critical and interpretive. Other authors suggested additional paradigms, such as a feminist perspective paradigm (Jennings, 2001). Each paradigm provides flexible guidelines that connect theory and methods and help determine the structure and shape of any inquiry (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). The following discussion provides an overview of the four major research paradigms which structure tourism research regarding travel behaviors. Each will be discussed individually.

"A positivist paradigm predicates the explanation of a tourism behavior, event or phenomenon to being based on causal relationships" (Jennings, 2001, p.36). The positivist paradigm adopts quantitative research methods, such as questionnaire surveys (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). The items in the questionnaire regarding travel behaviors include the travel motivations, activities, destination choices, accommodation, restaurant and transportation choices, time of travel, information sources, mode of travel, length of stay, trip arrangement and tour plan. Then as Jennings (2001) illustrated,

> The collected data would be analyzed using computer. Samples would be selected to be representative of the population being studied as well as randomly selected. Results would be recorded in numerical representations and statistical tests would be used to determine the veracity of the hypothesis and its applicability to the wider population or tourism phenomenon under study (p.36).

A positivist paradigm is useful in undertaking the tourism research in several ways. By using quantitative methods, tourism researchers can seek factors influencing destination choices with little regard for the subjective states of individuals. In

addition, quantitative methods adopt large sample sizes designed to be representative of the target population (Brunt, 1997). Thus, statements about the population can be made to a given degree of confidence. However, while survey participants can usually provide information about travel behavior, this information tends to be superficial and does not necessarily indicate the reasons why tourists behave in any particular way. As a consequence, the positivist approach should be associated with other paradigms so that researchers can also explore questions of meaning and understanding, understand respondents, their culture, behavior, attitudes and backgrounds, and ultimately obtain more meaningful results.

The other three paradigms differ from the positivist paradigm because they are using or primarily using qualitative research methods rather than quantitative techniques (Jennings, 2001). These paradigms are also important in undertaking tourism research because, as Ryan (2000) stated, qualitative research reveals possibly different and new insights to those presented by quantitative research. Qualitative research entails different paradigms (Decrop, 1999). Researchers influenced by the interpretive paradigm turn the conventional positivistic approach to knowing upon its head (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). "Rather than arguing that only the qualified researcher is capable of knowledge production, they consider that the complex social world can be understood only from the point of view of those who operate within it" (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004, p.35). The interpretive paradigm employs qualitative research methods, such as an in-depth interview (Jennings, 2001). In this instance, researchers might decide to interview key people to ascertain tourist perceptions of factors influencing their travel behaviors over the time period being studied. There are a number of advantages of using the interpretive paradigm. It encourages respondents to tell researchers about factors influencing their travel behaviors within a semi-structured framework. In addition, the in-depth interview enables researchers to further explore factors influencing respondents' travel behaviors that they (the researchers) might not have thought about when designing the research project, but which the tourists themselves identify as being significant. However, a question of

objectivity may arise because knowledge of factors influencing the travel behavior developed based on the subjective viewpoints of those who are interviewed (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). Additionally, Brunt (1997) pointed out that the measurement of qualitative material often requires judgments to be made by researchers. Hence, questions of bias arise. As a consequence, questions of objectivity and bias reduce the reliability and generalization of the research. In order to eliminate issues of objectivity and bias, researchers could combine both interpretive and positivism, as the quantitative methods of the positivist approach can help reduce any bias in the research and enhance the reliability of research findings.

The use of the critical theory paradigm in tourism research means that "the interests or needs of minority groups will be identified and data collected in order to improve the provision of tourism opportunities for those minority groups" (Jennings, 2001, p.42). The critical theory paradigm for tourism research primarily employs qualitative research methods (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). In undertaking research of the travel behaviors of minority groups, such as the aged, the disabled or lower socio-economic groups, participant observation and in-depth interview may be employed. Researchers are required to observe the group he/she is researching by participating in activities of the group (Jennings, 2001). For example, researchers might participate in the activities of the disabled tourist group and feel the frustrations or enjoyments of other tourists in the group. The findings from the research would then be used to effect transformational changes to current practices in relation to the travel behavior of the disabled tourist group (Jennings, 2001). However, the primary disadvantage of participate observation in the critical theory paradigm is the balance between subjectivity and objectivity. The level of judgement that the observer has to introduce in the recoding of the observation may bring into question the accuracy of the results (Brunt, 1997). Although the use of categorical or neural software can reduce the subjectivity of analyzing the transcripts, Ryan (2000) argued that the techniques are not beyond criticism. "Within the social science of tourism analysis as it applied to tourist behaviors, perceptions and attitudes, it falls short of the conceptualizations

advanced by writers like Rojek & Urry" (p.131). As a result, it is recommended that researchers should combine both critical theory and positivist, as the quantitative methods of the positivist can improve accuracy of the results (Jackson & Niblo, 1999).

It is only in the last few decades that the tourism industry recognized women as a market segment and begun to respond with initiatives such as: the provision of different services and facilities in some of the more deluxe hotels; women-only tours (particularly for adventure travel); and the publication of travel guides for women with books, such as Women Travel, (Davies & Jansz, 1990) and magazines such as 'Maiden voyages: the indispensable guide to women's travel' (Small, 1999). With the growing interest in the study of gender and tourism, feminism might be of interest to examine women's travel behaviors. Feminists have adopted various methods, but they have tended to prefer qualitative methods, such as participate observation, focus groups and in-depth interviews (Small, 1999, Jennings, 2001). In order to understand a single mother's travel behavior, for example, a research project could be developed that would enable researchers to engage in participant observation of travel as a single mother as well as conducting focus groups and in-depth interviews with single mothers. The semi-structured in-depth interviewing technique allows researchers to ensure that questions are understood by the interviewers by modifying wording or by probing to elicit more in-depth responses (Small, 1999). Besides, Phillimore & Goodson (2004) emphasized that qualitative research methods facilitate researchers in gathering rich descriptive accounts of women's travel behaviors by providing them with an opportunity to respond to open-ended questions rather than having them respond by choosing a number from a scale on a questionnaire. However, the measurement of women's travel behaviors often requires judgments to be made by researchers, which results in bias that may be caused by poor interviewers. Hence, questions of objectivity again arise. To remove bias requires tourism researchers to combine the feminist perspective paradigm with positivist or an ability, perhaps, to be reflective about the research process. Undertaking quantitative survey research provides tourism researchers with some descriptive data about these travellers as well

as allowing researchers to map general patterns of the travel behaviors of women, which can help reduce bias that is involved potentially in qualitative research methods (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004).

Obviously, there are advantages and disadvantages associated with each of the research paradigms. There is no single "best" paradigm which structures research. Phillimore & Goodson (2004) stated that each paradigm is equally useful in answering questions of applied research. In addition, Jackson & Niblo (1999) argued that the major disadvantages of positivism seem to be the strengths or the advantages of other paradigms which employ qualitative research methods. And,

> Such analysis have led some researchers (e.g. House, 1994) to conclude that neither of the paradigms is fully adequate. The qualitative/interpretative tradition correctly highlights that behavior can be only understood from the information's interpretation of social reality, but neglects external causes and conditions and intra-personal conflict/contradictions. On the other hand, quantitative/positivist approach traditionally emphasizes causal links but errs in the belief that complete understanding can occur without extra theoretical or extra observational judgements within the particular context (p.1).

Tourism research can be conducted using a mix of paradigms, and accordingly, it would be prudent to apply a combination of such approaches to a given situation" (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004, p.220). The mixed paradigms approach provides a number of benefits. The mixed methods can assist with data collection, data analysis and research design (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). In addition, as McIntosh (1998) stated, mixed paradigms can provide reliable and valued data that can be statistically analyzed and based on insight grounded in the opinions of tourists themselves. In this sense, the multiple methods approach allows researchers to be more confident about their results. Tourism researchers cannot adopt merely one single paradigm in tourism research. As Clark (1999) mentioned, a simple paradigm was never adequate. On the one hand, the quantitative research methods of the positivist paradigm are often more impersonal when compared to qualitative methods. Despite this, quantitative research methods are still invasive, potentially obstructive and create an artificial setting. They

have difficulty trying to control both extraneous and error variables and as a consequence quantitative research have problems with many types of validity (Jackson & Niblo, 1999). On the other hand, the qualitative research methods of the remaining three paradigms are often criticized because of the danger of potential and actual bias introduced in the giving and recording of subjective impressions when compared to quantitative methods. As Brunt (1997) notes, the sampling sizes of the qualitative research methods generally cannot allow conclusions to be made of the larger population in comparison with quantitative research methods. In other words, qualitative research methods have difficulty studying large populations when compared with quantitative research methods. Additionally, qualitative research methods are time-consuming with masses of observational data that are difficult to conceptualize (Jackson & Niblo, 1999). On the other hand, there are contrary arguments. For example, personal construct theory argues that generalization from small samples is possible because of shared understandings, and that techniques like Kelly's triads permit the shared consensus to emerge quickly and in cost effective ways.

All in all, tourism researchers are required to adopt multiple research paradigms in conducting tourism research so as to obtain meaningful results. In addition, in selecting the proper paradigms to conduct tourism research, it is imperative for tourism researchers to note that in any tourism research project, the paradigm chosen is required to be based on the goal of the study rather than choosing a paradigm because it is conventional or because it is the one most familiar to the researcher (Jenny & Goodson, 2004). Therefore, with the purpose of investigating the travel behaviors of Chinese university students and associated VFRs in New Zealand, this thesis adopted both positivist and interpretive paradigms. The essence of the interpretive paradigm seeks to describe, explain, diagnose and understand the social construction of reality, as it "emphasizes that the social world is no more than the subjective construction of shared interactions of everyday life" (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p.260), while that of the positivist paradigm was to be value free, neutral and

can be substituted one for another without having an impact on findings (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004).

4.5 Research Methods

Personal Construct Theory

This research also adopted Kelly's (1955) Personal Construct Theory (PCT). Here, the fundamental thesis is that "a person's processes are psychologically channelized by the way in which he anticipates events" (Kelly, 1955, p.46). Kelly sought to emphasize that the concept was presented as a convenient viewpoint from which to understand human behavior, and it did not impute an underlying physiological or psychological reality (Gaines & Shaw, 1993). Kelly's PCT viewed each individual as a personal scientist, who construes the universe in different ways, and it is open to reconstruction. Each individual in the world is viewed through patterns that he/she individually creates and attempts to fit over the environment. Even though the fit is not always good, without such patterns the world would appear heterogeneous, confusing and difficult to make sense of. Kelly referred to these patterns, which allows a researcher to chart a course, as personal constructs. These constructs have also been referred to as "dimensions of awareness" (Landfiend & Leitner, 1980, p.5) and "goggles for viewing the world" (Downs, 1976, p.82). The individual construct system is one model used to guide behavior (Jankowicz, 1987). It is important to note that because the theory implies that there are always alternatives to how a person views the world, some constructs may be verbal, others not; not all may be tightly structured, others are, some may be easily testable, others not, some are idiosyncratic, while others may be widely held, some are well constructed, while others may be fragmented. A person may hold many of these alternatives at one time or they may be developed in response to new situations or a failure (and therefore rejection) of previously held beliefs.

The researcher of the current research reasoned that while it is true that conceptually, some qualitative research may be a highly contextual and specific to a particular time and place, human beings do share an ability to empathize, and an ability to share means of communication, based upon shared sensitivities and understandings, and thus it is possible for socially constructed consensual meanings to emerge that permit generalized understandings.

Methodological Triangulation

Since the researcher applied both positivist and interpretive paradigms, the research employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods to gather data. In other words, triangulation was used to analyze data collected from the respondents. Methodological triangulation refers to using more than one research method in measuring the same object of interest, for example, using qualitative research methods such as participant observation as well as quantitative research methods such as questionnaires (Oppermannt, 2000). Triangulation improves confidence in the ensuing findings (Bryman, 2003). This approach is a trend that has emerged over the past decades to which has seen an increasing blending of qualitative and quantitative data within studies to answer scientific and theoretical questions. Before, say 1970, researchers tended to develop an expertise in one style of research. However varying methods have different and complementary strengths ( ). Qualitative research offers many advantages to the researcher. It is designed to help researchers obtain richness, meaningful and detailed information, which is not readily achievable from quantitative studies (McIntosh, 1998). The methods provide respondents with opportunities to discuss their interpretation of the world in which they live as well as explain how they regard a situation from their point of view (Gubrium & Holstein, 2001). Qualitative research can be a source of ideas, insights and new perspectives upon a problem (Ryan, 1995). The comments of respondents and the in-depth interview can produce a richness of information and feeling about attractions, travel, places and the experience of holidays (Ryan, 1995). In contrast, quantitative research brings other advantages, notably some reassurance about the validity and reliability of

findings (Ryan, 1995). It can also be much cheaper in terms of being able to poll the views of a large number of people relatively quickly (Ryan, 1995). Additionally, there is an increasing sophistication of analysis possible given the increasing power and reduced cost of computerization (Ryan, 1995). Besides, quantitative research methods are used to test theories and hypotheses, and involve the initial identification of variables fixed throughout the study and tested to establish cause and effect. Such testing, underpinned by valid and reliable statistical analysis, is used to develop generalizations that may enhance theory in order to better predict, explain and understand some phenomenon (Creswell, 1994). Moreover, quantitative research uses methods whereby research participants are selected randomly from the study population in an unbiased manner. The researcher is considered external to the actual research, and results are expected to be replicable no matter who conducts the study. Moreover, as already noted, there is an increasing sophistication of possible analysis given the increasing power and reduced cost of computerization when combined with newer techniques and more complex software design derived from the physical and mathematical sciences. Above all, each method has positive attributes, and combining different methods has the advantages of expanding the scope and breadth of the research.

The review of the literature in preceding chapters has identified both quantitative and qualitative methodologies being adopted in the past to evaluate the student travel market. However, the period up to 2000 was largely characterized by a number of large scale structured questionnaires designed to collect information about domestic travel and international behaviours by international students. Qualitative studies were lacking, except for Gmelch (1997) and Leung (1999). This implied that student travel behaviour research has been predominantly analyzed by the use of structured questionnaires, especially when investigating motivation and attitudes. However, because there has been a general change of values in society it has become more difficult to forecast students' behaviour with traditional methodologies. The 'hybrid' consumer behaves unpredictably, for example he or she may choose a five-star hotel

but buy low-priced food. 'Why' questions become more suitable for investigating the motivation and attitudes that underlie heterogeneous behaviour. According to Carson *et al.* (2001), the marketers' need for deep and detailed qualitative research has become even more crucial in a post-modern consumer society. Its importance lies in the need to understand phenomena and to gain meaningful insights into circumstances and changes. The contribution that qualitative research can make to this understanding and insight is immense. Similarly, Kaplan & Maxwell (1994) argued that the goal of understanding a phenomenon from the point of view of the participants and its particular social and institutional context was largely lost when textual data are quantified. It was thought that the qualitative technique is the best initial method to use with a group of Chinese students because this study attempts to understand their internal feelings and perceptions about travel in New Zealand. By using a qualitative technique, the researcher is able to gain insight and capture salient dimensions in participant thinking. In this way, the interview stimulates new research questions. Respondents are free to answer and explain in more detail outside of any structure imposed by the researcher. Therefore, the current research adopted both qualitative and quantitative research methods to obtain rich and in-depth information about the travel behaviours of Chinese university students as well as their VFRs. Moreover, because the data on those who have hosted the VFRs in New Zealand does not exist elsewhere, primary data collection was selected as the research method. The primary research methods adopted in this investigation involved the implementation of personal interviews and the design of a questionnaire.

Sequential studies

This research employed one of the four mixed method designs defined by Creswell (1995), namely sequential studies. Sequential studies (or what Creswell calls two-phase studies) are when the researcher first conducts a qualitative phase and then a quantitative phase, or vice versa. The two phases are separate. According to Creswell (1999), "a sequential exploratory strategy" is characterized by "an initial phase of qualitative data collection and analysis, which is followed by a phase of quantitative

data collection and analysis" (p.215). This strategy allowed the researcher to use qualitative data and results to assist in the collection and subsequent interpretation of quantitative findings. Morgan (1998) suggested that this design is appropriate to use when testing elements of an emergent theory resulting from the qualitative phase and that it can also be used to generalize qualitative findings for different samples. Similarly, Morse (1991) cited one purpose for selecting this approach as being the determination of the distribution of a phenomenon within a chosen population. The sequential exploratory strategy is also useful to the researcher who wants to explore a phenomenon and who also wants to expand qualitative findings. This approach could make a largely qualitative study more palatable to those unfamiliar with the naturalistic tradition.

In this research, data was therefore collected in sequential steps, *viz*. initial qualitative stage based on semi-structured interviews to help generate themes about the behaviors of travel of Chinese university students by interviewing 30 Chinese students at four universities in New Zealand. Then based on these themes, items and scales were developed for a second, quantitative based stage using structured questionnaires. Quantitative research was then employed to confirm and complement outcomes generated from the qualitative approach and to expand upon them.

4.6 Ethical Issues

Ethics approval for the study was granted by the Waikato Management School Research Ethics Committee of the University of Waikato to establish the guidelines and regulations of research involving human participants were adhered to. First, the researcher ensured that participation in the interview and questionnaire surveys by Chinese students was on a completely voluntary basis. However, voluntary participation can sometimes conflict with the need to have a high response rate. Low return rates can introduce response bias (McNamara, 1994). In order to encourage a high response rate, the researcher made initial contact with the respondents, began with a self-introduction and gave respondents the contact details of both the

researcher and her supervisors who were guiding the research as well as the purpose of the research. In an effort to protect a respondent's identity, the researcher also clearly clarified that the interview and questionnaire surveys were anonymous, and no identifying name or addresses were requested. And, the researcher also established that the survey was confidential in regards to individual responses and the reporting of results; that is, no respondent would be identified by name. Participant identification was kept confidential to the researcher alone and only used in determining who had not responded for follow-up purposes. The researcher also informed participants about time of each interview and how long the questionnaire took to complete, which was appropriately 30 minutes. Once respondents agreed to participate, the interview and survey questions and information sheets were given to possible participants prior to the interview and survey to inform them of the importance, justification and research objectives in more detail. The covering letter also explained that the results of the research would be used in a dissertation as partial fulfilment for a Doctoral degree and other academic purposes such as articles and conference papers. In addition, the researcher also suggested a proposed time and a place for the interview and questionnaire, but invited respondents to change the time and place to ones more suited to them. Most interview and questionnaire surveys were conducted in a nearby study room or university café. Before the interview and survey, participants were asked to sign a "consent form' which indicated that they agreed to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the information sheet as well as to ensure that their details would be kept confidential. The researcher also signed the consent form before the interview and questionnaire surveys. The appendices I, II, III and IV provide the copies of the "Information sheet" and "Consent Form" in English and Chinese versions. The researcher also tried to avoid possible embarrassment or uncomfortable feeling that might arise, and no sensitive questions were incorporated into the questionnaire. The interview questions and questionnaires in the appendices V, VI and VII were submitted to the University Ethics Committee. Suggestions for improving the ethical standards of the survey from the committee were adopted. As a

result, ethics approvals for the interview and questionnaire survey collections were granted in June 2006 and March 2007, respectively.

4.7 Conclusions

In this chapter, research design, methodologies and methods have been discussed. A common motivation for combining qualitative and quantitative methods was to use the strengths of one method to enhance the performance of the other. It examined rationale for the combined methodological approach ultimately adopted. By triangulating of both broad numeric trends from quantitative research and the detail of qualitative research explored participant views, it helped better understanding of research problem results.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH STAGE

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the outcomes of the pilot study are reported, which was conducted approximately between June and July of 2006. The nature of this pilot study is qualitative, where the interview questions are based on the literature review of students and VFR related articles. The results are derived from a sample of 30 Chinese students at the University of Waikato. These outcomes are used later to support the analysis of the quantitative research. The structure of this chapter is as follows. Initially information about demographic characteristics of respondents is provided. Thereafter the results of thematic analysis are presented followed by the results derived from analyzing the data using CATPAC (CATegory PACkage) software. The discussion then follows and the relevant conclusions are drawn.

5.2 Qualitative Research Design

Personal interview method was used to collect primary data. In this research, interviews were used as an exploratory step before designing questionnaires. Themes from this qualitative data were then developed into an instrument so that theory, research questions and propositions can be tested that related to travel behaviors of Chinese university students and their associated VFRs in New Zealand.

5.2.1 The Making of Interview Research Questions

At the first step, the researcher threw as many ideas as she could into the questions based on the literature review, and asked of Chinese university students. The questions for this first step covered both the students and VFRs. Without thinking of relevance, grammatical errors, redundancy and leading questions the first step developed 35 questions. After the first step, the researcher grouped the questions into fewer categories. Interview questions were designed to measure the travel behaviours of Chinese university students and were grouped into three categories:

A. The motivations that stimulated Chinese university students to travel in New Zealand;
B. The travel activities the students undertook and
C. The travel styles that they adopted while travelling, including transportation modes, accommodations used, eating arrangement, information sources, destinations visited, mode of travel, type and size of travel party, length of stay, time of travel, trip arrangement and preferred tour plan.

The survey in relationship with VFRs was divided into four parts. Respondents were first asked if they had hosted friends or relatives during their stay in New Zealand, and if so, how many times had they acted as hosts. They were then asked a series of questions about the VFR visit, including the travel motivations of their VFRs, time of visit by VFRs, duration of the visit, trip arrangement, mode of travel, the type of transportation and accommodation used by visitors and activities undertaken, the travel activities of VFRs and the role of students play in hosting their VFRs. Overall, interview questions designed to measure the travel behaviours of the VFRs were grouped into four categories:

D. Travel motivations of their VFRs
E. Travel activities of VFRs
F. VFRs' travel styles in New Zealand
G. The role of students play in hosting their VFRs

In order not to overburden the interviewee, the researcher aims to keep the interview short. Thus, next step was to short-list the questions. The questions were prior tested based on their relationship to the research topic, its objectives and importance to the study, while other questions were dropped. Questions, which were redundant, too general and unclear were modified or dropped. The short-listed questions in this step lent some weight to the topic of this research study.

5.2.2 Pilot study

After the process of short-listing, the questions were tested on a few colleagues who had experience in hosting VFR during their study period in New Zealand. For the first interview of students, 28 questions were short-listed and tested on a few colleagues. From those 28 questions this research finally identified 22 questions as being suitable for the final interview. At this stage the researcher checked the interview questions for grammar, the length of the questions, the language used for clarity of questions, the flow of the questions, any repetition among the questions and clear instructions and statements given to the respondents. The interview questions were translated into Mandarin, and back translated to English to ensure that the sense of the questions was consistent. These 22 questions were further tested on 30 Chinese university students from the University of Waikato to ensure relevancy, accuracy and reliability of the interview questions. The respondents could understand almost all the questions except for a few words. They did not really understand the meaning of "VFRs" and the "obstacles" for their VFRs to visit New Zealand. However, when the researcher translated these concepts into the Chinese language they understood the questions better. As a result of the pilot test, wordings were amended. Most of the time, the interviews were conducted in the English language. However, the respondents were given a choice to answer the interview questions in English or Chinese. During the interview session, the respondents answered the interview questions bilingually.

5.2.3 Target Population

The target population for this research was all full-time students of the four universities in the North Island, New Zealand, which attempted to overcome one limitation in many previous studies that used a localized sample relying almost exclusively on respondents from one university. Both Chinese university students who are holding New Zealand Permanent Residency (PR) and non-PR were included in this research. Additionally, both students who have or have not hosted VFRs during their stay in New Zealand were included in the population. This is because the researcher believed these groups have differences in their behavior and travel

experience. This was thought interesting to investigate the differences and similarities between these groups of students from China. Moreover, the reason for not including the VFRs in the population was that by the time of conducting research, some of the students' VFRs had already gone back to their home countries. Also, the VFRs came from different provinces in China, meaning it would be time-consuming to search, contact and interview these VFRs. In one sense this study might be regarded as non-traditional in that the attitudes and behaviours of the visiting friends and relatives are not studied directly, but through the filter of the students own perceptions of those attitudes and behaviours. Two justifications for this are offered. First, there is the practical one of limited financial resources that did not make it possible to access the Chinese tourists directly in sufficient number while second, from a conceptual perspective, the focus of this study is based on the actual students studying in New Zealand universities and their role as catalysts for VFR visits. Given this, it is a legitimate question to ask how they view their VFR perceptions and behaviors. Owing to this perspective, the research undertaken used a non-traditional line of enquiry: rather than investigating the VFRs, the data was collected exclusively from their hosts, i.e. the Chinese students at four public universities in the North Island.

5.2.4 Sampling

Convenience Sampling

Convenience sampling was adopted to select the interviewees with restricted time and resources. The sample consisted of Chinese university students who were studying or had finished their studies. This allows the researcher to identify a pattern of completed tourism-related travel within New Zealand as well as visits by friends and relatives from the home country. In contrast, Field (1999), Ritchie & Priddle (2000) and Sung & Hsu (1996) provided an incomplete profile because they were based on samples of students who had not yet finished their overseas study. The respondents interviewed comprised undergraduate, postgraduate and foundation year students in a wide variety of subject areas. Also, in an effort to ensure the adequacy of the convenience sample, the respondents were selected on some basis that reflected heterogeneity in terms of

gender, age and degree of qualification. The researcher was standing at the outside of the library and selecting Chinese students as they walked by to participate in the interview. Chinese students who had hosted VFRs' visits before in New Zealand were invited to participate. A total of 30 Chinese students were interviewed in mid 2006. The choice of the number of respondents was based on Cohen, Manion & Morrison's (2000) suggestion, that is: "a sample size of thirty is held by many to be the minimum number of cases if researchers plan to use some form of statistical analysis on their data" (p.93). Less than 5% of Chinese students approached refused to participate in the interview.

Snowball Sampling

A snowball sampling technique was then used to recruit additional Chinese student participants. The approach allows the researcher to add more and more interviewees as the researcher progressed through the interview schedule—each interviewee lead the researcher to discover another person she should talk with. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), "in snowball sampling researchers identify a small number of individuals who have the characteristics in which they are interested. These people are then used as informants to identify, or put the researchers in touch with, others who qualify for inclusion and these, in turn, identify yet others…" (p.104). Because of unfamiliarity with Chinese students who had hosted VFRs visits before in New Zealand, the researcher had difficulty in immediately identifying Chinese student participants for the interviews. The researcher first approached some Chinese students, and then asked to be put in touch with other Chinese students. The other Chinese students were contacted by the researcher, in the first instance, via telephone or emails, and were provided with details of the project. The resultant chain created a sample based on their social relations. While such exercises can induce bias because the technique itself reduces the likelihood that the sample will represent a good cross section from the population, it can dramatically lower search costs. Again, in attempts to ensure the adequacy of the snow-ball sample, the respondents were selected on a basis that respects heterogeneity in terms of gender, age and qualification studied. All

respondents generated from the snowball sampling technique agreed to participate in the survey.

5.2.5 Limitations

There are a number of limitations associated with the interview method. First, convenience sampling allows the researcher to simply choose the sample from those to whom she has easy access. However, as it does not represent any group apart from itself, and it does not seek to generalize about the wider population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). In this study, the interviews were based on the local population. Interview data collected from only one university may not be representative of Chinese university students in other places of the New Zealand. It is recommended that future multi-university research with a larger sample size and a broader geographical base could help better define this market and divide the market into subsegments. Second, the snowball sampling technique had limitations in that respondents are likely to suggest other respondents they know or with whom they have dealings. This means that in many cases the selection may be biased towards those who share views similar to the original respondent's (Nash, 2006).

5.2.6 Interview Procedures

In mid 2006, the researcher conducted semi-structured individual face-to-face interviews over two weeks during the first semester on the campus of the University of Waikato. In the process of interviewing, the researcher strived to create relaxed, comfortable conversation with the interviewees, and encouraged the interviewees to tell their own stories or offer examples of their experiences. This generated new research questions and added information about the travel behaviours of Chinese university students and their VFRs, which helped to develop a questionnaire. During the interview, when a respondent made an especially pertinent point which the researcher wished to use as a quotation, the researcher asked for the respondents' permission to use the quotation and sent the quotation to respondents for checking. The respondents were able to make amendments if it was felt necessary. After the

interview, lollies were sent to each respondent as an expression of gratitude for the time given to help the researcher. Since English was the students' second language, the interviewer allowed the students to speak Chinese in order to enable them to fully and actively participate.

5.2.7 Semi-structured Interviewing

The interviews conducted for this research were semi-structured, guided by open-ended questions. Structured interviewing refers to a situation in which an interviewer asks each respondent a series of previously established questions with a limited set of response categories while unstructured interviewing often refers to an open-ended ethnographic interview (Fontana & Frey, 1993). Semi-structured interviewing stands between these two types of interview in which the interviewer directs the interaction and inquiry in a "somewhat" structured way. Semi-structured interviewing is generally regarded as an adequate tool to capture how a person thinks of a particular domain. It offers topics and questions to the interviewees that are carefully designed to elicit the interviewee's ideas and opinions on the topic of interest, as opposed to leading the interviewee toward preconceived choices. Additionally, the semi-structured interviews allow some comparable data to be collected, and provide the individual interviewee some freedom to expand on points as they chose and elaborate on their specialist interest. While using a set of established questions, there was a flexibility for variation whereby the response may be probed for them. The researcher controlled the pace of the interview, following interview questions in a standardized manner, albeit with an occasional use of supplementary questions to clarify points made by respondents.

5.2.8 Interview Material Recording

The interview conversations were tape-recorded. The researcher also used a small notebook to write down the respondents' answers to each interview question. Such note-taking in front of a respondent is also thought to reinforce a feeling on the point of the respondent that the answers they provide are important. It also provides an

"insurance" that not all data is lost should any recording prove to be faulty or indistinct (Ryan & Higgins, 2006). Detailed recording is a necessary component of interviews since it forms the basis for analysing the data.

After a talk on the aims of the study, Chinese students were taken to a nearby available study room, or university cafe to be individually interviewed on the campus. As noted, semi-structured, open-ended, in-depth questions were used to collect verbal data on their motivations and the reasons for their actions and perceptions and evaluation of those behaviours. Data collected through interviews was coded for later analysis based on different categories, and propositions generated from patterns of responses.

A number of authors who have written about interviews indicate that note-taking in interviews should be minimal in order not to interfere with the interview process (Young, 1939; Converse, 1987; Platt, 2002). Stake (1995) suggests that interviewers should take notes during interviews and not use a tape recorder. He argues for this case because the purpose of an interview is to elicit accounts and the researcher should be able to expand notes after the interview has been completed, while respondents should be relaxed in a respondent-friendly environment.

On the other hand, interviews are participant observation situations (Denzo, 1989), within which the researcher will also be undertaking observations. Moreover, to facilitate participant observation, a good tape recorder enables authentic recording of the social interaction (Patton, 2002). Silverman (1993) also noted that transcripts of audio-recording provide superior accounts of the natural interaction within an interview. Of course, tape recorders can break down and also not record and interviewers need to monitor the equipment without fuss so as not to interrupt the flow of the interview interaction. When transferring recorded interviews into written text, a 90-120 minute tape takes approximately 4-6 hours to transcribe (35 words per minute typing speed).

5.3 Actual Sample Description

The demographic characteristics of the sample are as follows. A total of 30 Chinese students from different departments were asked to take part. Of these, 28% of the respondents were married, and 48% indicated that they were New Zealand citizens or permanent residents. There were more females (56%) interviewed than males (44%), and they were aged between 20 and 35 years, with the mean age being 25.6 years old. The majority of respondents (52%) were bachelor students, 12% were postgraduate diploma students, master students accounted for 16% of the respondents, with the remainder (20%) being Ph.D. students. Of the total, 44% were second-year students at the university, nearly a quarter (24%) were third-year students, 16% were fourth-year students, 12% were first year students, with the rest (4%) being fifth-year students. The overwhelming majority of the respondents (76%) were supported by parents in China, or partly by parents and partly by part-time work in New Zealand. Over 56% of the respondents have received VFRs from China when they were interviewed, while the remaining 44% had not.

5.4 Catpac™ Method

The interview analysis was undertaken using the software package CATPAC™ (CATegory PACkage). The Catpac software is a self organizing neural network computer program for reading text files and producing a variety of outputs ranging from simple diagnostics (e.g. word and alphabetical frequencies) to a summary of the "main ideas" in a text. It identifies the most frequently occurring words in the text file and determines the patterns of similarity based on the way they are used in the text. The Catpac software uncovers patterns of word usage and produces such outputs as simple word counts, cluster analysis (with icicle plots), and interactive neural cluster analysis. A useful add-on program called Thought View can generate two and three-dimensional concept maps based on the results of the Cactpac software analyses. In comparison with traditional text analysis packages, the Catpac software does not require any pre-conceived categories and tests of inter-coder reliability, which saves time and costs in qualitative research (Woelfel, 1993). The first stage in such analysis

is undertaking a frequency count of the main words found in the text. The second stage of the analysis is to allocate to each word a specific location within the text, and to examine its spatial relationship with other words. The third stage of the analysis is to try to draw a perceptual map that begins to show the relationships in a diagrammatic manner. The software used permits various ways of examining the relationships and produces a three-dimensional map.

5.5 Data Entry and Editing

Because this research adopted the CATPAC™ software which only reads the text file as a method for analyzing the interview results, all the answers of interview questions were typed into a MS word file and saved as a ".txt" file. Then, some adjustments of data were made so as to enhance the efficiency of CATPAC analysis, i.e. interpret text in terms of key concepts and their relationships. Such adjustments include: (1) remove conjunctions, personal pronouns, prepositions, transitive verbs and other problematic words specified by the analyst, (2) standardize the singular and plural versions of words, and (3) combine similar terms into a word.

5.6 Thematic Analysis of Travel Behavior Questions

Of the twenty-two semi-structured questions developed in the previous chapter, the first half sought to describe the travel behaviors of Chinese university students and the purpose of the second half is to explore the travel behaviors of VFRs from China. By using CATPAC (CATegory PACkage) software to analyze the data, eleven predominant themes were identified in the first half of the interview transcripts, including: 1) travel motives, 2) recreational activities, 3) the mode of transportation used, 4) type of lodging used, 5) type of restaurants dined in, 6) destination choice, 7) best time of travel, 8) trip arrangement, 9) length of stay, 10) preferred tour plan and 11) information sources, while nine themes emerged in the second half of the interview transcripts, namely: 1) travel motives, 2) time of visit by VFRs, 3) VFRs' travel destinations, 4) travel activities of VFRs, 5) mode of travel when traveling, 6)

making arrangement for VFRs, 7) accommodation choices, 8) transportation choice and 9) influence of Chinese university students' travel experience on VFRs.

Travel Motives of Chinese University Students

Chinese university students were asked why they travelled in New Zealand during their courses of study. The interview transcripts revealed that many respondents were primarily motivated by twelve motivational categories, which were further classified as nine push factors: "get away", "explore and evaluate of self", "relax", "gain prestige", "enhance kinship relationship", "facilitate social interaction", "take a challenge", "learn culture", and "self-development", and four pull factors: "safety", "cleanliness", "the ease of getting around New Zealand" and "natural environment". The result can be used to design Likert Scale questions for a survey. A factor analysis would confirm a number of these dimensions. Additionally, it was also found that respondents often travelled for a mixture of push and pull motives. In more detail, the transcripts reveal the use of the following phrases:

(a) Push factors:

- Get away

"... To change my surroundings for the sake of change"
"... To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life"
"... A natural environment to help me forget the pressures and constraints of everyday life"
"... To feel refreshed and recharged"

- Explore and evaluate of self,

"... To better understand myself"

- Relax:

"... To mentally relax"
"... To physically relax"
"... For the sun and beaches"
"... To be relaxed and calm"
"... The relaxing mood of New Zealand attracted me to travel"

- Prestige

"... To go to places where my friends have not been"

- Enhance kinship relationships

"... To travel with existing friends/relatives who are staying in NZ"
"... To travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China"
"... To visit friends and relatives in New Zealand"
"... To travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China"

- Facilitate new social interaction

"... To be with others and make new friends"
"... across the wide spectrum of leisure activities, I can find friends"

- Challenge

"... To challenge my abilities"
"... To satisfy a sense of adventure"

- Learn/Experience culture, Maori and Western life

"... To learn about New Zealand's history and culture"
"... To experience something about Maori"
"... To experience western life"

- Discovery

"... To discover new places and things"
"... To explore new ideas"
"... To visit somewhere I had read about"

- Distance from crowds

"... To be in a calm atmosphere"

- Self-development

"... To look at career opportunities"
"... To look at other universities and courses"

- Exercise motivation:

"... To take some exercises"

(b) Pull factors:

- Safety

"... To holiday somewhere is safe"

- Cleanliness

"*... To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted*"

- VFR destinations

"... to visit friends and relatives in New Zealand".

- Natural environment

"... Beaches, water/marine-based resources, mountains and beautiful scenery, historic attracted me to travel in New Zealand".

(c) Combined motives:

"... I took vacations for fun and entertainment and to get away from the stress of work and the tedium of daily life. The comfort beach resorts, mountains and beautiful scenery attracted me so much to spend my leisure time there".

Figure 5.1 Travel motives of Chinese university students

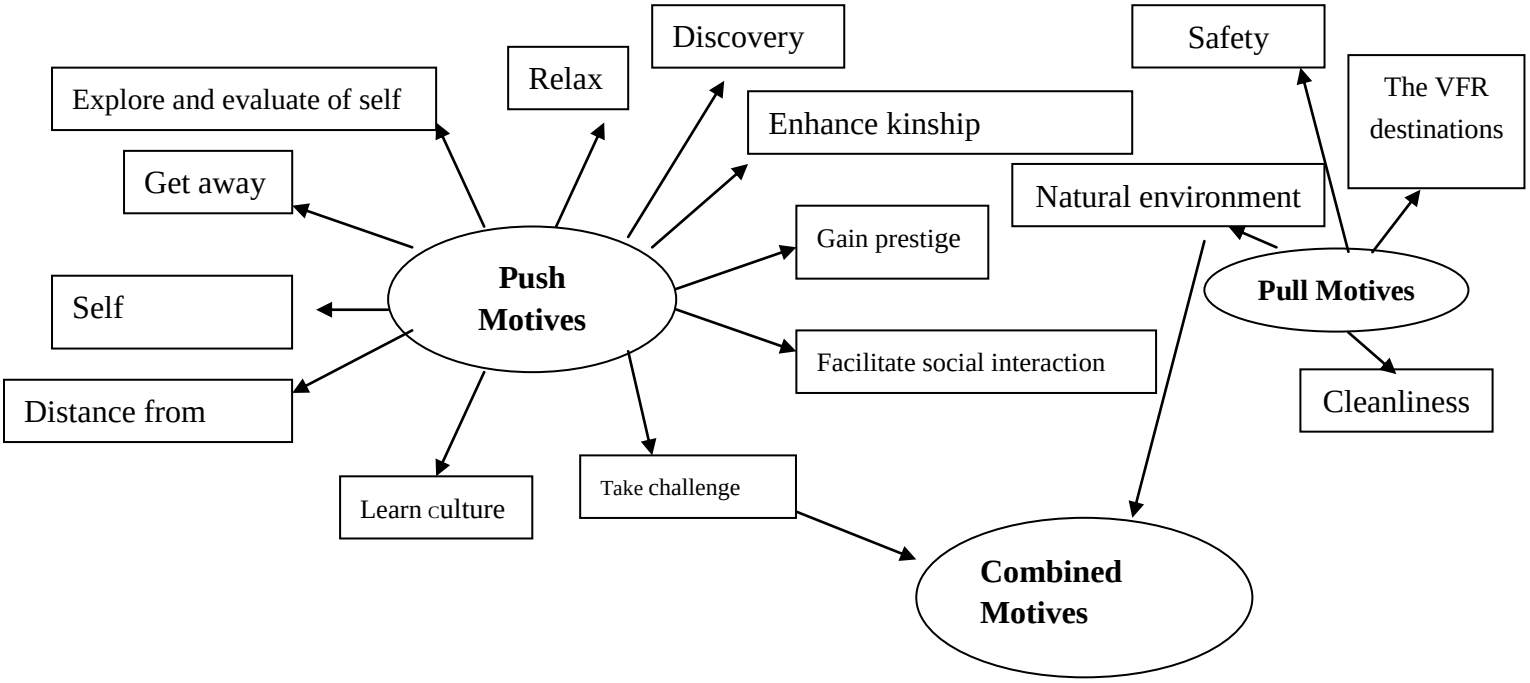


Figure 5.1 illustrated the themes, showing a clear distinction between the "pull" and "push" motives and the generally isolated nature of the two groups. The location of the labeled motives represents the spaces occupied in the perceptual maps generated by the software, but here produced in this manner for the purpose of clarity. So weak links exist, for example, between "getting away", "exploring self", "self development" and "distance from the crowds". The only linkage provided between the two main categories of motives is that between "accepting a challenge" and "New Zealand's natural environment", which combination is consistent with stereotypical images of New Zealand as portrayed on the web sites of the National Tourism Organization (NTO)'s 100% Pure campaign and the "cool zone" pages.

Recreational Activities

A wide variety of recreational activities were used to examine Chinese university students' preferences for holiday activities during travel. The interview transcript results demonstrated that features attractive to Chinese university students can be

classified into three main categories: non adventure, soft adventure and active adventure activities. Soft adventure activities are characterized by low activity levels that require only minimal fitness levels, whereas active adventure activities generally require moderate to excellent fitness levels, and may include strenuous and rigorous activities (Flucker and Turner, 2000, Hendrix, 1999). The respondents also mentioned the following:

- Non adventure activities:

Non adventurous participate in sightseeing, touring a city, visiting a museum and cultural activities.

"... I enjoy the scenery and take photographs"

"... The pure scenery of New Zealand was interesting enough"

"... Visiting historical sites, museums and monuments"

"... Visiting national park, going sightseeing, going to beaches"

"*... Touring cities"*

"*... Experience the Maori Hangi and concert was quite fascinating for me, the Maori culture differentiates New Zealand from other western countries".*

"... Go to farm to see lots of sheep on farms and the sheep shearing show was part of experiencing the culture of New Zealand".

- Soft adventure activities:

There is another segment which is soft adventure. Soft adventure activities focus on providing a unique outdoor experience or "adventure". It involves only a minor element of risk, little physical exertion, and limited skills. It is often educational and involves discovery, the environment, heritage and indigenous culture. The most popular soft adventure activities are camping, canoeing, cycling, hiking, kayaking, elementary rock climbing and skiing.

"... camping, hiking and skiing are attractive activities to me".

- Active adventure activities:

Hard adventure activities combine a unique experience in an outdoor setting with excitement and a degree of risk. It frequently demands physical exertion as well as a level of skill in order to participate. Whitewater rafting, mountain biking, sky diving, snow skiing, horseback riding, tramping, camping, canoeing, scuba diving are most popular active adventure activities.

"... I enjoy white-water rafting and mountain biking"

"... a guided horseback ride was my favorite travel activities"

"... Adventure activities such as bungee jumping attracted me to visit New Zealand".

Figure 5.2 Activities

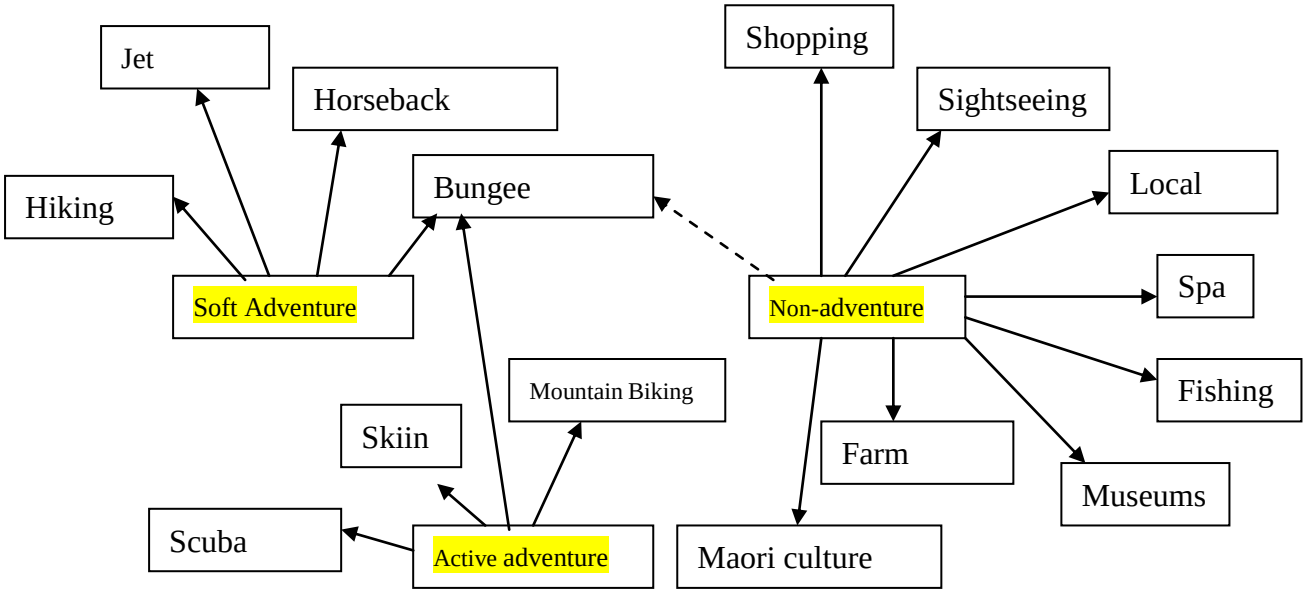


Figure 5.2 again is a representation of perceptual maps generated by the software that clarifies the text on those maps. As can be seen there is some overlap between the adventure categories—bungee jumping requires little exertion but is a mental challenge, while watching others bungee jump is a popular way of spending some time. Results from an interview can be used to inform questions about travel-related activities for a survey.

Travel Behavior

Once the decision to take a leisure trip is made, there are other simple decisions involved, such as where to go (i.e. destination choice), how to get there (i.e. transportation), where to stay (i.e. accommodation) and type of restaurant for meals (i.e. catering). The interview transcript results identified nine decision-making factors, including the mode of transportation used, type of lodging used, type of restaurants dined in, destination choice, best time of travel, trip arrangement, length of stay, preferred tour plan and the main information sources used. Survey respondents were asked to indicate that all decision-making was influenced by a variety of factors.

Factors influence the choices of transportation

The interview transcript results suggested that the most frequently used mode of transportation by Chinese university students was by automobile i.e. private vehicles, flights, rental cars and buses. Results help to design questions for a survey. Driving personal vehicles was the predominant mode of travel, however, the car-park charge was one major reason why some Auckland-based students did not travel by personal vehicles. In addition, the results revealed that the mode choice changes with trip distance. Generally, the use of public transportation increases with trip distance. For long distance travel, coach tours and domestic flights were more popular amongst students who travelled with a tour group, whilst for independent travel students, domestic flights were used to initially access a long distance destination and on arrival a mix of modes such as rental cars, campervans and scheduled public transport were more popular. By contrast, at shorter distances, most trips were by personal vehicles. Travel cost and travel time were other important factors in the students' choice of travel mode. Generally, automobile (e.g. cars, coaches and buses) is relatively affordable, whereas non-automobile travel options are often more inconvenient or expensive. According to the interview transcripts, Kiwi Experience and the Magic Bus had been used mainly by more budget and longer term visitors. To save travel time, a majority of the students used domestic flights to travel between the two islands.

Moreover, the travel companion involved was another determinant of travel mode choice. In terms of independent travel, the students always used scheduled buses such as Intercity/Newmans/Naked bus, because they did not have the confidence to travel alone in unfamiliar destinations. It is also a popular choice for a small number of students to make up a group travelling for leisure purposes. Those who travelled with friends often used private vehicles, otherwise rental cars or vans were also fairly popular. Students also cited that transportation choice also depended on ease of getting around the destination. In other words, the route coverage, access to stops, ease of finding parking spaces, frequency of transportation service and reliability of transport service were often cited as determining public transport choices. Moreover, with regard to long distance trips, the selection of transport is more likely to be influenced by an assessment of the comfort and convenience of public transport compared with other possible modes (Kittleson and Associated et al., 1999). Concerning the comfort and convenience of transport, carrying a heavy load, convenient access to bus stops, crowding on public transport vehicles, cleanliness of vehicles and shelters and the number of transfers required were the dominant factors in determining public transport.

> *"... it depends... for short distance travel, I usually chose private vehicle or taking intercity bus because they were convenient. While for long distance travel, I used domestic flight and scheduled public transport travelling to South Island to save time".*
> *"... it depends... when I travelled with my friends together, we were more likely to use our own cars or rent cars/vans, whilst when I travelled alone, I preferred to use coaches, because it saved the petrol fee".*
> *"... it depends on the availability of parking space, also the parking permit fee was another major reason why I did not travel by my own car".*
> *"... I usually chose a package tour when travelling in New Zealand, so coach tours and domestic flight were the popular transport modes to me".*
> *"... the condition of local transport system influences my decision. I did not like to choose local buses if they kept me waiting for a long time with a heavy load of luggage".*

Figure 5.3 Mode of Transportation

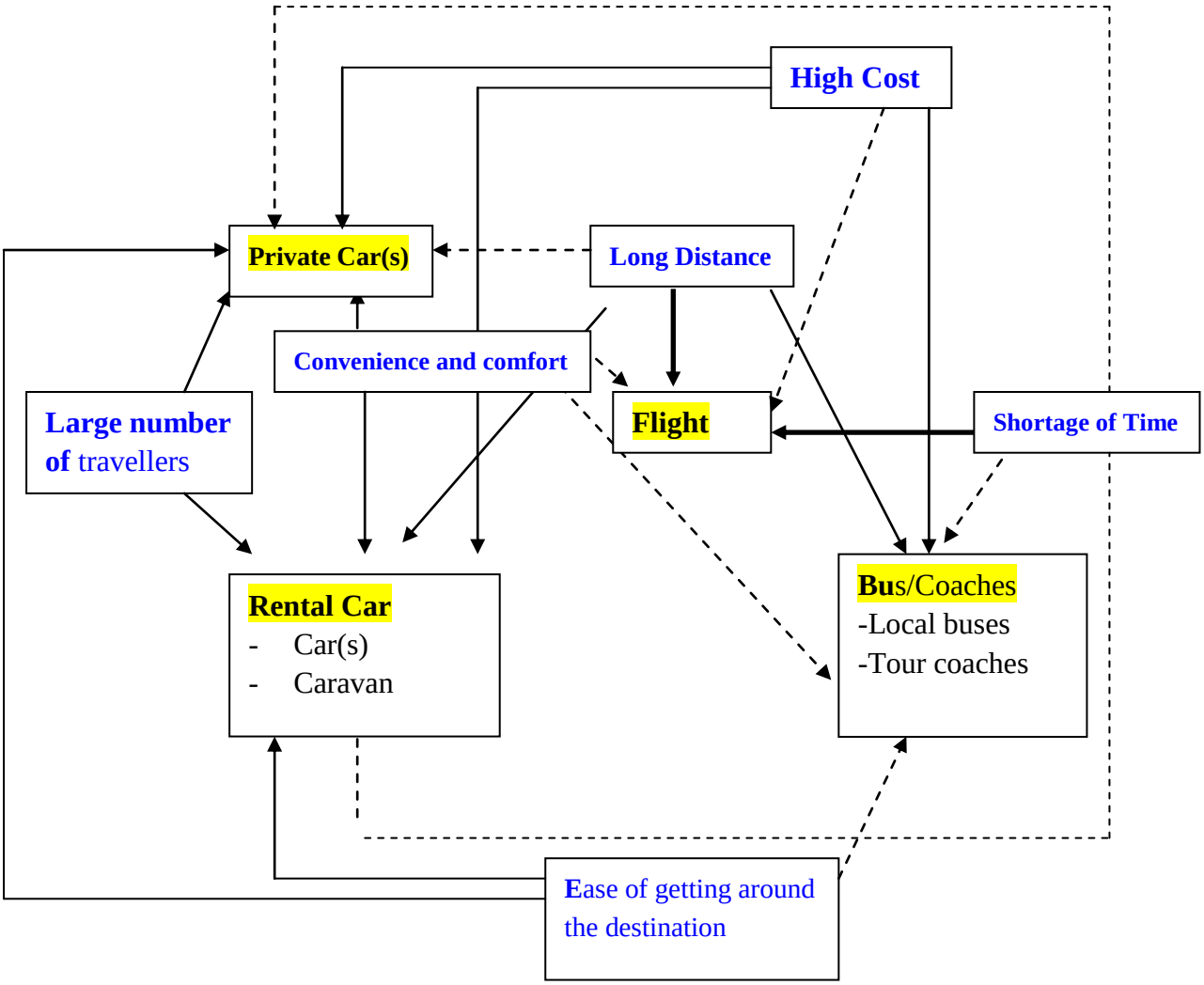


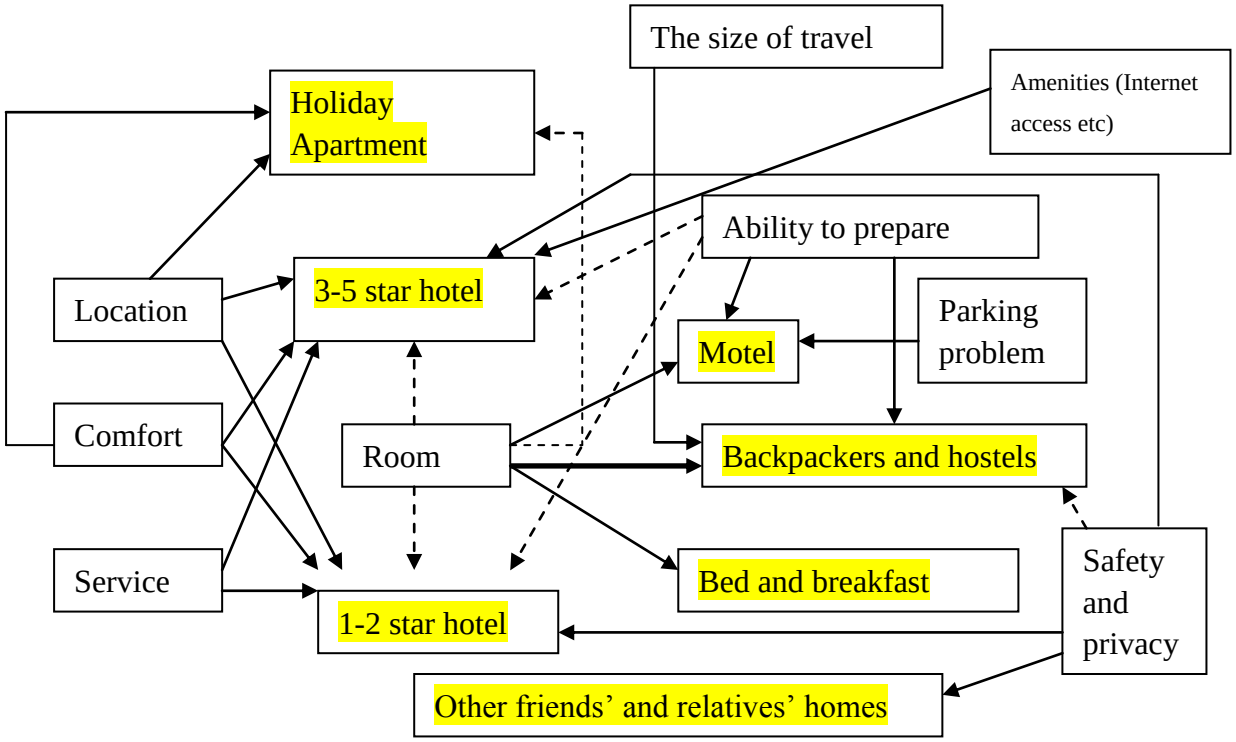
Figure 5.3 again represents a diagrammatic summary of the responses and relationships between the variables. Shortage of time was related to the use of flights, as was a long distance. Convenience and comfort would help dictate the choice of a car, one's own, or a rental car. The ease of getting around a destination aided the use of cars, but as seen in the above text, might deter the use of a bus if that ease of access did not exist, but would support the use of a bus if routes and stops were within easy access of the required destinations.

Factors influence the choices of accommodations

The majority of the students stayed with friends and relatives during their travel in New Zealand. The other types of accommodation included hotels, motels, backpackers, hostels, bed and breakfast. Interview results are used to inform the design of questions for a survey. When choosing to lodge in paid accommodation such as hotels, motels, backpackers, hostels and bed and breakfast, the students were most often influenced by the key factors of travel party size, physical location, comfort and amenities. Each of these dominant factors has a number of more specific dimensions to them. For example, students placed high importance on the size of the travel party. When there was a group of students travelling together, they usually shared rooms with friends to reduce costs while travelling. In addition, most students said location influences the selection of the specific type of accommodation. A majority also indicated comfort influences the choice of a hotel/motel/resort brand. Of slightly lesser importance is cost of the room and privacy. Yet when room rate is important, it is more likely that other factors become important when choosing paid accommodation, such as an ability to prepare meals and internet access. Every motel unit in New Zealand comes with a kitchen, therefore students cooked for themselves. The interview transcript results also showed that the students who joined in tour groups normally stayed in hotels while travelling in New Zealand, whilst the independent travel students stayed in motels, backpackers and hostels.

> "*… I preferred backpackers when I travelled with friends independently because the price is cheap"*.
> *"… Motels. Hotels were too expensive for me to stay in. Motels were more convenient and safe than backpackers, because we shared one room with each other that we were familiar, and we had our own shower and toilet in the room".*
> *"… Lots of motels have cooking facilities, so motels were my preference,*
> *"… It depends… when I travelled with a group of other friends, I shared rooms with them to reduce costs while travelling. When I travelled alone, I preferred to choose high quality of accommodation, hotels or motels, they were comfortable, and to me travelling was about relax physically".*
> *"… Friends' homes, because it was cheap. I always travelled to the destinations that my friends were staying in. if there was no friend at the destination, I would take day trip in the destination, because I wanted to save accommodation costs".*

Figure 5.4 Accommodation Choice



All of these relationships are summarized in Figure 5.4 as before. It will be noted that safety and privacy are issues when considering lower priced accommodation, but generally cease to be a concern when considering more expensive options.

Factors influence the choices of restaurants

According to the interview transcript, the students frequently preferred to eat at fast-food/convenience restaurants for the purposes of convenience and low costs. Interview results are used to inform the design of questions for a survey. In addition, the results indicated that students made their restaurant choices mainly on the basis of: location, cleanliness, ambience, type of food, quality of food and waiting time.

> *"... It depends on the availability of the Chinese restaurants in the destination. The Chinese restaurants are my prior choice, because it is much more delicious and nutritious. Instead of fastness and convenience, Chinese dishes emphasize taste, aroma and color. I liked eating as an enjoyment".*

"... Fast food... Because it provides fast and quick services. The food is usually ready before the customer ever orders it. So, from entering the restaurant until I get the food, it maybe only taken a few minutes. It is the very help of time-saving".
"... Western restaurants... because of its attractive décor, different style of traditional food that I have not eaten at home before".
"... Other Asian restaurants because of its similar cuisine habit as Chinese".
"... It depends on the cost of the cuisine and the quality of the food".

Figure 5.5 Restaurant Choice

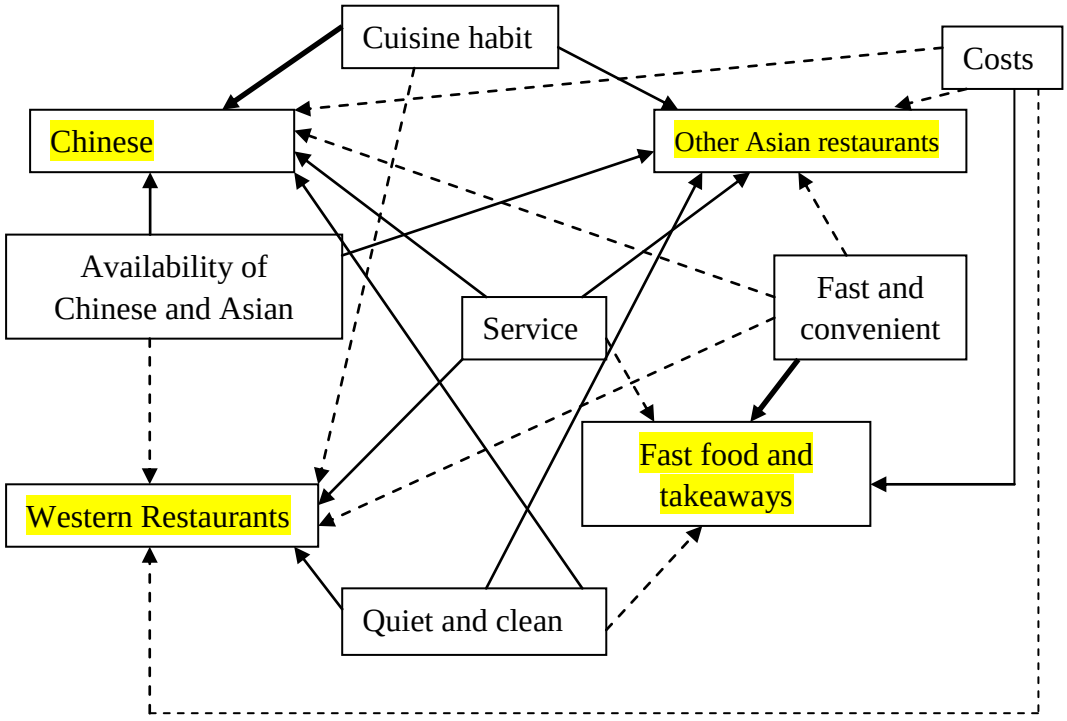


Figure 5.5 again represents the text, with the main types of restaurants being highlighted and the reasons for their choice being linked to them.

Factors influence destination choice

Respondents place a great deal of importance on the cost of the trip, the scenery at the destination, safety, weather, availability of attractive activities in destinations, and the availability of travel time. Destinations looking to attract Chinese university students would obviously be wise to emphasize these attributes in their marketing strategies. Price is an important element when choosing destinations. For this sample their limited ability to pay causes Chinese students to give their priority to the North Island

locations. Destinations for travelling within New Zealand can be divided into two parts: North Island and South Island. Chinese university students in the North Island are less content to visit North Island rather than South Island, but travel within that region just because it costs them less. Chinese students will first choose destinations close to home and then gradually choose those further away. Destinations with beautiful landscapes attract them more. In addition, safety of destination and ease of getting to the destination play a fairly important role in influencing destination choice for Chinese university students. The weather is also a vital decision variable used by students to select destinations. Tourism is largely dependent on weather. Tourists are sensitive to weather, which will affect the relative attractiveness of destinations. Generally, a destination with warm temperature is a significant motivator for tourists' choices of destination. Destinations are chosen in spite of the likely bad weather. Students prefer travelling during sunny days. The warm weather season begins in late November and early December in New Zealand. Moreover, a tourist's choice of destination will be based on what they expect to see and do at the chosen destination. Furthermore, many students mentioned that they chose destinations because family and friends had been there many times and they recommended the destination to them.

"... I liked to travel somewhere is not too hot or cold".
"... I usually travelled in North Island, because it was cheaper than South Island".
"... North Island... because it was convenient, easy to go. When I chose to travel to South Island, I had to wait for the vacation after every semester, so that I could have enough time relaxed there, I did not want to be too rush".
"... North Island... South Island took me a longer time to travel, I preferred to travel during two to three days, otherwise, I would feel tired".
"... Depends on the activities that the destination offered. I liked to travel to different places, explored something new".
"... Depends on how much time I had to spend on holiday. Usually during the semester middle break I would travel somewhere near my cities, whilst during longer breaks, such as summer holiday, I would travel to south island".
"... North island... because we were more familiar with north island destinations as we have been there many times before, which provided us a feeling of safe".
"... My choices were influenced by my friends. Because they had been lived in New Zealand for a long time, they recommended some places to me to visit, for example, Rotorua, Wellington and South Island".

"… South island, because it is more beautiful and classical than North Island".

Figure 5.6 Key Factors in Choosing Destinations

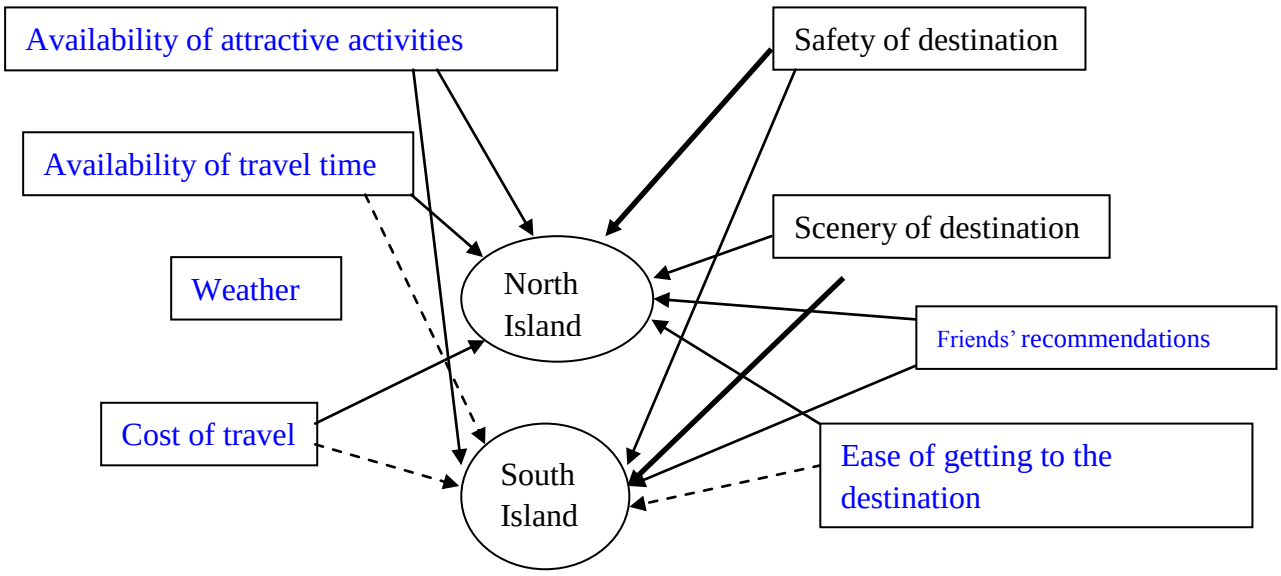


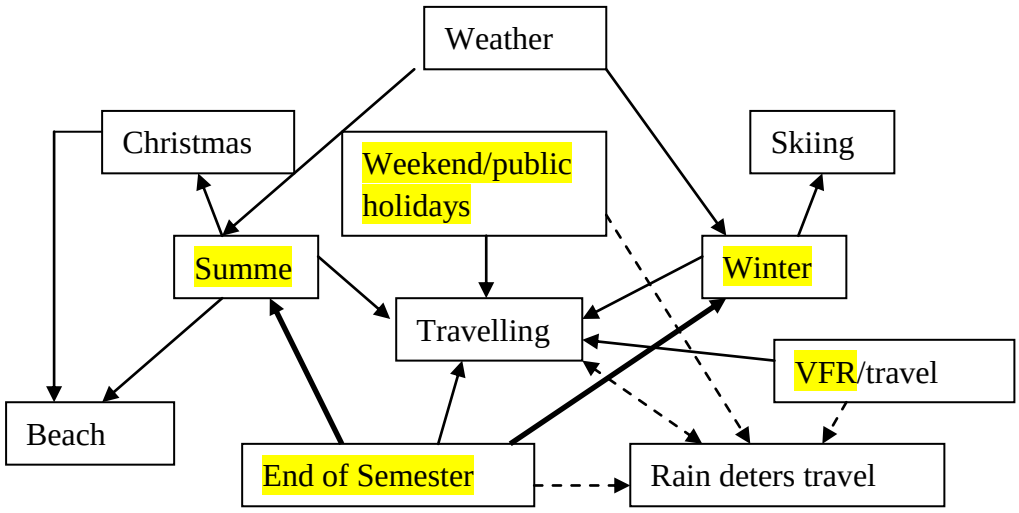
Figure 5.6 described the main relationships. The strength of the relationship is indicated by the "darkness" and width of the connecting lines, wherein the concerns of safety and scenery emerge, and the role of the South Island as a scenic, but for this sample, less accessible location is clearly illustrated.

Best time of travel

The best time for students to travel is during the semester break during the spring and summer vacations, followed by the semester break in July between semester 1 and 2 (the southern winter). Chinese university students seem to have more opportunity to travel alone or together during semester break, because they have even more free time to travel and they do not have homes close by to visit. Semester mid-term break is also perceived as a good time to take a holiday. There is a great desire that students go to beaches during the weekend/public holidays. Students also choose to travel when they receive friends and relatives. Interview results help select questions that are relevant for a survey.

"... Semester break is the best time for travel, the end of semester B. it's spring. And also semester mid-term break in April, because the weather is good".
"... I took holidays at the end of each semester A and B. In winter, I went skiing or spa, while in summer, I went to beaches".
"... Christmas day to February, because my relatives and friends also got holiday at that time".
"... around summer time... it has suitable temperature for those water activities. I actually do not want to move when it is a cool day".
"... summer time, because in winter it is raining all the time, cold and wet everywhere. In the last year, July and August were the raining seasons in the South Island. The roads to the destinations were closed. We could not access to the destinations that we wanted to go at that time. In summer, I can go anywhere to enjoy the sunshine".
"... public holidays in New Zealand, because my friends and I could travel together during that time".
"... the golden weeks in China, because my family and friends had holidays at that time".

Figure 5.7 Best time of travel



Footnote: Chinese VFR winter time = New Zealand summer time

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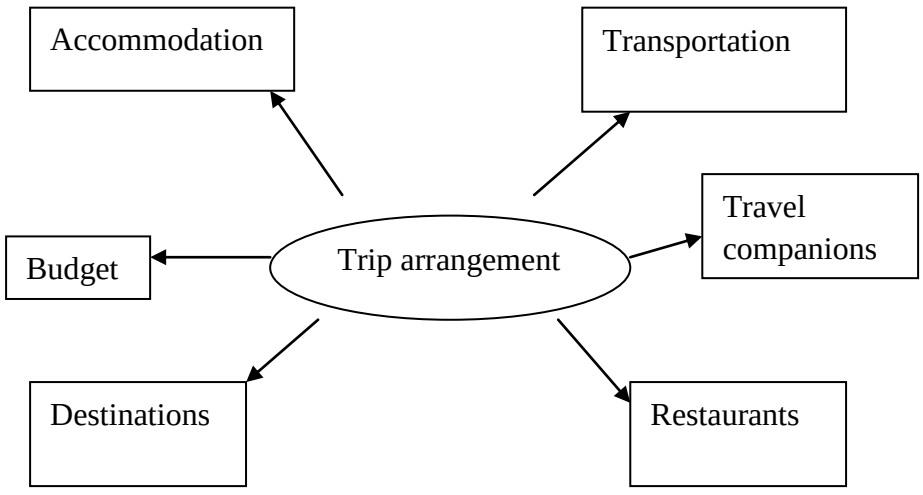
Trip arrangement

A majority of respondents mentioned that whatever their style of travel and their choice of destination, investing time in pre-trip planning will enable them to get the

most out of their trips. Students usually decided how much they can afford on their vacation at the beginning. Booking far in advance or purchasing last-minute sell-offs can gain big discounts. Apart from the cheaper travel, many students said that they need to check availability of accommodation (i.e. hotels or other options) for stay, and decide which type of accommodation they prefer while they are away from home. They selected the accommodation based on whether they are looking for luxurious accommodation with lots of pampering, or whether they are prepared to stay in more modest places and spend the rest of the available funds on sightseeing. A few students also mentioned that they need to discuss with all friends and family members who are joining them in the trip and get their idea for the destination. In addition, they also need to choose a destination. After all, there are many exciting destinations to choose from and it may be that the students visit a particular area only once. Students then need to choose transport mode, e.g. flying to the destinations or driving to the destination. As a result, the majority of students adhered to a view that travel arrangements should be made as early as possible. The interview transcript results indicated that few students booked any restaurant in advance of their departure.

Figure 5.8 Travel arrangement



Length of stay

Length of stay is the next decision that students need to make when they plan a holiday. Economic variables, i.e. budget, influence the length of stay. The more money the students have the more possible it is for them to stay longer at a destination. In addition, distance between origin and destination also influences the duration of stay. Silberman (1985) suggests that as distance increases length of stay will increase. Greater distances are associated with longer stays. Available days of holiday determine the length of stay at a destination. The number of days available to the students limits the capacity of individuals to lengthen their holidays. Mak & Moncur (1979) show that available holiday period is positively associated with the length of stay. Therefore, larger number of days available for holidays increases the duration of the stay. Students who choose a destination for its climate have a greater propensity to stay there longer, as they can obtain greater pleasure. Climate motivation is associated with longer stays.

> *"... normally day trips, because I liked to save accommodation costs".*
> *"... I preferred day trips. I did not have too much time to travel, because I was a student. In addition, it was cheaper to have day trips than overnight trips".*
> *"... I stayed 10 days in the South Island".*
> *"... It really depends on where I wanted to travel. For short distance travel, I did not really like to stay overnight. For long distance travel, I stayed in South Island for 10 days".*
> *"... Three to four days in the North Island during summer times to enjoy the beach activities. South Island needs more time, about 7-10 days".*

Figure 5.9 Length of Stay at travel destinations

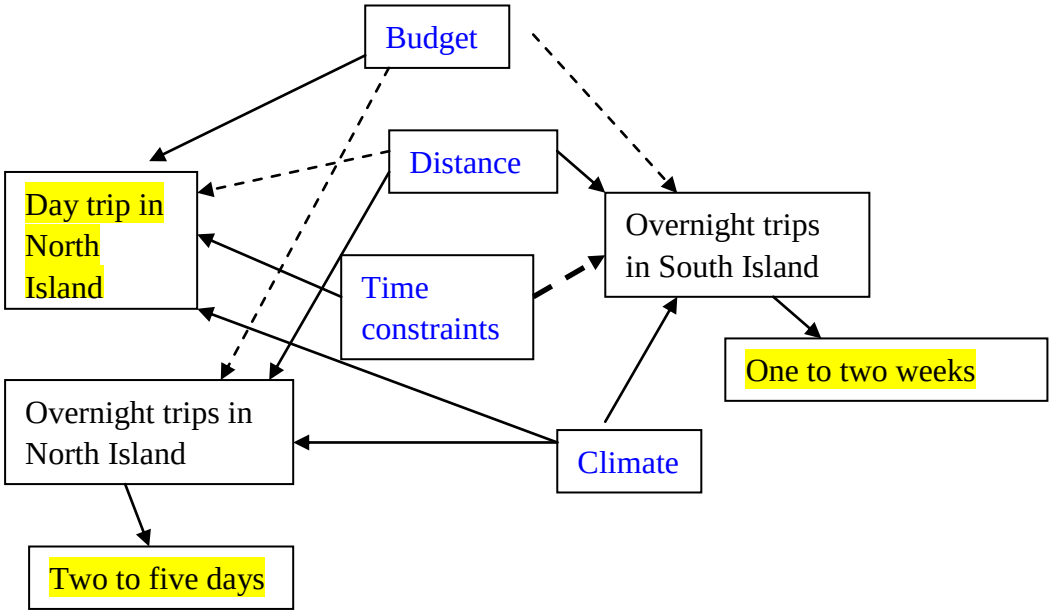


Figure 5.9 brings these factors together, a CATPAC analysis clearly showed that trips to the South Island tended to be of longer durations, confirming the earlier comments summarized in figure 5.6.

Preferred tour plan

The students were also asked about which style of travel best suited them. The students who were less experienced, or travelling for the first-time to a particular destination, commented that they felt more secure participating in a package tour, in which the travel arrangements and accommodations were made in advance for them by the tour operators. However, as the students travelled more, they became more sophisticated in their demands, and gained the confidence to travel independently. Therefore, the students' preferred travel mode is related to whether the trip is a first time or a return visit. Apart from this, a number of the students travelled with a package tour because they were too busy to arrange a trip by themselves. The students also enjoyed package tours because it provides companionship throughout the journey. On the one hand, the students can make some lasting friendships this way. On the other hand, group travel provides a sense of security and having a tour guide adds to this 'safe' feeling. In addition, "tour economies" was also the most frequently cited

reason for purchasing a package tour. The same itinerary offered as a package is often cheaper due to tour operators' bargaining power that enables them to offer heavily discounted rates. Moreover, in terms of other benefits gained by choosing a package tour, the students said that they received more information about history and visited more popular places with a tour group. As a contrast, the interview transcripts showed that students also travelled independently or with friends. When there was a large size travelling party, the students felt safe to choose independent travel. In addition, the students would much prefer to travel with people from the same country of origin, and so give up the package tour because the tour group contains people of different ages and interests. Moreover, the importance of freedom often overrides other factors, resulting in more of a preference for independent travel. By choosing independent travel, the students enjoyed a more independent and self-sufficient approach to travel as they would be in control of their travel schedule and travel experience. They enjoyed stopping anywhere they want by driving themselves and making their own decisions about what to eat, where to stay and when to get from one place to another.

> *"... I have joined a tour group because it is my first trip in New Zealand...if I was to visit again in the future, I might consider travelling independently because of being more familiar with the country".*
> *"... My friends and I were too busy to spend time on arranging a trip by ourselves, so we chose package tour, it was convenient. By letting professionals to make the travel decisions for us, we were worry-free".*
> *"... I preferred to travel independently with my friends, because we had more freedom and flexibility in making our own decisions".*
> *"... I chose a package tour because it was more cost effective than independent travel, I was paying wholesaler rather than retail prices".*
> *"... I did not like to travel independently because it was more challenged... visited fewer places and did not always know the best places to visit".*
> *"... I would prefer to choose a package tour if the group contains people of similar age and interest".*
> *"... Rushed, scheduled timing and less choice were main reasons why I had chosen to travel independently. By travelling independently, I could control the speed that I travelled, not too rush. When I found somewhere was quite good, I could stay longer. The package tour has fixed the schedule. Sometimes the schedule cannot definitely fit our personal time, and some places in the package we might not want to go, we want to choose other places instead, but the package does not have that offer, because not so many people choose".*

"... Independent travel was always my first choice. It had more freedom, I could do anything I want, stop anywhere I liked.
"... It depends... When I travelled alone, it cost me a bit more, especially accommodation and flights, so I chose the package tour. However, when I travelled with lots of friends, we could save that, so we chose independent travel. We felt more flexible to travel by ourselves".

Figure 5.10 Preferred tour plan

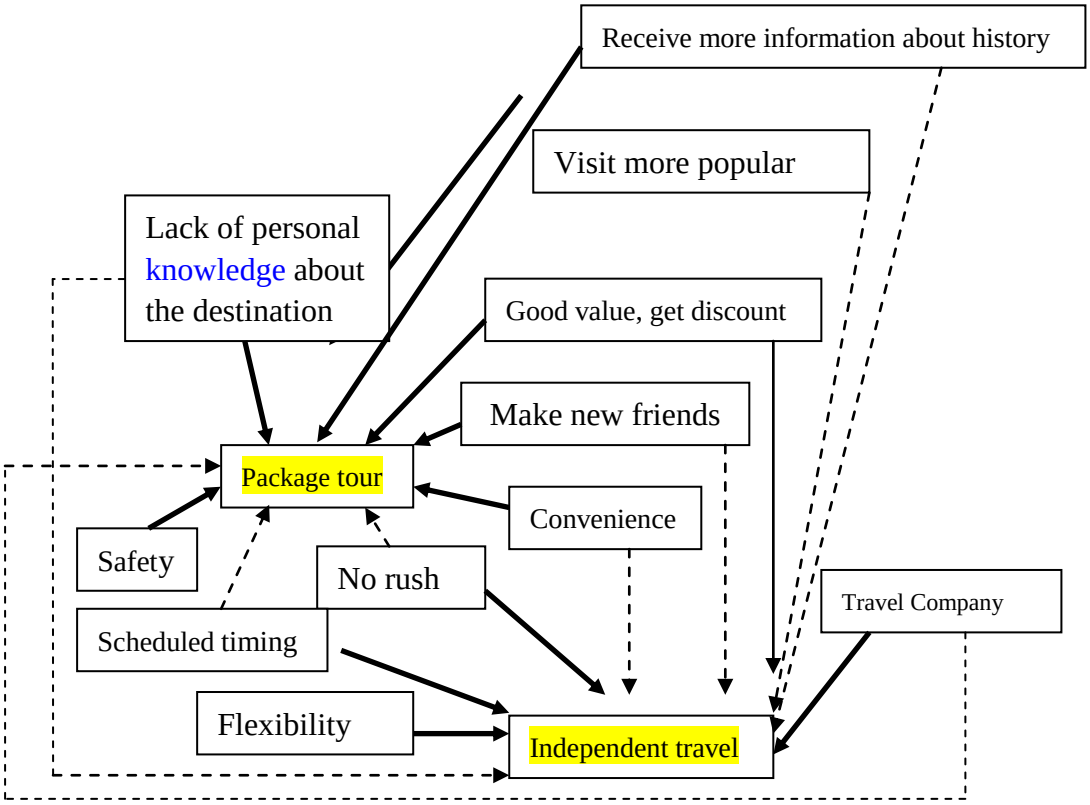


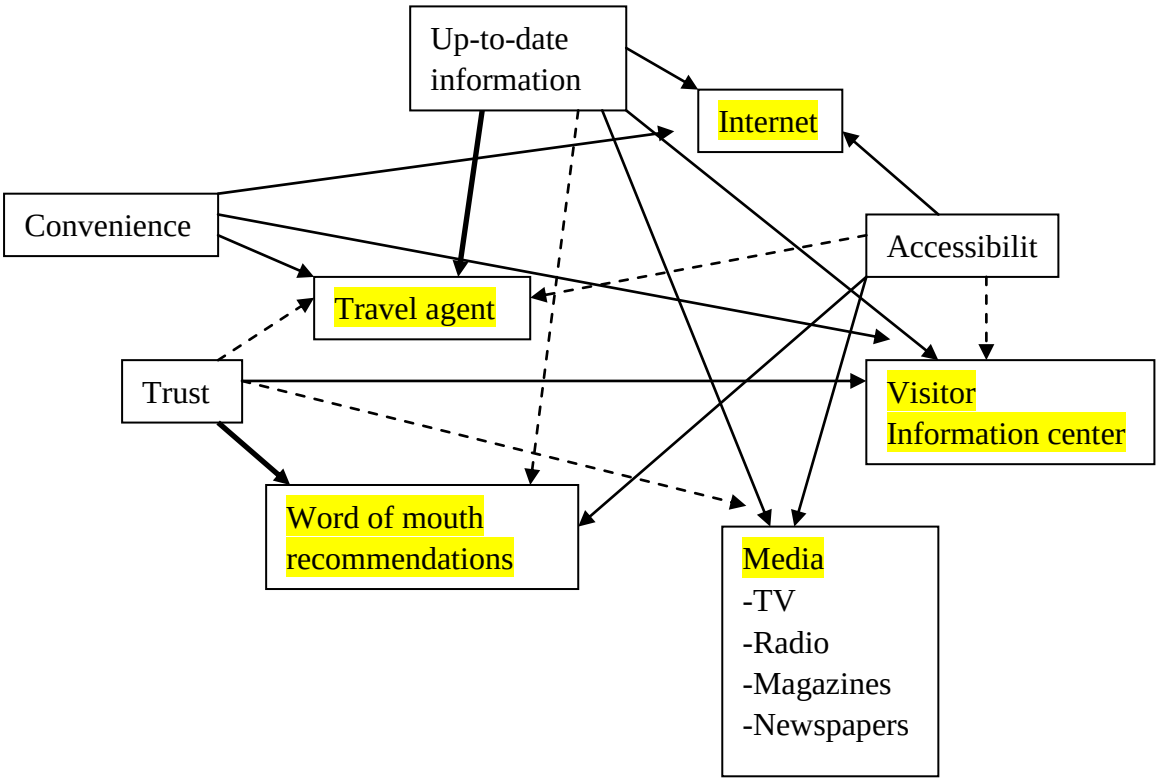
Figure 5.10 captures this dichotomy between the convenience, flexibility and freedom of independent travel against the lower cost, possibility of learning more, feeling safe, but perhaps feeling rushed with the package tour. Friendship groups and the past travel experience of these friends is implied here as a possible determinant of actual travel patterns. Interview results are used to inform the design of questions for a survey.

Information source

The main information sources used by students in planning the trip were the Internet, travel agents, visitor information center, media and word of mouth recommendations. With regard to sources of information that Chinese university students use to obtain travel information, "friends/family", "travel brochures/magazines", "the Internet", "travel agent", "travel guidebooks", "TV/Radio" were frequent channels. Students travelling in New Zealand mainly rely on the help of friends and relatives. The advice provided by a travel consultant in travel agencies is also very important. Visitor information centers were also frequently used in planning the trip. There is a network of more than 100 visitor information centers to help tourists along the way in New Zealand. Interview results are used to inform the design of questions for a survey.

> *"... I relied on the help of friends and relative, because they have already visited New Zealand. I can see various photos taken while they were on holiday as well as hear some general comments. They told me not only positive experience but also bad experience if there were any".*
>
> *"... TV shows showed me the beauty and the culture of New Zealand".*
>
> *"... Travel brochures/magazines were very useful sources to me. I have received most of pictorial images of New Zealand from these printed materials".*
>
> *"... I always browse on the web for general travel information about New Zealand, it provides more choices, it is convenient and the information received via the Internet was realistic. It is an amazing tool".*
>
> *"... with the help of travel agencies... I collected information from travel agencies' promotions".*
>
> *"... I always use the Internet to obtain travel information on New Zealand, and sometimes use the media"*
>
> *"... I obtained travel information from Magazines"*
>
> *"... I collected information on the Internet"*
>
> *"... Through the media"*
>
> *"... promotion of the travel agency is very helpful in choosing holiday destinations"*

Figure 5.11 Source of Information



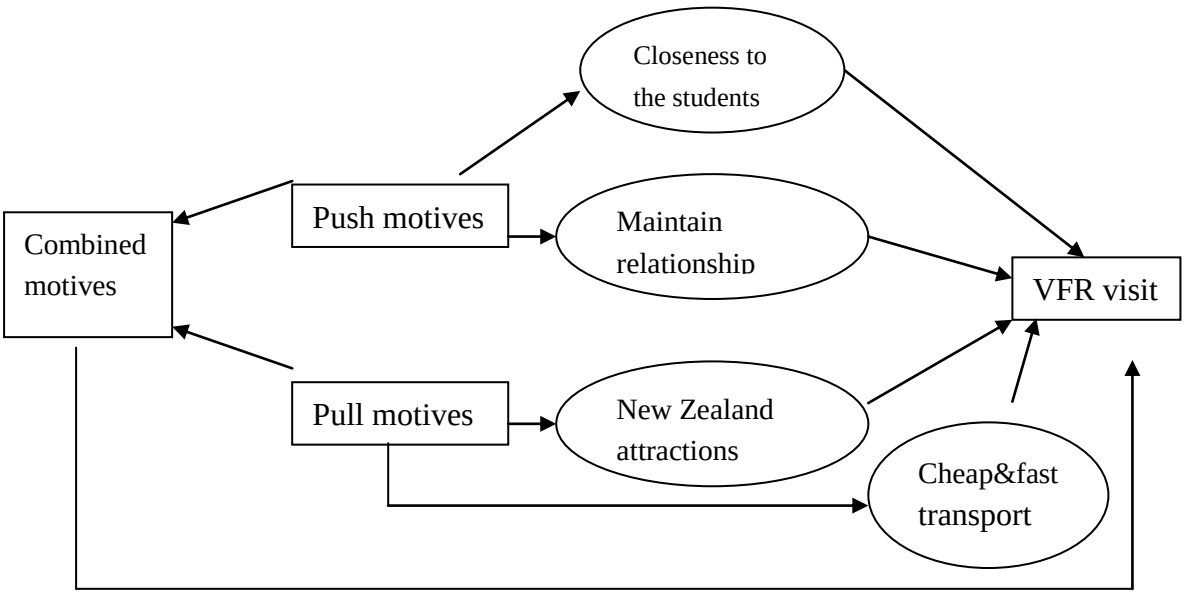
Travel motives of VFRs

The travel motives are based on the push and pull factors. According to the interview transcripts, the push motives involved degrees of friendship with other students, maintaining family relationships and reinforcing attachments induce the VFRs to come to New Zealand. On the other hand, the pull factors for the VFR tourists to New Zealand include the country itself, the beautiful scenery, increased leisure time, the currency exchange of the New Zealand dollar and improved transportation system i.e. cheap and fast transport. It is important to note that VFRs do not have only one motive. A majority of respondents mentioned that their VFRs had multiple reasons to visit. VFR was one of three main reasons for visiting along with holiday/vacation, and business. Some students said that the primary reason for their VFR's visit was to visit them, with holiday/vacation as a secondary reason or there was no secondary reason. Whereas, other students answered the primary reason for their VFRs' visit was a holiday/vacation, with VFR as a secondary reason for visit. Many students' VFRs also had business as the primary travel purpose and VFR as the secondary reason for

visiting. A few students even said that the primary purpose of trip by their VFRs was for combined motives, such as business, pleasure and visit friends and relatives.

"... the main reasons that my mum went to New Zealand were mainly for visit me, and also for leisure and recreation purposes".
"... the schedule for my parents to visit me was fixed, so they came to New Zealand purely for visiting me and this is the tradition of the Chinese people".
"... My friends came to visit me, and also to gather with other friends and relative members".
"... My friends' trips to New Zealand were for sightseeing and visiting family".
"... My relatives came here to enhance our kinship relationships, and also for holidays".
"... My friends wanted to broaden their horizons and made them feel more knowledgeable, so they came to New Zealand mainly for leisure".
"... Out of curiosity, my parents like to see the actual mountains and beaches in New Zealand rather than seeing them on TV... they came to spend their vacation here".
"... My daddy came to New Zealand for business reasons, and also visited me during his business trip in New Zealand".
"... The rising living standard of Chinese people contributed to my parents visit to New Zealand. Now they could earn more and had a better life so they could afford the trip to New Zealand".

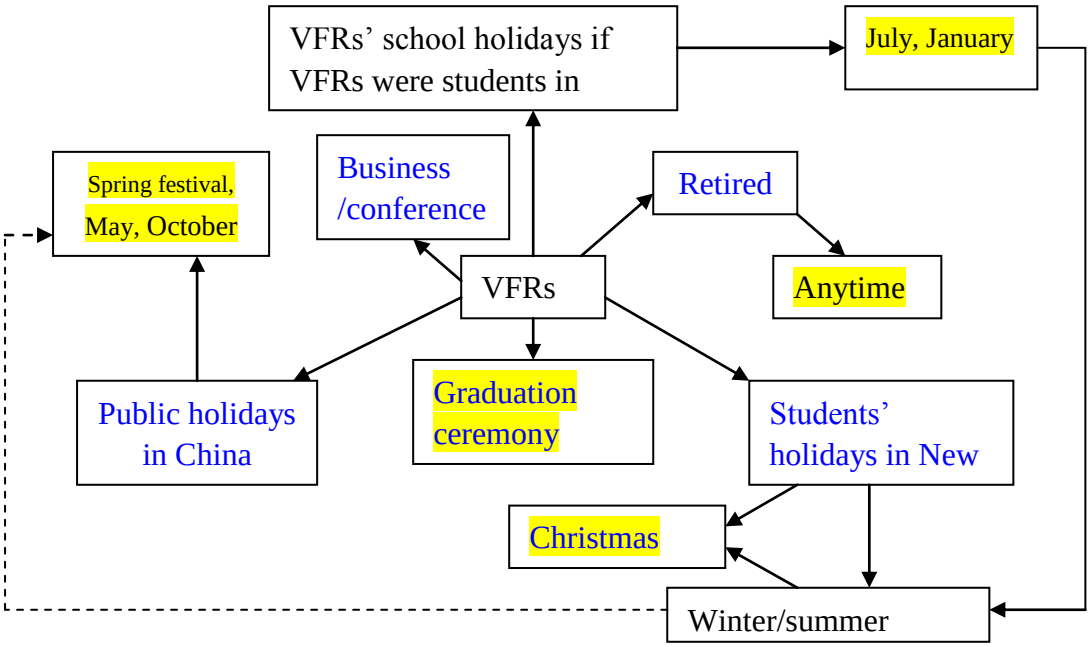
Figure 5.12 Travel motives of VFRs



Time of visit by VFRs

There are many occasions that require face-to-face co-presence, such as birthdays, Christmas parties, graduation party and the weddings of close friends and family members, even if they require substantial travel. The interview transcript reveals that VFR was spread evenly throughout the year. A majority of respondents said that their VFRs usually travelled to New Zealand during public holidays in China, such as spring festival, Labour Day in May and National Day in October. Of those VFRs who have retired, they came to visit students at any time that suits them. Some students' VFRs came to visit them during the students' holidays in New Zealand such as winter/summer holidays, including semester breaks in July, January, February and March. On the other hand, many VFRs chose to visit the students during their own school holidays if they were students studying in China, such as July and January. Moreover, VFRs visited students at the time of their business affairs such as business conferences. The interview transcripts revealed that most VFRs travelled to New Zealand during summer time here –the winter in China. Also, summer is the Christmas season in New Zealand.

Figure 5.13 Month of Visit by VFRs



Footnote: VFR winter time = NZ summer time

VFRs' travel destinations

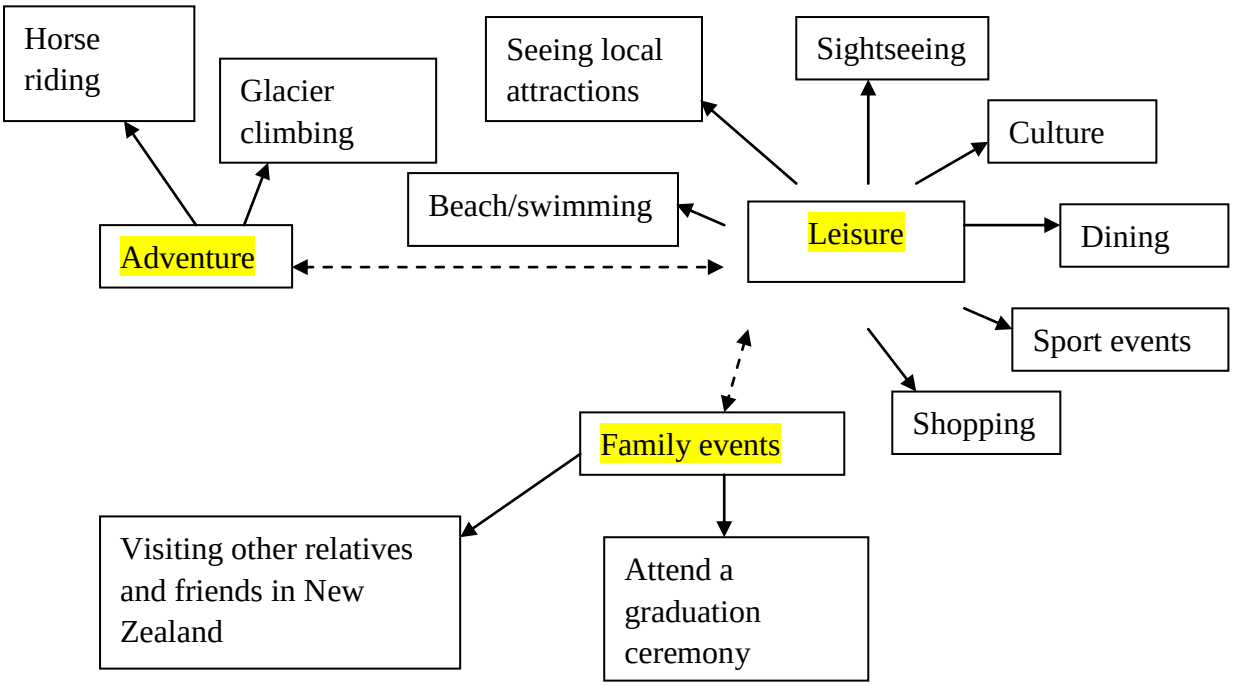
For many there is ample opportunity to visit other tourist spots on the way to and from FR destinations. The VFRs' choice is not restricted so that he/she visits only the destinations in which friends and relatives reside, they also take the time to visit destinations outside of the VFR destinations. It is important to understand which destinations attract the bulk of FRs. Of all VFRs who visited the North Island, some claimed that they have visited the South Island at some time. A significant percentage of VFRs made a visit to the main centres of Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch. These three main centres had the highest VFR visitor rates. Although this is not surprising, it is surprising that high rates were also recorded for destinations noted as tourist spots. VFRs have also visited the Bay of Plenty region, Rotorua, Northland, Hawkes Bay and Hamilton. A similar trend was evident in the South Island. Christchurch, Queenstown and Dunedin topped the VFR list of South Island destinations. Other destinations such as Invercargill, Lincoln, Milford Sound, Hokitika and West Coast were also rated as popular destinations by the VFRs.

Travel activities of VFRs

Almost all VFRs engaged in various activities once they undertook travel in New Zealand. There were a number of travel activities revealed in the interviews that could be grouped into three main categories. Prominently, nearly all VFRs liked to attend family events, such as visiting other relatives and friends in New Zealand and attending a graduation ceremony when they visited New Zealand. Second, a relatively large proportion liked to take part in leisure activities, e.g. sightseeing, visiting historical and cultural spots, seeing local attractions, going to beaches, sport events, dining and shopping activities. Visit the campus i.e. the building and library is one of the attractions for VFRs, often because students normally were proud to show it to their VFRs. However, none went camping and clubbing. A small group of VFRs were also involved in adventure activities such as horse riding and glacier climbing.

"... My parents liked seeing natural spots including 'breath-taking mountains, hill, rocks with spectacular shapes and beautiful rivers and streams, they felt very happy and relaxed".
"... The thing that my friends found most enjoyable was travelling to natural scenery that is unique. They felt very happy and comfortable when standing and looking at it".
"... At the age of my parents, what they could do is to see beautiful mountains and rivers because they were not young any more, they cannot undertake adventurous activities, therefore, they enjoyed seeing natural beauty spots".
"... My relatives attended historical and cultural activities, because they liked absorbing knowledge, especially cultural knowledge and knowledge of the lifestyles of local people, because they did not have education opportunities when they were young and therefore they would like to learn now".
"... my parents liked walking park with me".

Figure 5.14 VFRs' activities



A CATPAC analysis clearly shows that VFRs participate in a variety of travel activities and family events in New Zealand, as shown in Figure 5.14.

Mode of travel when travelling with VFRs

Students usually accompanied their VFRs and travelled independently. When the students were not able to accompany them, a majority of the VFRs were found to take packaged tours. This is because Chinese tourists, being more group oriented, prefer to

travel in groups, especially in an unfamiliar environment. For a number of other reasons including itinerary offered, convenience, price and safety, package tours were the most popular travel modes among the Chinese VFRs. It is clear that the price greatly influences the final decision on taking self-packaged tours, package tours and independent tours. VFRs were not great purchasers of coach tours. It has been reported that overall convenience and tour economy are the most important reasons for purchasing a package tour (Touche Ross and Company, 1975). Travel expertise is the main important reason for agency usage. Knowledgeable travel agents are important in people's selection of a travel agency. Package travellers value convenience and leave their arrangements to travel agents. Package travellers also anticipated that, by paying a deposit in advance they would get a good experience and high-quality product.

> *"... My parents used the package tours because it provided all-round activities, such as transfers, meals, sightseeing and entertainment".*
> *"... My friends and parents all enjoyed to take package tours, because the travel agency planned ahead and therefore they could eat, sleep and did all other things without any worries. It was really convenient".*
> *"... I travelled with my parents independently without taking a package tour. My parents liked me to accompany them to travel, because 1) they could speak little English, and 2) I could take good care of them if there were unexpected issues during travelling.*
> *"... I would be worried about the safety of parents if they were not accompanies by me. I would think that they are not safe to travel alone. So I chose package tours for them when I could not travel with them".*
> *"... The package tour... because it provides good value, such as accommodation, transportation and food".*

Figure 5.15 Mode of travel when travelling with VFRs

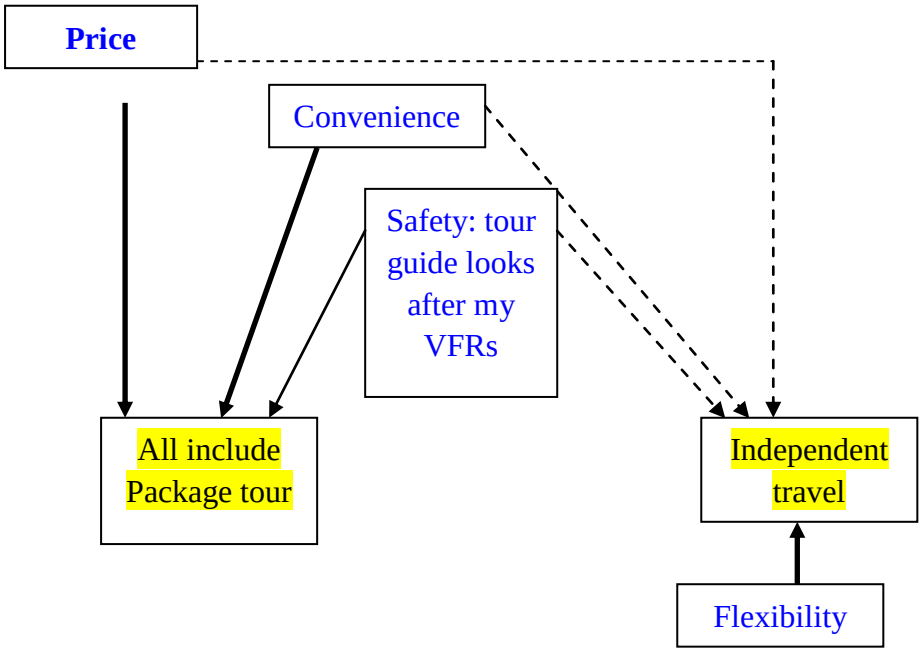


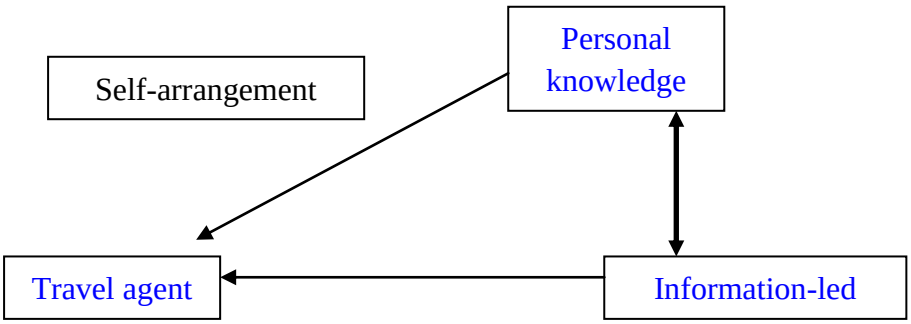
Figure 5.15 highlights the convenience, safety and economy achieved through booking package tours while flexibility of travel arrangements appears as the most valued facet of independent travel.

Making arrangement for VFRs

A majority of respondents stated that their VFRs were most likely to rely on their advice and information about New Zealand and less likely to use product information. Students said that they always helped plan the itinerary for their VFRs. Most students played a tourist guide role based on their personal knowledge, they helped to book the accommodation and attractions, provide transportation and food for their VFRs. According to the interview transcripts, when the students were not familiar with the travel destinations, they often tried to reduce the risk through seeking information from social or personal sources. They usually sought information from other friends because they perceived it was a source of honest data. They also researched the information via the Internet. The students also used travel agents to arrange the holiday trips for the VFRs.

"... I acted as a host receiving visits from my family. I decided where my parents stay and what activities were undertaken when they were travelling with me, owing to my knowledge and experience of tourism products in NZ".
"... I made arrangements for my parents simply because I have got travel experience before. While for my friends, they came here mainly for travelling, so they had already searched for some travel information before they came here. When we travelling together, we made decisions together using our personal knowledge".

Figure 5.16 Making Arrangement for VFRs

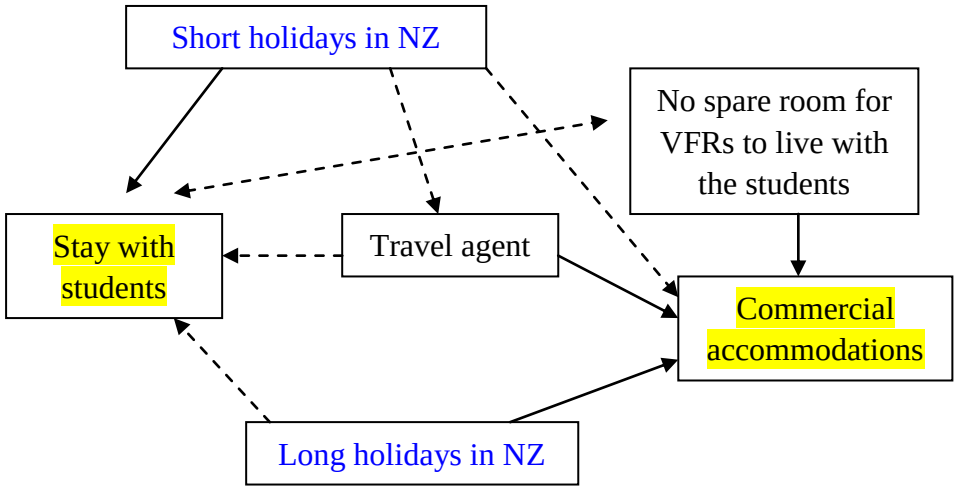


Accommodation choices

The questions asked about the form of accommodation used by VFRs when they visited New Zealand. They showed that the majority of them stayed at the private residences of the students or other friends and/or relatives. Some proportion did stay in commercial accommodation such as hotels/motels. The VFRs who joined in tour groups normally stayed in hotels while travelling in New Zealand, whilst the independent travel VFRs stayed in motels. For short holiday trips in New Zealand, VFRs usually used private accommodation, whilst the VFRs used commercial accommodation such as hotels, motels or backpackers in long holiday trips. For Chinese VFRs, hotels and motels were the dominant types of accommodation that they chose to stay in. The VFRs travelling more on a budget or those who wish to experience the backpacker culture used backpackers. Those who would like to experience some Kiwi culture, although very few reported this, had also used homestay/B & B and/or farmstay.

"… For day trips, my parents stayed at motels… because I rent the house with other students, and it was not convenient for me to share the room with them. While for overnight trips we stayed in motels as well, because we booked the package tour, and they arranged everything for us".
"… They usually stayed with me in a rental flat for day trips".
"… For overnight trips, we chose motels, because it was cheap".
"… We stayed at hotels in overnight trips. Because my parents liked to sleep in a quiet environment, they would choose hotels which offer better environment for them to have a good sleep".

Figure 5.17 VFRs' Accommodation Choices



Transportation choice

The majority of VFRs used private vehicles when they travelled for short distances around in New Zealand, followed by hired car/van/caravan as the distance increased significantly. The VFRs used domestic flights to travel between the North and South Islands of New Zealand. Few VFRs used public transportation to travel for short distances in New Zealand. It is normal for the students who are studying in New Zealand to have a car during their study period. That is why the results showed that the majority of the VFRs used private cars as compared to other modes of transportation when they toured New Zealand. In terms of independent travel, the VFRs always used private vehicles otherwise rental cars or vans were also popular. For those VFRs who chose package tours, tour coaches and domestic flights were popular choices of travel mode.

"... The type of transport was very much dependent on the places we went, we would choose flight and long haul coaches for long distance travelling".
"... For long distance travel, we chose to rent a car. More people, more cheaper to rent a car".
"... I drove my parents for short distance travel, it was more flexible by choosing the private car when travelling, because we could stop anywhere we liked, and we could spend a whole afternoon just at one particular destination that we liked to. Another important reason was that I wanted to show my parents that I could live independently now, and I could drive them travelling by myself, kind of making them proud of me".
"... since we joined in the package tours, our main transportation was tour coaches in the North Island and also domestic flight and tour coaches in the South Island".
"... for short distance of travel, we chose the private car... I drove them to the destinations. It was very convenient to travel by using private cars, because we could stop anywhere we wanted to, sometimes my parents wanted to stop somewhere beautiful for taking photos, which we could not really do it by travelling with tourist coaches".
"... when we travelled in the North Island, we used our private car. We took a flight to the South Island and rent a car to travel around South Island. It is cheap for us to share one car to travel around. Also we could stop anywhere we liked to take photos and had a rest".

Figure 5.18 VFRs' transportation choices

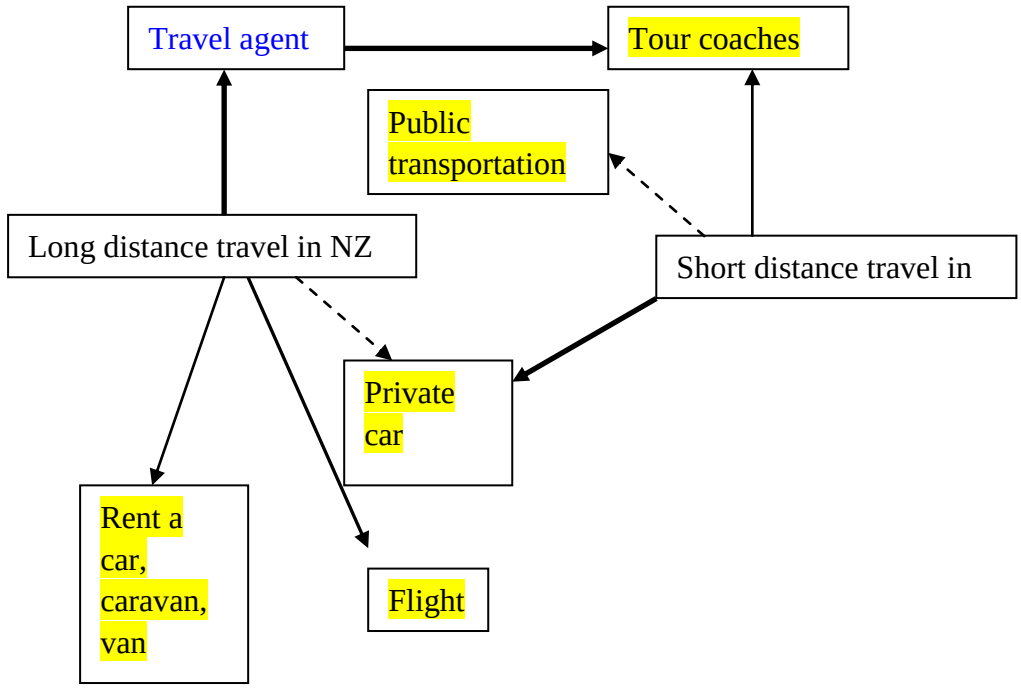


Figure 5.18 shows the data derived from these questions. It also shows the use of tour coaches, thereby confirming previous data about the booking of package tours.

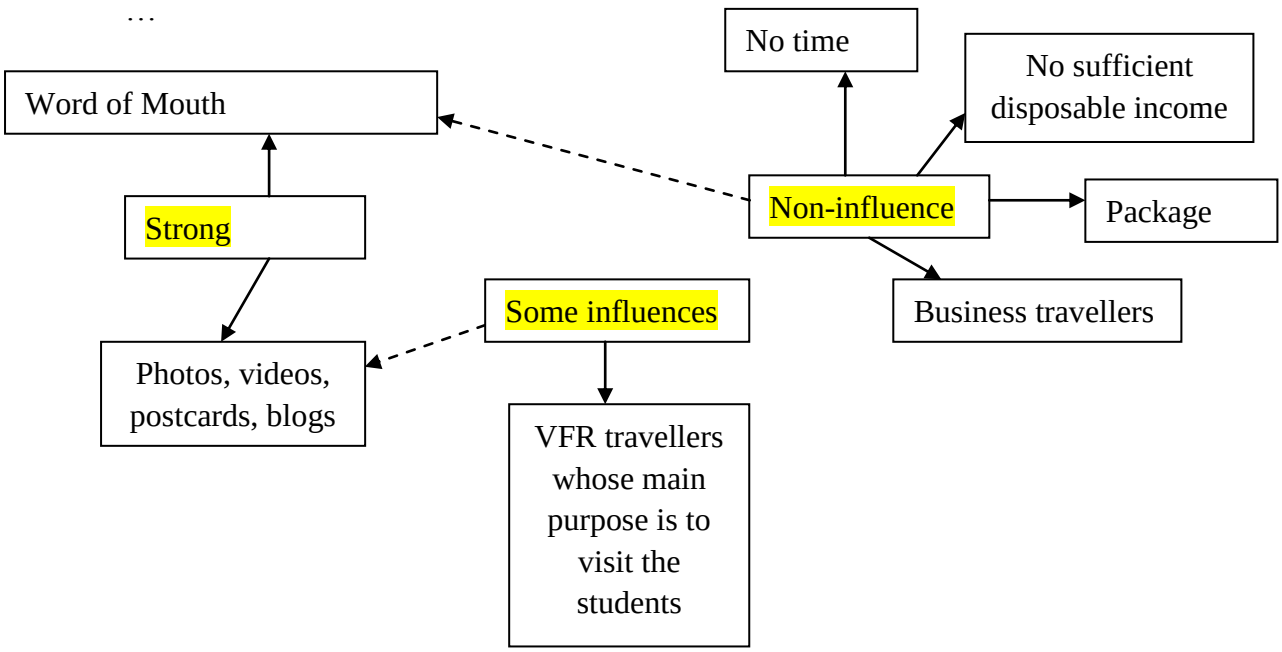
Influence of Chinese university students' travel experience on VFRs

A majority of the students used word of mouth recommendations in attracting/discouraging their VFRs to come to New Zealand. The students induced their VFRs to visit them by telling the VFRs about positive travel experiences in New Zealand. For example, New Zealand people were very warm and friendly, New Zealand is one of the most beautiful countries on earth, and it is safer to travel in New Zealand than in China. However, students can also discourage their VFRs to visit New Zealand by telling of a negative travel experience to VFRs. For example, some students said that New Zealand does not have much interesting culture that can be claimed as its own apart from Maori culture. Moreover, some respondents promoted New Zealand to their VFRs positively by showing VFRs souvenir items, magazines, photos and pamphlets that they took back to China. However, these promotional materials play a lesser role in attracting the VFRs whose main purpose is to renew friendship or kinship ties. It is also worthwhile to note that the degree of reliance on the students in visiting New Zealand is varied. For example, the usage of students' word of mouth recommendations meant little to those VFRs who do not have disposable time and income, or who had joined a package tour when coming to New Zealand to visit the students.

> *"... my friends and relatives would visit NZ or not does not only because of my travel experience. NZ is too far away from China, and expenditure of travelling is very expensive. Not everyone can afford it".*
> *"... because my parents took part in the package tour to visit NZ, my experience did not affect them. Also, my relatives sometimes came here only for business instead for tourism, so my experience did not influence on them".*
> *"... my positive word-of-mouth encourages them to come".*
> *"... I usually shared my travel experience with my friends and relatives, and showed some photos and videos I took during my travel. I also gave them some advice about the destinations in NZ".*

"... my travel experience would definitely influence my friends and relatives. I tried to persuade them to come to NZ because of a particular place is really good for travel. When they had time and change to travel overseas, they would think about NZ firstly".

Figure 5.19 Influence of Chinese university students' travel experience on VFRs



5.7 Thematic Analysis of Travel Expenditure Questions

According to the interview transcripts, the greatest proportion of expenditure for VFRs was on food and beverage, accommodation and transportation (excluding the return airfares between China and New Zealand) when they travelled to New Zealand, followed by entertainment, shopping for souvenir items (e.g sheepskin products as gifts to their friends and relatives in China), sightseeing and other miscellaneous items of personal expenditure (e.g. items similar in nature to other day-to-day expenditure of the host population). Moreover, the costs generated by the VFRs to their hosts, i.e. students, were also significant, particularly expenditure incurred by students in entertaining guests.

5.8 Conclusions

This chapter presented and discussed the major findings from the interviews conducted with Chinese university students. Students' own trends were significant in number and showed a tendency to initially travel short distances, and then travelled longer distances within the North Island (bearing in mind the areas within which the sample resided), before travelling to the South Island. There was a preference for travelling in private cars with a group of friends to share costs and feel safer, but several still travelled alone. There was a strong preference to dine at Chinese (or other Asian restaurants) and fast food restaurants for reasons of taste and cost. A diverse range of accommodation was used in total, but private homes and motels dominated. In addition, it was found that Chinese university students played a significant role in attracting VFRs to visit New Zealand. Their very presence in New Zealand was a cause for a visit to be made. They acted as sources of information, accompanied friends and relatives when travelling, or alternatively often made travel arrangements for their visitors. Given this data, and that derived from past literature, it was possible to confirm a final questionnaire and proceed to the main stage of data collection of a quantitative nature.

CHAPTER SIX

THE QUESTIONNIARE—DESIGN & JUSTIFICATION

6.1 Introduction

It is important to adopt an appropriate research methodology in order to perform an extensive examination of all relevant areas (Decrop, 1999). As previously stated, a mixed method of research is adopted in this study. The previous chapter discusses qualitative research results, and this chapter reviews the quantitative research methods used in this study. This chapter first describes factors that influenced the design of the questionnaire and discusses the content of the questionnaire. Then, sampling issues and data collection are discussed in turn. Also, justification in the approaches taken and the limitation of this methodology will be discussed throughout this chapter. Data coding, inputting, editing, data transformation and data analysis procedure are presented at the end of this chapter.

6.2 Quantitative Questionnaire Design

In general, this thesis attempts to build a body of knowledge about Chinese university students and their holidaying and explain knowledge on travel behaviour of the VFR market associated with students studying in New Zealand. As stated in Chapter 4, the researcher sought to test a set of hypotheses. To test for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 4, the questions in the section 1 contained push and pull motivational items. In addition, to test for Hypothesis 4, the research questionnaire also indicated a section with questions that aimed to explore respondents' travel activities. The questions in these two sections could also be tested against each other by comparing the mean scores for the perceived importance of the 25 students' travel motives and 44 students' travel activities. To test for Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 6 and 8, descriptive variables in this study were grouped into two categories regarding Chinese university students and their VFRs, respectively: socio-demographic and travel behavior variables. In addition, with respect to Hypothesis 2 and 3, in this thesis, respondents were also asked to specify how much their VFRs spent, which could be tested against socio-

demographics and travel behavior of VFRs. The VFRs trips influenced travel expenditure by students. Respondents were also asked to specify how they shared out the costs involved in the VFR visits. To test Hypothesis 6, questions included the level of satisfaction with students' travel in New Zealand and the extent of repeat visitation and recommendations to other people. In testing Hypothesis 7 and 8, questions measured the level of VFR satisfaction and their intentions to revisit the destination.

The researcher grouped all the questions into a few categories that represent each main theme of the study or set of variables thought important. These were:

Section One: Respondent's travel motivations in New Zealand;

Section Two: Respondent's travel activities in New Zealand;

Section Three: Travel behaviour of respondents in New Zealand;

Section Four: Travel behaviour and expenditure patterns of respondents' VFRs in New Zealand; and

Section Five: Socio-demographic profiles of the respondents and their VFRs and travel expenditure of students

Firstly, questions were designed to explore the travel motivations of Chinese students when travelling in New Zealand, comprising a list of 25 items. In attempting to enhance content validity, these items were derived from interviews with 25 Chinese students and based on a comprehensive review of the related literature as described in Chapter 3. Likert type scales were employed based on theoretical concepts such as the Leisure Motivation Scale (Beard and Ragheb, 1983). Additionally, other items were developed on the basis of perceptions after the interviews. Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of the push and pull motivations to go on holiday in New Zealand with each item presenting a range of possible responses from 1 = "Of no importance" to 7 = "Extremely important". In addition, with the purpose to measure students' attitudes towards importance and evaluation attached to a set of motivational attributes, an importance-evaluation mode of attitude measurement was adopted. Thus,

respondents were also asked to indicate the level of satisfaction with the items with each having a scale from 1 = "Very dissatisfied" to 7 = "Extremely satisfied". In establishing these scales a non-response option was provided in case respondents felt the items was inappropriate for them following the arguments of Ryan and Garland (1999) that failure to provide such an option might create a bias to the mid-point of the scale. In addition, briefly an assessment of non-response options indicates whether random patterns emerge, while furthermore the rate of usage of the non-response option can also be of importance in identifying items for which there are problems or special factors. In order to save space and give respondents the impression that the questionnaire was not too long, the questionnaire set the items with the importance and evaluation scales being paired together instead of asking the respondents to rate the importance first, then the evaluation. It is believed that in doing so will encourage response rate (Ryan, 2000).

Secondly, the questionnaire consisted of 43 attributes to measure the preferences of travel-related activities. These attributes represented the popular activities for Chinese university students when they travel in New Zealand. The respondents were requested to indicate how attractive these activities were to them with each having a scale from 1 = "Of no attraction" to 7 = "Extremely attractive". Drawing from previous studies, this research took reference of the attributes that were used in Ryan & Zhang's (2007) study on Chinese university students, which in turn was based on Lang *et al.*'s (1993) study of Japanese female travellers, so that the research could compare data with other similar markets. The attributes from the studies of Lang et al. (1993) and Ryan & Zhang (2007) were combined, together with the addition of a couple of new attributes which were based on interviews, to form a new list. The need to create a new list rather than use an existing one was related to the need for a comprehensive and holistic study of how students behave while on vacation. This new list was then pilot tested by a group of 50 Chinese university students to verify the correct wording and applicability of these attributes to Chinese university students at the present time. A list of 43 attributes was finally concluded for this research. A full list of these

attributes can be seen in Appendix IV. In addition, respondents were also asked the frequency with which their VFRs engaged in those activities during travel. All questions were phrased using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 = “Very frequently”, to 5 = “Never”. Again, there was also a zero option indicating “Have no opinion”. Again, with the purposes to save space and encourage response rates, the questionnaire set the items with the attractiveness and frequency scales being paired together instead of asking the respondents to rate the attractiveness first, then the frequency.

Thirdly, in the section of travel behaviour of Chinese university students, the indicators of travel behavior are attractiveness of activities, number of trips previously taken, length of trip, travel party size, time of travel, mode of travel, mode of transportation, types of accommodation and restaurants used, information sources for planning trips, travel destinations, trip types and levels of travel undertaken by Chinese students to other countries (including) home during their period of study. Also, questions were designed to measure the motivations that stimulate Chinese university students to travel. In terms of time of travel, respondents were asked to rate the importance of six travel times — namely semester breaks in summer, semester breaks in winter, public holidays, middle break, special occasions and anytime you received the VFR trips from China — in influencing the choice of take holidays in New Zealand on a 5-point scale (1=not at all important, 2=not important, 3=moderately, 4=important and 5=very important). The information sources for planning trips were measured using a list of items from information source studies. A list of nine travel information sources — namely travel agent, word of mouth by Asian friends, word of mouth by Kiwi friends, visitor information centre, the Internet, airport centre, Yellow page, AA guide book, TV ads/Radio and Magazines/ brochures — and the option of “other”, which resulted in a long list, was used to collect information about the travel information sources found useful by Chinese university students. Respondents were asked to rate how frequently they used these sources of information when they were travelling in New Zealand on a 5-point scale (1=never, 2=infrequently, 3=moderately, 4=frequently and 5=very frequently). Students were

asked to indicate the level of their trip satisfaction on a 5-point scale (1=not at all satisfied, 2=less satisfied, 3=moderately, 4=satisfied and 5=very satisfied).

Fourthly, this study also looked at the Chinese student-generated VFR market in New Zealand. In the section of travel behaviour of the VFRs, the indicators of travel behavior contained activities engaged in on the VFR trip, number of VFR trips received, time of VFR visits, length of stay, accommodation used while not travelling, purpose of VFR visit, expenditure, travel party, modes of transportation, types of accommodation and restaurants used, destination visited and trip types. Students were asked to indicate the level of their disagreements/agreement with numerous VFR travel statements on a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree). Students' roles in hosting their VFRs when they were travelling in New Zealand were also examined. Respondents were asked to rate the role they played as the host of VFRs in each selected travel decision on a 5-point scale (1=no role, 2=less role, 3=equal role, 4=dominant role and 5=sole decision maker). Respondents were again asked to rate the level of trip satisfaction of their VFRs with their visits to New Zealand on a 5-point scale (1=not at all satisfied, 2=less satisfied, 3=moderately, 4=satisfied and 5=very satisfied). Constraints of VFR trips were measured using a list of items from the literature studies (e.g. time, visa, travel costs, physical condition, interest to NZ destinations, distance between China and New Zealand, how many times the students go back to China, a lack of time to accompany VFRs). Respondents were asked to rate the importance of these items to their VFRs to come over to New Zealand on a 5-point scale (1=very unimportant, 2=not important, 3=moderate, 4=important and 5=very important). The questionnaire for students' VFRs was designed to obtain information on the VFRs' motivations for visiting New Zealand. What is the main purpose for VFR visits? Is that to spend time with the student? Or is that to visit students combined with holiday? Or is that combined with business trip? Despite this it also includes VFR travel experiences and some indications on their expenditure when they visited the students. Questions that sought to examine students' roles in attracting their families and friends to visit New

Zealand and hosting their VFRs when they were travelling in New Zealand were also included. Question about how many visits by family and/or friends from China that students have received while studying in New Zealand was raised. By examining this question, it tells about the distribution of the visit frequency by students' families and friends in New Zealand. A question about types of VFR visitors was also included. How many visits were made by friends and how many by relatives? More detailed information was requested in relation to the representative visit about the type of visitor, e.g. whether parents or siblings visited. In addition, a series of questions was asked about the average length of stay of these VFR visits. How many days of which on average were spent with the student at the place of their studying? How many days with the student to travel outside of the place of their studying? And, how many days on average without the student to travel outside of the place of their studying? Questions about the specific visit included one about its precise timing in terms of the month in which it took place. This provided an opportunity for examining in more detail the seasonal distribution of VFR visits. In other word, which months are the months with the most VFR trips recorded? Which months are the months with the least VFR trips recorded? The statement on whether the visitor would visit New Zealand if their children/relative/friends were not in New Zealand is provided. The result illustrated how many respondents strongly agree and how many disagree. The purpose of this question is to examine whether students play a significant role in attracting their VFRs to visit them at one place. The following question asked about the role of students when they are travelling with VFRs in New Zealand. Past research failed to take into account the issue of who makes decisions regarding the on-site behaviour of VFR guests is not well established. Are they playing a dominant role, equal role or lesser role? The intention of this question is to examine the roles that the students are playing in promoting tourism and in becoming hosts for their VFRs from their home country. In addition, the question asks about the primary form of accommodation for the VFRs to stay when they visited New Zealand. Did they stay with the students? Or how many VFRs to New Zealand used commercial accommodation i.e. stay at the hotel/motel? The VFRs used a few modes of

transportation when they travelled around in New Zealand. Which transportation did the majority of them use? Hired car/van/caravan? Domestic flight? Tourist coach? It is supposed to be that it would be normal for international students who are studying in New Zealand to have a car during their study period. Questions also asked the respondents to indicate travel expenditure patterns of their VFRs.

Finally, the survey collected information on socio-demographic variables of respondents and their VFRs. In regarding respondents, socio-demographic variables included gender, immigration status, age, education, financial background and marital status. Socio-demographic variables of VFRs included age, occupation, income and education. Also, the last section inquired about travel expenditure of respondents.

There is no fixed rule regarding the relationship between questionnaire size and response rate (Dillman, 1978 and Oppenheim, 1966). Oppenheim suggested that people will fill in lengthy questionnaires if they have an interest in the topic. It is important that the questionnaire looks attractive to the respondents. Therefore, an eight page questionnaire and a covering letter introducing the research and informing respondents of the nature of the study were distributed to Chinese students. The researcher numbered the pages of the questionnaire, which helped the respondents to be sure they have filled in all eight pages of the questionnaire.

6.3 Pilot Study

Questionnaire development has been one of the most difficult and often neglected aspects of the research process (Jacoby, 1978). Because it is difficult to design a questionnaire appropriate for a diverse population. Therefore, care was taken to ensure the wording was simple, efficient and understandable, as recommended in the literature (Dillman, 1978; Likert 1967 and Malhotra et al., 1996). After the questionnaire was designed, for purposes of enhancing content validity, to eliminate ambiguous wording, and to ensure domain coverage, the questionnaire was first reviewed by the researcher's supervisor, and the comments relating to issues of clarity

and formatting were included for a pilot survey. As Oppenheim (1966) recommended, fifty respondents were thought as a suitable number for a pilot test. It has also been suggested that the pre-test should use respondents whose characteristics are similar to those in the main survey (Malhotra et al., 1996). Thus, the survey was pilot-tested on a sample of fifty Chinese students at the University of Waikato in Hamilton, New Zealand. Some commented that the questionnaire was long, however that the repetitive nature of the scales made the exercise manageable for them. The pilot study also checked whether the questionnaire was easy to read in terms of flow, length and language level, which helps to eradicate any possible measurement of errors. Modifications to the questionnaire were made prior to its administration. For example, the item "attending a cultural event and festivals" was eliminated because a pilot study found the item to be vague and repetitious of the "attending Maori performance" and "attending balloon festival" questions. The respondents experienced problems with some questions in the questionnaire because they failed to read the instructions carefully. Also when asked whether the students had hosted VFR during their studying in New Zealand many respondents who hold PR status put 'No' as their answer even though they had in fact hosted VFR many times. This is because they thought that their VFR visitors from China were solely parents who came to visit and who were not considered as visitors since their parents also held PR status. In some cases respondents provided more than one answer, missed answers or gave ambiguous answers. In these cases the researcher assisted the respondents to complete the questionnaire. Overall, the pre-testing allowed the questionnaire to be refined and ensured that the final sample had few if any difficulties in understanding the questions. Also, an analysis of the pilot questionnaire meant minimising difficulties when it came to analysing the final set of data.

Copies of the questionnaire used to survey Chinese students are shown in Appendix IV It was distributed with a personalized covering letter (also in the relevant appendix) that explained the purpose of the research, provided necessary background and instructions for completion, and indicated that the research had the support of relevant

bodies. It stressed the voluntary and confidential nature of the research and that it agreed with Ethics Research Committee guidelines. The covering letter (as well as the questionnaire itself) also thanked respondents for their participation and gave details of how to return the form or seek further information. Moreover, to administer the survey, the researcher contacted the head of international student centres at four universities in New Zealand for their cooperation in distributing and collecting the data. Thus, by early August, 2006, the questionnaire had been developed and pre-tested by the students who had experiences of designing questionnaires and conducting quantitative research. Their suggestions contributed to revisions designed to improve analytical performance and linguistic understanding of the whole survey.

6.4 Sampling

The information was gathered from the students about themselves and their VFRs. A convenient sampling was used to select prospective respondents. While such a sampling technique does have some limitations, it was deemed to be the most cost effective means of reaching the study's target audience. This study included respondents from universities in North Island, New Zealand. The sample consisted of Chinese university students who were studying or had finished their studies. Both Chinese university students who are holding New Zealand Permanent Residency (PR) and non-PR were included in this research. Additionally, both students who have or have not hosted VFRs during their stay in New Zealand were included in the population. This is because the researcher believed these groups might have differences in their behavior and travel experiences. This was thought interesting to investigate and to find what differences and similarities existed between these groups of students from China. Time and financial constraints meant Chinese students in South Island, New Zealand and VFRs were excluded from the study. Instead, the VFR data were collected exclusively from their hosts, i.e. the Chinese students at the four public universities in the North Island concerned, rather than investigating the VFRs. There are four universities in the North Island recognized to have a large proportion

of Chinese students according to Ministry of Education statistics and, thus, the universities covered by this study are:

a) University of Auckland (Auckland)
b) University of Waikato (Hamilton)
c) Massey University (Palmerston North)
d) Victoria University of Wellington (Wellington)

Auckland University of Technology was excluded on the basis that many of its Chinese students study at below degree level.

There are two types of Chinese students studying in New Zealand. The first group are Chinese students who study in New Zealand as international students. This group travels in New Zealand with international student visas, which they renew on a year-to-year basis. These students do not hold New Zealand Permanent Residence (PR) status but hold Chinese citizenships and passports. The second group are students who hold New Zealand PR status and are considered as local students by the universities they are studying in, while at the same time still holding Chinese citizenship and passports. This group do not need to have a student visa to travel in and out of the country and are considered Chinese citizens by the Chinese government as long as they do not give up their Chinese passport and become New Zealand citizens. Both groups are included in this study.

A convenience sample of 699 Chinese students pursuing degree studies at public universities in the North Island of New Zealand was undertaken. Surveys were distributed in numerous locations around campuses to obtain a broad cross section of the Chinese student population. Of the total 33.3% (233) were from University of Waikato, 33.3% (233) from the University of Auckland, 16.7% (117) from Victoria University of Wellington and 16.7% (117) from Massey University (Palmerston North). They were surveyed in New Zealand through August 2006 to October 2006, and again from March 2007. Only students studying full time participated in this study.

Surveying hosts vs. VFRs

The research undertaken uses a non-traditional line of enquiry: rather than investigating the visitors, the data was collected exclusively from their hosts, i.e. the students at the university concerned. This is because the VFRs are possibly easier to reach than other generating markets through the people who host them. In marketing terms, the host is far easier to reach compared with attempting to reach the geographically dispersed VFR. McKercher (1995) reported that conducting a VFR survey for a local community is problematic because the sample size of visitors is usually small. He proposed an alternative possibility of surveying the host rather than visitors. McKercher compared the results of the Domestic Tourism Monitor, which surveyed visitors, and telephone interviews conducted by tourism management students on the hosts of the same destination. The results of McKercher's comparison suggest that there are significant differences between surveying hosts and visitors. He concluded that because it is possible to get more responses from surveying hosts, due to the larger sample size, the reliability of the research is higher than surveying the visitors. McKercher (1996) in a study in the region of Albury/Wodonga (Australia), goes as far as arguing that surveying hosts, rather than visitors is not only a more cost effective method, but also provides more statistically reliable results as a more complete estimate of economic impact of VFR travel is achieved. However, this approach is rarely used (Boyne & Hall, 2002; ETC, 2002 and Brocx, 2004). Brocx (2004) created a host typology with regards to the attitudes towards hosting and segmented the host market into the 'prolific' host, the 'moderate' host, the 'budget' or 'free/non-guiding' host and the inactive 'non-host' host. She portrays the host as the key in understanding VFR tourism.

6.5 Data Collection

A self-administered, close-ended questionnaire was used to collect information about the travel behaviors of Chinese university students and their VFRs. This data

collection method was chosen to ensure a high response rate, easily clarify problems, and enable understanding of the instrument items, low cost and promptness of response. In July-October 2006, questionnaires were administered by the researcher personally. Data was collected at the four public universities mentioned above. Since the majority of the students were more likely to study at the universities' libraries and schools' computer laboratories, the final questionnaire was largely randomly implemented in these two settings. Additionally, the student union buildings and the international centres of the universities were also adopted as targeted areas to conduct surveys. Those students who were sitting in the lounge and not currently involved in work were approached. Also, some questionnaires were administered to students after the official lecture time. The researcher identified herself, and then briefed the respondents about the intent and content of the survey. The survey was voluntary, and students were free not to participate in the survey and were given sufficient time to complete the survey. Respondents were assured that the survey was anonymous and confidential. Only Chinese students who agreed to participate in the survey were shown the information sheet explaining the nature and purpose of the research. The information sheet was designed to be simple and short so that respondents could read and understand without any problem. They were asked to sign a consent form which indicated that they agreed to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the information sheet as well as to ensure that their details would be kept confidential. Those who consented were then given the survey instrument on a clipboard, along with a pen. The surveys were completed and returned independently to maintain anonymity. The researchers then gathered the completed survey instruments and thanked the respondents for their cooperation. In Chinese culture, people are friendly and they like helping each other. Compliant with custom, the researcher provided lollies at the beginning of the survey collection to each participant who agreed to participate in the research as an incentive. After 3-month's data collection, the data collection stopped at the end of October due to the long summer school holidays, and the questionnaires continued to be collected again from mid-March 2007.

The questionnaire survey questions originally designed in English were translated into Chinese to make it easier for the interviewees. All the answers from both interviews and questionnaires were finally back translated from Chinese to English for the purpose of this thesis. In this process, the differences in languages and culture between English and Chinese were considered carefully so that the meaning of each question and answer could be delivered accurately. The researcher found three students whose native language is Chinese, and who had English-Chinese translation experience to separately aid with translations to verify the accuracy of both words and concepts. It should be noted that all information sheets and consent forms were also translated into Chinese.

6.6 Justification of Quantitative Research Methodology

Having collected data in these ways, it is important to validate the data as valid and reliable in the sense of representing real phenomena. Validity refers to the extent to which study findings are generalizable to a population (external validity) or the degree to which the research accurately measures what it purports to measure (internal validity) (Hernon, 1994). External validity is the power to create a consensus of generality beyond the circumstances in which data were collected (Krathwohl, 1993). Krathwohl describes several different kinds of evidence for validating the extent of generality: (a) subjects and situations, (b) treatment, (c) observation and measures, (d) time, and (e) basis for sensing attributes or changes and procedure. As the sample of Chinese university students was recruited from diverse backgrounds and degree of qualification, they can be representative of university students of Chinese ethnicity. Also, standardized data collection instruments were developed including general instructions, tasks in written forms and interview questions. These kinds of standardized situations, equipment, and instruments help increase the generality of this research.

6.7 Limitations

Limitations with the current research must be noted. This research utilized a convenience sample and therefore does not satisfy the requirements of randomized sampling methods. As such, the external validity of these results may be limited and the findings may not be generalized beyond the range represented by the sample. Thus, care must be taken in interpreting and applying the results of this research. The results may not be generalized beyond the range represented by the sample. Besides, the sample obtained in this research was based on only four universities, which thus may not broadly predict travel behaviours of other Chinese university student travellers from other regions. Therefore, the generalizability of the current research results and findings is limited. Future research should select other possible universities that are geographically dispersed. Additionally, this research has a limited scope in terms of time frame. The researcher could not spend too much time on the distribution of the questionnaires and the return of the questionnaires due to both time and primarily budget limitations. Consequently, it affected the whole process of this research and this research was only concentrated in the North Island, New Zealand. Very limited funding was given creating a problem for the research. Thus, the researcher cannot really spend a lot of time in Wellington and Palmerston North to administer the questionnaire distribution. The researcher only travelled to Wellington and Palmerston North for two weeks for the purpose of questionnaire distribution and collection. If more funding had been allocated for the study the researcher could have spent more time in these two places and made more frequent trips. However, these limitations should not minimize the significant findings of the research. The purpose of the research was to assess travel behaviour of Chinese university students in New Zealand. The research findings should prove to be of value to tourism practitioners who are involved with student travel and VFR travel in this limited geographic area of New Zealand and would help them design marketing plans for Chinese university students and their VFRs.

6.8 Data Coding, Inputting, Editing and Transforming

Once the research questionnaire has been designed and implemented, each questionnaire was numbered in sequence. Variable names were established using SPSS and these were limited to eight characters. However, descriptive names were applied to the variables as an aid to understanding and entered into the computer. Then, the data was entered into the personal computer according to variable values in the questionnaire. The first code entered into the computer was the number of the respondents. This meant any subsequent checking would enable the researcher to identify quickly the original questionnaire, allowing the researcher to go back and to correct the data entry from the original form (Ryan, 1995). This also implied that the questionnaires were kept in some ordered fashion which enabled ease of access to the forms (Ryan, 1995). Missing data was recorded as "0". Additionally, in preparing the data for analysis, some nominal variables were recoded as numbers. Summary statistics with frequencies and descriptive were computed for all the variables in the survey database to ensure they fell in appropriate ranges. Checking the data is a time-consuming but all important matter (Ryan, 1995), and in this instance both the researcher and the supervisor independently checked the data input. Finally, to ensure that sub-samples were of sufficient size to permit meaningful analysis, socio-demographic and travel behaviors were collapsed into the categories shown in the tables that accompany the text.

6.9 Statistical Procedure

Questionnaire responses were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14 for Windows on the personal computer. First, the data was tested for sample reliability and adequacy. The reliability of a construct means that it supplies consistent results when repeated (Emory & Cooper, 1991). To test the relativity of constructs in the questionnaire, Guttman Split-half Alpha was calculated for each scale. Because the mean response will vary between sections of the questionnaire, each section was tested separately. Second, the quantitative data generated was of a nature that lent itself to analytical techniques. The analysis was

completed in four sequential steps, (a) descriptive data, (b) comparative analysis, (c) reduction analysis and (d) regression analysis.

(a) Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive analysis is mainly used to understand the nature of the sample. This part of analysis includes frequencies, means and cross-tabulation. The first section of the analysis in chapter eight is to describe the sample characteristics of both Chinese university students and their VFRs. The second section is to present the general travel characteristics of Chinese university students. The third section is to describe the general characteristics of their VFRs. Furthermore, descriptive analysis is used to examine the spending patterns of respondents.

(b) Comparative analysis

Importance-evaluation Mode of Attitude Measurement and Paired Sample t-test

The importance-evaluation grid analysis was applied to examine the level of importance of travel motivation and the extent to which the travel met these motivations. Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of a set of 25 items relating to various travel motivations and also to specify the degree to which they were satisfied with these same travel motivations. The axis of the grids used the scales, with one axis representing satisfaction and the other importance. These grids augmented currently used information and provided information on traveller concerns thought useful for managerial decisions to fill the need for effective managerial information. The conventional mode of representing the findings of an importance-evaluation approach is to adopt a four cell matrix and each of these four categories suggests a different marketing strategy facilitating resource allocation decisions. The standard conclusion is that variables in the quadrant “high importance, high satisfaction” should be reinforced; while the variables in the quadrant “high importance, low satisfaction” needed immediate attention and remedial action to improve satisfaction. The quadrant “less importance, high satisfaction” meant the product was perceived to perform strongly, and there is a need to assess present

practice, while the quadrant “low importance, low satisfaction” requires medium to long term action.

Paired sample *t*-test is also included in the first section of chapter eight. This test is conducted to examine whether there is a significant disconfirmation between importance and satisfaction on both motivational items.

Chi-square contingency

Non-parametric tests are best for analyzing the data since they involve assumptions e.g. normality of distribution (Easton & McColl, 2003). The most suitable test in this study to profile the clusters demographically was Chi square. The study employed selected socio-demographic variables regarding the student market (gender, immigration status, age, education level, financial background, marriage status) and those of the VFR market (age, occupation, income and education) to examine whether statistically significant differences existed among different groups. This part of the test was presented in the second section of Chapter seven.

Independent Sample t-test and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Independent sample *t*-test and One-way ANOVA are used to examine the factors that influence the importance and satisfaction scores on motivational items. The variables used also include demographic and trip-related behaviour. Significant differences between gender and immigration status for each response variable were analyzed using *t*-tests, which were also used to see whether they delineated factors. Significant differences in respondents with other different demographic characteristics (i.e. level of education, year of the arrival, year of studying at the university, financial background and marriage status) were determined using analyses of variance (ANOVAs). This part of test was presented in the second section of Chapter eight.

(c) Reductive analysis

Factor Analysis

Data were also analyzed by factor analysis. Factor analysis is conducted in Chapter ten for data reduction. A principal component analysis was employed to delineate the underlying dimensions that were associated with 25 motivational forces. The meaning of the principal components derived from this analysis could shed light and provide clarification concerning the question: what categories of motivations did Chinese university students have when travelling within New Zealand during their educational stay? The decision to choose this type of analysis was based on the exploratory nature of the study. Twenty-five motive items were factor-analyzed using a varimax rotation with a cut off point of eigenvalues being greater than one being used to determine the number of factors. Similarly, factor analysis was employed to identify the underlying dimensions associated with student travel activity preferences. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were examined to assess internal reliability and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic was referenced to establish whether the factoring process was appropriate.

Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis is conducted in the second section of Chapter ten, which is used to determine the number of homogeneous groups in the sample. This analysis employed an agglomerative hierarchical technique. Existing segment clusters were identified using the SPSS quick cluster technique based on the identified motivation factor groupings. The number of clusters was used to conduct further ANOVA testing to examine whether clusters can be used as a predictor of Chinese university students' importance and satisfaction on motivational items.

(d) Regression Analysis

Regression analysis exists to quantify a relationship between a determined variable (e.g. overall satisfaction) and determining variables (e.g. satisfaction with individual trip characteristics). Regression analysis is conducted in chapter ten to identify the main contributors to overall satisfaction, which affects loyalty as well as the influence of travel behavior on expenditure.

6.10 Conclusions

The content in this chapter explained how the survey was constructed, made reliable and accurate. A pilot study was undertaken, where the questionnaire was designed according to the literature review of the relevant articles. The questionnaire for this pilot research consisted of five major sections: (1) travel motivation of Chinese student travel and the level of their satisfaction arising from trips; (2) the attractiveness of the travel activities to Chinese students and the frequency of their visiting friends and relatives participating in the travel activities in New Zealand; (3) travel behavior of Chinese university students in New Zealand; (4) travel behavior of associated VFRs in New Zealand, and (5) socio-demographic information of respondents and their VFRs. There were 504 usable responses in total arising in the final study. This research used a descriptive statistics approach along with other related approaches to analyze and present the collected data for practitioner and marketers. The results should be of use to hospitality and tourism professionals and students interested in developing more focused marketing strategies and less generic strategies based on the demand side of the tourism industry.

CHAPTER SEVEN

NATURE OF THE SAMPLE

7.1 Introduction

In order to serve the university student market well and profitably, it is important for tourism marketers to analyze population characteristics and behavior trends carefully. As such, the survey's overall objective was to collect information on the socio-demographic profile and travel behavior and expenditure patterns of Chinese university students and their VFRs. This chapter had three stages of data analysis and its structure was constructed accordingly. First, it focuses on the socio-demographic profiles of Chinese university students and their VFRs. Second, it analyses travel behavior of the respondents and their VFRs. Third, it investigates the expenditure pattern of the students and VFRs. In this study, student-initiated VFRs were classified into VRs and VFs. The socio-demographic profile, travel behavior and expenditure patterns of the overall VFR travel market is analyzed individually according to VRs and VFs.

7.2 Actual Response

Survey results presented in this study are of the combined sample. Chinese students from four universities in North Island, New Zealand agreed to respond. A total of 699 completed surveys were obtained. Out of the 699 questionnaires distributed, 504 usable responses were collected that represented 72.1 percent of the study population. There were 168 questionnaires from University of Auckland, 200 questionnaires from University of Waikato, 68 questionnaires from Massey University in Palmerston North and 68 questionnaires from Victoria University of Wellington in New Zealand, with the return rates of 33.3 per cent, 39.7 per cent, 13.5 per cent and 13.5 per cent, respectively. To obtain this response rate, the researcher had distributed the questionnaires personally to Chinese students at the four universities. Whenever time permitted, the researcher administered the questionnaire distribution herself. The high response rate was also largely due to the library and computer lab context within

which the survey was administered. Where meaningful variations from the entire group were found for an individual university, they are reported as exceptions. This was done for two reasons. First, a large sample was needed to give meaningful interpretation for cross-tabulations and other procedures. Second, recognizing the limitation of the non-random sampling, researchers attempted to compensate for it by obtaining a large sample from a broad geographical base.

7.3 Reliability and Adequacy of the Sample

Prior to undertaking an analysis of the data reliability scores are calculated. Both the split-half and the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient are adopted in this study. A split-half model is employed to test the reliability scores of the level of importance and the degree of satisfaction of travel motive items, the level of attractiveness associated with travel activities and the frequency of taking part in travel activities. Table 7.1 shows that Alpha values for part 1 were 0.821, 0.832, 0.863 and 0.887, respectively, and Alpha values for part 2 were 0.844, 0.856, 0.863 and 0.891, respectively, which, with other split-half reliability testing, indicates the sample had high internal reliability and the data possesses sufficient rigor for further analysis (Ryan *et al.*, 2001). In addition, Cronbach Alpha Coefficient is also utilized to test the internal consistency of the scale that has been devised in other questions. The results indicated that the coefficient alpha values associated with the level of importance of best travel times, the frequency of the usage of information sources, the role played in hosting VFRs and the level of agreement with the statements exceeded 0.7 (see Table 7.2). A commonly adopted convention is to claim satisfactory internal consistency if Cronbach alpha value is greater than 0.7 (Ryan, 1995). Therefore, the dataset in this study appeared to possess internal consistency. However, the coefficient alpha values of the importance of factors influencing VR and VF visits were 0.6417 and 0.5757 respectively, which were lower than 0.7. This suggested that the removal of unnecessary items was required to improve internal consistency of these scores.

Table 7.1 Results of Reliability Analysis-Scale (Split)

Reliability Coefficients of importance of motivations for travelling in NZ			
N of Cases	458	N of Items	25
Correlation between forms	0.556	Equal-length Spearman-Brown	0.715
Guttman Split-half	0.707	Unequal-length Spearman-Brown	0.715
13 Items in part 1		12 Items in part 2	
Alpha for part 1	**0.821**	Alpha for part 2	**0.844**
Reliability Coefficients of satisfaction of motivations for travelling in NZ			
N of Cases	289	N of Items	25
Correlation between forms	0.589	Equal-length Spearman-Brown	0.741
Guttman Split-half	0.741	Unequal-length Spearman-Brown	0.742
13 Items in part 1		12 Items in part 2	
Alpha for part 1	**0.832**	Alpha for part 2	**0.856**
Reliability Coefficients of attractiveness of travel activities in New Zealand			
N of Cases	350	N of Items	44
Correlation between forms	0.711	Equal-length Spearman-Brown	0.831
Guttman Split-half	0.830	Unequal-length Spearman-Brown	0.831
22 Items in part 1		22 Items in part 2	
Alpha for part 1	**0.863**	Alpha for part 2	**0.863**
Reliability Coefficients of frequency of taking part in travel activities by VFRs in NZ			
N of Cases	223	N of Items	44
Correlation between forms	0.834	Equal-length Spearman-Brown	0.910
Guttman Split-half	0.910	Unequal-length Spearman-Brown	0.910
22 Items in part 1		22 Items in part 2	
Alpha for part 1	**0.887**	Alpha for part 2	**0.891**

Table 7.2 Results of Reliability Analysis-Scale (Cronbach Alpha)

Reliability Coefficients of best travel time –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =504	N of items=6
ALPHA= 0.6810	
Reliability Coefficients of information sources –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =494	N of items=9
ALPHA= 0.7063	
Reliability Coefficients of roles played in hosting VRs –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =251	N of items=8
ALPHA= 0.8864	
Reliability Coefficients of roles played in hosting VFs –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =150	N of items=8
ALPHA= 0.8546	

Reliability Coefficients of level of agreement with the statements –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =265	N of items=8
ALPHA= 0.7003	
Reliability Coefficients of factors influencing VR visits –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =488	N of items=8
ALPHA= 0.6417	
Reliability Coefficients of factors influencing VF visits –SCALE (ALL)	
N of cases =469	N of items=8
ALPHA= 0.5757	

7.4 Socio-Demographic Profile of Survey Participants and their VFRs

As previously indicated there were 504 usable surveys completed by Chinese students in four New Zealand universities. The first part of the analysis deals with those questions relating to socio-demographics of the student respondents and that of the second part deals with concerns with the socio-demographic profile of their VFRs. Descriptive statistics are calculated for demographic items, and the results are presented in Table 7.3. As illustrated, the socio-demographic profile of student respondents provided some indications of their gender, immigration status, age, level of education, financial background and marital status, while the socio-demographic profile of the VFRs included age, occupation, average monthly income level and the education level.

Table 7.3 Profiles of Student Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	217	43.1
Female	287	**56.9**
Total	504	100.0
Age Group		
19-23 years old	135	26.8
24-28 years old	274	**54.4**
29-33 years old	77	15.3
34-38 years old	11	2.2
39-43 years old	7	1.4
Total	504	100.0
Level of Education and Qualification being studied		

Bachelor's degree	322	**63.9**
Graduate or postgraduate diploma	83	16.5
Master's degree	96	19.0
Doctor's degree	3	0.6
Total	504	100.0
Immigration status		
A permanent resident or citizen in New Zealand	155	30.8
Not a permanent resident or citizen in New Zealand	349	**69.2**
Total	504	100.0
Marital status		
Single	394	**78.2**
Living with spouse/partner	97	19.2
Married but spouse is not in New Zealand	13	2.6
Total	504	100.0
Financial background		
Supported by parents in China	217	**43.1**
Supported by own saving or salary	65	12.9
Supported by spouse or partner	7	1.4
Supported by scholarship or assistantship	19	3.8
Supported partly by others, partly by part-time work in New Zealand	196	**38.9**
Total	504	100.0

The results showed that the largest numbers of survey participants were female (56.9 percent) and between the ages of 24-28 years (54.4 percent), and few respondents were 29 years old and older (18.8 percent). Over half of the respondents (69.2 percent) were non-permanent residents of New Zealand. The overwhelming majority of the respondents (78.2 percent) were unmarried. Of the respondents, approximately 43.1 percent were supported by parents in China and 38.9 percent supported partly by others and partly by part-time work in New Zealand. A total of 322 respondents (63.9 percent) were studying for or had an undergraduate degree.

The chi-square test shown in Appendix 7.1 indicated that lower level of education (e.g. bachelor's degree) related to younger students who were 19-23 years old and 24-28 years old (85.9 per cent and 63.9 per cent, respectively), non-PR students (73.6 percent), single and tended to be financially supported by parents in China (51.6 per cent). Graduate or postgraduate diploma students related to single (85.7 per cent and

72.3 percent) and tended to be supported partly by others and partly by part-time work in New Zealand (48.2 per cent). PR-students tended to be 29 years old and older (50.5 per cent), single (65.2 per cent) and supported partly by others and partly by part-time work in New Zealand (42.6 per cent).

The results in Table 7.4 showed that it was the older age groups that made the most VR trips and younger age groups that made the most VF trips. The age groups of 41 and 50 years (50.4 per cent) and 51 years old and above (39.9 per cent) were the most representive groups of VRs, while the age group of 21-30 years was the largest number of VFs (82.5 percent). The full table of the socio-demographic profile of VFRs is shown in Appendix 7.2. As part of the survey the participants were also asked to indicate the occupation of VFRs. The profile indicated the largest number of students' VRs was entrepreneur (30.6 percent), while students represented the largest number of the VFs' occupations (53.8 percent). Entrepreneur and professional jobs were combined to make up 38.8 percent of the VRs and 23.1 percent of the VFs respectively. Individual operator and business person jobs also appeared to show particularly high percentages in the job categories of the two travel groups. In particular, 16.1 percent of the VRs and 11.9 percent of the VFs was an individual operator or business person. Other job categories reported in the survey, such as civil servant, soldier and factory worker registered only a minimal number of visitors. Age seemed to be related to the occupation of the VFRs. Among the VRs, 16.9 percent were retired, while no VFs reported their occupation as retired. In addition, among the VFs, students made up more than half of the VFs (53.8 percent), while no VRs claimed they were students. In addition, occupation seemed consistent with educational background. The VRs and VFs had different educational backgrounds with about 56.7 percent having primary and secondary education level and 87.4 percent tertiary education level respectively. Of the respondents' VRs 49.1 per cent had an average household income of NZ$1,000-2,000 monthly, 28.2 percent of the respondents claimed their VRs earnt less than NZ$1,000 monthly (matches 16.9 percent of them were retirees), and over 13.7 percent of the VRs had average

household income greater than NZ$2,000 monthly (NZ$1≈4 yuan). With respect to the VFs, 44.8 percent were perceived to have an average household income less than NZ$500 monthly.

Table 7.4 Profiles of Age Groups of Students' VFRs

	Frequency	Percent
Age group of VRs		
Between 21-30 years	13	5.0
Between 31-40 years	12	4.7
Between 41-50 years	130	**50.4**
Between 51-60 years	89	**34.5**
61 years old and above	14	**5.4**
Total	258	100.0
Age group of VFs		
Between 21 and 30 years	118	**82.5**
Between 31 and 40 years	19	13.3
Between 41 and 50 years	4	2.8
Between 51 and 60 years	2	1.4
Total	143	100.0

7.5 Travel Behaviour of Chinese University Students and their VFRs

A major part of the survey contained 25 Likert scale questions asking respondents to indicate the importance of some general reasons as to why they go on holiday in New Zealand with each item presenting a range of possible responses from 1= "Of no importance" to 7= "Extremely important". The average scores for each of the motivations studied were highlighted in Table 7.5. The top important travel motives were of particular interest. Survey participants indicated that "to holiday somewhere safe" (mean=5.70), "to holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted" (mean=5.45), "to mentally relax" (mean=5.44), "to go sightseeing" (mean=5.40), "to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life" (mean=5.16), "to discover new places and things" (mean=5.11) were among the items for which scores rated higher than 5.0. This also showed that Chinese university students were strongly motivated by a desire to engage in more passive holiday activities. On the other hand, educational-related motives such as "to look at other universities and courses" (mean=3.93), Maori

cultural experiences "to visit Maori attractions" (mean=3.89), physical motive "to take some exercises" (mean=3.83) as well as adventure motives such as "to satisfy a sense of adventure" (mean=3.75) and "to change my abilities" (mean=3.70) were rated as of "some importance" for Chinese university students to travel in New Zealand.

Table 7.5 The Importance of Travel Motivations

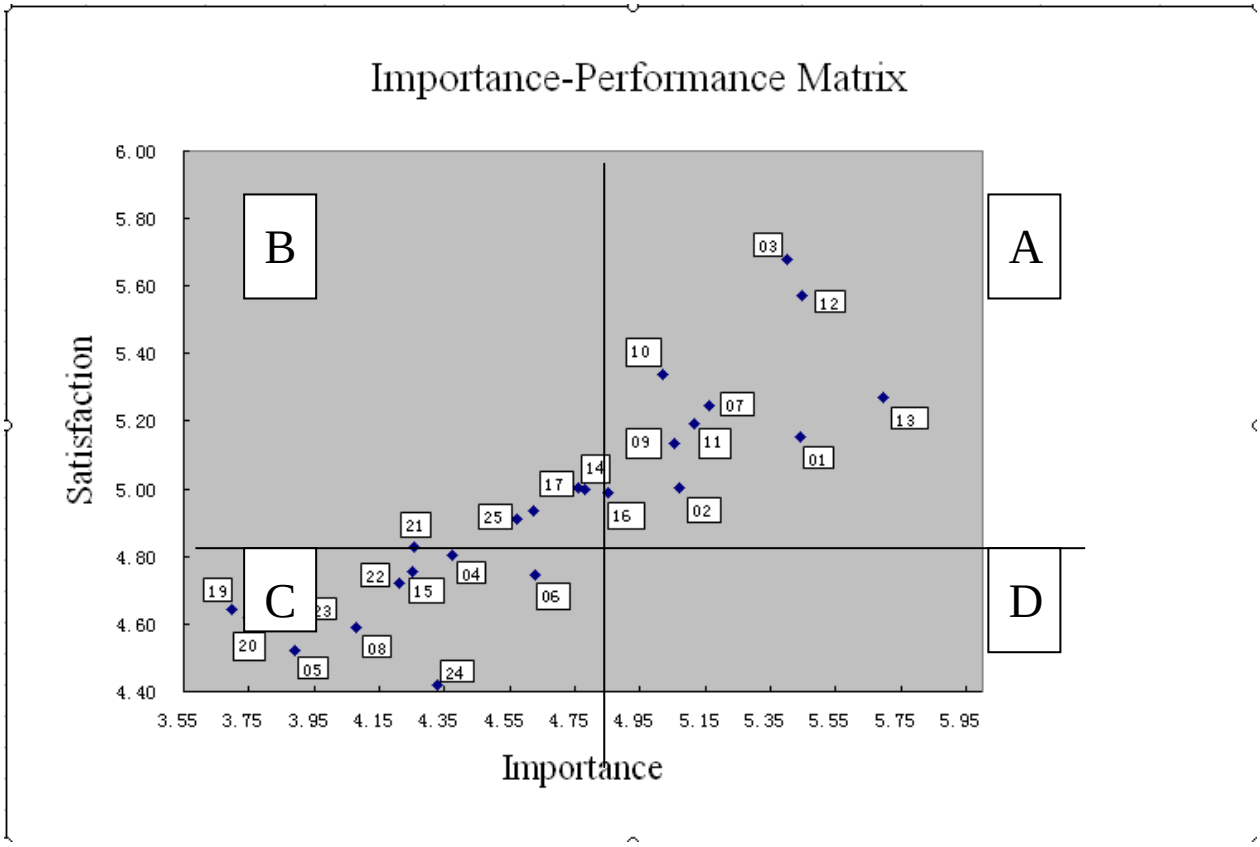
Descriptive Statistics	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
To holiday somewhere safe	502	**5.70**	1.25
To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted	502	**5.45**	1.16
To mentally relax	504	**5.44**	1.09
To visit New Zealand's natural attractions	502	**5.40**	1.08
To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life	502	**5.16**	1.25
To discover new places and things	503	**5.11**	1.21
To physically relax	502	**5.07**	1.15
To change my surroundings for the sake of change	502	**5.05**	1.10
To be in a calm atmosphere	502	**5.02**	1.18
To travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China	497	4.85	1.38
To travel with existing friends/relatives who are staying in NZ	502	4.78	1.29
To explore new ideas	500	4.76	1.44
To experience western lifestyle	501	4.63	1.20
To better understand yourself	504	4.57	1.51
To visit New Zealand's historical and cultural attractions	499	4.37	1.28
To look at career opportunities	501	4.33	1.53
To visit somewhere I had read about	502	4.26	1.39
To visit friend(s) and relative(s) in New Zealand	499	4.25	1.43
To holiday somewhere my friends have not been	499	4.21	1.44
To be with others and make new friends	500	4.08	1.25
To look at other universities and courses	503	**3.93**	1.55
To visit Maori attractions	504	**3.89**	1.26
To take some exercises (e.g. go caving)	501	**3.83**	1.37
To satisfy a sense of adventure	503	**3.75**	1.52
To challenge my abilities	499	**3.70**	1.49

Note: 1=Of no importance, 4=Important, 7=Extremely important

As noted in Chapter six, the study also used importance-evaluation measurement to assess the Chinese university students' perceived importance of and satisfaction with travel motives when travelling New Zealand. In this thesis, the mean scores for the importance (4.62) and satisfaction (4.93) were initially used as a cross point to create four quadrants to avoid everything falling into Quadrant A. In this way, 12 attributes

were identified in Quadrant A, 12 attributes were grouped in Quadrant C and 1 attribute was displayed in Quadrant D. With the purpose to subjectively force the one attribute from Quadrant D into Quadrant C, the Y-axis cross-hair (satisfaction) was plotted at 4.70, slightly higher than the grand mean of all motivational items' satisfaction (4.62), while the X-axis cross-hair (importance) was plotted at 4.95, slightly higher than the grand mean for attribute importance (4.93). Figure 7.1 presents the Importance-evaluation Matrix for motivational items. It shows that Quadrant A contained 11 attributes while Quadrant C included 14 items. It is noticeably that the grand mean for attribute importance was lower than that for attribute satisfaction, which reflects positively on the motivational items.

Figure 7.1 Importance-Performance Matrix



Attributes plotted in Quadrant A represented the optimum result—"keep it up". These attributes denoted a high satisfaction on determinant attributes. In this thesis, these attributes plotted in Quadrant A were categorized into four groups: (1) relax, (2)

exploration and novelty seeking, (3) spend time with friends/families, and (4) visit natural, safe and clean attractions. These four groups are regarded as potential "strengths" which represent the sources of competitive advantage. Hence, the marketers should try to maintain high performance on these attributes. While Quadrant C represented those items with relatively lower importance and satisfaction, indicating a low satisfaction by Chinese university students on non-determinant attributes. As Appendix 7.3 indicates, these attributes could be categorized into: (1) to visit cultural attractions, (2) to visit VFRs and make new friends, (3) adventure seeking and fitness, and (4) educational seeking. These attributes imply a lower priority in promotions. Of interest to note was that "to travel with existing friends/relatives who are staying in New Zealand" and "to travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China" in Quadrant C were located far from the attributes "to be with others and make new friends" and "to visit friends and relatives in NZ" which plotted in Quadrant A. This suggested that the Chinese university students viewed the time spent making new friends and visiting VFRs in NZ differently from the time they spent travelling with existing friends and VFRs. The possible explanation is that "spent time with existing friends and families" was where Chinese university students could enjoy interaction. On the other hand, the attributes "to make new friends" and "to visit VFRs in NZ" might make them feel lonely when they travel. Therefore, it is important to distinguish between these attributes. Another important finding to note here was that attributes in quadrant C (relatively lower importance) required huge financial investment. Although investment in quadrants C might result in items shift satisfaction to quadrant D, there was still the possibility that some such investment would be wasted. However, this is not to say that such items are unimportant to the travel destination managers. The matrix provided visual information that could be used to evaluate which items were more important.

The literature reviewed suggested that in applying the importance-evaluation matrix, it does not test gaps, because it is possible to question what the gap actually represents. However, the gap analysis of tourist motivation and satisfaction facilitates a better

understanding of the nature of behavior and intention. Therefore, a paired-sample *t*-test was conducted to identify significant gaps at the .05 level between attribute importance and Chinese university students' satisfaction on 25 attributes. The results indicated that only two items' of importance exceeded satisfaction, which were "to mentally relax" (5.45>5.15, Gap=-0.30) and "to holiday somewhere is safe" (5.73>5.28, Gap=-0.45). These two attributes also had the second and fourth highest satisfaction scores yet seemingly they still were unable to meet the level of importance attributed by Chinese university students to these motives. The item that had the highest positive disconfirmation was "to challenge my abilities" (3.91<4.12, Gap=0.73).

Table 7.6 The Attractiveness of Travel Activities

Descriptive Statistics	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
To go whale watching	478	**5.69**	1.15
To take scenic boat cruises	488	**5.55**	1.09
To go to the geothermal spa	499	**5.53**	1.16
To go skiing	491	**5.43**	1.37
To visit beaches	499	**5.36**	1.21
To see a volcano	488	**5.33**	1.26
To experience dolphin swim	487	**5.24**	1.31
To go scuba diving	469	**5.23**	1.46
Take lots of photos to show friends and relatives	486	**5.20**	1.33
To view geothermal activity and glaciers	476	**5.16**	1.40
To view seal colony	472	**5.15**	1.21
To visit Waitomo Cave	489	**5.11**	1.30
To experience wildlife in natural setting	484	**5.08**	1.38
To visit National Park	492	**5.02**	1.26
To taste local foods	491	4.99	1.45
To go canoeing/kayaking	469	4.93	1.38
To go on hunting/fishing tours	479	4.90	1.50
To go jet boating	478	4.88	1.23
To see kiwi birds	487	4.82	1.42
To go horse riding	472	4.80	1.28
To go to the zoo/aquarium	487	4.75	1.33
To have short bush walks	492	4.74	1.28
Go for ballooning or other festivals	481	4.71	1.40
To learn about animals, birds, and plants of NZ	491	4.70	1.30
A visit to albatross colony	469	4.67	1.21
To visit museums and historical sites	494	4.58	1.28
Go bungee jump	480	4.56	1.79
To go to farm shows	487	4.54	1.32

To go wine tasting/visit wineries	479	4.53	1.55
Visit gardens	490	4.46	1.22
To visit the uni campus where you study in	491	4.44	1.55
To visit Maori villages	481	4.44	1.46
To take city tours	488	4.40	1.33
To go shopping	490	4.36	1.62
To play golf	469	4.32	1.58
To visit art museums/galleries	488	4.31	1.43
To visit sights associated with famous films	475	4.27	1.60
To see a Maori Music and Dance performance	483	4.23	1.47
To experience cycle challenge	472	4.09	1.60
Nightlife	484	4.04	1.60
To buy authentic indigenous Maori souvenirs	491	4.03	1.52
To watch sporting events	476	**3.98**	1.46
To visit home shows	471	**3.51**	1.54
To gamble in a casino	463	**3.29**	1.70

Note: 1=Of no attractive, 4=Attractive, 7=Extremely Attractive

The questionnaire also identified Chinese university students' perception on the attractiveness of the trip activities when travelling in New Zealand. Table 7.6 lists the overall rating of these attributes. Questions designed to measure travel-related activities, which included a list of 43 items, were derived from a result of interviews with 25 Chinese university students based on a comprehensive review of the related literature, and placed in a random order on the questionnaire. The five most attractive activities were "to go whale-watching" (mean=5.69), "to take scenic boat cruises" (mean=5.55), "to go to the geothermal spa" (mean=5.53), "to go skiing" (mean=5.43), "to visit beaches" (mean=5.36). The table supported Carr's (2001) observation that students had a desire to engage in a combination of passive, social and hedonistic activities. Of interest to note is that although travel motive "to engage in sport" was only of some importance to Chinese students, "to go skiing" (mean=5.43) was rated as one of the top five quite attractive activities to Chinese university students. The results also suggested that while not being an important holiday motivation, sport/physical activities were a fairly important component of Chinese university students' holiday experiences in terms of perhaps producing an experience of the "new" rather than as a serious commitment to a specific sport. This finding supported the claim by Richards & Wilson (2004a) and Carr (2001) that there was a distinct gap

between the ideology and practice of student travel in that while students may appear to belong to an active age group, they in fact tended to adhere to the main sightseeing locations and activities. Therefore, promotional material and advertising messages would be more effective if the focus was on the leisure activities while at the same time not neglecting the sports-related aspects. On the other hand, 'to watch sporting events' (mean=3.98), 'to visit home shows' (mean=3.51) and "to gamble in a casino" (mean=3.29) were rated as being "some attractive". The very low mean importance scores of these attributes were possibly related to the easy accessibility of these activities in their places of residence in New Zealand, making them relatively unattractive to the travellers when travelling in other destinations of New Zealand.

Asked whether they have taken any day trips or overnight trips to tourist destinations since coming to New Zealand, Chinese university students stated that they had taken approximately an average of 5.6 trips each year within New Zealand during their period of study (Appendix 7.4). On average, approximately 2.5 of them were day trips and 3 of them were overnight trips. An overwhelming majority of respondents (70.1 percent) reported they took 3 to 6 trips. Twenty-one percent of respondents reported they had taken 7 to 10 trips, while a few respondents (3.6 percent) indicated 12 trips or more (Appendix 7.5). Asked about how many day trips and overnight trips they undertook each year, a majority of respondents (66.7 percent) indicated that they undertook one to two day-trips, while a total of 57.2 percent of respondents reported that they had two or three overnight-trips each year within New Zealand (Appendix 7.5).

The respondents were asked to indicate the average length of overnight trips in New Zealand. As illustrated in Appendix 7.6, the average length of nights spent in New Zealand destinations was approximately 3. A majority of respondents (44 percent) spent 3 nights in the destinations, a relatively large group spent 2 nights on the trip (37 percent) and a small group (14.5 percent) spent 4-5 nights in the destination. Travel of just 1 night accounted for 2.4 percent of the total, while 2.6 percent were of

6 nights or more duration. This might be because students usually travelled during the weekends or outside semesters. As the expenses of the trip increase in proportion to the length of the trip, it was not surprising to find that very few students took 6 nights or more duration holidays. This result was consistent with Carr's (2001) observation that the majority of the holidays taken by the New Zealand students lasted between one to seven days.

The survey participants were asked whether they travelled independently but without a tour group, or with friends but without tour group, or independently and with a tour group, or with friends and with a tour group. The results in Appendix 7.7 indicated that for both longer and shorter holidays, an overwhelming percentage travelled with friends but not in a tour group (65.9 percent and 84.7 percent respectively). The survey respondents also requested the average travel party size. The results in Appendix 7.8 showed that on average, the trips involved a group of 4 people. More specifically, Chinese university students were more likely to take the holiday with 3 other people (37.1 per cent), followed by 2 other people (19.4 percent), 4 other people (18.5 percent) and 1 other person or travel alone (15.9 percent). A small number of Chinese university students (9.1 per cent) also tended to travel with 5 other people and more. This can be explained by the group orientation in Chinese cultural values. Tourism literature consistently reported that Chinese people preferred to travel in groups rather than individually because of the commonly cited convenience and economic reasons (Ap & Mok, 1996; Mok & Armstrong, 1995; Mok Armstrong & Go, 1995; Wang & Sheldon, 1995). This finding supported Carr's (2001) observation that university students preferred to organize their own vacations rather than take package holidays. That might be because students would much prefer to travel with people from the same country of origin, and so give up the package tour because the tour group contains people of different ages and interests (Gmelch, 1997). In addition, according to the interview transcripts, students had more time to travel compared with working people who are in full-time employment, and thus they preferred less fixed schedules, more flexible itineraries and more independent travel. All-inclusive

package tours were not designed to offer travellers much free time in which they could pursue their own activities, and these trips would be perceived as unattractive and lacking in value for money.

Asked to state the main mode of transport used on each trip, the following results were obtained. During longer holidays, Appendix 7.9 shows that 26.8 percent used "domestic flight and others", 28.6 percent used their own cars, followed by 27.2 percent used tourist coaches and Intercity/naked buses, and 15.3 percent used rental cars, caravans and vans. Given the distance between the university and many of the destinations, along with the factor of limited time during longer holidays, it was not surprising to see that many students flew to their destinations and selected other modes of transportation such as rental cars, campervans and scheduled public transport in the destinations. Moreover, travel cost was another important factor in the students' choice of transportation. According to the interview transcripts, Kiwi Experience and the Magic Bus had been used mainly by more budget and longer term students. In addition, given the low cost of the intercity/naked bus travel, it appeared that there was significant potential for bus companies in the student travel market. As during shorter holidays, the most common mode of transportation used by students to reach the destinations was their own car (82.1 percent). This result was in line with Hobson & Josiam's (1992), Josiam, Clements & Hobson's (1994), Shanka, Ali-Knight & Pope's (2002) and Shoham, Schrage & Van Eden's (2004) findings that student travellers travelled by automobile, including their own cars. According to the interview transcript results, students chose own cars as their favorite transport modes because they enjoyed the independence of being able to come and go as they please. In addition, this might also be because Asian students were probably more likely to travel in groups than their European and Australian counterparts (Shanka, Ali-Knights & Pope, 2002).

Students were queried as to the accommodation they used while on vacation. Results were reported as follows. As during longer holidays, most stayed at motels (50.0

percent), followed by 29.2 percent stayed in backpackers/ hostels/ bed and breakfasts (Appendix 7.10). A similar finding was obtained during shorter holidays (Appendix 7.10), with a majority of students staying at motels (40.5 percent), followed by backpackers/hostels/bed and breakfast (27.0 percent). This finding was different from Richards & Wilson's (2005) observation that students chose to stay in budget accommodation, and this was especially the case for students with the high average length of their trip. Additionally, it is important to note that the Chinese students also stayed in hotel rooms, with 13.3 per cent during longer holidays and 9.2 per cent during shorter holidays. This might be because hotel rooms that sleep three, four or more individuals are probably not much more expensive than many backpackers' hostels or other forms of budget accommodation (Shanka, Ali-Knight & Pope, 2002). However, the students were more likely to stay in motels and hostels than hotels. It is probable that unlike staying in hotels, students who live in motels and hostels can prepare their own meals in kitchens (Heung & Leong, 2006). This way of self-help cooking is less expensive than eating out, and if this is done throughout the trip, the total travel budget will be smaller as well. In addition, by choosing to stay in hostels, unlike staying in hotels and motels, students can prepare their own meals in hostel kitchens and make a lot of friends in the social setting (Heung & Leong, 2006). Consequently, the packaged accommodation might be motels, youth hostels and backpackers that provided beds, and an acceptable quality of catering facilities or meals. Since student travellers are constrained by limited budgets, the price of the packages should be reasonable for them. They are unlikely to have high expectations of comfort of accommodation and transportation, as they prefer to reduce travelling costs.

Regarding the type of restaurants, the results in Appendix 7.11 showed that a majority of Chinese university students (42.7 per cent) chose Chinese restaurants to dine in for a longer holiday, followed by fast food and takeaways (18.6 per cent), and other Asian and western restaurants (10.4 per cent respectively). During shorter holidays, Chinese students had a higher tendency to choose fast food and takeaways (29.5

percent), western restaurants (13.4 percent) and other Asian restaurants (11.6 percent), while 36.5 per cent of students dined in Chinese restaurants. The results supported Schoham, Schrage & van Eeden's (2004) observation that fast food restaurants and home-style restaurants were the most popular choices when travelling by international university students.

Appendix 7.12 illustrates that the important times for Chinese university students to travel were semester breaks in summer (mean=4.07) and anytime they receive the VFR trips from China (mean=4.05). The students have a long holiday break in summer. When students travel at term breaks, they want to escape from busy and stressful studies and examination (Heung & Leong, 2006). Also, it is during this time that students have an opportunity to travel together. This finding supported Hobson & Josiam's (1995) contention that most students planned to travel during summer in the US, and also consisted with Heung & Leong's (2006) observation that summer vacation was the major time for travelling. Tourism service providers are urged to put promotion efforts before or during these periods if they want to target the Chinese university student travellers.

Appendix 7.13 shows that Chinese university students did generally plan their travel for both longer and shorter holidays (means=1.06 and 1.29, respectively). This finding supported Sung & Hsu's (1996) statement that international students did generally plan their travel. As shown in Appendix 7.14, during longer holidays, they normally planned 12 days in advance, while during shorter holidays, that would be 3 days earlier. In addition, the results demonstrated that Chinese university students varied in the extent to which they were involved in planning a trip. The results in Table 7.22 also indicated that long trips (94.2 percent) placed more emphasize on pre-trip planning than short trips (71.2 percent), which supported Richards & Wilson's (2005) assertion that the travel planning lead time was significantly longer for longer travels. Given the travel budgets of the student travellers, it is not surprising that they planned their trips in advance to ensure they travel as cheaply as possible. This may also be

due to the fact that students had become more knowledgeable about how to plan their trips and knew the importance of advance planning once they were older, better educated, and more familiar with travelling in New Zealand.

The results in Appendix 7.14 showed that an overwhelming majority of Chinese university students (72.0 percent) preferred leisure travel, followed by eco-travel (11.7 percent), adventure (8.3 percent) and others (7.1 percent). Culture and shopping were the bottom two modes of travel preferred by Chinese university students.

Table 7.7 Student Use of Holiday Information Sources

Type of Information Source	**Average score of usage**	S.D.
The Internet	3.36	1.32
Visitor centre	2.93	1.37
Yellow page, AA guide book	2.89	1.37
Word of mouth by Asian friends	2.88	1.25
Magazines/brochures	2.70	1.25
Word of mouth by Kiwi friends	2.62	1.32
Travel agents	2.36	1.58
TV Ads/Radio	1.99	1.06
Airport center	1.91	1.14

Note: 1=never, 2= infrequently, 3= moderately, 4= frequently, and 5=very frequently.

Based on the average scores from a five point Likert scale designated to assess how frequently the students used holiday information sources when deciding where to go on holiday in New Zealand (1=never, 5=very frequently), Table 7.7 demonstrates that on average, the students moderately used the Internet (mean=3.36), followed by visitor information center (mean=2.93), and the other sources listed. The result was in line with Clarke's (1992), Josiam, Clements & Hobson's (1994), Sung & Hsu's (1996) and Richards & Wilson's (2005) observation in that the Internet remains the main form of pre-trip information gathering. In addition, the use of visitor centers also increased which may indicate that these businesses are adapting to new market conditions, for example by providing more information over the internet. The result also supported Josiam, Clements & Hobson's (1994) and Frost & Shanka's (1999) findings that the role of friends and word-of-mouth information played a much stronger role than travel agents. This might be because the travellers felt that the

wrong choice might involve money and time losses (Heung & Leong, 2006). In contrast, the result suggested that informal information source (i.e. Word of Mouth) was moderately used by Chinese university students. In other words, the experience of people who have travelled in New Zealand before had some influence on those Chinese university students who had not. Destination marketers who want to attract the Chinese university student market would be well advised to focus their energies on ensuring a good experience for student travellers, because the experience of one group of student travellers influences those in the years to come. Nevertheless, travel-related websites, guidebooks, and visitor information centers had a powerful influence over the way Chinese university students plan their trips. The specific features of travel websites provide information-based features, such as being able to book everything on one website (e.g. flights, accommodation, surface transport etc.) or saving enquiries for booking later. Therefore, advertisements in travel-related websites, guidebooks, and visitor centres are recommended. Moreover, the Internet is most frequently used to plan travel. According to interview transcripts, Chinese university students searched a number of different types of websites to find the information they needed. For example, they used websites to identify price comparisons, features and information about the destination. This implied that travel products have more chance of being found if they are online. This result was consistent with Richards & Wilson's (2005) observation that the use of the Internet was the main information source used in planning the trip. Bai, Hu, Elworth & Countryman (2004) also stated that with regard to the Internet, students were becoming leading edge Internet users so much so that their online habits could demonstrate the future direction of the Internet. Also, university students have been receptive to online promotions and discount deals.

The questionnaire targeted a number of tourist spots identified by Tourism New Zealand in the IVS and tourism flow data, as either day or overnight spots. Recognizing that trips may well involve more than one destination, the respondents were asked to nominate all the destinations they visited. In order to examine the

geographical spread of the overnight holiday destinations, New Zealand was split into regions. Chinese university students visited all the regions in New Zealand, revealing the diversity of destinations in this market. From the information gained from the interviews and pre-tests, it was decided that main popular destinations from each region should be selected. The researcher chose what she anticipated to be the main popular destinations in each region based on the regional map displays on www.wises.co.nz. In Appendix 7.16, the percentage of students who visited the selected destinations in each region is reported. In terms of the destinations of overnight trips in the North Island visited by Chinese university students, 94.6 percent visited Auckland, 90.3 percent visited Rotorua, 85.3 percent visited Taupo, 82.9 percent visited Hamilton and 67.3 percent visited Wellington. Regarding destinations of overnight trips in the south island, Christchurch (39.7 percent) Queenstown (31.4 percent), Dunedin (26.2 percent), Milford Sound (17.1 percent), Mount Cook (15.3 percent) and West Coast (12.7 percent) were major destinations visited by Chinese university students. This finding supports results of the interview transcript. Chinese university students in the North Island usually first chose destinations in the North Island because it costs them less than travelling in the South Island. Moreover, according to the interview transcript, respondents place a great deal of importance on the scenery at the destination, safety, weather, availability of attractive activities in destinations, and the availability of travel time. Destination marketers looking for attracting Chinese university students would obviously be wise to emphasize these attributes in their marketing strategies.

Chinese university student travel destinations were not limited to travel within New Zealand. As Appendix 7.17 shows, of the twelve destinations mentioned by respondents the majority were in Southeast Asia. The most popular international destination was China (66.1 percent). Not surprisingly, the closest destination Australia was the second most popular foreign destination (12.4 percent). The other top four destinations included Hong Kong, Korea, Singapore and Japan, which accounted for 17.1 percent of responses. This finding was different from Carr's (2001)

observation that the most popular international destination for the New Zealand students was Australia, while in contrast only one student visited the Middle East and South America, and Asia was the third most popular international destination behind New Zealand and Europe.

This study also examined Chinese university students' choice of international airlines for overseas holidays. Respondents mentioned sixteen international airlines across the globe. The survey results in Appendix 7.18 indicated that Chinese students would more likely fly with Cathay Pacific Airline (21.0 percent) on overseas holidays. Singapore Airline, Air New Zealand and Air China were other popular airlines used by Chinese university students, with 16.2 percent, 14.2 percent and 11.6 percent, respectively mentioning them. According to the interview transcript, the choice of airline depends on availability of seats on cheap flights, whether they travel alone or with family as well as finance. The wide range of factors that could potentially influence the choice of airline needs to be considered. For example, the parents and family of the student travellers were themselves targeted by airlines using loyalty programs, safety considerations and in-flight comfort appeals.

The survey revealed significant findings in terms of funding and promotional considerations. Details are shown in Appendix 7.19. In relation to promotion, the question "who influenced you in choosing that airline" was posed. A majority of Chinese university students (89.9 percent) indicated that they made their own choice. The rest of them indicated their choice of a particular airline had been influenced by family, friends and travel agent. Given that the major influencing factors were dominated by the individual, not a high involvement decision, it would appear the involvement of parents, relatives and friends were not important in terms of the overall strategy. It is also important to recognize that the airlines and travel agents played a very minor role. They did not appear to be part of the influencing process. To complete the understanding of influencing factors, funding was considered in terms of who funded the trip. The results are shown in Appendix 7.20.

As Appendix 7.21 shows, an overwhelming number of Chinese university students indicated that their families had financed their holidays overseas (74.0 percent), while 18.8 percent indicated that they paid for overseas vacations by using a combination of personal saving and money from their parents. While only 6.2 percent took a self-financed holiday. Clearly the fact that others financed the trip to a significant degree raises a number of issues. The standard of the trip is likely to be higher if additional funding is made available. The presence of others, particularly family, might also ensure a higher class of travel. In addition, this situation would have an impact on the promotional strategy used by tour operators.

The average level of overall satisfaction with their trips in New Zealand on a five-point Likert scale with 1 being not at all satisfied and 5 being very satisfied was 3.60, indicating that Chinese university students were generally somewhat 'moderately satisfied' to 'satisfied' with their trips. Table 7.31 shows that of the total responses, 58.9 percent were satisfied with their trips, followed by 24.5 percent who were moderately satisfied with their holidays.

Students were asked whether they would visit the same place again. The question called for a 'yes' or 'no' response. It was found that 87.1 per cent reported that they would like to visit the same destinations in the future (Appendix 7.21). According to Oppermann (2000), the degree of tourists' loyalty to a destination is reflected in their intentions to revisit the destination. The results demonstrated that Chinese university students were willing to make repeat visits, which contributed to destination loyalty. This might be due to students' satisfaction with travel destinations in New Zealand. As suggested by Gitelson & Crompton (1984), satisfaction with a particular destination appeared to be a necessary condition for explaining much repeat visitation.

As another indicator for loyalty, their willingness to recommend holidays in New Zealand to their friends and relatives was also measured on a yes/no question. Table

7.33 in Appendix 7 indicated that approximately 84% of respondents stated that that they would recommend New Zealand to their relatives and/or friends from their home country, 15.5% would not, and two students said they might or might not recommend (Appendix 7.22). In this regard, Chinese university students were loyal customers to the destinations in New Zealand. The results might be because students' positive experiences produced by tourism destinations in New Zealand produce positive word-of-mouth effects to potential tourists such as friends and/or relatives. Recommendations by previous visitors can be regarded as a reliable information source for potential tourists and recommendations to other people are one of the most often sought types of information for people interested in travelling (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Respondents who have received VFRs during their course of stay were used for determining the travel behaviors of the VFRs. The current study delineated Chinese VFRs trip-related behaviors in New Zealand. Further, recognizing the shortcomings of previous research on this topic, as mentioned earlier, the researcher in this study investigated the within-group differences of Chinese VFRs between VRs and VFs in terms of key trip-related variables.

Appendix 7.23 indicates that 50.8 percent of the sample reported they have received visits by relatives (VRs) while studying in New Zealand. While 29.4 percent of the sample reported they have received visits by friends (VFs). Of these VR visits, 81.9 percent of the sample reported they have received one visit, 15.8 percent reported two visits, while only 2.3 percent received three to four visits (Appendix 7.24). While regarding VF visits, 77.6 percent have reported one visit, 19.0 percent received two visits by friends, while only 3.4 percent received three to four visits. For both VR and VF visits, no appended sheets were enclosed to describe any fifth or subsequent visits.

Appendix 7.25 establishes that there was a significant amount of Chinese student-initiated VFR trips taking place. The results showed that the majority of VRs (49.6

per cent) and VFs (43.2 per cent) visited them once to twice in three years. A further 44.9 percent and 44.6 percent said that their VRs and VFs visited them once to three times in four years. In contrast, few respondents received VR visits (4.3 percent) and VF visits (4.7 percent) once a year and once to three times in five years (1.2 percent and 5.4 per cent, respectively).

The results in Appendix 7.26 showed that a total of 65.8 percent of respondents (about two-thirds) indicated that their relatives have visited them, while 34.0 percent of respondents (about one-third) have had their friends visited them. Most VR visits were immediate family with 53.2 percent being a parent/parents and a further 6.4 percent being brothers/sisters. It is important to note that students' mothers were more likely to visit the students compared with their fathers. This is quite a stereotype role in Asian family where the mother will normally take care of the children rather than the father. Some of the mothers are not working so they can spend more time with their children in New Zealand. Family ties with immediate family are obviously strong since a further 22% of respondents said that their last VFR trip was to visit a brother or sister.

Appendix 7.27 illustrates that VR and VF trips were more equally distributed throughout the year and actually peaked in the months of December (21.8 per cent and 15.0 per cent, respectively) and July (13.5 per cent and 20.0 per cent, respectively). Additionally, in the case of VF markets, February was also the peak month (10.0 per cent). The Chinese university-generated VFR market was, therefore, a suitable target group to better use the capacity of the tourism industry.

As Appendix 7.28 shows, the average number of days that VRs stayed in New Zealand was approximately 27 days and that for VFs was about 6 days. A total of 19.9 per cent of VRs stayed 30-35 days in New Zealand, followed by 14-15 days (16.4 per cent), 7-9 days (16.0 per cent), 2-6 days (13.7 per cent). A small number of VRs stayed in New Zealand for 40-90 days (8.6 per cent) and 100-270 days (4.7 per cent).

Two hundred and fifty-six students or 99.6 percent of the sample reported they accompanied VRs to travel around New Zealand, while 145 or 95.2 percent said they accompanied VFs (Appendix 7.29). This suggested that VFR visits encouraged students to take their VFR visitors out locally and therefore pushed students to experience tourism in their local areas when they may not otherwise have done so. Appendix 7.30 shows that the average number of days of these trips on VR visits that students accompanied was 9 days and those on VF visits was 5 days. Of these VR trips, 27.69 per cent of respondents spent 10 days travelling with their VRs, followed by 25.4 per cent accompanied their VRs for 11-40 days and 16.77 per cent spending 7-9 days. A majority of students accompanied VFs to travel in New Zealand for 11-15 days (27.46 per cent), followed by 10 days (21.13 per cent), while a few (7.04 per cent) travelled with VFs for 16-40 days.

Table 7.8 Main Accommodation VFRs Used without Travelling in New Zealand

		VRs		**VFs**	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	hotel	47	18.1	56	22.7
	motel	58	22.4	177	71.7
	backpacker			9	3.6
	Stay at friend's home	3	1.2	5	2.0
	Stay at other relative's home	1	0.4		
	Stay with me in a boarding	7	2.7		
	Stay with me in a rental house	108	41.7		
	Stay with me in an apartment	17	6.6		
	Stay with me in their own house	18	6.9		
	Total	259	100.0	247	100.0

Table 7.9 Secondary Accommodation VFRs Used without Travelling in New Zealand

		VRs		**VFs**	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	hotel	56	22.7	4	2.8
	motel	177	71.7	65	45.5
	backpacker	9	3.6	51	35.7
	stay at friends' home	5	2.0	18	12.6
	bed and breakfast			5	3.5
	Total	247	100.0	143	100.0

Table 7.8 highlights main accommodation VRs used to stay in were with the students in rental houses (41.7 percent), followed by motels (22.4 percent) and hotels (18.1 percent). Table 7.9 also shows that the secondary accommodation that VRs used were motels (71.7 percent) and hotels (22.7 percent). Regarding VFs, the main accommodation used were motels (71.7 percent) and backpacker (22.7 per cent), while secondary accommodation used were motels (45.5 per cent) and backpackers/hostels (35.7 per cent), followed by friends' homes (12.6 percent). This finding demonstrated that VFRs did use commercial accommodation. In addition, the result also showed that VRs were different from VFs in selecting accommodation. That is, VRs were more likely to use private accommodation, while VFs were much more likely to use commercial accommodation.

The study also examines the selection of accommodation that the VFRs used in the situation when the students did not have a room for the VFRs to stay overnight at their places of residence. Appendix 7.31 shows that a total of 84.2 percent of the students recommended other accommodation locally to VRs, while 59.2 percent recommended such places to their VFs. A total of 14.2 percent of the students indicated that travel agents suggested local accommodation for their VRs, and 24.5 percent of respondents said their VFs selected local accommodation by themselves under these circumstances. The results demonstrated an opportunity existed for accommodation providers if they were able to put together the right package for the VFRs.

Appendix 7.32 indicates that the main purposes of Chinese university students' VR visits to New Zealand included: to visit the students (72.1 percent), holiday (23.3 percent), business (3.9 percent) and others (0.8 percent). Concerning VF visits, the results illustrated that the main purpose of a majority of VF visits to New Zealand was holidays (90.0 percent). While Appendix 7.33 shows that the secondary purposes of Chinese university students' VR visits to New Zealand were holiday (71.7 percent), visit students (26.7 percent) and others (1.2 percent), while the secondary purpose of a majority of VF visits to New Zealand was to visit students (80.4 percent). These

results demonstrated that VFRs were interested not only in visiting family but also in other travel motives, such as holidays, which supported Seaton (1996) and King (1996) in their views that VFR could be one component of 'hybrid travel'.

Both VRs (88.8 percent) and VFs (69.1 percent) preferred leisure travel (see Appendix 7.34). In addition, as expected, VFs (17.4 percent) were much more likely to take adventure travel than VRs (0.8 percent). A number of VRs and VFs also preferred eco-travel in New Zealand (10.5 percent and 13.4 percent, respectively).

When asked who were the VRs and VFs travelling with in New Zealand during a longer holiday, the results in Appendix 7.35 demonstrated that a majority of VRs travelled with students but without tour group (48.5 per cent), followed by with students and with tour group (24.4 per cent), with tour group but without students (14.1 per cent) and with friends and without students and tour group (10.7 per cent). Concerning VF trips, a majority of VFs travelled with tour group but without students (35.2 per cent), followed by with students but without tour group (30.3 per cent), with friends but without students and tour group (18.3 per cent) and with students and with tour group (11.3 per cent). This suggested that Chinese people preferred to travel in groups due to their group orientation attribute. The Chinese VRs to New Zealand seemed less likely to choose package travel, which might be because most travel arrangements were made by students in New Zealand. Few VRs (2.3 per cent) and VFs (4.9 per cent) travelled independently in New Zealand. In contrast, considering a shorter holiday, Appendix 7.36 indicates that an overwhelming majority of VRs and VFs travelled with students but without tour group (91.2 per cent and 82.9 per cent, respectively).

The VFRs used a small variety of transportation modes when they travelled around in New Zealand. In terms of a longer holiday, Appendix 7.37 shows that the majority of VRs and VFs used a combination of transportation on holiday, followed by own car (29.8 per cent and 15.9 per cent, respectively), tourist coach/tour bus (35.1 per cent

and 52.4 per cent, respectively) and rental car/caravan/van (7.3 per cent and 13.1 per cent, respectively). Regarding shorter holidays, Appendix 7.38 shows that an overwhelming number of VRs and VFs travelled by own cars (88.9 per cent and 77.9 per cent, respectively). From the researcher's observation it is almost normal for Chinese university students who are studying in New Zealand to have a car during their study period. That is why the results indicated that the majority of the VFRs used private cars as compared to other modes of transportation when they tour New Zealand. The VFRs also used domestic flights to travel between the North and South Islands during a longer holiday. For those VFRs who chose a package tour, tour coaches were also popular choices of travel mode.

Questions were asked about the types of accommodation that VRs and VFs chose to stay in when they visited New Zealand during longer holidays and shorter holidays. Appendix 7.39 shows that during longer holidays, a total of 64.1 per cent of VRs stayed at motels, followed by 14.5 per cent of the VRs stayed at hotels. Other types of accommodation did not have any representation from the VRs. The results in Appendix 7.40 also illustrated that during shorter holidays, a majority of VFs (44.8 per cent) stayed at motels, followed by 21.4 per cent stayed at backpackers and 17.2 per cent stayed at other friends' and relatives' homes. Only 4.9 per cent of VFs stayed at the hotels.

Appendix 7.41 shows that an overwhelming number of VRs (81.5 per cent) dined in the Chinese restaurants during longer holidays, followed by other Asian restaurants (7.7 per cent respectively). In contrast, a majority of VFs (67.6 per cent) dined in Chinese restaurants during longer holidays, followed by 12.4 per cent who chose fast food and takeaways and 10.3 per cent dined in western restaurants. Regarding shorter holidays, Appendix 7.42 indicates that during shorter holidays, a number of VRs chose Chinese restaurants (46.2 per cent) and other Asian restaurants (21.5 per cent), while 14.6 per cent dined in western restaurants, followed by fast food and takeaways (10.4 per cent). In comparison, a number of VFs (37.2 per cent) chose Chinese

restaurants, followed by other Asian restaurants (22.1 per cent), western restaurants (16.6 per cent) and fast food and takeaways (15.9 per cent).

Staying with friends and relatives means going to where they live. Therefore, is it more likely for VFRs to visit destinations outside the main tourist routes than is the case of other tourists? The VFRs' choice is not so restricted that he/she visits only the destinations in which friends and relatives reside. For many there is ample opportunity to visit other tourist spots on the way to and from VFR destinations. By detailing the locations visited by VFRs, it is useful to indicate which destinations attract the bulk of VFR travellers, and how similar VFR travel patterns are to other reasons for the visit. The results in Appendix 7.43 revealed that a significant percentage of VFRs made a visit to Auckland, Wellington and Hamilton in the North Island. In addition, high rates were also recorded for destinations noted as tourist sports, such as Rotorua and Taupo. In addition, lower rates were recorded for destinations in the South Island. Clearly, VFR travellers took the time to visit destinations other than in which their friends and relatives reside. The measurement of the geographical dispersal of international visitors in terms of location visits, however, may be inadequate in that it takes no account of how long visitors stayed in any given destinations (Angus, 1990). In this respect, it may be more instructive to consider the number of person-nights visitors spend in various locations in future studies.

Travel activities grouped by response mean for frequency of participation by Chinese university students into frequently, sometimes, seldom and never are set forth in Appendix 7.44. For example, go shopping, visit beaches and take lots of photos to show their friends and relatives were the activities engaged in frequently by VFRs (mean=2.50 respectively). Not many people intended to attend adventure activities, visit wineries, watch sports or gamble. Such a high level of frequency participation in shopping by the Chinese VFRs could be attributed to the Chinese culture of gift giving (Jang, Yu & Pearson, 2003). A person who visits a foreign country is supposed to bring novel gifts for family members, relatives, colleagues and associates. That is

why shopping was their top activity because they had to find gifts for many people at home. One important message to tour operators is that Chinese VFRs need to be given a considerable amount of time and opportunities for shopping during their stay in New Zealand, and the merchandise must suit their needs. Specialty gift shops are required to provide VFRs with goods that are popular at home, ranging from nutrition supplements to cosmetics.

Appendix 7.45 indicates that generally both VRs (mean=4.04) and VFs (mean=4.03) were satisfied with their overall trip experience in New Zealand. Appendix 7.46 shows that a majority of VRs (49.8 per cent) and VFs (51.0 per cent) were satisfied with their visits to New Zealand. Also, Appendix 7.47 illustrates that almost 44.0 percent of the students indicated that they would host VR trips in the future compared to only 7.7 percent who said that there was no VR trip that they are going to host in the future. The rest of them (51.8 per cent) were not sure whether their VRs would visit them in the future. In contrast, a total of 27.6 percent of the students said that they were going to host VF trips in the future while 19.2 percent of them would not be going to host VF trips in the future, and 53.2 per cent of them were not sure.

Appendix 7.48 shows that "Visa" (mean=4.32) and "time" (mean=4.12) were the important factors influencing future VR visits, while "visa" (mean=4.38), "time" (mean=4.36), "lack of time to accompany VFRs" (mean=4.30) and "interest in New Zealand" (mean=4.13) were the important factors influencing future VF visits. On the other hand, "physical conditions" (mean=2.74), "number of trips you are going back to China"(mean=2.70) and "distance between China and New Zealand" (mean=2.62) were regarded as not important factors influencing future VF visits, while those factors were moderately important factors influencing future VR visits.

As shown in Appendix 7.49, students agreed with the two statements: "you tried to find a local event or attraction to go when you had visitors" (mean=4.33) and "you took VFRs out to eat in local restaurants at least once during their stay" (mean=4.23).

In contrast, they were neutral with the following statements: “you would like to be a host for VFRs in the future” (mean=3.99), “your travel experience influenced VFR travel patterns” (mean=3.93), “your VFRs will travel in New Zealand in the future” (mean=3.80), “you recommend accommodation locally” (mean=3.76), “the arrivals of VFRs have influenced your travel demand” (mean=3.64) and “your VFRs would visit New Zealand if you were not in New Zealand” (mean=3.13).

Hosts may also be a decisive influence on the activities and hospitality decisions of “tourists on their own doorstep” which may suggest the importance of educating the host. Little research exists on the role of hosts within the VFR decision patterns. The fact that it is often the host that organises or proposes which visitor attractions are included in the itinerary means that this group could be targeted with promotional material or special offers. Loyalty related promotions and promotions through very local media would open up new opportunities for visitor attractions at a lower cost than national advertising. Students played somewhat between equal and dominant roles in the following travel decisions as shown in appendix 7.50 when travelling with VRs: “the mode of transportation” (mean=3.97), “trip information” (mean=3.93), “where to stay” (mean=3.88), “site to visit” (mean=3.83), “what to do” (mean=3.70), “where to eat” (mean=3.59), “length of stay” (mean=3.36) and “souvenir purchasing” (mean=3.12). In contrast, students played somewhat equal to dominant role in terms of “mode of transportation” (mean=3.57), “trip information” (mean=3.52), “site to visit” (mean=3.47), “where to eat” (mean=3.39), “where to stay” (mean=3.36) and “what to do” (mean=3.35). Students played less role in deciding “length of stay” (mean=2.96) and “souvenir purchasing” when travelling with VFs (mean=2.85).

To further examine the relationship between travel behavior variables such as the main purpose was to visit students vs. the main purpose was for holiday, the use of commercial accommodation vs. private homes, Chi-square tests were utilized to test differences between the variables. Those VRs who stayed in private homes differed significantly from VRs who stayed at commercial accommodation in the length of VR

stay. The use of private homes exerted positive effects on the length of VR stays. Appendix 7.51 shows that VRs who stayed in private homes stayed longer than those who stayed at commercial accommodation. However, no significant differences were noted in the length of VF stays between those who stayed at commercial accommodation and those who stayed at private homes. The use of commercial lodging also had effect on other travel behaviors. For example, those VRs who stayed at commercial accommodation had a high tendency to use tourist coach/tour bus during longer holidays, while those who stayed at private homes more likely to use own cars (see Appendix 7.52). No significant differences were found in the mode of transportation between VFs who stayed at commercial accommodation and those who stayed at private homes.

Chi-square test also revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between VFR as a main purpose for the trip and holiday as a main purpose in terms of the choice of main form of accommodation. Appendix 7.53 shows that a majority of VRs (52.5 per cent) who reported VR as their main travel purpose stayed with students, while an overwhelming number of those who stated holiday as their main travel purpose (74.6 per cent), stayed in commercial accommodation such as hotels and motels. In addition, Appendix 7.54 illustrates VRs whose main purpose was to visit students stayed significantly longer than those whose main purpose was for holiday. However, there was no significant difference between VFs whose main purpose was to VFR and those VFs for holiday in terms of length of stay.

7.6 Travel Expenditure Patterns of Chinese University Students and their VFRs

An analysis of expenditure patterns of Chinese VFRs was performed to evaluate the financial value of this market. Appendix 7.55 shows that the average travel expenditure of VRs was NZ$3,263.53, and that of VFs was NZ$2,856.67. However, taking into account the high standard deviation of these variables (NZ$757.46 and NZ$876.24 respectively), differences in total expenditure levels may be a consequence of different duration of stay, constitution of the travel group, as well as different individual spending patterns. Other items of personal expenditure help to illustrate the profile of the VFR markets. VRs and VFs spent a considerable amount on transportation (NZ$1,396.65 and NZ$1,317.31, respectively). This study also demonstrated that Chinese VRs and VFs had significant expenditures on souvenirs/gifts (NZ$427.24 and NZ$319.23, respectively), food (NZ$421.97 and $358.08, respectively), accommodation (NZ$415.27 and NZ$325.38, respectively), recreation (NZ$360.67 and NZ$340.38, respectively), shopping (NZ$260.08 and NZ$258.08, respectively) and other expenditures (NZ$425.00 and NZ$187.50, respectively). The current study indicated both VRs and VFs appeared to be generous spenders on transport. In addition, the results support the argument of Braunlich & Nadkarni (1995) and Moscardo *et al*. (2000) that VFRs used commercial accommodation on their VFR trips. The results determined that VFRs did not wholly rely on the hospitality of students for accommodation and meals. As a general role, VFRs spend less than other tourists in aggregate totals and spend-per-trip, but the proportionate breakdowns of that expenditure on food and beverage, shopping and travel are at least equal to spending by all tourists, except for expenditure on accommodation and packages. Indeed their shopping and travel costs are proportionately much higher (Seaton, 1997). On the other hand, comparison of the two groups of VFRs disclosed clear differences in both spending pattern and amount.

In addition, there was a hidden expenditure multiplier in VFR activity—the financial outlay by hosts incurred in entertaining guests. Because Chinese VFRs travel more

extensively and visit places other than where the students reside, the extra travel stimulates more expenditure on the part of these travellers. As a group, they had greater economic value to destination marketers and deserved special marketing attention. Therefore, this study took account of an indirect spending effect through the hosts—Chinese university students. The finding of this study indicated that students spent on average $1,186.61 in the last year on holiday in New Zealand. Of these, $1,164.42 was due to the visits by friends and relatives (see Appendix 7.56).

When tourist behavior and expenditure patterns were tested, it was found that there were variations in how each independent variable affected each expenditure category. Chi-square test demonstrated that VRs who stayed in private homes did not differ significantly from VRs who stayed at commercial accommodation facilities in overall spending and for each expenditure category. Similarly, no significant differences were found for overall spending and each expenditure category in VFs used in commercial accommodation and those VFs who stayed at private homes. In contrast, the travel purpose of VRs were statistically significant different for the average expenditure and transportation expenditure per person (see Appendix 7.57). VRs who reported VR as the main travel purpose had more overall spending and transportation expenditure than those whose main purpose was for holiday. However, no significant differences were noted in spending on accommodation, food and beverage, recreation, souvenirs/gifts and shopping. The results also illustrated that there were no significant differences for VFs who reported VF as the main travel purpose and those who stated holiday as the main travel purpose in terms of total average expenditure and each expenditure category.

7.7 Conclusions

This chapter evaluated the actual response, reliability and adequacy of the sample. In addition, the socio-demographic profiles and travel behavioral preferences regarding Chinese students from New Zealand universities. Based on the findings of this study, it was suggested that modifications to the existing tourism products and services and

new product development were necessary in order to meet the demand of the Chinese university student travel market in New Zealand. Further, this study also examined the indirect contributions that Chinese students made to the tourism industry in New Zealand—VFR market. The socio-demographic profile, travel behavior and expenditure patterns of student-initiated VFRs had been investigated. Moreover, the results suggested that the VFR travel market is not homogeneous. VFs and VRs showed sharp contrasts not only in travel behavior but also expenditure pattern. The socio-demographic profile and travel behavior of Chinese university students and their VFRs developed in this chapter were useful in marketing implementations, which would be discussed in Chapter 11.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS, TOURIST BEHAVIOR AND EXPENDITURE PATTERNS

8.1 Introduction

The primary objective of this study was to improve the understanding of the relationships between selected socio-demographic variables and travel behaviors and expenditure patterns. The chapter is organized as follows. Following the introduction, the research methodology approaches are presented. Then, it discusses the relationship between travel behavior and socio-demographic variables, followed by an evaluation of the relationship between travel expenditure and socio-demographic variables and examination of the relationship between travel behavior and travel expenditure. The research hypotheses guiding this chapter are enunciated as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Socio-demographic variables are related to travel behavior
Hypothesis 2: Socio-demographic variables are related to expenditure pattern
Hypothesis 3: Travel behavior determines Travel expenditure

The hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 are further broken down as follows:

H$_{1(a)}$: Students' socio-demographic variables are related to student travel behavior
H$_{1(b)}$: VFRs' socio-demographic variables are related to VFR travel behavior
H$_{2(a)}$: Students' socio-demographic variables are related to student expenditure pattern
H$_{2(b)}$: VFRs' socio-demographic variables are related to VFR expenditure pattern
H$_{3(a)}$: Student travel behavior determines student travel expenditure
H$_{3(b)}$:VFR travel behavior determines VFR travel expenditure

8.2 Methodological Issues

Independent sample *t*-test and one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) are utilized to examine statistically significant differences between selected socio-demographic variables in relation to tourist behaviors. An independent group *t*-test is appropriate when different participants have performed in each of the different conditions – in other words, when the participants in one condition are different from the participants in the other condition (Coakes & Steed, 2001). This study adopts an independent

group *t*-test to determine whether difference between means for the two sets of scores is significant. In contrast, a one-way ANOVA is appropriate when comparing the means of more than two groups or levels of an independent variable. Post-hoc analysis was utilized in this study to examine an entire set of comparisons for any significance. There are a number of post-hoc tests available in statistics. The Scheffe test, for example, allows the researcher to perform every possible comparison, albeit it is tough on rejecting the null hypothesis (Coakes & Steed, 2001). Alternatively, Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test is more lenient, albeit the researcher is restricted in terms of the types of comparison that can be undertaken (Coakes & Steed, 2001). This study uses the Tukey HSD post-hoc test. Additionally, regression analysis is a statistical technique that supports the analysis of the relationship between dependent and independent variable(s) (Business Dictionary, 2008). Therefore, this study also utilizes regression analysis to investigate the impacts of socio-demographic variables on expenditure pattern for the Chinese university student and VFR markets.

8.3 Analyzing the Impact of Socio-Demographic Variables on Tourist Behaviour

The following discussions address the results of the survey in two parts: the first reports key results of the impact of selected socio-demographic variables on student tourist behaviour, and the second considers the impact of selected socio-demographic variables on VFR tourist behaviour. Students' socio-demographic variables such as gender, immigration status, age, education level, financial background and marital status are categorized as follows: (a) males and (b) females; (a) "Permanent Residency (PR)" and (b) "Non-Permanent Residency (Non-PR)"; (a) 19 to 23 years old, (b) 24 to 28 years old and (c) 29 years old and older; (a) bachelor's degree, (b) graduate or postgraduate diploma and (c) master's or doctor's degree; (a) supported by parents in China, (b) supported by own savings or salary or by spouse partner or by scholarship and, (c) supported partly by others and partly by part-time work in New Zealand and, (a) single and (b) married or in de facto relationship. VRs' socio-demographics such as age, occupation, income and education are grouped as follows:

(a) 21 to 40 years old, (b) 41 to 50 years old and (c) 51 years old and older; (a) entrepreneur, (b) retired, (c) professional, (d) individual operator or business person, (e) others and, (f) combined jobs; (a) less than NZ$1,000, (b) NZ$1,001-1,500, (c) NZ$1,501-2,000 and (d) NZ$2,001 and above and, (a) primary or secondary and (b) tertiary. Associated VFs' socio-demographics are categorized as: (a) 21-30 years old, (b) 31-40 years old and (c) 41 years old and older; (a) student, (b) entrepreneur, (c) professional, (d) individual operator or business person, (e) others and, (f) combined jobs; (a) less than NZ$500, (b) NZ$501-1,000, (c) NZ$1,001-1,500 and (d) NZ$1,501 and above and, (a) secondary and (b) tertiary. The results described below include only the significant relationships that explained more than 5 percent of the variance.

The impact of students' socio-demographic variables on student travel behaviour

H1(a): Students' socio-demographic variables are related to student travel behavior

This section reports the findings regarding the relationship between students' socio-demographics and student travel behavior. In this thesis, the selected travel behavior variables for the student travel market are ordered according to travel motivations, travel activities, best travel times, information sources, advance trip planning, the roles played by students in VFR travel and overall travel satisfaction.

With respect to travel motivations, the 25 Likert scale questions with the level of importance attributed to travel motives in New Zealand are tested using an independent sample *t*-test to evaluate differences among the socio-demographic variables. Gender, immigration status, age, education level, financial background and marital status were found to be statistically significant. The results in Appendix 8.1 indicated that genders were shown significant differences in 5 travel motive attributes: "physically relax" ($t=2.26$, $p<0.05$), "visit New Zealand's historical and cultural attractions" ($t=2.80$, $p<0.05$), "visit Maori attractions" ($t=2.98$, $p<0.05$), "holiday somewhere is safe" ($t=3.42$, $p<0.05$) and "satisfy a sense of adventure" ($t=3.21$, $p<0.05$). This finding was in line with Reisinger & Mavondo's (2004) suggestion that

female and male students were motivated by different motives for travelling. However, it is worth noting that the mean differences between females and males were minimal, albeit they were statistically significant. This result contradicted previous studies in that males traditionally seek action and adventure and not scared of taking risks, while females are more likely to be searching for cultural and education experiences, with security being a priority (Mieczkwski, 1990). The lack of the mean differences between females and males in terms of travel motives might be explained by the different study samples. Appendix 8.2 shows that immigration status was found to be statistically significant related to only one item: "to visit friends and relatives in New Zealand" (t =2.68, $p<0.05$). However, the expected differences between PR and non-PR student groups did not exist, and the mean values were similar (means=4.51 vs. 4.14). They perceived this motive as "important". Appendix 8.3 shows that age was found to be statistically significant in 7 motivational items:"to change my surroundings for the sake of change" (F = 3.60, $p<0.05$), "to take some exercises" (F = 4.37, $p<0.05$) "to challenge my abilities" (F-ratio = 3.83, $p<0.05$), "to satisfy a sense of adventure"(F = 7.34, $p<0.01$), "to holiday somewhere my friends have not been" (F = 6.07, $p<0.01$), "to look at other universities and courses" (F = 5.40, $p<0.01$) and "to better understand yourself" (F = 4.99, $p<0.01$). However, the mean ratings assigned by younger Chinese university students were similar as those assigned by older students. They perceived such activities to be more or less "quite important". The ANOVA results in Appendix 8.4 indicated only two items appeared to have statistically significant relationship with education levels. The items included "to satisfy a sense of adventure" (F = 3.27, $p<0.05$) and "to better understand yourself" (F = 4.29, $p<0.05$). However, all students tended to regard these activities as "some important". The results in Appendix 8.5 indicated difference existed by financial background in relation to 3 items: "to travel with existing friends and relatives who are staying in New Zealand" (F = 3.13, $p<0.05$), "to look at career opportunities" (F = 3.19, $p<0.05$) and "to better understand yourself" (F = 2.87, $p<0.05$). They rated these travel motives as more or less as "quite important" to take holidays in New Zealand. The results in Appendix 8.6 indicated marital status appeared to have significant

differences in only 2 items: “to be with others and make new friends” (t = 2.77, $p<0.01$) and “to satisfy a sense of adventure” (t = 2.18, $p<0.05$). They rated these motives as more or less ‘important’.

In addition, the 25 Likert scale questions with the degree of satisfaction with travel motives in New Zealand are tested to evaluate differences among the socio-demographic variables. It was found that gender, immigration status, age and financial background appeared to have statistically significant impacts. Gender shows a significant difference in only 1 item: “to look at other universities and courses in New Zealand” (t = 2.19, $p<0.05$). However, the results indicated that although statistically significant, the difference means between female and male students were small, with both mean values above the scale 4 which is “satisfied”, indicating both were satisfied with such motive. This finding did not support the results concerning the gender difference in travel activities between university students in Reisinger & Mavondo’s (2004) study. In their study, it was found that males were more motivated to engage in gender-related activities. On the other hand, females were more likely to be motivated to participate in social activities than males. The difference between the studies might be explained by the different study group and socio-cultural difference between samples. Reisinger & Mavondo’s (2004) study focused on university undergraduate students in the U.S. market.

In terms of immigration status, statistical significances were found in only few instances in relation to respondents’ satisfaction derived from travel motives, including “relaxing mentally” (t = 2.15, $p<0.05$), “travelling somewhere clean and unpolluted” (t = 2.78, $p<0.05$) and “travelling somewhere safe” (t = 2.22, $p<0.05$). However, Appendix 8.8 suggests that mean differences between the two groups of students were slight, implying both PR and non-PR students were quite satisfied with these travel motive attributes. In addition, Appendix 8.9 shows that age was found to be statistically significant in only one item “to holiday somewhere clean and unpolluted” (F = 2.97, $p<0.05$). While it was statistically significant, differences

between genders in terms of mean values were minimal. Students were more than "quite satisfied" with such travel motive. Appendix 8.10 reveals that in most instances financial background has little effect on the degree of satisfaction derived from travel motives, except two items "to change my surroundings for the sake of change" (F = 3.06, $p<0.05$) and "to challenge my abilities" (F = 7.64, $p<0.01$). All students had a propensity to be "quite satisfied" with these travel motives. However, there were no statistically significant differences between socio-demographic variables in relation to education level and marital status.

In the test of the relationship between socio-demographic variables and level of the attractiveness attributed to travel activities, gender, immigration status, age, education level, financial background and marital status showed statistically significant differences. Gender was found to be statistically significant in 15 activity items. However, based on a review of Table 8.1, there were but slight differences in mean values between the genders. Both female and male students perceived adventure activities such as "to climb glaciers" (t = 2.93, $p<0.05$), "to go scuba diving" (t = 3.71, $p<0.001$), "to go canoeing/kayaking" (t = 3.05, $p<0.01$), "to go hunting" (t = 3.60, $p<0.001$) and "to experience wildlife in natural setting" (t = 2.04, $p<0.05$) were 'quite attractive'. Thus, both females and males are seen as being active seekers of a vigorous and energetic lifestyle while on vacation. In contrast, the entertainment activity "to gamble in a casino" (t = 2.97, $p<0.01$) was less attractive to these two groups of students. The results in Appendix 8.11 indicated that there were no significant differences in most cases among age groups, with only 7 items of the 43 where differences existed. The 7 items were "to go jet boating" (F = 5.19, $p<0.01$) "to go scuba diving" (F = 5.50, $p<0.01$), "to go canoeing/kayaking" (F = 5.78, $p<0.01$), "to learn about animals, birds and plants of New Zealand" (F = 3.47, $p<0.05$), "to experience wildlife in natural setting" (F = 4.88, $p<0.01$), "to go bungee jumping" (F = 3.85, $p<0.05$) and "to go skiing" (F = 3.67, $p<0.05$). All students regarded these activities to be more or less "quite attractive". As shown in Appendix 8.12, when

Table 8.1 Comparison between Genders on the Level of Attractiveness of Travel Activities

	Male		Female		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	*t*
To climb glaciers	5.37	1.294	5.00	1.446	2.93*
To go scuba diving	5.52	1.396	5.02	1.466	3.71**
To go canoeing/kayaking	5.15	1.349	4.76	1.377	3.05*
To go on hunting/fishing tours	5.18	1.507	4.69	1.461	3.60**
To experience wildlife in natural setting	5.22	1.260	4.97	1.456	2.04*
Take lots of photos to show friends and relatives	4.99	1.371	5.36	1.286	3.11*
To visit Waitomo Cave	4.93	1.346	5.25	1.252	2.68*
To go shopping	4.00	1.621	4.63	1.569	4.27**
To buy authentic indigenous Maori souvenirs	3.86	1.647	4.16	1.407	2.17*
To visit Maori villages	4.16	1.614	4.64	1.303	3.52**
To see a Maori Music and Dance performance	4.04	1.524	4.38	1.415	2.48*
To watch sporting events	4.27	1.460	3.76	1.424	3.88**
Go bungee jump	4.91	1.762	4.29	1.763	3.80**
To experience cycle challenge	4.32	1.724	3.91	1.476	2.72*
To gamble in a casino	3.56	1.785	3.09	1.611	2.97*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

level of education was tested against travel activities, there were only 3 items showing significances: "to go jet boating" (F = 5.62, p<0.01), "to go bungee jumping" (F = 3.10, p<0.05) and "to visit art museums and galleries" (F = 4.00, p<0.05). Students perceived these activities as more or less as "quite attractive". In the analysis of travel activities against financial background, the results in Appendix 8.13 indicated there were no significant differences in most cases. There were only 3 items of 43 showing significance, including "to go skiing" (F = 3.77, p<0.05), "to see Kiwi birds" (F = 3.30, p<0.05) and "to go hunting/fishing" (F = 4.52, p<0.05). In the test of travel activities against marital status, the results in Appendix 8.14 indicated only 4 items of 43 where difference existed: "to go for ballooning or other festivals" (t = -2.48, p<0.05), "to experience cycle challenge" (t = 2.17, p<0.05), "to go to the geothermal spa" (t = -1.98, p<0.05) and "to go to the zoo/aquarium" (t = -2.12, p<0.05).

Reference to best travel times, gender, age and financial background appeared to be statistically significant. Gender was found to be a determinant of 3 best travel time items: "semester breaks in summer" (t = 2.35, p<0.05), "special occasions" (t = 2.23,

p<0.05) and “anytime receives the VFR trips” (t = 3.52, p<0.001) (see Appendix 8.15). However, female and male student travellers exhibited very little mean differences on these travel times. “Semester breaks in summer” and “anytime receiving the VFR trips” were found as “important” travel times to both female and male students. On the other hand, “special occasions” was a “moderately important” time for both female and male student to take a vacation in New Zealand. Appendix 8.16 shows only one item appeared to be statistically significant between immigration statuses. The item was “Middle break (intra/inter semester breaks) (t= 2.69, p<0.05). However, both PR and non-PR students tended to regard “middle breaks” as not important travel times, where the mean score is above the mid-point of the scale 2.00. In the test of the relationships of age and best travel times only 1 of the 6 items was found to be significant: “the middle break” (F = 3.42, p<0.05) (see Appendix 8.17). Appendix 8.18 shows that only one item was found to be significant among the level of education groups: “semester breaks in winter” (F = 3.79, p<0.05). However, all students regarded it at best a ‘moderately important’ travel time. Considering financial background against travel times, Appendix 8.19 shows only 1 item of 6 showing significance: “middle breaks” (F = 3.62, p<0.05).

In regard to information sources, gender and educational level were associated with statistically significant differences. Gender was found to be significantly associated with the frequency of usage in terms of 2 information sources: “yellow pages/AA guide book” (t = -1.99, p<0.05) and “magazines/brochures” (t = -2.23, p<0.05) (see Appendix 8.20). However, the mean values suggested that the difference between female and male student travellers was minimal, implying that they shared a similar preference toward the usage of these information sources. That is, both infrequently used these information sources when planning their trips. The results in Appendix 8.21 showed that there was only one statistically significant relationship between the education level and the frequency of using information source: “the internet” (F = 4.05, p<0.05). All students moderately used this information source when planning their holidays.

Considering advance trip planning, only gender and age showed statistically different significance. Appendix 8.22 indicates there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and advance trip planning time for both longer and shorter holidays (t= -2.55 and -2.34 respectively, $p<0.05$). However, the values of the scores between genders in terms of mean values were slight, indicating both female and male students planned their longer holiday with 1 to 15 days in advance, while they planned shorter holidays between 8 to 30 days earlier. In addition, there was a statistically significant relationship between age and advance trip planning time for longer holidays (F = 3.87, $p<0.05$) (see Appendix 8.23). The mean differences among age groups were slight, indicating that all students tended to plan their longer holidays between 1 to 15 days earlier.

In relation to the roles played by students in VFR travels, immigration status, age, education level, financial background and marital status were found to be statistically significant. When immigration status was tested against the role played when travelling with VRs, only one item "what to do" (t = 2.58, $p<0.05$) was found to be significant while, on the other hand, when travelling with VFs, four items: "where to stay" (t = 2.82, $p<0.01$), "what to do" (t = 2.64, $p<0.01$), "mode of transportation" (t = 3.35, $p<0.01$) and "trip information" (t = 2.34, $p<0.05$) obtained significant differences (see Appendix 8.24). Although PR students scored a slightly higher mean on these items than non-PR students, both stated that they played an "equal role" in making travel decisions, where the mean scores of the two groups were above the scale of 3, which is "equal role". When age was tested against the role played when travelling with VRs, Appendix 8.25 shows that three items "where to stay" (F = 5.59, $p<0.01$), "which site to visit" (F = 3.80, $p<0.05$) and "mode of transportation" (F = 4.12, $p<0.05$) were found to be significant while, on the other hand, when travelling with VFs no item had a t-test value about $p<0.05$. Appendix 8.26 indicates that there were significant differences among education level groups in 6 items in terms of VR travel: "length of stay" (F = 4.44, $p<0.05$), "what to do" (F = 6.40, $p<0.01$), "which

site to visit" (F = 4.24, p<0.05), "mode of transportation" (F = 3.50, p<0.05), "trip information" (F = 5.23, p<0.01) and "souvenir purchasing" (F = 5.08, p<0.01). Students played "more or less" dominant roles in such VR travel decisions. However, the results revealed that there was no significance in role played by students with respect to VF travel. In the test of the relationship of financial background to the role students played when travelling with VRs, Appendix 8.27 indicates that there was only one item, "what to do" (F = 5.20, p<0.01) showing statistical significance, whereas when considering that relationship to VFs, there were two items "where to stay" (F = 4.64, p<0.05) and "mode of transportation" (F = 3.80, p<0.05) showing significances. All students assessed by financial background tended to play an "equal role" in making travel decisions for both VRs and VFs. When considering the roles students played when travelling with VFRs against marital status, the results in Table 8.2 indicated there were 5 of 8 items showing significances in terms of VR travel. These items included: "where to stay" (t=-2.04, p<0.05), "what to do" (t=-2.29, p<0.05), "which site to visit" (t=-2.19, p<0.05), "mode of transportation" (t=-2.80, p<0.01) and "trip information" (t=-3.18, p<0.01). With respect to VF travel, there were two items showing significances: "which site to visit" and "mode of transportation" (t=-2.23, p<0.05).

Table 8.2 Comparison between Marital Status on the Roles played by Students when Travelling with VFRs

	Single		Married or in de facto relationship		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Where to stay when travelling with VRs	3.80	1.04	4.09	0.84	-2.04*
What to do when travelling with VRs	3.62	1.00	3.93	0.87	-2.29*
Which site to visit when travelling with VRs	3.75	1.00	4.04	0.81	-2.19*
Mode of transportation when travelling with VRs	3.87	1.02	4.24	0.81	-2.80*
Trip information when travelling with VRs	3.82	0.96	4.23	0.75	-3.18*
Which site to visit when travelling with VFs	3.38	0.97	3.83	0.99	-2.29*
Mode of transportation when travelling with VFs	3.48	0.97	3.93	1.08	-2.23*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=No role, ***2***=Less role, ***3***=Equal role, ***4***=Dominant role, ***5***= Sole decision maker
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

When considering the relationship between socio-demographic variables and overall travel satisfaction, the results in the appendices 8.28 and 8.29 revealed that age and marital status were significantly correlated (F = 5.02, $p<0.01$ and t = -2.03, $p<0.05$, respectively). However, the mean values indicated that all students at different age groups were all "moderately" satisfied with their overall trip experience in New Zealand. With reference to the level of satisfaction against marital status, the results again indicated respondents also tended to be "moderately" satisfied with their overall trip experience in New Zealand.

Overall, each socio-demographic variable was measured against a single item and the one-way ANOVA or independent sample *t*-test was accordingly applied. The results of this study indicated that Chinese university student tourist behavior was statistically significant in terms of certain socio-demographics, albeit in most cases students' socio-demographics did not appear to be a discriminating factor in determining student travel behavior, and as such $\mathbf{H}_{1(a)}$, is partially supported. In addition, the results of this study demonstrated that although differences were statistically significant (because of a large sample size), differences were small. When looking at the values in terms of the labels attributed to the Likert type scales, it can be argued that the managerial implications of some of these statistically significant differences could be minimal, especially when scores related to the mid-point of a scale. As such, these statistically significant results were not important or practice significance in decision making. The term "significant" does not mean "a really important finding", or that a particularly large difference or relationship was found, rather it simply means there are statistical evidence that there are differences, or it means that it is unlikely to have been due to chance (Schmitz, 2007).

Although statistically significant relationship existed, in contrast to the tourism literature, the large mean differences of gender in travel behaviour of Chinese university students have not been obtained. The minimal differences between female

and male Chinese students in travel behaviour might reflect that Chinese students are more likely to travel in groups than individual in nature. The importance of potential gender differences is especially relevant given the growth in the number of tourists travelling in single sex groups (Leontidou, 1994). In addition, it is important to note that the nature of the socio-cultural norms and values of a society are constantly evolving and changing (Jackson, 1989). In terms of leisure activities, the tourism literature suggests that women are often 'discouraged' from engaging in certain activities because these have been socially constructed as masculine and, hence, as being 'unsuitable' for women (Henderson *et al.*, 1988). As a result, it is conceivable for the previous constrained position of women, relative to men, to alter over time (McDowell, 1993). Evidence of such a change is presented in Wilkinson & Mulgan's (1995) study. They found the behaviour of young men and women (18-34 years old) is now becoming increasingly similar, blurring the boundaries between the genders. Roberts (1996) also found that gender differences in sport have lessened as young people have taken part in more sports, many of which are played by both men and women. Further, it might be due to the fact that Chinese female and male students have similar socio-cultural norms and values associated with their educational level. The increasing educated women may lead to their leisure interests and concerns are less active than their male counterparts as a result of gaining relevant knowledge. Thus, gender is not an important segmentation variable for the Chinese university student market.

The results revealed that the mean differences between PR and non-PR students in travel behaviour were similar, although the statistically significant relationship was found. The small mean differences contradict the tourism literature in that holiday behaviour is influenced by the socio-cultural norms and values. PR students have the greater ability to become involved in the host population and gain local information from them because of the longer stay and the relative familiarity of their vacation surroundings, compared to those of non-PR students. Therefore, PR students are in an environment where their socio-cultural norms and values are similar to that of their

place of residence. These similarities may stimulate the tourists' residual culture and as a result prevent them from adopting a tourist culture to the same degree as the international students. The residual culture is taken on holiday by tourists and consists of the socio-cultural norms and values that influence behaviour in a person's place of origin (Ryan, 1994). The tourist culture consists of an "animated nonordinary lifestyle, observable rituals, behaviours, and pursuits" (Bystrzanowski, 1989, p.37) and may result in behaviour that would not be socially acceptable in the home environment (Shields, 1990). The extent to which each culture influences behaviour may be related to similarities, perceived or actual, between a tourist's home and holiday environment (Carr, 1998). The difference between studies might be a result of the profile of this study sample in that more than 69 per cent of respondents were non-PR students in New Zealand. A different result would be expected if there were more PR students participating in the survey. In addition, the similar mean differences between Chinese PR and non-PR students might be explained by non-PR students tending to discard their native travel preferences and adopt New Zealand's ways, even if they have been in New Zealand for a short time.

Moreover, despite that statistically significant differences were found in travel behaviour across age, education, marital status and financial background, the mean differences were minimal. This result contrasts with the suggestion by Sung & Hsu's (1996) that travel behaviour was influenced by such socio-demographic variables. They found that young individuals had a high propensity for travel as a result of relatively few professional and family obligations and once they were older became more comfortable travelling in smaller parties. In addition, Sung & Hsu (1996) noted that graduate students tend to take fewer overnight trips and were more likely to travel in smaller numbers and plan their trips in advance than undergraduate counterparts, while undergraduate students stayed away from home longer than graduate counterparts. This may be due to the fact that undergraduate students have a relatively smaller study load than graduate counterparts, and therefore show a higher propensity for travel. Further, Sung & Hsu (1996) reported that students who were married and

received financial support totally from assistantship/scholarship tended to take fewer overnight trips while more likely to travel in smaller numbers and plan their trips in advance. The possible difference between the two studies might be explained by the different study samples. In Sung & Hsu's (1996) study, they focused on international students in the US. The findings were not supported by the Chinese student travel market. Owing to the group-oriented culture, Chinese students tend to travel in groups regardless of age. In addition, the result might be a reflection of the unique profile of this study sample in that more than 78 per cent of respondents were single and less than 4 per cent of respondents were financially supported by assistantship/scholarship.

The impact of VFRs' socio-demographic variables on VFR travel behaviour

H$_{1(b)}$: VFRs' socio-demographic variables are related to VFR travel behavior

This section reports the findings regarding the selected socio-demographic variables of VRs and VFs and their relationships with VR and VF travel behavior, respectively. In this thesis, the selected travel behavior variables for the VFR travel market are ordered according to travel inhibitors, travel companions, the month of visits, the length of stays and the frequency of visits.

The results of ANOVA analysis showed there were statistically significant differences in the means of the VFR travel inhibitors across socio-demographic groups by age, income, education level and occupation. In terms of age groups, the results in Appendix 8.30 indicated that there was only 1 item showing significance in terms of VR travel: "travel costs" (F= 3.14, $p<0.05$). However, although they were statistically significant, the mean differences between the age groups were minimal. Both VRs at 41-50 years old and 51 years old and above groups regarded "travel costs" as a "moderately" important factor influencing them to come to New Zealand, with mean values of 3.59 and 3.89, respectively. In addition, a comparison of the income groups of VRs disclosed clear differences in relation to VR travel inhibitor "travel costs" (F = 4.29, $p<0.01$) (see Appendix 8.31). Respondents whose VRs with lower income

level (less than NZ$1,000) tended to be much more concerned with “travel costs”. Those who earned less than NZ$1,000 gave “travel costs” as an “important” factor influencing VRs to come over New Zealand, whereas those who earned monthly NZ$1,001-1,500 or NZ$2,001 and over regarded such an inhibitor as a “moderately” important factor. As for VFs, Appendix 8.32 shows that there were significant differences among the education level groups in terms of the travel inhibitor “lack of time to accompany VFs travel in New Zealand” (t =-1.99, $p<0.05$). However, the difference between the two education groups was minimal for both perceived such an inhibitor as being only “moderately” important factor. In addition, the ANOVA results in Appendix 8.33 showed statistically significant differences in the travel inhibitor “visa” across the occupation groups of VFs (F = 2.17, $p<0.05$). Respondents whose VFs were professionals regarded such an inhibitor as “important” (mean =4.67), whereas those whose VFs worked as “others” rated this factor as “moderately” important (mean=3.36).

Statistical significance was found in travel companions across the socio-demographic variable such as age, income and occupation. Appendices 8.34 and 8.35 show that age groups were significantly different in travel companions when travelling with VRs and VFs in longer holidays, respectively (F=6.54, $p<0.01$ and F=3.92, $p<0.05$, respectively). Respondents whose VRs were 51 years old and older (mean= 3.13) had a higher propensity to ‘travel with students but without tour groups’ than other counterparts who were 21-40 years and 41-50 years old (mean = 2.40 and 2.82, respectively), who were likely to ‘travel with friends but without students and tour groups’. In contrast, respondents whose VFs were 31-40 years old (mean= 3.56) were more likely to ‘travel with students but without tour groups’ than those who were 21-30 years old (mean=2.31) who tended to ‘travel with friends but without students and tour groups’. Apart from age, the results in Appendix 8.36 also showed that income groups of VRs were significantly different in terms of travel companions in longer holidays (F = 3.86, p=0.01).

In terms of the month of VF visits, education level was also found to be statistically significant (t =2.31, $p<0.05$) (see Appendix 8.37). Respondents whose VFs had secondary education tended to visit them in October, which is the graduation times of the year, whereas those with tertiary education level appeared to come over in July, which is the school holidays of universities in China. This result might be a reflection of the unique profile of this study sample in that more than 53 per cent of VFs were students who had a high propensity for travel as a result of relatively few professional and family obligations.

Regarding the length of VR stays, age, income, education and occupation appeared to have statistically significant differences. The results in Appendix 8.38 indicated the three age groups of VRs were significantly different in their lengths of stay (F =3.74, $p<0.05$). VRs aged at 51 years and older appeared to stay longer than the youngest counterparts (21-40 years old). The average lengths of stay for old VRs turned out to 15-20 days, whereas for the youngest VRs it was 10-15 days. In addition, the difference in the length of VR stays among the groups by income was statistically significant as shown in Appendix 8.39 (F =8.28, $p<0.001$). VRs with average monthly income less than NZ$1,000 tended to stay longer than other counterparts, whose income levels were NZ$1,001-1,500, NZ$1,501-2000 and NZ$2,001 and over. The result might be due to the fact that income levels tended to show a relationship with age whereby the youngest and oldest VRs were associated with lower income levels than older respondents. Also, a significant difference was found in Appendix 8.40 across the two education level groups of VRs in their "length of VR stays" (t= 3.41, $p<0.01$). Again, 'age' may have played an important role in affecting education levels. It appeared that respondents with lower education, presumably older respondents, indicated longer stays (15-20 days) than their counterparts (12-14 days). The results in Appendix 8.41 also indicated that the length of VR stays were significantly different across occupation groups (F= 7.63, $p<0.001$). Retired VFs were more likely to stay in New Zealand longer than other counterparts, such as "entrepreneur", "professional"

and “individual operator or business person”. The retirees spent 28-30 days in New Zealand, whereas other counterparts tended to stay 10-15 days.

Considering the frequency of VFR visits, the results in Appendix 8.42 showed that statistically significant differences existed across the occupation groups of VRs (F =2.17, $p<0.05$). However, the descriptive differences between the occupation groups of “entrepreneur” and “individual operator and business person” were slight, with means of 2.35 and 2.68, respectively, indicating both of them tended to come over to New Zealand once or twice in three years. This result contrasts with the suggestion by Hay (1996) in the study of the domestic VFR tourism within the UK that certain occupations such as unskilled manual, unemployed and state pensioners had a low propensity to take VFR trips. The result differences between the two studies might be explained by the different study samples.

Overall, the empirical results showed that age, income, education and occupation of VRs had a significant influence on VRs’ travel behaviour in terms of the length of stays, travel companions and travel inhibitors. Additionally, the results revealed that occupation and education showed statistically significant effect on travel VFs’ travel behaviour such as travel inhibitors and the month of visits. Since not all socio-demographics were shown to have a significant effect on VFR travel behaviour, $\mathbf{H}_{1(b)}$ is partly confirmed. Moreover, it is important to note that although statistically significant differences existed, the mean differences among certain socio-demographic groups in relation to VFR tourist behavior were minimal, indicating that there was no practical significance.

8.4 Analyzing the Relationship between Socio-Demographic Variables and Travel Expenditure

The section reports the mixed findings regarding the influential variables among the socio-demographic variables affecting expenditure behaviour. Regression analysis is used to estimate the relationship between travel expenditure and the following socio-demographic variables regarding the student market and VFR market individually.

The results presented comprise only the significant relationships explaining more than 5 percent of the variance.

The impact of students' socio-demographic variables on student travel expenditure

H$_{2(a)}$: Students' socio-demographic variables are related to student expenditure pattern

Appendix 8.43 shows that there was a significant relationship between immigration status and student expenditure, albeit the explained variance was rather low (F=4.62, R^2= 0.01, $p<0.05$). As shown in Appendix 8.44, high residual values eventuated. There are no previous studies contributing to an explanation of the effect of the immigration status on travel expenditure patterns, making the comparison with other studies difficult. The signs of standardized coefficient indicated that immigration status was negatively correlated with travel expenditure, indicating an expenditure decline with the immigration status. This might be a reflection of the unique profile of this study sample in that more than 69 per cent of respondents were non-PR students in New Zealand. Although it is generally accepted that PR students travel more frequently because they have more money to spend on travelling, they are diverged by taking less expensive trips. In other words, this means that those PR students with more money tend not to take expensive trips, rather they choose to travel more frequently and take less expensive trips. As the frequent PR students travel, the more likely they are to become sophisticated travellers. Inevitably, a better knowledge of travel products and services at travel destinations enables them to travel in an economic way. In this case, the travel expenditure could be fewer for PR students than non-PR counterparts. The results of ANOVA analysis in Appendix 8.45 showed that the mean differences between immigration status and student expenditure were minimal.

It is interesting to note that age was not a significant factor in student travel expenditure. This might be because the relationship between ages and incomes for the

student market is different from that for other markets. Relevant literature and empirical evidence suggest that income groups of individual travellers are statistically significantly different in terms of age (e.g. Jang *et al.*, 2004). That is, the older the traveller, the higher the income. However, this is not the case with the student travellers, because students are constrained to work by the time as they have to spend a considerable amount of time studying, regardless of the age factor. However, age was found to be a significant factor accounting for the variation of student expenditure due to receiving VFRs, albeit the predictive power was weak (F=4.48, R^2= 0.02, $p<0.05$) (see Appendix 8.46). Unfortunately, as shown in Appendix 8.47, the fit between observed and forecast data was poor. The negative relationship between age and travel expenditure due to receiving VFRs contradicts previous studies in that younger tourists spent less than their older counterparts. This might be explained by the fact that in the context of Chinese culture, parents or elderly have a strong obligation to look after their children, and in turn generate a high tendency for VFR travel. Such responsibility becomes stronger with younger students. The results of ANOVA analysis showed that no mean differences were found among age groups on student expenditure due to VFR visits.

Moreover, gender was found to not significantly affect tourism expenditure for the Chinese university student market. This result supports Lawson's (1994) conclusion that gender is not an important determinant of travel expenditure. This might reflect that Chinese students have a high tendency to travel in groups due to the group-oriented culture. As such, much of travel behavior is a group activity and not individual in nature. Another possible explanation is that female and male Chinese students travelled for similar purposes, and therefore their expenditure may not vary in significant ways.

Overall, among the socio-demographic variables, the immigration status was found to be significant in explaining travel expenditure and age was approaching significant for student travel expenditure due to receiving VFR visits. Given not all socio-

demographic variables were found to have a significant impact on student travel expenditure, **H**$_{2(a)}$ is partly confirmed. In addition, the relationship between socio-demographic variables and student travel expenditure depicted that the predictive power of socio-demographics in student travel expenditure was rather low, yielding the influence of other factors in predicting spending while on a trip.

The impact of VFR' socio-demographic variables on VFR travel behaviour

H$_{2(b)}$: VFRs' socio-demographic variables are related to VFR expenditure pattern

With respect to VFR expenditure, the results of the regression analysis in Appendix 8.48 revealed that only age appeared to have a significant impact on VR expenditure, nonetheless the explained variance was rather low (F=5.46, R^2= 0.02, p<0.05). However, as shown in Appendix 8.49, the fit between observed and forecast data was poor. This result is in line with Lawson's (1991) and Rapoport & Rapoport's (1975) findings that age was a major determinant of travel expenditure. The positive sign of standardized coefficient was consistent with previous research in that age and was positively related to travel expenditure, explaining that travellers spent more on travel as they aged (e.g. Jang *et al.*, 2004). An increase in spending with age was the expected finding, resulting from a combination of higher earnings and discretionary income. As a result, a strategy to attract as many VR visitors as possible to the destination might not be the best marketing strategy. What is important is to design strategies to attract the older VRs who will have the greater economic impacts on the local economy. ANOVA results in Appendix 8.50 revealed that VRs who were aged 51 years old and above differed in their expenditure patterns from those who were 21-40 years old (F =3.29, p<0.05). The group of 51 year olds and above spent more (NZ$3,000-$3449) on holiday in New Zealand than their counterparts (NZ$2,999 or less). Alternatively, there was no statistically significant relationship between VF expenditure and age. The lack of the relationship between the two constructs might be a reflection of the unique profile of VF sample in this study in that more than 53 per cent of them were students. By using similar reason as discussed earlier, it is also

posited that the time constraint may lead students to earn low income, regardless of the age factor. In this case, age might be not statistically significant in influencing travel expenditure for VFs.

Surprisingly, the income was found not to be a factor explaining variations of VFR travel expenditure. Several related studies concluded income to be positively related with expenditures on tourism products (Thompson and Tinsley, 1979; Dardis *et al.*, 1981, 1994), food (Gieseman & Moulton, 1986) and hotels and holidays (Davis & Mangan, 1992). The difference might reflect travel decisions of VFRs varying from other travellers. In other words, while decisions of non-VFRs regarding vacation and pleasure are based on their income, VFRs' travel decisions are made on the basis to fulfill social obligations. As such, income might not be a determinant of VFR demand for tourism products and services as well as expenditure. In addition, interestingly, the occupation variable was not significant in explaining the variances of VR and VF travel expenditure. It might be related to the wide variation and heterogeneity existing within the VFR job category. It can also be explained by the influence of other variables on VFR expenditure. For example, some VFRs visited New Zealand for both business and VFR purposes. It might be considered that business travellers were financially supported by the company, and because of this reason they could be able to spend more, while many of other travellers have to pay for their trip. Further, while previous studies have suggested that education had a relationship with travel expenditure (e.g. Cai *et al.*, 1995), the results of this study showed there were no significant differences between education and VFR travel expenditure. The difference in studies might be explained by the fact that VFRs are different in motivation from mass tourists (Bleasdale & Kwarko, 2000). The motivation of VFRs is broadly defined as "personal", such as strengthening or building closer family ties and friends, as opposed to cultural or physical motives. Thus, even though in leisure market education enhances many types of recreation activities such as foreign travel and tours, and broadens traveller's perspective towards leisure pursuits (Dardis *et al.*, 1981), the same is not true for the VFR travel market.

Overall, the relationship between the socio-demographic variables and VFR travel expenditure depicts another unique pattern. Among the socio-demographics, age was found to be significant for VR travel expenditure. This is the only dependent variable in this study that supported the premise that VFR with various socio-demographic profiles may allocate their travel dollars differently, and as such, **H**2(b) is only partly accepted. In addition, the low explained variance of socio-demographic variables in VFR travel expenditure reflected that socio-demographic attributes alone are not enough to understand expenditure. Understanding other factors such as psycho-graphics may be more revealing than focusing on socio-demographics alone (Lehto *et al.*, 2001).

8.5 Analyzing the Relationship between Travel Behaviour Variables and Travel Expenditure

The section reports the mixed findings on the selected travel behaviour variables examined in this study in relationship to travel expenditure. Regression analysis is used to estimate the relationship between travel expenditure and a set of travel behaviour variables regarding the student market and VFR market individually. The results presented comprise only the significant relationships explaining more than 5 percent of the variance.

The impact of student travel behaviour on student travel expenditure

H3(a): Student travel behavior determines student travel expenditure

The length of trips was regressed on student travel expenditure. The results in Appendix 8.51 showed that the length of trips was significantly related to student expenditure, albeit the explained variance was rather low (F=14.22, R^2= 0.03, p<0.001). In addition, as shown in Appendix 8.52, high residual values eventuated. The length of trips was found to have a positive effect on student expenditure. This result is consistent with Agarwal & Yochum's (1999) finding that duration of stay was found to be a significant determinant of visitors' expenditure, and the longer the visitors stayed, the greater amount of total expenditure. This may be a function that

long-term student travellers have to use accommodation more often, have more meals and use more transportation services. In addition, the results showed that travel party size did not appear to have any significant relationship with travel expenditure for the Chinese university student travel market. This finding contradicted those earlier studies by Mak *et al.* (1977), Lawson (1991), Spotts & Mahoney (1991), Dardis *et al.* (1994), Seiler *et al.* (2000) and Jang *et al.* (2004). The difference between the studies might reflect that

The results in Appendix 8.53 showed that the type of accommodation was a significant factor for predicting student expenditure, nonetheless the explained variance was rather low (F= 8.40, R^2= 0.02, p<0.05). Appendix 8.54 indicates the fit between observed and expected variables was poor. This result is consistent with Lawson's (1991) findings that accommodation type was a factor impacting on travel expenditure. However, the type of accommodation appeared to have negative impact on travel expenditure, indicating an expenditure decline with accommodation types. This might be a reflection of the unique profile of this study sample – the student travellers, and travel costs are a serious issue in this research. The choice of hotels leads to a proportional increase in accommodation expenditure and a decrease in other expenditures. As such, the total travel expenditure could be fewer because of the money constraint. This is because students may need to use their pocket money more rationally if they choose to stay in hotels. This further suggests that in order to get a complete picture of the impact of all relevant variables on travel expenditure, a holistic approach (e.g. the distribution of travel expenditure to a range of travellers' products and services) should be followed. Appendix 8.55 reveals that students staying at hotels spend more than those staying in backpackers/hostels/bed&breakfasts.

Appendix 8.56 indicated that the usage of 3 items of 9 information sources had a significant effect on student expenditure (F=14.86, R^2= 0.08, p<0.001). A relatively good fit between the observed and expected variables was found in Appendix 8.57.

This finding is consistent with a previous study by Spotts & Mahoney (1991). The usage of "travel agent" and "visitor centre" were found to have a positively significant effect on travel expenditure. This maybe because travel packages and other travel-related products and services provided by the travel agencies and visitors centers costs more than travelling independently. However, the "word of mouth by Kiwi friends" was also significant, with the negative coefficient signalling the contribution of local friends' travel experiences to a less expensive trip. Therefore, word of mouth by Kiwi friends should be an encouragement for destinations to develop and promote travel products and services in order to generate increased amounts of tourist receipts.

Overall, among the trip-related variables, the length of stays, accommodation types and information sources were found to be significant in explaining student travel expenditure. However, travel party size was not an influencing factor in predicting student travel expenditure. Thus, **H**3(a) is partly supported. Although statistically a significant relationship between the trip-related variables and student travel expenditure existed, once again the predictive power was rather low, signalling the trip-related variables are not sufficient enough to predict travel expenditure. Thus, a need for using other variables together such as psycho-graphic variables and their contribution to travel expenditure exists.

The impact of VFR travel behaviour on VFR travel expenditure

H3(b):VFR travel behavior determines VFR travel expenditure

This study hypothesized that the purpose of VFR visits predicted VFR expenditures, after controlling for the income effect. The simple linear regression analyses were performed to see if significant causal relationship exists between the dependent variable (VR and VF expenditure) and independent variable (the purpose of VR and VF visits). The results in Appendix 8.58 showed that the purpose of VR visits had a significant impact on VR expenditure, albeit the effect was rather small (F=10.27, R^2= 0.04, p<0.001). Again, however, as shown in Appendix 8.59, high levels of

residual values resulted. The positive sign of the standardized coefficient indicated that the theory of the purpose of visits results in a variance in overall spending was supported in the context of this study. The low explained variance suggested that expenditure highly interacts with a number of different attributes. However, the results of ANOVA analysis in Appendix 8.60 showed the mean differences between the main purpose of VR visits and VR expenditure.

Alternatively, the results showed that there was no significant association between VF expenditure and the purpose of VF visits. This result suggested that the VFR market is far from homogeneous. Seaton (1994) set out a series of hypotheses about VFR trips and differential motives between travel involving 'friends' as against 'relatives'. For example, drawing attention to the role of special family occasions such as wedding and graduations involved in a large part of VR trips, and that, on the other hand, friend trips are always 'less structured by obligation and have a greater voluntaristic element' (Lockyer & Ryan, 2007). To some extent, it can be anticipated that such difference between the purposes of VR and VF visits may result in differences associated with travel behaviors and expenditure.

A review of the literature suggests the relationship between the purpose of trips and travel expenditure through the length of stay. An independent sample *t*-test is used to determine the mean differences in the length of stay among VFR travellers with different purposes of visits. The results in Appendix 8.61 showed that there were significant mean differences in the length of VR stay between VRs travelling for holiday and visiting students (t= 8.13, $p<0.05$). VRs travelling for visiting students stayed longer than those travelling for holiday and business. This result corroborated Seiler *et al.*'s (2002) findings that people who took trips to visit friends and relatives tended to stay longer. However, there was no difference in the length of VF stays among VFs travelling for different purposes. Therefore, it was partially supported that there is a relationship between the purpose of VR visits and the length of VR stays.

The simple linear regression analyses are performed to determine the impact of length of VR and VR stays on VR and VF expenditure. The results in the appendices 8.62 and 8.63 revealed that the length of VR or VF stays had significant effects on VR and VF expenditure, respectively (F=36.02, R^2= 0.13, $p<0.05$ and F=9.54, R^2= 0.07, $p<0.05$). Unfortunately, the fit between observed and forecast data was again poor in both cases (see the appendices 8.64 and 8.65). On the basis that the purpose of VR visits exerted significant effects on the length of VR stays, it was supported that the length of VR stays mediates the relationship between the purpose of VR visits and VR expenditure. Positive results indicated that the expenditure increases when the length of VFR stay increased. The results of this study corroborated Seiler *et al.*'s (2002) findings that there was a reciprocal positive relationship between the two endogenous variables: length of stay and travel expenditure regarding Taiwanese travel expenditure. Strategies to extend VFR's length of stay become paramount, and may require expanding product portfolio, developing bundles and packages of VFR tourism related products.

The study also examines the effect of the month of VFR visits on VFR travel expenditure. The simple linear regression analyses are conducted separately to see if any significant causal relationships exist between the month of VR and VF visits and VR and VF expenditure, respectively. The results showed that there was no significant relationship between the month of VR visits and VR expenditure, nor between the month of VF visits and VF expenditure. These results appeared to be different from those in the study of Jang e*t al.* (2005) because in that study the month of visits had a significant effect on expenditure. This might be explained by Qiu & Zhang's (1995) finding that determinants of tourist expenditure vary from country to country. Jang *et al.*'s (2005) study focused on French travellers, and the results indicated French summer travellers spent more than those travelling in other seasons.

The results of the regression analyses revealed that accommodation types was not an important factor to explain variances in VR and VF expenditure. The lack of the

relationship between travel expenditure and the type of accommodation contradicted the finding of Archer's (1995) study. The different results might be due to the importance of the determinants of expenditure varied by types of travel market. The VFR market differs from other travel markets in terms of the usage of accommodation. They can either stay with those friends and family or stay in commercial accommodation. Previous studies found that VFRs do not primarily stay in commercial accommodation houses, while some usages of commercial accommodation have been identified.

Overall, among VFR trip-related characteristics, two variables were identified to be significant in determining VR travel expenditure: the purpose of VR visits and length of VR stays, while only one variable "the length of VF stays" was found to have a significant effect on VF travel expenditure. However, the relationship between the trip-related variables and VFR travel expenditure are not strong. It is conceivable that other factors such as psychographic variables may also be powerful predictors explaining travel expenditure. Nevertheless, no significant relationships were identified between the month of VFR visits and accommodation types and VFR travel expenditure. Therefore, **H**$_{3(b)}$ is only partly confirmed. Of special interest is the finding that VR expenditure was more positively affected by the purpose of VR visits than the length of VR stays and was not affected by the month of VR visits. Therefore, marketing managers should place on emphasise on the length of VR stays and especially on the purpose of VR visits in order to appropriately understand VR expenditure.

8.6 Conclusions

This study examines a range of travel behaviour patterns in order to develop a more holistic picture of the impact of the socio-demographic variables on travel behaviour. This study also investigated the extent to which travel expenditure is associated with changes in the socio-demographics and travel behaviour variables. Several key findings are evident in this study. The results revealed that students' socio-

demographics showed significant differences in student travel behavior such as travel motivations, activities, best travel times, information sources, advance trip planning, the roles played by students in VFR travel and overall travel satisfaction, albeit not all socio-demographics had significant differences in travel behavior, and as such, $\mathbf{H}_{1(a)}$ is partly confirmed. Even though the results showed that significant differences existed, no particularly large differences were found in most cases, and as such, there was no practical significance. In addition, the results indicated that differences existed among selected socio-demographic variables in VFR travel behavior in terms of travel inhibitors, travel companions, the month of visits, the length of stays and the frequency of visits. Since not all socio-demographics were shown to have a significant effect on VFR travel behaviour, $\mathbf{H}_{1(b)}$ is only partially accepted. Moreover, the results found that students' socio-demographics such as immigration status and VFRs' socio-demographics in terms of age showed a significant effect on student and VFR travel expenditure. However, since fewer socio-demographic variables of Chinese university students and their VFRs were found to significantly affect an expenditure pattern, $\mathbf{H}_{2(a)}$ and $\mathbf{H}_{2(b)}$ are only partly confirmed. Further, it was found that only certain samples of the selected travel behavior variables had significant effects on travel expenditure, albeit the explained variances were rather low, and as such $\mathbf{H}_{3(a)}$ and $\mathbf{H}_{3(b)}$ are also partly supported.

In this study, the low explained variances entailed that students' socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics were not sufficient to explain travel expenditure. Consequently, there is practical value in examining the influence of other factors such as psychographic factors on travellers' destination decision making processes and travel expenditures (Lehto *et al.*, 2002). Socio-demographic variables may do a good job of predicting travel expenditure while on a trip, while psychographics may be more effective at predicting the total number of trips taken and the types of activities that people pursue when travelling (Wang *et al.*, 2006). Using both variables together increases the predictive power for student travel expenditure. The results of the regression analysis on travel behavior portrayed similar patterns. This study

demonstrates that socio-demographic variables “explain” or “predict” comparatively little in terms of travel behavior, which means socio-demographic attributes and trip characteristics alone are not enough to understand travel behavior, as people with the same socio-demographic and trip characteristics may demonstrate different travel behavior patterns. Consequently, a need for greater consideration of psycho-graphic variables and their contribution to travel behavior exists. It has been posited that psycho-graphic variables are more powerful predictors to utilize in destination development decisions and supporting services, product positioning, advertising, promotions and packaging (Lehto *et al.*, 2001). Psychological factors are determinants of destination choice, mode of travel and activities they participate in upon arrival (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Um & Crompton, 1990). The next chapter will now consider psycho-graphics based on motives and activity preferences of the sample.

CHAPTER NINE

SEGMENTING CHINESE UNIVERISTY STUDENT TRAVELLERS ON THE BASIS OF MOTIVATION AND ACTIVITY—THE APPLICATION OF THE *A POSTERIOR* APPROACH

9.1 Introduction

The primary objective of this chapter is to segment the Chinese university student travel market on the basis of motivation and activity by using the *a posteriori* approach. This chapter is divided into six sections. Following this introduction, Section Two delineates the underlying dimensions associated with travel motivation regarding the push and pull motive approach and examines the relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions. Sections Three and Four of Chinese university student travellers on the basis of travel motive and activity attributes, respectively, by using the *a posteriori* approach. Section Five measures the determinants of dimensions and segments associated with travel motivation and activity, respectively, according to socio-demographics and trip characteristics. Section Six concludes the main findings for the chapter. The research hypotheses guiding this chapter are:

Hypothesis 4: The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Chinese university student travel market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions

Hypothesis 5: It is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on travel motivation and activity attributes of New Zealand by using the *a posteriori* approach

Hypothesis 6: Socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics are related to travel motivation and activity dimensions and segments

The hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 are further broken down into following hypotheses:

H4 (a): The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Chinese university student travel market

H4 (b): There is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions

H5 (a): It is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on travel motives by using the *a posteriori* approach

H5 (b): It is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on travel activities by using the *a posteriori* approach

H6(a)**:** Socio-demographics are related to push and pull travel motivation dimensions

H6(b)**:** Trip characteristics are related to push and pull travel motivation dimensions

H6 (c): Socio-demographic variables are related to travel activity dimensions

H6 (d): Trip characteristics are related to travel activity dimensions

H6 (e): Socio-demographic variables are related to travel motive segments

H6 (f): Trip characteristics are related to travel motive segments

H6 (g): Socio-demographic variables are related to travel activity segments

H6 (h): Trip characteristics are related to travel activity segments

9.2 Analysing Travel Motivation Dimensions for Chinese University Student Travellers

Push and pull travel motivation dimensions

As well as ranking the mean of push and pull motivational items, analysing the dimensions of the groupings of the push and pull motivational items enables better understanding of the principal driving forces of the travellers rather than simply identifying individual motivational items (Jang & Wu, 2006). Factor analysis with a varimax rotation approach was used to group the push and pull motivational items with similar characteristics to determine a set of push and pull factor dimensions. Kaiser's (1974) criterion was used in this study to determine the number of factors. According to Kaiser's (1974) criterion, factor dimensions with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 can be reported in the final factor structure, and only items with factor loading higher than 0.40 (indicating a good correlation between the items and the factor grouping they belong to) should be retained for each factor grouping. The reliabilities of the factors were determined by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha.

Before a principal components analysis was conducted, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity were performed to check the adequacy of the sample. The KMO test provides a summary of how small the partial correlations are relative to the ordinary correlations (Cho, 1998). The results indicated that the values of KMO for push and pull motivational forces equal

to 0.788 and 0.764 respectively, which suggest "middling" results, according to Kaiser (1974) and just short of the 0.8 level defined as "meritorious". The Bartlett tests of sphericity for push and pull motivational forces yield significant results ($p<0.001$). Therefore, the data possess sufficient reliability and validity to continue with principal components analysis.

Table 9.1 Factor Analysis of 14 Push Motivational Forces

	Adventure seeking	Exploration and novelty seeking	Social interaction	Relax and escape seeking
To challenge my abilities	0.892	0.182	0.075	0.051
To satisfy a sense of adventure	0.814	0.156	0.086	0.051
To take some exercises (e.g. go caving)	0.808	0.168	0.146	0.068
To change my surroundings for the sake of change	0.047	0.783	0.179	0.109
To discover new places and things	0.148	0.641	0.056	0.139
To experience western lifestyle	0.086	0.627	0.032	0.058
To be with others and make new friends	0.294	0.548	0.181	0.014
To better understand myself	0.353	0.439	0.252	0.114
To travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China	0.082	0.041	0.841	0.055
To explore new ideas	0.207	0.210	0.738	-0.023
To travel with existing friends/relatives who are staying in New Zealand	0.042	0.098	0.663	0.150
To mentally relax	-0.020	0.190	0.013	0.862
To physically relax	0.112	0.072	0.192	0.832
To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life	0.139	0.452	0.008	0.500
Eigen values	2.44	2.29	1.89	1.77
% of Explained Variance	17.4	16.4	13.5	12.6
Reliability Coefficients	0.84	0.68	0.67	0.67
Composite Mean	**3.76**	4.69	4.80	**5.22**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

The four push factor dimensions with greater than eigenvalues of 1.0 and 0.4 factor loading criteria were identified from factor analysis of the 14 push motivational items.

Each factor was named based on the common characteristics of the variables it included. The four push factor dimensions explained 59.9 per cent of the total variance. The first factor "adventure seeking" included three variables such as 'challenge my abilities', 'satisfy a sense of adventure' and 'take some exercises', and 'explained' 17.4 per cent of the total variance. The second factor was labelled "exploration and novelty reason" and included five items. Labelled "social interaction reason", the third factor included three variables. The last factor, "relax and escape reason", 'explained' 12.6 per cent of the total variance. This factor included three items: 'mentally relax', 'physically relax' and 'avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life'. All the push factor dimensions had eigenvalues greater than 1.0, and the items in each dimension had a factor loading greater than 0.4. In addition, the cronbach's alpha values, indicating the internal consistency of items within each factor, ranged from 0.67 to 0.84, were greater than the minimum value of 0.6 as an indication of reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, all four push factor dimensions were retained for the final structure. Then, the importance attributed to each push and pull factor perceived by Chinese university student travellers were evaluated. Knowing the importance of both push and pull factors can help destinations to meet the desired needs of individual travellers. Brayley (1991) pointed out that the attitude of a tourist toward a destination might be a measure of that destination's ability to pull or attract tourists. To do so, 'a summated scale (or value)' on each factor was employed by combining individual variables into a single composite mean score. This process was accomplished by calculating the average score of the variables loaded on each factor. The results in Table 9.1 indicated that among the four push factor dimensions, the factor "relax and escape reason" emerged as the most important factor to motivate Chinese university student travellers, with the composite mean importance score of 5.22, followed by the "social interaction reason" (4.80) and "exploration and novelty reason" (4.69), while the lowest score was observed for "adventure seeking" (3.76).

Table 9.2 Factor Analysis of 11 Pull Motivational Forces

	Educational and VFR attractions	Safe, clean and calm destinations	Cultural, historical and natural attractions
To look at other universities and courses	0.822	0.014	0.184
To look at career opportunities	0.807	0.097	0.075
To holiday somewhere my friends have not been	0.687	0.144	0.176
To visit friend(s) and relative(s) in New Zealand	0.468	0.239	-0.035
To visit somewhere I had read about	0.370	0.279	0.327
To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted	0.089	0.845	0.106
To be in a calm atmosphere	0.234	0.773	-0.052
To holiday somewhere is safe	0.238	0.399	0.187
To visit New Zealand's historical and cultural attractions	0.185	0.095	0.836
To visit Maori attractions	0.151	0.080	0.829
To visit New Zealand's natural attractions	-0.103	0.514	0.522
Eigen values	2.34	1.91	1.89
% of Explained Variance	21.3	17.4	17.2
Reliability Coefficients	0.71	0.67	0.68
Composite Mean	4.20	**5.39**	4.55

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

A factor analysis with varimax rotation was also used to group pull motivational items into similar characteristics. As shown in Table 9.2, three pull factor dimensions were derived from the factor analysis of the 11 pull motivational items and labelled as "educational and VFR attractions", "safe, clean and calm travel destinations" and "cultural, historical and natural attractions". These three pull factor dimensions had eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and accounted for 55.8 per cent of the total variance. Factor loadings of all the items were above 0.50. In addition, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to test the internal consistency of items within each factor dimension. The results showed that the alpha coefficients for the three factor dimensions ranged from 0.67 to 0.71, above the minimum value of 0.6 as an indication of reliability (Hair *et al.*, 2006). In terms of explained variance for each delineated pull factor, "education/career and VFR attractions" (21.3 percent) was the most important factor in explaining the variances of the motivations. Table 9.2 also indicates the composite

mean scores of the pull motivational forces, respectively. Among the three underlying pull motivational factors, "safe, clean and calm destinations" was considered the most important pull factor drawing Chinese university students to New Zealand destinations.

Given the above results, this study confirms that the push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Chinese university student market, and as such, **H**4 (a) is supported. However, the results indicated that the importance of push and pull factors in motivating Chinese university students can be different from that found in other studies and the importance level of push and pull factors can be different for travellers from different countries. In this study, the findings suggested "relax and escape seeking" and "safe, clean and calm destinations" appeared to be the most important push and pull motivations, respectively. The study showed similarity with the findings of the USA university student traveller groups (e.g. Kim, Noh & Jogaratnam, 2006) in that they all resulted in "escape and relax" as the most important push motivation factor for university students. However, the results of the present study are not consistent with other studies. Ryan & Xie (2003) found three motivation factors in their study of travel motivation associated with Chinese students in New Zealand, while Ryan & Zhang (2007) identified seven motivation dimensions and "knowledge seeking" was the most important motivation for Chinese students to travel in New Zealand. This may be due to these studies not adopting a "push and pull" model to identify student motivations. Moreover, Kim, *et al.* (2006) and Kim, Noh & Jogaratnam (2006) found "time and costs" as well as "accessibility" and "sun and beach" were the most important pull motivation factors respectively for the USA university student respondents travel to the top 10 overseas and domestic destinations, respectively. The difference may be due to pull factors being external forces related to the attractiveness of a particular destination. The destination-based attributes of one country could be many and are likely to differ from those of another (Kozak, 2002).

The relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions

To effectively market a particular destination, in addition to understand both push and pull factors, it is also necessary to understand the relationship between push and pull factors. This study is a replication of a previous one conducted by Uysal & Jurowski (1994) who examined the nature and extent of the reciprocal relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism. As a method to confirm the relationship between push and pull factors, correlation and multiple regression analyses were adopted.

The results of a correlation analysis indicate that significant relationships were found between the four push and the three pull factor dimensions at the 0.001 level of significance. Among the above significant relationships, the push and pull factor dimensions were positively related to each other, which means respondents who had motives for "exploration and novelty", "adventure and fitness", "social interaction" and "relax and escape" reasons showed that they strongly anticipated travel to "education and VFR", "cultural, historical and natural" and "safe, clean and calm" destinations.

This study also uses regression analysis to compare between push and pull motivations of Chinese university student travellers. A regression equation in which "exploration and novelty reason" motivations were regressed on the three pull factor dimensions. Appendix 9.1 reveals an adjusted R^2 =0.48, indicating that the equation explained approximately 48 per cent of the total variance. All three pull factor dimensions were found to be important contributors in predicting "exploration and novelty reason" motivations. A regression equation to predict "adventure seeking and fitness" motivations showed an adjusted R^2 of 0.28, indicating that one pull factor dimension "education and VFR attractions" was significant at the 0.01 level (see Appendix 9.2). As shown in Appendix 9.3, a regression equation to predict "social interaction reason" showed an adjusted R^2 of 0.26, indicating that two pull factor dimensions were significant, which are "education and VFR attractions" and "safe,

clean and calm destinations". A regression model to predict the "relax and escape reason" using the three pull factor dimensions illustrated an adjusted R^2 of 0.31, having two factor dimensions were significant, which are "safe, clean and calm destinations" and " cultural, historical and natural attractions" (see Appendix 9.4).

In a further analysis, the four push dimensions were used as independent variables to predict the three pull factors, respectively. The regression model in which the "education and VFR attractions" was regressed on the four push dimensions. Appendix 9.5 reveals that an adjusted R^2 of 0.49. In this regression model, "exploration and novelty reason", "adventure seeking" and "social interaction reason" dimensions proved to be important factors in predicting the "education and VFR attractions" as well. Likewise, the regression model of "cultural, historical and natural attractions" showed an adjusted R^2 of 0.25 (see Appendix 9.6). In this model, "exploration and novelty reason" and "relax and escape reason" were emerged as important factors in predicting the "cultural, historical and natural attractions". Similarly, in the regression model of "safe, clean and calm destinations" showed an adjusted R^2 of 0.40, indicating "exploration and novelty reason", "social interaction reason" and "relax and escape reason" were important factors in predicting "safe, clean and calm destinations" as well (see Appendix 9.7). As shown from the appendices 9.8 to 9.14, the models indicated a good fit between observed and forecast data.The findings of the correlation and regression analysis confirm the results of the study by Uysal & Jurowski (1994) who reported a relationship between push and pull factors, and such as, $\mathbf{H}_{4\,(b)}$ is accepted.

9.3 Segmenting Chinese University Student Travellers Based on Push and Pull Motivation Dimensions

Cluster Analysis was then employed to identify similar respondents based on the identified push and pull motivation dimensions. An agglomerative hierarchical technique analysis was first employed to determine the number of homogeneous groups based on the four-push motivation factors formed by the data. The K-Means clustering technique as a nonhierarchical procedure was then employed to fine-tune the results even further by utilising the hierarchical results as a basis for the cluster seed points. According to Hair *et al.* (1998), nonhierarchical methods have advantages and have gained increased acceptability in that the results are less susceptible to the outliers and the distance measure used. An examination of the dendrograms suggested a three-cluster solution. A quick cluster (K-means) technique was therefore run on the total sample using a three-cluster solution (see Appendix 9.15). The three-push cluster solution was validated through the use of one-way ANOVA in which cluster membership was designated as the independent variable and each one of the four push travel motive factors used to derive the clusters was the dependent variable. In each case, the clusters' mean scores were significantly different. This approach to validating the cluster solution is consistent with Churchill's (1987) recommendation and suggests that the clusters are distinctive and stable. A closer examination of the mean scores attributed to each motivation factor provides additional information by which the three groups differ. Based on the importance of motivation factors to each cluster, Clusters 1, 2 and 3 were labelled "push-motive moderates", "push-motive enthusiasts" and "push-motive low scorers", respectively. The "push-motive moderates" represents 42.0 per cent of the sample (N=200), which is the largest segment. For the reason that respondents in this cluster were between the other two clusters in all push motivation factors, they were labelled "moderates". Their motivation was above the mid-point for all push motivation factors with exception of the second push factor "adventure seeking" that presented the lowest motivation rating (3.33). The second cluster accounts for 35.9 per cent of the total (N=171). This

cluster was dubbed the "push-motive enthusiasts" to indicate its members' high push motivations to travel in New Zealand. For each of the push motivation factors, this cluster had the highest mean value of the three clusters. The highest motivations were expressed by the factor "relax and escape reason" (5.51), followed by the factors "social interaction reason" (5.42) and "exploration and novelty reason" (5.25). Although the enthusiasts were least likely to seek a sense of adventure while on vacation, their motivation score was well above the mid-point of the 7-point Likert scale for "adventure reason" (4.97). The third cluster was the smallest, comprising 22.1 per cent of the total sample (N=105). Of all three clusters, this cluster had the lowest mean values and therefore it was labelled "push-motive low scorers". In more detail, respondents were rated below to the mid-point for three of the four push motivation factors except the factor "relax and escape reason" (4.52). The lowest motivation was expressed for the factor "adventure seeking" (2.65). It can be seen that the greatest differences among the three groups lay in their motives to seek adventure, followed by social interactions. The push-motive enthusiasts were thus seen as being active seekers of adventure and social interaction motives while on vacation, while these happened to be the least travel motives for push-motive low scorers.

Cluster analysis was then used to identify groups of students based on similar responses to the three pull motivation factors. In order to identify the best cluster solution, the dendogram was visually examined. A two-cluster solution was revealed. A quick cluster (K-means) technique was therefore run on the total sample using a two-cluster solution. The two-pull cluster solutions were validated through the use of independent *t*-test. The result indicated that statistically significant differences in terms of three pull motivation factors were found between the two clusters. This means that each cluster was distinguished from each other. The first cluster accounted for 212 respondents and the second for 267 participants. The mean scores for each of the cluster groups were shown in Appendix 9.16. The mean scores for Cluster 2 were consistently higher than those for Cluster 1. Following Formica & Uysal (1998) and based on the higher importance attached to each travel motive attribute by the

members of Cluster 2, this cluster was labelled “pull-motive enthusiasts” and the Cluster 1 was labelled as “pull-motive moderates”. The highest motivation score assigned by “pull-motive enthusiasts” was “safe, clean and calm attraction” (5.87), followed by “cultural, historical and natural attraction” (5.00), while the lowest score was related to “education and VFR attraction” (4.79). Likewise, the moderates were most motivated by “safe, clean and calm attraction” (4.76), followed by “cultural, historical and natural attraction” (3.99) and least motivated by “education and VFR attraction” (3.45). However, they were motivated by these factors to a much lesser degree compared with the enthusiast counterparts. In addition, it is worth noting that the greatest difference between the two groups can be seen in the areas that involve visiting education and VFR attractions. Although the enthusiasts were least likely to be motivated to visit education and VFR attractions, they were much more likely than the moderated to visit such destinations.

The results in the present study are somewhat different from other studies. Ryan & Xie (2003) found three motivation clusters in their study of Chinese student travellers in New Zealand, namely “combined motivation travellers”, “social traveller” and “new experience explorer” and “adventure seeker”, while Ryan & Zhang (2007) identified “relax and sightseeing”, “explore place and people”, “chill out” and “career oriented” as the four motive clusters for Chinese student travellers in New Zealand. In addition, Cha *et al.* (1995) indicated three motivation clusters in their study of Japanese overseas travellers: “sports seekers”, “novelty seekers” and “family relaxation seekers”. Differences may be explained by the different research framework, study groups and the difference between samples. These studies did not adopt “push and pull” model to identify student motivations. Cha *et al.* (1995) studied travel motivations of Japanese overseas travellers while this study researched on Chinese university student travellers. Nevertheless, travellers with different nationalities (Chinese vs. Japanese) may have different travel motivations (Kim & Lee, 2000).

The three push-motive clusters and two pull-motive clusters that resulted from the quick cluster analysis were subsequently analyzed using discriminant analysis. The goal of the discriminant analysis was to identify the motivation factors that best discriminated among the identified clusters. Since this is a three-group discriminant analysis model, it was necessary to calculate two canonical discriminant functions in order to discriminate among the three groups (Hair *et al.*, 1992). Appendix 9.17 contains the results for the canonical discriminant functions based on the three push clusters. The three functions were statistically significant ($p<0.001$), as measured by the chi-square statistics. With an eigenvalue of 3.14, Function 1 explained 95.3 percent of the variation. Function 2, with an eigenvalue of 0.16, explained 4.7 percent of the variation. The results for the canonical discriminant functions based on the two pull clusters in Appendix 9.18 showed that the two functions were also statistically significant ($p<0.001$). With an eigenvalue of 1.88, Function 1 explained 100 percent of the variation.

Table 9.3 Classification Results of Market Segments Based on Push Motives

		Predicted Group Membership				
	Adjusted Cluster	Push-motive enthusiast	Push-motive moderates	Push-motive low scorers	Total	
Count	Push-motive enthusiast	193	4	3	200	
	Push-motive moderates	11	160	0	171	
	Push-motive low scorers	3	0	102	105	
%	Push-motive enthusiast	**96.5**	2.0	1.5	100.0	
	Push-motive moderates	6.4	**93.6**	.0	100.0	
	Push-motive low scorers	2.9	.0	**97.1**	100.0	
a. **95.6%** of original grouped cases correctly classified						

Table 9.4 Classification Results of Market Segments Based on Pull Motives

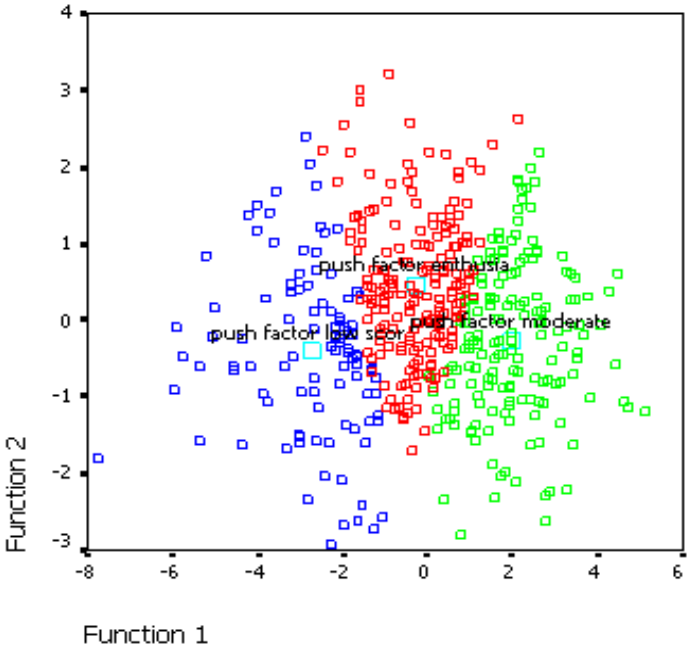
		Predicted Group Membership			
	Adjusted Cluster	Pull-motive enthusiasts	Pull-motive moderates	Total	
Count	Pull-motive enthusiasts	208	4	212	
	Pull-motive moderates	2	265	267	
%	Pull-motive enthusiasts	**98.1**	1.9	100.0	
	Pull-motive moderates	0.7	**99.3**	100.0	
a. **98.7%** of original grouped cases correctly classified					

To determine whether the functions are valid predictors, the classification matrices were examined. Referring to Tables 9.3 and 9.4, the discriminant functions achieve a high degree of classification accuracy. The results indicated that 95.6 and 98.7 percent of respondents respectively were correctly allocated into the three push and two pull clusters solutions.

In addition, a territorial map (which shows the Euclidean space each cluster occupies, and thereby visually indicates the distinctiveness of each cluster) and canonical discriminant plot were utilized to visually examine how well the respondents were accurately classified. First, the territorial map was utilized to examine inter-group distances on the two discriminant functions. By default, SPSS uses the first two functions. In the territorial map the axes represent the two discriminant functions, function one (horizontal) and two (vertical). With discriminant scores of the groups' members, the discriminant territorial map shows 'territories' most strongly associated with each group. Each territory defines a "place" where members of one group can most likely be found. Recalling that each dimension in discriminant analysis represents a set of variables that distinguish between groups, the territorial map allows the researcher to see how respondents will get into a territory. Appendix 9.19 indicates that cluster 1 "push-motive moderates" occupied a space between cluster 2 "push-motive enthusiasts" and cluster 3 "push-motive low scorers". It can be seen that

the group centroids were clearly separate, which means respondents were properly allocated in each cluster and possessed substantial distances from each other. Additionally, the canonical discriminant plot was utilized to visualize how the two functions discriminate between groups by plotting the individual scores for the two discriminant functions and to assess the level of coherence of the cases in each cluster by showing where cases are located in the property space formed by two functions (dimensions). It can be observed from Figure 9.1 that the centroids of Cluster 1 "push-motive moderates" and Cluster 2 "push-motive enthusiasts" and Cluster 3 "push-motive low scorers" were located in the centre, which indicated high levels of coherence. However, the cases in Cluster 1 "push-motive moderates" and Cluster 2 "push-motive enthusiasts" were grouped quite closely while those in Cluster 3 "push-motive low scorers" were grouped quite distantly. With the respect to the two pull-motive segments, the territorial map and canonical discriminant plot were not applicable to the two pull-motive segments, where there is only one discriminant function.

Figure 9.1 Canonical Discriminant Plot of Market Segments Based on Push Motives



Note:
Cluster 1= "push-motive moderate"
Cluster 2= "push-motive enthusiasts"
Cluster 3= "push-motive low scorers"

Overall, by using a factor-cluster segmentation approach, this study showed that it is possible to cluster Chinese university student travellers based on their push-pull

motivations, and as such, **H**5 (a) is confirmed. Three segments with four tourist groups based upon push and two tourist groups associated with three pull travel motivation factors have been generated by assigning respondents to identified travel motivation dimensions. Although the two segments may seem to be conceptually distinguished from each other, a review of the literature contended that they should not be viewed as operating entirely independent of each other. The literature review has suggested that people travel because they were pushed by internal psychological or emotional forces and simultaneously pulled by external destination attribute forces (Cha *et al.*, 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994 and Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). Therefore, tourists may not only travel to the destination because of the initial arousal, but may also with the intention to visit the natural or artificial attractions. The simultaneous examination of push and pull motivation segments would be more useful in designing promotional programmes and packages, and decision making about destination development (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996).

Finally, cross-tabulations were used to examine differences between the two push and pull motive segments. The members of the three push tourist groups were statistically significantly different from those of the two pull tourist groups at the 0.001 level of significance. The negative correlation results suggested that as the members of push travellers to visit destinations for intrinsic motives were less likely to be tourists who visit destinations for the purpose of external forces. The regression analysis was used to test the influence of the independent variables (two pull tourist groups) and the dependent variable (three push tourist groups). Appendix 9.20 shows that similarly, two pull tourist groups appeared to have strong impact on the three push tourist groups. However, a negative sign of the standardized coefficient indicates that travellers with push travel motives tended to be less likely to fill in their pull travel motives. The adjusted R^2 was 0.06, indicating the explanatory powers of the models were not high. Overall, the results implied that student travellers who were pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision were less likely attracted by the

destination area. As shown in Appendix 9.21, the fit between observed and forecast data was poor.

However, there is a lack of empirical studies of the interrelationships between travellers' segments associated with push and pull motivation factors.

9.4 Segmenting Chinese University Student Travellers Based on Travel Activity Attributes

Travel activity dimensions of Chinese university student travellers

The Bartlett tests of sphericity for travel activities yield significant results (=.000). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy indicated that the 43-item sample was adequate for factor analysis (KMO measure= 0.864). These activity items were then factor analyzed with principal components analysis to delineate the underlying dimensions associated with student travel activity preferences. The varimax rotation method maximizing the variances among factors appeared to be the most appropriate for this study. The missing values were treated by the exclude cases pair-wise methods. The 43 travel activity attributes were used for conducting the factor analysis and grouped into ten factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0 and factor loadings higher than 0.40 were identified. As observed in Table 9.5, the ten-factor solution explained 59.8 per cent of the total variance in travel activities, which was considered to be a good fit to the data under study (Boyd *et al*., 1985).

Table 9.5 Factor Analysis of Student Travel Activities

	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance explained	Reliability coefficient
Adventure		4.63	10.53	0.861
To go canoeing/kayaking	0.755			
To go jet boating	0.715			
To go scuba diving	0.672			
To go horse riding	0.632			
To experience cycle challenge	0.587			
To go hunting/fishing	0.586			
To go bungee jump	0.581			
To climb glaciers	0.573			
To experience wildlife in natural setting	0.535			
To go skiing	0.475			

Native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife exploration		3.29	7.47	0.800
To visit Maori villages	0.784			
To see a Maori music and dance performance	0.689			
To learn about animals, birds and plants of New Zealand	0.546			
To go to farm shows	0.531			
Take lots of photos to show friends and relatives	0.475			
To see Kiwi birds	0.462			
Relaxation		2.85	6.47	0.697
To visit beaches	0.709			
To go to the geothermal spa	0.656			
To see a volcano	0.535			
To go for ballooning or other festivals	0.401			
Historic, cultural and sightseeing		2.82	6.40	0.726
To visit gardens	0.700			
To visit National Park	0.557			
To visit museums and historical sites	0.536			
To visit art museums/galleries	0.530			
To have short bush walk	0.496			
Unique wildlife cruise		2.56	5.82	0.757
To view seal colony	0.721			
To take scenic boat cruises	0.669			
To visit albatross colony	0.581			
To go whale watching	0.579			
Special events and sites visit		2.48	5.64	0.661
To visit home shows	0.746			
To visit sights associated with famous films	0.719			
To watch sporting events	0.457			
To visit the uni campus where you study in	0.363			
Local sightseeing and shopping		2.11	4.79	0.678
To take city tours	0.734			
To go shopping	0.667			
To buy authentic indigenous Maori souvenirs	0.479			
Sports and wine		2.02	4.58	0.605
To gamble in a casino	0.760			
To go wine tasting	0.558			
To play golf	0.472			
Underwater exploration		1.95	4.44	0.718
To go to the zoo/aquarium	0.650			
To experience dolphin swim	0.508			
To visit Waitomo glowworm caves	0.408			
	0.510			
Entertainment seeking		1.60	3.64	0.522

To taste local foods	0.752			
Nightlife	0.462			

The first factor was labelled "adventure activities" with variables such as "to go canoeing/kayaking" and "to go jet boating". With Cronbach's Alpha equaled 0.861, this factor dimension explained 10.5 per cent of the total variance. The second factor, titled "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife exploration", was made up of the six attributes as shown in Table 9.5. The reliability Cronbach's alpha equaled 0.80 and approximately 7.5 per cent of the total variance was explained by this dimension. The third factor, "relaxation", had four attributes, a Cronbach's alpha equaled 0.697, and this dimension represented 6.5 per cent of the total variance. The fourth factor, "historic, cultural and sightseeing", had five attributes loading on it: "to visit gardens", "to visit National Parks", "to visit museums and historical sites", "to visit art museums/galleries" and "to have short bush walks". With Cronbach's alpha equalling 0.726, this dimension accounted for 6.4 per cent of the total variance. The fifth factor, "unique wildlife cruise", consisted of four components. The total variance explained by this dimension was 5.8 per cent and Cronbach's alpha equaled 0.757. The sixth factor, labelled "special events and sites", comprised four variables. With a variance explanation of 5.6 per cent, this dimension had an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of 0.661. The seventh factor, "local sightseeing and shopping", had three variables loaded on it: "to go shopping", "to take city tours" and "to buy authentic indigenous Maori souvenirs". This dimension explained 4.8 per cent of the total variance with Cronbach's alpha of 0.678. The eighth factor, "sports and wine", had a total variance of 4.6 per cent and Cronbach's alpha equaled 0.605, and included three travel activities. The ninth factor was entitled "underwater exploration" and the final factor, named "entertainment", contained only two variables: "to taste local foods" and "nightlife". This factor explained 3.6 per cent of the total variance and had a low Cronbach's alpha of 0.522. Generally, Cronbach's alpha for reliability of scales for the respective factors were sufficiently high, except the factor "entertainment". In other words, they were above the minimum value of 0.60 that had been considered

acceptable as a measure of reliability for basic research with the exception of "entertainment" (Hair *et al.*, 2006). In short, 43 travel activities were categorised under ten main headings as shown in Table 9.5. In general, little research has been done on the student travel market segmentation on the basis of travel activity, with exception of Kim & Jogaratnam's (2003) study. The activity dimensions identified are partly consistent with Kim & Jogaratnam's (2003) study indicating that "cultural", "sports", "leisure", "touring in the city and shopping" were the four activity factors of college students in the USA

To evaluate the attractiveness attributed to each factor, 'a summated scale (or value)' on each factor was employed by combining individual variables into a single composite mean score. This process was accomplished by calculating the average mean score of the individual items within that factor. Additionally, these factor scores were then used as inputs in a cluster analysis. The results showed that respondents attached varying degrees of attractiveness to the ten travel activity factors (Table 9. 6). "Unique wildlife cruise" and "relaxation" on the average received the highest attractiveness ratings among the ten activity factors, with the mean values of 5.26 and 5.23 respectively. "Underwater exploration" was another high-scoring factor (5.03). "Adventure activities", "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife", "historical, cultural and sightseeing" and "entertainment" were perceived as more attractive activities than "local sightseeing and shopping", "special events and sites visit", as well as "sports and wine".

Table 9.6 Travel Activity Factors Rank Ordered by Mean

Rank	Dimension	Mean score	Std. dev.
1	Unique wildlife cruise	5.26	0.89
2	Relaxation	5.23	0.92

3	Underwater exploration	5.03	1.05
4	Adventure activities	4.92	0.95
5	Native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife	4.65	1.01
6	Historic, cultural and sightseeing	4.58	0.88
7	Entertainment	4.52	1.26
8	Local sightseeing and shopping	4.27	1.16
9	Special events and sites visit	4.04	1.08
10	Sports and Wine	4.04	1.20

Although the order of factors and the items loading on each factor are on some occasions different from those reported in other studies, the factor structure remains essentially the same with the factors emerging in this study being very similar, if not identical, to those appearing in previous studies.

Analysing market segment based on travel activity dimensions

A cluster analysis was then used to identify groups of respondents with similar trip activities on the basis of the between-group linkage method, employing a hierarchical clustering procedure. Chinese university student travellers were grouped into three activity attractiveness segments using the ten activity factors as the clustering variables. The most appropriate number of clusters (3) was determined by examining group membership, group sizes, and their associated dendograms. The K-Means clustering technique was then run on the total sample using a three-cluster solution. Table 9.7 shows that the first cluster, which represented the largest segment of the sample, comprising 39.1 per cent of the respondents (N=138), the second cluster represented 24.6 per cent of the cases (N=87) and the third cluster included 36.3 per cent of the respondents (N=128). This cluster solution was further validated through the use of a one-way ANOVA analysis in which cluster membership was designated as the independent variable and each one of the ten activity factors used to derive the clusters was the dependent variable. The results of the mean difference tests indicated that all of the ten activity factors were significantly different for the three clusters.

This approach to validating the cluster solution is consistent with Churchill's recommendation and suggests that the clusters are distinctive and stable. To delineate clusters and to label them, the mean activity attractiveness scores for each item were calculated. This procedure produced names for the three clusters based upon their response to the activity attractiveness in the table: "In-Betweeners", "low activity oriented" and "high activity oriented". Table 9.7 also gives the means of each activity factors by cluster group. A more detailed discussion of each of the four clusters follows below. As can be seen, for the reason that respondents in the first cluster were between the other two clusters in all travel activity factors, they were labelled "In-Betweeners". Most of activity factors were above the mid-point with exceptions "local sightseeing and shopping" and "special events and sites visit" (3.89 and 3.99 respectively) that presented the lowest attractiveness ratings. Of all three clusters, the second cluster had the lowest mean values and therefore it was labelled "low activity oriented". In more detail, respondents were rated below to the mid-point for 6 of the 10 activity factors. The lowest attractiveness was scored on "sports and wine". The third cluster was dubbed the "high activity oriented" to indicate high scorers across most of the items. For each of the activity factors, this cluster had the consistently highest mean value of the three clusters. The most attractive activities were "relaxation" and "underwater exploration" with the means of 5.76 and 5.72 respectively, followed by "unique wildlife cruise" (5.68) and "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife exploration" (5.40). All activity factors were above the middle of the 7-point Likert scale in this cluster. The greatest differences among the three groups can be seen in the areas that involve taking part in "local sightseeing and shopping" and "sports and wine" activities. In general, the enthusiasts seemed to be active seekers of "local sightseeing and shopping" activities while on vacation (5.25), while they were least likely to attending "sports and wine" (4.72), they were much more likely than the low scorers (3.06) to take part in such activities. Student travel market segmentation based on travel activity has received little attention in previous tourism research. This study contributed to the body of literature on travel activity segmentation of the student market by confirming student travellers were

heterogeneous and could be segmented into subgroups on the basis of a range of different activities. In addition, the activity segments identified corresponded to a study by Kim & Jogaratnam (2003) who subdivided the student market into two groups on the basis of travel activity: enthusiasts and moderates.

Table 9.7 Cluster Analysis Based upon Ten Travel Activity Factors

	In-betweeners	Low scorers	Enthusiasts
Adventure activities	5.02	4.07	5.28
Native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife	4.55	3.84	5.40
Relaxation	5.31	4.45	5.76
Historic, cultural and sightseeing	4.52	3.99	5.19
Unique wildlife cruise	5.32	4.49	5.68
Special events and sites visit	3.99	3.20	4.78
Local sightseeing and shopping	3.89	3.60	5.25
Sports and wine	4.18	3.06	4.72
Underwater exploration	5.06	4.13	5.72
Entertainment	4.50	3.64	5.23
N=	138	87	128
Note: Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive			

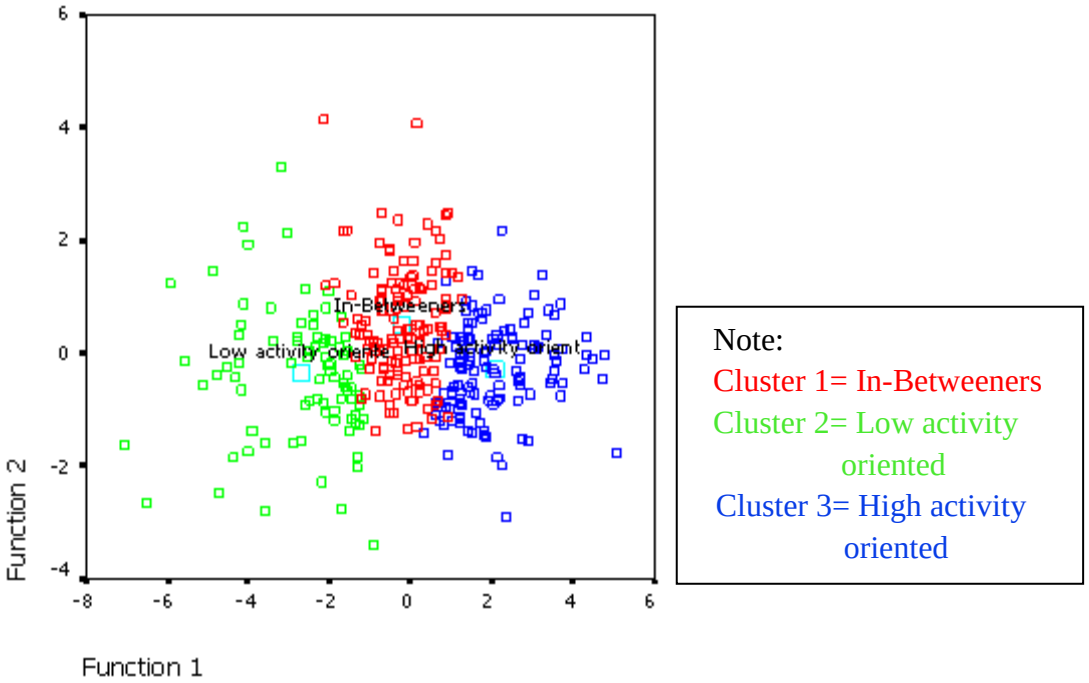
Table 9.8 Classification Results of Market Segments Based on Travel Activities

		Predicted Group Membership				
	Adjusted Cluster	In-betweeners	Low activity oriented	High activity oriented	Total	
Count	In-betweeners	130	4	4	138	
	Low activity oriented	2	85	0	87	
	High activity oriented	4	0	124	128	
%	In-betweeners	**94.2**	2.9	2.9	100.0	
	Low activity oriented	2.3	**97.7**	.0	100.0	
	High activity oriented	3.1	.0	**96.9**	100.0	
a. **96.0%** of original grouped cases correctly classified						

Additional analysis was conducted to determine which cluster solution provided the most useful market segments. To do this, discriminant analysis was conducted on the two-cluster solutions. In this study, discriminant analysis showed that the three-cluster

solutions correctly classified 96.0 per cent of respondents into the right cluster (Table 9.8). Since this is a three-group discriminant analysis model, it was necessary to calculate two canonical discriminant functions in order to discriminate among the three groups (Hair *et al*., 1992). Appendix 9.22 contains the results for the canonical discriminant functions based on the travel activities. The territorial map in Appendix 9.23 indicated that Cluster 1 "In-Betweeners" occupied a space between Cluster 2 and 3. However, it can be noted that the group centroids were clearly separate. Canonical discriminant plots were then utilized to assess the level of coherence of the cases in each cluster (Figure 9.2). It can be observed that the cases in Cluster 3 "High activity oriented" were grouped together quite closely and the centroid was located in the center, which indicated a high level of coherence.

Figure 9.2 Canonical Discriminant Plot of Market Segments Based on Travel Activities



Overall, this study of Chinese university student travellers in New Zealand demonstrated that a pertinent segmentation based on travel activities by using the *a posteriori* approach could be undertaken meaningfully, and as such, **H**5 (b) is accepted. Three segments have been generated by assigning respondents to identified travel

activities dimensions. However, the results indicated that the segments of Chinese university student travellers can be different for students from different countries found in other studies. For example, Kim & Jogaratnam (2003) identified USA university students based on the 16 travel activity items. The two-cluster solution was revealed and based on the higher importance attached to each activity attribute by the members of Cluster 1 than for Cluster 2, the two clusters were labelled "enthusiasts" and "moderates", which accounted for 53.7 per cent and 46.3 percent of the respondents respectively.

9.5 Measuring Determinants of Dimensions and Segments Associated With Travel Motivation and Activity on the Basis of Socio-demographic Variables and Trip Characteristics

Measuring determinants of push-pull travel motivation dimensions

To have a better understanding about Chinese university student travellers, this study is also designed to examine the significant differences between the derived motivational factors and socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics. Regression analysis of the data and its coefficients permit the identification of relationships between independent variables (socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics) and dependent variables (push and pull factors). These are presented as beta coefficients, which are a standardized regression coefficient that permits direct comparison to determine the relative explanatory power of the dependent variable (Hair *et al.*, 2006). The motivation factors resulting from factor analyses were regressed on the socio-demographic variables. Overall, age was a significant explanatory variable in only two push models ("exploration and novelty reason" and "adventure seeking") and one pull model ("education and VFR attractions"). The results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) in Appendix 9.24 showed that the younger student group (19-23 years old) was more likely to be motivated by the push factors of "exploration and novelty reason" and "adventure seeking" than all other age groups. ANOVA test also indicated that younger students (19-23 years old) appeared significantly more motivated by the pull factor of "education and VFR attractions" than other age groups. In addition, gender was found to be a fundamentally important

explanatory variable in only one pull model "cultural, historical and natural attractions". The independent *t*-test statistic in Appendix 9.25 indicated that female students were more likely to be motivated by "culture, history and natural-seeking" motivation than male counterparts. However, gender was not statistically significant in the push model. It might mean that internal motivations did not differentially appeal to Chinese university students, whether female or male. Because age and gender did not consistently impact all of the push and pull factors, socio-demographic variables, overall, did not strongly influence travel motivations (dependent variables). This study also investigated the variations of trip characteristics in relation to the change in travel motivations of Chinese university students, using regression analyses. The regression analyses results revealed that the number of overnight trips and travel party size play a crucial role in explaining Chinese university students' travel motivations. The number of overnight trips and travel party size were found directly related to one of four push models ("relax and escape reason") (see Appendix 9.26). As the relationships were positive, this suggests that people with more overnight trips and larger travel party size are more internally motivated to travel. However, it was found the number of overnight trips and travel party size did not show any significant result in the post-hoc test in the push model. And, as seen in the appendices 9.27 and 9.28, high levels of residual values resulted. In addition, travel party size was also significantly associated with one of three pull models ("education and VFR attractions") (see Appendix 9.29). Unfortunately, as shown in Appendix 9.30, high residual values eventuated. In terms of travel party size with the pull model, as shown in Appendix 9.31 students with a group of 5 people were more likely to be externally motivated to travel to "education and VFR attractions" than those with 1-2 people counterparts.

Overall, this study identified that some socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics influenced the push-pull travel motivation factors, and as such, $\mathbf{H}_{6(a)}$ and $\mathbf{H}_{6(b)}$ are accepted. Gender represented the differentiator for the pull motive factor "cultural, historical and natural attraction", age related to the push motive factors

"exploration and novelty" and "adventure and fitness", while the number of overnight trips and travel party size were significantly related to the push factor "relax and escape", and travel party size significantly related to the pull factor "education and VFR attraction". The influence of socio-demographic variables was also partly supported by previous tourism studies. Hallab, Price & Fournier (2006) also observed that gender had a significant influence on the pull factors "nightlife and entertainment", "casino" and "unfamiliar environment" in their study of students' travel motivation in Switzerland. In addition, the relationship between gender and pull motive factors was also true for other tourist markets. For example, Sangpikul (2008) found that gender was significant in the pull factor "cultural and historical attractions" in his study of travel motivations of Japanese senior travellers to Thailand. Zhang & Lam (1999) also analyzed that there was significant difference between gender and pull motive factor "hi-tech image" in their study of Mainland Chinese visitors' motivations to visit Hong Kong. Similarly, with respect to the influence of age on the push-pull motive factors, the result was also consistent with Zhang & Lam's (1999) study, who found age of Mainland Chinese visitors results in differences in push motives "prestige" and "novelty", as well as in pull motive factor "accessibility" when they visited Hong Kong. Hallab, Price & Fournier (2006) also indicated that age had a significant difference on the pull factors "shopping" and "unfamiliar environment". However, the results of the present study also were somewhat different from other studies. Jang & Wu (2006) identified that gender was also found to be statistically significant in explaining the pull factor "knowledge seeking" in their study of Taiwanese seniors' travel motivation. Also, economic status was another significant variable in the push factor "ego-enhancement" in their study. Kim (2007) observed that socio-demographic variables such as nationality, marital status, number of children and main source of funding for tuition influenced the importance of push and pull travel motivation factors in the study of the push-pull travel motivations associated with the USA university student market. In addition, Zhang & Lam (1999) also found that another demographic variable, income, significantly affected both push motivation factor "novelty" and pull factor "accessibility". The difference might

be explained by the different study group, their point of sampling and socio-cultural difference between samples. Jang & Wu (2006) researched senior citizens in Taiwan; Zhang & Lam (1999) used mainlanders from Guangdong province in China and used personal interviews as a form of data collection, while Hallab *et al.* (2006) and Kim (2007) focused on the Swiss students and the USA university students, respectively and both conducted an on-site survey with the students at a single university, which may limit generalization of the results. However, this study focused on Chinese university students in New Zealand travelling within the country. Travel motivation is a dynamic and complex concept, the importance level of push and pull factors may vary from one person to another or from one market to another (Kozak, 2002). Since respondents in a previous study differ from those in this study (socio-demographic background), as well as the research methodologies, differences in results are understandable. However, this study supports previous studies in identifying socio-demographic variables (age and gender) as important influences on Chinese university students' travel motivations. In contrast, there is a lack of research in the area of the relationship between trip characteristics and push-pull motivation factors in the tourism literature, which makes the comparison of results in this study with previous studies difficult. However, this study contributed to the tourism literature by providing empirical findings about trip characteristics influenced by the push-pull motivation factors. Also, the study conducted by Zhang & Lam (1999) confirmed that trip characteristics such as travel frequency, significantly affected both push and pull motivation factors.

Measuring determinants of travel activity dimensions

The next objective is to examine determinants of travel activity factor dimension. By using multiple regression analysis, the results showed that both socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics were related to the attractiveness of travel activity dimensions. The results in Appendices 9.32, 9.33 and 9.34 revealed that three socio-demographic variables – age, gender and marital status – were significantly related to the attractiveness of six of the ten travel activity dimensions. As shown from

Appendices 9.35 to 9.39, the model indicated the fit between observed and forecast data was good, while Appendix 9.40 shows that the model indicated relatively poor between observed and forecast data. The finding also suggested that other socio-demographic variables were nonsignificant, indicating that they had no real impact on the attractiveness of travel activities. In more detail, the regression results revealed that factor "adventure activities" was highly statistically associated with age (see Appendix 9.32). Additionally, the results in Appendix 9.33 indicated gender was a significant factor in determining the attractiveness of four activity factors: "adventure activities", "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife", "local sightseeing and shopping" and "sports and wine". Marital status was found to be significantly important in the "relaxation" evaluation as shown in Appendix 9.34.

The factor dimensions were then submitted to independent sample *t*-test and one-way ANOVA analysis based on various socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics. The results in Appendix 9.41 indicated that the age group of 29 to 33 years rated the "adventure" factor significantly lower than the 19 to 23 and 24 to 28 year old groups. However, it was found no significant differences occurred for travel activity factor "underwater exploration" across age groups in the post-hoc test. Appendix 9.42 shows that male students perceived "adventure activities" and "sports and wine" more attractive than female counterparts, while female students rated "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife" and "local sightseeing and shopping" more attractive than male counterparts. Appendix 9.43 indicates that single students rated "relaxation" factor significantly higher than those married but whose spouse is not in NZ.

With respect to trip characteristics, overall student trip satisfaction was found to relate significantly with three of the ten delineated travel activity factors: "relaxation", "historical, culture and sightseeing" and "unique wildlife cruise" (see Appendix 9.44). However, the appendices 9.45, 9.46 and 9.47 show high residual values eventuated. The post-hoc results in Appendix 9.48 indicated students who were very satisfied with

their trip experiences perceived these travel activity factors more attractive than those satisfied and moderately satisfied counterparts. However, in each case of three activity factors, there were only few respondents in "less satisfied" and "very satisfied" groups, which may affect the results.

This study demonstrated that socio-demographics and trip characteristics were important determinants of travel activity dimensions, and as such, **H**$_{6(c)}$ and **H**$_{6(d)}$ are supported. The influence of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics on travel activity factors are partly supported by Jeffrey & Xie's (1995) study of segmentation of the UK tourism market for China based on the evaluation of holiday activities. They found socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, occupation and family status as well as trip-characteristics associated with trip types and the number of nights spent in the destination was significant predictors of seven activity factors attracting the UK tourists to China. This study corresponded to the study by Jeffrey & Xie's (1995) where socio-demographics variables such as age and gender influenced the activity factors.

Measuring determinants of push-motive and pull-motive segments

In a further attempt to profile the clusters and gain a greater understanding of the characteristics of each, this study examines two major variables, including socio-demographic and trip characteristics, affected push-motive and pull-motive segments of Chinese university student travellers. Regression analysis of the data and its coefficients permit the identification of relationships between independent variables (socio-demographics variables and trip characteristics) and dependent variables (push and pull clusters). Overall, the results showed that socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics possessed no influences in the distribution of three push-motive clusters. However, the study found that one of socio-demographic variables, such as age, was a significant explanatory variable in the pull-motive cluster model (see Appendix 9.49). As the relationship was negative, this suggests that older people were less likely to be motivated by external forces. However, as shown in Appendix 9.50,

the fit between observed and forecast data was poor. One-way ANOVA analysis was then used to test for significant differences between the pull-motive segments in age groups. However, it was found that no significant differences occurred for pull-motive segments across age groups in the post-hoc test. In addition, the results showed trip characteristics were not statistically significant at the .05 level in determining the pull cluster model, indicating trip characteristics, such as the number of total trips, the number of daytrips, the number of overnight trips, travel party size and overall trip satisfaction, possessed no influence on the pull-motive cluster model.

Since only one of socio-demographics had a significant impact on the pull-motive cluster model, $\mathbf{H}_{6(e)}$ is partially. In addition, the push and pull travel motivation dimensions were not shown to be significant related with trip characteristics, and as such, $\mathbf{H}_{6(f)}$ is rejected. The results of this study contradicted those of earlier studies. The influence of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics on push and pull segments are partly supported by Cha *et al.*'s (1995) study of Japanese travellers' motivations to travel abroad. They conducted personal interviews with Japanese overseas visitors and found that certain demographic variables such as age and education were significant variables in determining both push and pull motivation clusters. In addition, Sellick (2004) in the study of key travel motives within the senior travel in USA found that socio-demographic variables such as education attainment, household income and health self-rating were statistically significant discriminators among the four travel-motive segments. However, this study found that only age influenced Chinese university student traveller groups. Travellers with different cultural backgrounds or nationalities may have different travel motivations (Kim & Lee, 2000). Since respondents in the previous study differ from those in this study (e.g. culture, background, travel preferences), as well as the research methodologies, differences in results are understandable. However, this study supported previous work in identifying age as an important influence on travellers' travel motivation segments.

Measuring determinants of travel activity segments

This study also attempts to explore differences between travel activity segments and socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics. The clusters were regressed on socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics, respectively. Overall, the results did not appear to have any significant relationship between activity segments and socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics. In other words, the activity segments were not significantly different in terms of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics, and as such, **H**6(g) and **H**6(h) are not supported.

However, the influence of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics on travel activity clusters was supported in previous tourism studies. In Kim & Jogaratnam's (2003) study, socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, source of income and marital status and trip characteristics including length of stay and travel group size were found to be significantly differentiated in yielded activity cluster groups. In addition, Moscardo *et al.* (2000) found that socio-demographic variables such as age and places of residence as well as trip-characteristics such as types of travel party, previous visits to the destination, types of transport used to get to the destination, total number of nights spent in the destination and types of accommodation used significantly related to four VFR segments based on travel activities. McKercher *et al.* (2002) observed that socio-demographic variables such as origin of visitors, age and education as well as trip characteristics related to trip duration, previous visits to the destination and mode of travel influenced six cultural tourism segments. The difference might be explained by the different study groups and socio-cultural difference between samples. Moscardo *et al.* (2000) focused on VFR tourists, McKercher *et al.* (2002) used cultural tourists, while this study examined student travellers. Although Kim & Jogaratnam's (2003) also concentrated on the student travel market, the sample in their study consisted of Asian international and domestic American university students travelling in the USA, while that in this study was made up of only Chinese university students travelling in New Zealand. This may be due to travel activity varying from one market to another. That is,

Chinese university student travellers may have different attitudes and expectations from those Asian and domestic American student travellers in the USA with respect to a range of holiday activities that the different destination countries offer.

9.6 Conclusions

This study contributes to a body of literature on segmentation associated with the university student travel market. The results demonstrated that the push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Chinese university student market, and as such, **H**4 (a) is supported. In addition, this study confirms the results of the study by Uysal & Jurowski (1994) who reported a relationship between push and pull factors, and such as, **H**4 (b) is accepted. By using *a posteriori* approach (i.e. the combination of factor analysis and cluster analysis), this study shows that it is possible to segment the Chinese university student travel market based on the travel motivation and activity attributes of New Zealand, and as such, **H**5(a) and **H**5(b) are accepted. Understanding these statistical findings helped marketers to successfully target this market by meeting students' individual needs and desires and by distributing the concrete travel product packages or programs to potential student travellers. Moreover, this study identifies that some socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics had significant impacts on the push-pull travel motivation and travel activity dimensions, and as such, **H**6(a), **H**6(b), **H**6(c) and **H**6(d) are accepted. In contrast, only one of socio-demographics had a significant impact on the pull-motive cluster model, and as such, **H**6(e) is partially. The push and pull travel motivation dimensions were not shown to be significant related with trip characteristics, and as such, **H**6(f) is rejected. The activity segments were not significantly different in terms of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics, and as such, **H**6(g) and **H**6(h) are not supported. Market implementations will be presented in Chapter Eleven.

CHAPTER TEN

THE ROLE OF SATISFACTION

10.1 Introduction

The objectives of this chapter are three fold. Firstly, it examines the relationships between satisfaction and other related variables to better predict travel behavior of student travellers. In particular, it attempts to determine if students' overall satisfaction can be explained by their travel motivation, travel behavior and attribute satisfaction and can predict influence on future travel. Secondly, it measures the cause and effect relationships of satisfaction regarding the Chinese student associated VFR market. Thirdly, it intends to ascertain the effect of Chinese students upon inbound VFR tourism by investigating student satisfaction in relation to VFR tourism. Based on the discussions in Chapter Four, the research hypotheses guiding this chapter are:

Hypothesis 7: There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation, travel behavior, attribute satisfaction and loyalty

Hypothesis 8: There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and VFR travel behavior, travel inhibitors and the level of VFR visits in the future

Hypothesis 9: There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and VFR tourism

With reference to Figure 10.1, the hypotheses 7, 8 and 9 are broken down into following hypotheses:

- **H**$_{7(a)}$ There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation
- **H**$_{7(b)}$ Travel activity mediates the relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation
- **H**$_{7(c)}$ The length of trips mediates the relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation
- **H**$_{7(d)}$ There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and attribute satisfaction
- **H**$_{7(e)}$ There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the likelihood of students' recommendations
- **H**$_{7(f)}$ There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the likelihood of revisits
- **H**$_{8(a)}$ There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and the length of VFR stays

H8(b) There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and the month of VFR visits

H8(c) There is a relationship between travel inhibitors and the level of VFR visits in the future

H8(d) There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future

H8(e) There is a relationship between travel inhibitors and VFR satisfaction

H9(a) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and VFR satisfaction

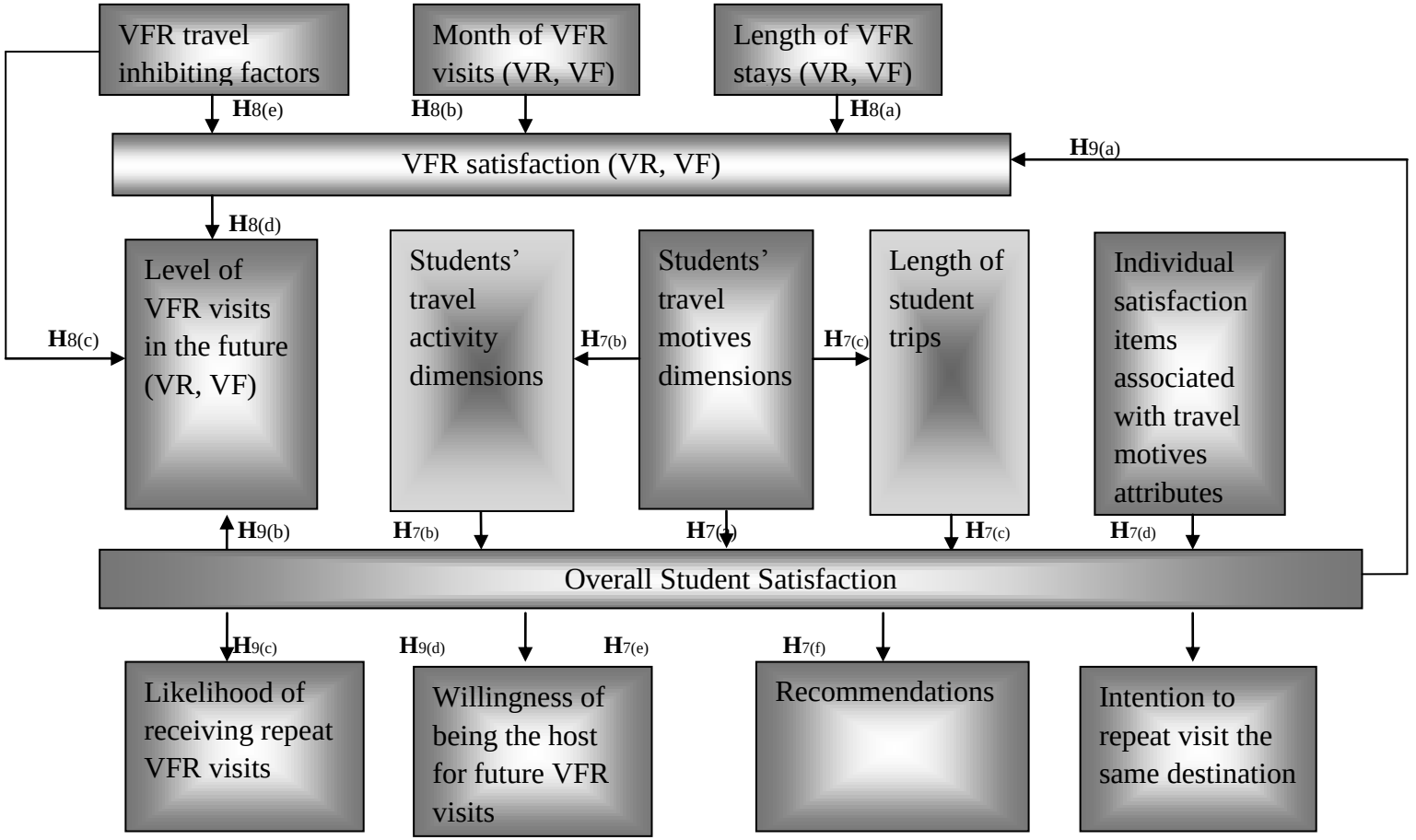
H9(b) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future

H9(c) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the likelihood of receiving repeat VFR visits in the future

H9(d There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the willingness of being the host for future VFR visits

The method employed in this chapter is the linear regression analysis in SPSS 14.0 for the measurement of the hypothesized relationships. The significance levels and *F*-ratio are assessed to determine the relationship. The results presented in this chapter comprise only the significant relationships that explained more than 5 percent of the variance. In addition, the results of the multiple regression analysis are examined both in the sign and in the value of a coefficient. The full analytical tables and associated residual analyses are found in Appendix 10.

Figure 10.1 Proposed Hypothetical Relationships between Satisfaction and Other Related Variables



10.2 Methodological Issues

Linear regression analysis is a statistical technique utilized to examine the relationship between a dependent variable and independent variable(s). The simple linear regression analysis produces a regression equation that can be used in prediction of the dependent variable given a value of one independent variable (Elliott & Woodward, 2007). In contrast, the multiple linear regression analysis examines the relationship between a single dependent variable on the basis of a set of independent ones. The objective of such a technique is to look at different independent variable values and their effects on the dependent variable (Hair *et al.*, 1987). Multiple linear regression allows the researcher to see how many and which of these variables gave rise to the most accurate prediction of the dependent variable. Having more than one independent variable is useful when predicting human behavior, as human actions, thoughts and emotions are all likely to be influenced by some combination of several factors. using multiple regression analysis the researcher can test theories (or models) about precisely which set of variables is influencing behavior. In view of the potential problems of multicollinearity between the independent variables, and therefore the associated instability of the regression coefficients, stepwise regression analyses are employed. SPSS possesses an option, 'stepwise' whereby each of the items are individually entered into the equation, and it is possible to assess the changing contribution to the coefficient of determination made by each item. The software automatically ceases the option when tolerances are less than 0.001. This option is then used in this study.

10.3 Examining the Relationships between Overall Travel Satisfaction and Travel Motivation, Travel Behavior, Attribute Satisfaction and Loyalty for the Chinese University Student Travel Market

The first objective of this chapter aims to test hypothesised relationships between overall travel satisfaction, motivation, travel behaviour, individual attribute satisfaction and loyalty for the Chinese university student travel market. Linear regression analyses are applied for testing five hypotheses which were developed based on a comprehensive review of literature. This section reports the findings regarding proposed relationships.

Overall Satisfaction vs. Travel Motivation—Analysis in relation to ***H****7(a)*

H7(a) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation

This section reports the findings regarding tourist motivation and their effect upon tourist satisfaction. Multiple regression analysis is performed to test the proposed relationship. Independent variables of 4 push and 3 pull travel motivation dimensions are regressed against the dependent variable "overall student trip satisfaction". The results in Appendix 10.1 showed that one of the 7 independent variables significantly predicted overall travel satisfaction. The travel motive "relax and escape seeking" positively influenced overall satisfaction (F-ratio=4.11, R^2= 0.01, $p<0.05$), albeit it explained very little of the variance. In addition, as seen in Appendix 10.2, high levels of residual values resulted. The result is consistent with a study by Dunn-Ross & Iso-Ahola (1991) who suggested that tourists place a high emphasis on travel motivation dimensions, including "escape" in relation to overall satisfaction. Based on the finding of Chapter Nine, for those Chinese university students, the need for "relax and escape" was the most important travel motive factor. Therefore, marketers should try to maintain high performance on this factor in order to satisfy Chinese university student travellers. However, since not all the travel motive dimensions were found to be significant, **H**7(a), that there is a relationship between overall satisfaction and travel motivation, is partially accepted.

The weak relationship between travel motivation and satisfaction might reflect the influence of external stimuli during the process of 'producing' a holiday. For example, they meet new people, visit new places and enter new relationships which give them information and new knowledge, which often reflects important motives. This new knowledge gives new competence and new drives for satisfaction. Prebenson (2007) stated that producing a vacation during the trip is rational behavior undertaken in order to become satisfied. In addition, this might be explained by the fact that people do not always act as initially aimed for and that unexpected things happen outside the individual's control (e.g. tangible or intangible conditions of a social situation).

Overall Satisfaction vs. Travel Motivation via Travel Activity —Analysis in relation to ***H****7(b)*

H7(b) Travel activity mediates the relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation

This section reports the findings regarding travel motivation and their effect upon travel activities, and further how activities predict upon overall satisfaction. The results in Appendix 10.3 confirmed the expectation that travel activities were explained by motives for travelling. Travel motive factors such as "exploration and novelty seeking" and "adventure seeking" had a positive effect upon "adventure" activities (F=55.38, R^2=0.23, p<0.001). Motives such as "cultural, historical and natural attractions" and "safe, clean and calm destinations" had a positive impact upon travel activity "native Maori culture and indigenous wildlife" (F=67.89, R^2=0.25, p<0.001). The "cultural, historical and natural attractions", "exploration and novelty seeking", "safe, clean and calm destination" and "relax and escape seeking" motives impacted positively on "relaxation" activities (F=25.61, R^2=0.20, p<0.001). Motives such as "cultural, historical and natural attractions", "safe, clean and calm destinations" and "adventure seeking" had a positive influence on "historical, cultural and sightseeing" activities (F=30.40, R^2=0.18, p<0.001). The motives "safe, clean and calm destinations", "exploration and novelty seeking" and "cultural, historical and natural attractions" positively influenced "unique wildlife cruise" activities (F=30.56, R^2=0.18, p<0.001). "Education and VFR attractions" as well as "cultural, historical and natural attractions" motives showed positive relationships with "special events and site visit" activities (F=41.90, R^2=0.17, p<0.001). Concerning "local sightseeing and shopping" and "sports and wine" activities, travel motives such as "education and VFR attractions" and "cultural, historical and natural attractions" showed positive relationships. The explained variances, however, were rather low (F=14.38, R^2=0.06, p<0.001; F=19.43, R^2=0.09, p<0.001, respectively). Travel motives "safe, clean and calm destinations", "education and VFR attractions" and "social interaction" had a positive impact on "underwater exploration activities" (F=23.75, R^2=0.14, p<0.001). The "exploration and novelty seeking" and "relax and escape seeking" motives had a positive influence upon "entertainment" activities, albeit the prediction power was low (F=15.73, R^2=0.07, p<0.001). As seen in the appendices 10.4, 10.5, 10.6, 10.7, 10.8, 10.9, 10.10, 10.11, 10.12 and 10.13, residuals were plotted along the straight line drawn at a 45-degree angle, which meant residuals were normally distributed.

Overall, the results confirmed the relationship between travel motivation and travel activity, and as such, are in line with previous tourism studies (e.g. Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1990; Moscardo *et al.*, 1995; Chhetri *et al.*, 2003; Wong & Lau, 2003). As anticipated, the "exploration and novelty seeking" and "adventure seeking" motive-factors explained the variance in a positive way for "adventure" activities. Interestingly, students motivated by "adventure seeking" seemed to engage more "historical, cultural and sightseeing" activities, which implied that adventure was not seen necessarily associated with high levels of risk, challenge and physical fitness by Chinese university students, suggesting that the traditional definition of adventure is challenged. This is supported by Schneider, Vogt & Smith (2006) who stated that "emergence of adventure activities such as visiting historical sites, educational programs, cultural and environmentally sustainable activities broadens the scope of what is associated with adventure" (p.7). Marketers should pay attention to this new scope which includes an entirely new group of potential students that had previously been excluded. In addition, it was observed that travel motive-factor "social interaction" was merely related to travel activity factors except "underwater exploration", which indicated Chinese university students have a tendency to engage in underwater exploration activities during their vacation in order to make new friends or enhance relationships with friends and relatives. This result shows that those destinations marketing to the Chinese university students may find it beneficial to emphasize travel activities such as "to go to aquarium", "to experience dolphin swim" and "to visit glowworm caves" toward those students motivated by "social interaction".

In addition, Appendix 10.14 shows that only one of the ten activity dimensions: "historical, cultural and sightseeing" had a positive effect on overall student satisfaction, albeit the variance explained was rather low (F=7.66, R^2=0.02, $p<0.05$). In addition, as shown in Appendix 10.15, high levels of residual values resulted. Some interesting tendencies seemed, however, to appear. Travel activity-factor "historical, cultural and sightseeing" positively contributed to student overall satisfaction, which implied that this activity factor represents potential strength and the sources of competitive advantage. Hence, marketers should try to focus on activities related to "historical, cultural and sightseeing" and these activities were mainly affected by travel motives such as "cultural, historical and natural attraction", "safe,

clean and calm destinations" and "adventure" factors. In addition, the weak relationship between travel activity and satisfaction might reflect the possible differences between choice drivers and satisfaction drivers, e.g. incidents happen that are not possible to plan for and the learning side of a journey gives new competence and new drives for satisfaction (Gardial *et al.*, 1994; Henke, 1995 and Oliver, 1997). Since not all travel activity factors were found to be significant in relation to satisfaction, **H**7(b), that travel activity mediates the relationship between overall satisfaction and travel motivation, is only partially accepted.

Overall Satisfaction vs. Travel Motivation via Length of Trips —Analysis in relation to ***H****7(c)*

H7(c) The length of trips mediates the relationship between overall student satisfaction and travel motivation

This section reports the findings regarding travel motivation and their effect upon the length of trips, and further how the length of trips predicts overall satisfaction. The length of student trips was regressed with the level of importance associated with individual 'push' and 'pull' motive dimensions. The results in Appendix 10.16 showed that one of the 7 travel motivation dimensions significantly predicted the length of student trips. The travel motive factor "adventure seeking" had a positive effect upon the length of student trips, but it explained very little of the variance (F=4.62, R^2=0.01, $p<0.05$). Nevertheless, as seen in Appendix 10.17, high residual values eventuated. This result confirmed the relationship between motivations and travel-related choices, which implies that Chinese student travellers act in a rational way, that is, they decide the length of their trips consistent with their initial motives for taking a vacation. The result indicated that improvement in importance of "adventure seeking" would contribute to an increased length of student trips.

The simple linear regression analysis was used to test the relationship between the length of trips and overall satisfaction. However, the results indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between the two variables ($p>0.05$). The lack of relationship between satisfaction and the length of trips might reflect that students do not always act as initially aimed. A tourist trip involves various experiences in several situations, where product elements and other people are important components (Prebenson, 2007). Some of these

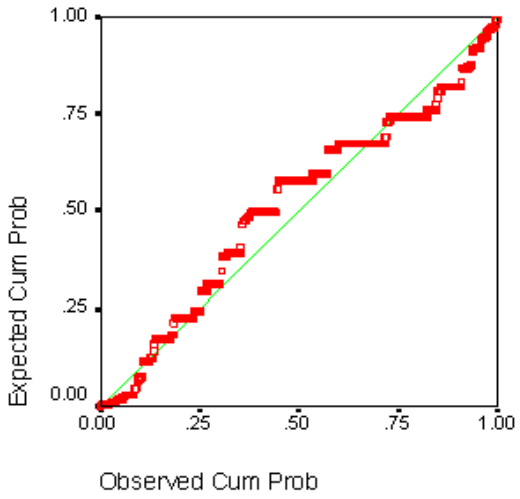
elements are able to plan for, and some are incidental. Unexpected events and meeting new people can influence the individual experiences of the trip as well as the pre-planned outcomes. The tourist's evaluation of situations and product elements will affect his or her satisfaction with the destination. Overall, **H**7(c), that the length of trips mediates the relationship between overall satisfaction and travel motivation, is rejected in this study.

*Overall Satisfaction vs. Attribute Satisfaction—Analysis in relation to **H**7(d)*

H7(d) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and attribute satisfaction

This section reports the findings of how attribute satisfaction with travel motives predict overall satisfaction. To assess the ability to predict overall satisfaction as a result of attribute satisfaction based on 25 individual travel motives, a series of regression analyses was performed. It was observed from Appendix 10.18 that only two independent variables, "mentally relax" and "sightseeing" were statistically significant (F=19.51, R^2=0.12, p<0.001).

Figure 10.2 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and Attribute Satisfaction

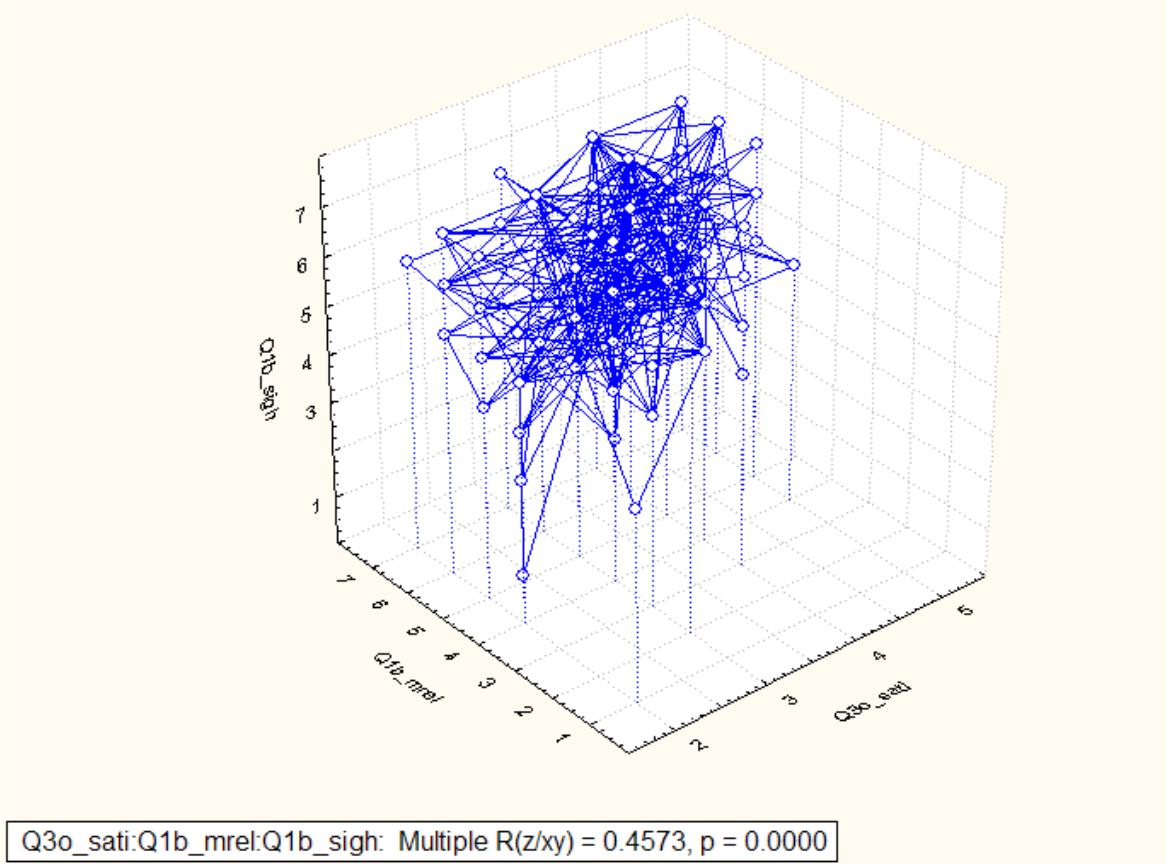


However, as indicated in Figure 10.2, low levels of residual values resulted. The results supported arguments advanced by Ryan & Cessford (2003) that an individual attribute possessed validity, a specific individual measure of trip satisfaction. They reached this conclusion after examining various modes of questioning that then arose as to which

individual satisfying experience accounted most for the overall satisfaction score. The results in this study also revealed that these two travel motives had positive effects on overall satisfaction. Therefore, an improvement on students' satisfaction with specific travel motive attributes such as "mentally relax" and "sightseeing" would contribute to an increased overall satisfaction. Therefore, **H**$_{7(d)}$, that there is a relationship between overall satisfaction and attribute satisfaction, is supported.

Figure 10.3 shows a 3-D trace plot locating overall satisfaction with individual satisfaction derived from mental relaxation and sightseeing. The trace plot shows no clear pattern of development, but significant clustering at the centre. The spatial measure is significant but indicates some variance within the reported relationships.

Figure 10.3 3-D trace Plot Locating Overall Satisfaction with Attribute Satisfaction Derived from Mental Relaxation and Sightseeing



Overall Satisfaction vs. Loyalty –Analysis in relation to ***H****7(e) and* ***H****7(f)*

H7(e) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the likelihood of students' recommendations

H7(f) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the likelihood of revisits

This section reports the findings regarding how overall satisfaction predicts intention to perform positive word of mouth and intention to revisit. Two simple linear regression equations were developed to examine the relationship between overall satisfaction and the likelihood of students' recommendations and the likelihood of revisits, using the likelihood of students' recommendations and the likelihood of revisits as the dependent variable, respectively, and overall satisfaction as the independent variable. The results in Appendix 10.19 showed that overall satisfaction impacted significantly upon the likelihood of recommendations, albeit the explained variance was low (F=5.62, R^2=0.01, p<0.05). In addition, as shown in Appendix 10.20, the fit between observed and forecast data was poor. The low explained variance concerning tourist satisfaction upon intention to recommend did not support the results concerning the tourists' relatively high degree of intention to communicate via positive word of mouth in previous studies (e.g. Kozak & Rimmington, 2000 and Prebenson, 2007). Nevertheless, surprisingly, overall satisfaction did not influence positively upon intention to recommend travel destinations to others. This result is seemingly in disagreement with previous studies in tourist satisfaction material mainly as the intention to communicate via positive word of mouth (e.g. Hui, Wan & Ho, 2006 and Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). The negative effect probably explained that Chinese students are well educated which leads them to presume that their friends and relatives have the knowledge of the image of New Zealand destinations. It could also be speculated that there was a lack of interesting information regarding destination promotions in New Zealand, which may result in satisfied students declining to recommend destinations they have visited. As such, special attentions should be paid to satisfied Chinese university student travellers. Inevitably, the changes of recommendation intentions call for more attractive promotional materials and activities to stimulate students' interests in performing word-of-mouth recommendations. Further, from a marketing perspective, practitioners should design more programs encouraging students to introduce unique brand images of New Zealand destinations to their friends and relatives who were presumed to have such knowledge.

Further, interestingly, overall satisfaction did not influence significantly the likelihood of revisits. This might be due to New Zealand being a 'small' country and, a greater disadvantage surfaces because most what tourists hope to experience can be easily accomplished within a few days, unlike large countries such as the USA, Australia, Canada, India or China. This result, on the other hand, suggested that many students searched for new places to visit, not necessarily for the reason of satisfaction or disappointment with previous destinations, but as a drive for novelty seeking e.g. learning and experiencing new places. Thus, Kozak & Rimmington's (2000) and Hui *et al.*'s (2006) prior claims that the level of overall satisfaction with holiday experiences had a great impact on the intention to revisit the destination in the future were not supported in this study.

Overall, **H**$_{7(e)}$, that there is a relationship between overall satisfaction and the likelihood of recommendations, is supported, while **H**$_{7(f)}$, that there is a relationship between overall satisfaction and the likelihood of revisits, is rejected in this study.

10.4 Examining the Relationships between VFR Travel Behavior, Travel Inhibitors, Satisfaction and the Level of VFR Visits in the Future

This section reports the findings regarding the relationships between VFR tourist behaviours, VFR travel inhibitors, VFR satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future. The regression analyses are applied to identify the constructs (e.g. tourist behaviors or travel inhibitors) explain variance in VR and VF satisfaction separately. Only those significant constructs are displayed in the thesis.

VFR Satisfaction vs. Travel Behaviour—Analysis in relation to ***H****$_{8(a)}$ and* ***H****$_{8(b)}$*

H$_{8(a)}$ There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and the length of VFR stays
H$_{8(b)}$ There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and the month of VFR visits

This section reports the findings regarding the length of VFR stays and month of VFR visits, and further their effects upon VFR satisfaction. Multiple regression analyses are applied to assess the relationship between VFR satisfaction and the length of VFR stays and month of VFR visits, with VFR satisfaction as the dependent variable and the length of VFR stays and

month of VFR visits as independent variables. The results indicated that the length of VFR stay and month of VFR visits had no influence on VFR satisfaction. Therefore, **H**$_{8(a)}$ and **H**$_{8(b)}$ are rejected in this study.

Interestingly, this study did not find any relationship between travel behavior and VFR satisfaction, which might be, in part, due to the distinct characteristics of the Chinese VFR market. It is arguable that VFR motives are reinforced by cultural moves that emphasize social ties and mutual responsibilities, which norms are traditionally associated with Asian culture (Hofstede, 1980). Asian culture stresses the importance of family closeness with their extended family members, even if they require substantial travel. While social obligations required relatively little travel when social networks were socially and spatially close-knit, they trigger much long-distance travel today, when social networks are widely distributed and the world is becoming compressed due to historically cheap and fast transport (Larsen, 2006). As a result of China's fast growing economy and the country's integration into the global market, in recent years, more and more Chinese families have been capable and willing to send their children abroad to study which will likely increase the probability of Chinese VFRs travelling overseas. There is a strong connection between Chinese ethnicity and demonstrable interest in engaging in family reunion. For Chinese, children are seen as central to a family and parents tend to be protective over their children and relatives (Nicholson, 2003). In the context of Chinese culture, parents or elderly have a strong obligation to look after their children who are not married. Such responsibility becomes stronger with girls. Hence, Chinese VFRs are a great contributor to the education destination countries. As demonstrated in Chapter Seven, an overwhelming Chinese VFRs' main intention is to visit the students, they would stay at the education destinations looking after the students even though those areas do not offer much to them. In addition, there is a linkage between immigration and VFR tourism. Isa (2004) pointed out that one of the reasons why the VFR is becoming the second largest group of international visitors to New Zealand is because New Zealand has a significant number of migrants living in this country. With the changing nature of immigration in New Zealand, there are a growing proportion of international student permit holders who have become permanent residents in New Zealand. In turn, permanent migration can generate a demand for VFR tourism. Some of the PR

students' parents bought houses in New Zealand for their children to stay in the country. Also, whenever they come to New Zealand for visiting they will stay at their own house. That is why some of the parents stayed in New Zealand for a very long period of time because they have their second home here. Therefore, the length of their stays does not necessarily contribute to overall travel satisfaction.

In addition, previous tourism studies have identified the negative effects generated by seasonal variations upon tourist satisfaction. However, it is worth noting differences between VFRs and other tourists in terms of benefit sought may draw different conclusions. Because VFRs travel for social obligation reasons, the time at which they usually choose to travel is determined to a degree by special occasions, such as graduation ceremonies, Christmas time, weddings, birthdays, etc., which reflect VFR visits are more equally distributed throughout the year. This is the case with the Chinese VFR travel market as shown in Chapter Seven. As a consequence, the VFR market can function as a moderator to compensate for seasonal variations typically found in tourism destination and businesses, which reflects that the month of visits might not have any impact on tourist satisfaction in the VFR travel context.

Moreover, the lack of relationship between travel behavior and satisfaction might reflect the influence of other factors during the process of 'producing' their holidays, such as external stimuli. In tourist contexts, they are often an active part of producing his/her own well-being, e.g. communicating with other tourists and finding new attractions to visit that were not planned etc. Such learning experience of the given journey provides new competence and new drives for satisfaction. Novelty, discovery and surprise become important and determining elements of the tourist's evaluation of the experience (Prebenson, 2007). This might be the case with Chinese university associated VFRs in New Zealand.

Further, the results might stress the importance of students' roles in VFR satisfaction. According to the results in Chapter Seven, an overwhelming number of Chinese VRs (81.9 per cent) and VFs (77.6 per cent) were visiting the students for the first time. Therefore, it could be speculated that they rely heavily on students to provide travel information. This was demonstrated in Chapter Seven, that Chinese students played somewhat 'equal' or dominant

roles in VFR travel decisions when travelling with VFRs. Students select attractions and activities for their VFRs based on their knowledge of their community or regions' tourism resources. Given that the VFR market taps into the knowledge base of the students, it could be assumed that students play an important role in VFR travel satisfaction in New Zealand.

The Level of VFR Visits in the Future vs. Travel Inhibitors via VFR Satisfaction— Analysis in relation to ***H****8(c)*, ***H****8(d)* *and* ***H****8(e)*

H8(c) There is a relationship between travel inhibitors and the level of VFR visits in the future

H8(d) There is a relationship between VFR satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future

H8(e) There is a relationship between travel inhibitors and VFR satisfaction

This section reports the findings regarding the effect of travel inhibitors upon the level of VFR visits in the future and that of VFR satisfaction on the level of VFR visits, and further how travel inhibitors predict the level of VFR visits in the future through VFR satisfaction. In testing **H**8(c), the eight travel inhibitors are identified as the independent variables and the level of VFR visits in the future is regarded as the dependent variable. Simultaneously, a simple linear regression is conducted to assess **H**8(d), with the level of VFR visits in the future as the independent variable and VFR satisfaction as the dependent variable. In addition, concerning **H**8(e), the eight travel inhibitors are used as the independent variables and VFR satisfaction is identified as the determinant variable.

The results in Appendix 10.21 showed that only two travel inhibitors "visa" and "physical conditions" were significantly related to the level of VF visits in the future, albeit the prediction power was rather low (F-ratio = 7.36, R^2=0.06, $p<0.05$). Nevertheless, as shown in Appendix 10.22, a relatively poor fit between observed and forecast data eventuated. The "visa" factor showed a negative relationship with the level of VF visits. This might be explained by the fact that a growing simplification of visa application in China has only made a great contribution to the growth of Chinese outbound VR travel. Since August 1, 1999, application procedures for private passports used for visiting relatives have been simplified (Guo, 2002). In addition, the results also indicated that the "physical conditions" factor had positive impacts on the level of VF visits. The positive relationship between travel

inhibitors and the level of future visits was contrary to Rittichainumat, Qu & Mongkhonvanit's (2006) finding that travel inhibitors had a significant negative impact on the level of visits in the future. This might be due to travellers from different countries of residence may encounter different types of travel inhibitors, which further may result in a difference in explaining variance of the likelihood of receiving visitors. Additionally, the positive relationship between "physical constraints" and future travel could reflect the fact that students represented the largest number of the VFs' occupation (55.2 per cent) and the age group of 21-30 years was the largest number of VFs (82.5 per cent) (as shown in Chapter Seven). Therefore, they typically have a lack of mental and physical constraints, which enables them to take holidays.

Alternatively, the findings suggested that travel inhibitors did not have a significant effect on the level of VR visits in the future. The lack of the relationships between travel inhibitors and the level of VR visits might reflect the stronger influence of family closeness with the students upon VRs in comparison with VFs. This result is demonstrated in Chapter Seven, for an overwhelming number of VRs, the primary motivation for their visits to New Zealand is to visit the students, which reflects that Chinese VRs are motivated by fulfilling social obligation reasons, such as strengthening or building closer family ties. Therefore, it is less likely that travel inhibitors could prevent VRs from travelling. There might also be speculation that the lack of relationships between travel inhibitors and the level of VR travel can be explained as part of a conceptual problem. Initially, in the 1980s, researchers equated travel inhibitors with barriers to participation (Jackson & Searle, 1985 and Crawford & Godbey, 1987). This notion has been challenged in most research. Researchers have argued that travel inhibitors do not necessarily prohibit travelling. This is because constraints can be dependent on an individuals' ability to negotiate through them (Henderson *et al.*, 1996, Jackson & Scott, 1999 and Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Travel will take place when perceived benefits exceed perceived inhibitors. Thus, travel inhibitors should be seen as modifiers of choice and participation, resulting in either non-participation or some revision of participation—for example, participation to a lesser extent or participation in a different activity (Crawford *et al.*, 1991, Jackson, 1993 and Jackson & Rucks, 1995).

The results in Appendix 10.23 indicated that VR satisfaction was statistically significant in explaining the level of VR visits in the future (F=4.05, R^2=0.02, p<0.05). However, the fit between observed and forecast data was poor (see Appendix 10.24). It was found that VR satisfaction had a positive effect upon the level of future VR visits. This result might, in part, imply that those VRs with high levels of satisfaction toward their trips had a high propensity to return to the country. In addition, it might suggest that satisfied VRs are likely to perform positive word-of-mouth recommendations to the other relatives in their home country, which initiates more VR travels in the future.

Alternatively, the results showed no relationship between VF satisfaction and the level of VF visits in the future. This might be explained by the fact that because the majority of VFs are young students, money may be limited for the level of future VFs. On the other hand, it had to be regarded simultaneously with the need for visiting new destinations (novelty seeking), a well-known issue in the tourism context (e.g. Basala & Klenosky, 2001). Many tourists search for new places to visit, not necessarily for the reason of disappointment with previous destinations, rather as a drive for learning and experiencing new places (Prebenson, 2007). This might be the case with the Chinese VF market. Again, because the majority of Chinese VFs are young students, it can be speculated that the desire of novelty experience seeking should be high, which leads them to be unlikely to return to the same destination. "Unlike other types of consumer behaviour in which satisfaction results in repeat purchases, the very attraction of a travel destination for one market segment discourages a repeat purchase because familiarity decreases or eliminates novelty" (Bello & Etzel, p.23). In addition, for most Mainland Chinese people, have been forbidden for several hundred years from the outside world. They, until recently had no contact with the outside world, therefore, Chinese people are likely to "walk outside and have a look" and have an avid appetite for experiencing foreign cultures and experiencing other countries. This is particularly the case with Chinese young tourists, who are less tolerant towards the "lack of novelty seeking" than elders. Further, the lack of the relationship between VF satisfaction and the level of VF visits also reflect the influence of other factors upon the level of VF visits in the future. For instance, while destinations provide tourists with satisfaction, they may not return to the same destination because of convenience, competitive actions or prices (Keaveney, 1995).

The results in Appendix 10.25 revealed that only one travel inhibitor "how many times do you go back to China" contributed to the variance in VR satisfaction (F = 1.32, R^2= 0.05, p>0.05) and three travel inhibitors "interests in New Zealand", "visa" and "travel costs" had a significant effect on predicting VF satisfaction (F = 2.05, R^2= 0.11, p<0.05). Again, unfortunately, as shown in the appendices 10.26 and 10.27, the models indicated a relatively poor fit between observed and forecast data. The "how many times do you go back to China" factor showed negative relationships with VFR satisfaction, albeit the relationship was not statistically significant. This might be explained by the fact that the tourist's desire for travel may be mitigated by interpersonal constraints e.g. unavailability of other friends or family members or partners, as Crawford *et al.*, (1991) suggest. This is particularly the case with Chinese people, as Kawato (1995) classifies, Asians are group-oriented while westerners are individualistic. Chinese people have a strong preference for a co-participant to participate with them in the activities of interest.

Interestingly, travel inhibitors "interests in New Zealand" and "visa" had positive impacts on VF satisfaction. Although negative relationships generally would be expected because travel inhibitors prohibit people travelling to a particular destination to fulfil their needs, this finding might reflect that Chinese VFs to New Zealand have successfully negotiated these two travel inhibitors by perceived benefits. Satisfaction is a subjective measurement of an evaluate orientation—customers express, through their intentions and behaviour, a subjective judgement associated with emotion (Noe, 1999). In addition, the "travel costs" factor exerted a negative influence on VF satisfaction. This might be explained by the fact that money limited the Chinese VF travel, as the majority of them are young students. Therefore, the stronger the travel inhibitor "travel costs" that Chinese VFs have, the less likely they would be satisfied with their travel experience in New Zealand. The decrease of travel costs and development of travel products and services at a reasonable price for Chinese VFs accordingly would increase the VFs' satisfaction with travelling in New Zealand.

10.5 Examining the Relationships between Overall Student Satisfaction and VFR Tourism

This section reports the findings regarding the relationships between students' satisfaction and VFR tourism. To this end, simple linear regression analyses are manipulated in determining the relationships between overall student satisfaction and VFR satisfaction, the level of VFR visits in the future, the likelihood of receiving repeat VFR visits in the future and the willingness of being hosts for future VFRs.

Overall Student Satisfaction vs. VFR Satisfaction –Analysis in relation to ***H****9(a)*

H9(a) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and VFR satisfaction

This section reports the findings regarding the effect of overall student satisfaction upon VFR satisfaction. Overall student satisfaction was used as a dependent variable to explore its relationship to VR and VF satisfaction accordingly. The results in the appendices 10.28 and 10.29 indicated that overall student satisfaction served as a significant predictor of both VR and VF satisfaction (F = 27.69, R^2= 0.10, $p<0.001$; F = 11.49, R^2= 0.08, $p<0.05$, respectively). However, as shown in the appendices 10.30 and 10.31, high residual values eventuated in both cases. The positive signs of the variables revealed that overall student satisfaction had a positive relationship with both VR and VF satisfaction. This result might reflect that the important role played by satisfied students in influencing the VFR travel experience. In short, **H**9(a), that there is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and VFR satisfaction was supported in this study. A noteworthy point to emphasize is that although overall student trip satisfaction was significantly related to VR and VF satisfaction, the standard coefficient of VR satisfaction model and the explanation power was higher than that of a VF model. This implied that the impact of overall student satisfaction upon VR satisfaction was more significant than that upon VF satisfaction.

Overall Student Satisfaction vs. the Level of VFR Visits in the Future and the Likelihood of Receiving Repeat VFR Trips —Analysis in relation to ***H****9(b)* *and* ***H****9(c)*

H9(b) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future

H9(c) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the likelihood of receiving repeat VFR visits in the future

This section reports the findings regarding overall student satisfaction and its effect upon the level of VFR visits in the future and the likelihood of initiating repeat visits by VFRs. The simple linear regression analysis is performed to ascertain how overall student satisfaction materializes as intention to generate more VFR visits and repeat VFR visits to New Zealand. The results showed that overall student satisfaction appeared to have no impact on the level of VFR trips in the future. The lack of the relationship between student satisfaction and the level of future VFR visits might reflect that in Asian cultures, VFR activities form a very important aspect of their lifestyle. In particular, Chinese people are living within the culture of strong family ties and connections with their relatives and friends wherever they are (Isa, 2004). Thus, it is not surprising to learn that Chinese VFRs are likely to visit students in the future to enhance such connections with each other regardless of student satisfaction with travelling in New Zealand. Indeed, an overwhelming of Chinese VRs were motivated primarily by visiting students.

In addition, the results in Appendix 10.32 showed that overall student satisfaction had a significant effect upon the likelihood of receiving repeat VFR trips in the future (F=4.16, R^2= 0.01, $p<0.05$). With a positive sign, it was suggested that student satisfaction increases the likelihood of repeat VFR visits. This might reflect that satisfied students have a higher probability to engage in positive word of mouth recommendation behavior, which helps generate repeat VFR visits. However, the explained variance was rather low. Nevertheless, as seen in Appendix 10.33, the fit between observed and forecast data was again poor. The low explained variance might suggest that the likelihood of repeat VFR visits would be influenced by other variables rather than student satisfaction. Therefore, attention to how other variables might be explained in variance in the probability of repeat VFR visits would be an interesting topic for further research on the Chinese university student-generated VFR market. In summary, **H**9(b) was rejected and **H**9(c) was accepted.

*Overall Student Satisfaction vs. Willingness of Being Hosts for VFR visits—Analysis in relation to **H**9(d)*

H9(d) There is a relationship between overall student satisfaction and the willingness of being the host for future VFR visits

This section reports the findings regarding the influence of overall student satisfaction on the willingness of being hosts for VFR visits in the future. The results in Appendix 10.34 showed that overall student satisfaction appeared to have a significant impact on the willingness of being the host for future VFR trips (F= 11.18, R^2= 0.04, p<0.05). However, as shown in Appendix 10.35, the model indicated a poor fit between observed and forecast data. The positive sign of standardized coefficient indicated that overall student satisfaction contributes to the increasing willingness of being the host for future VFR trips. This result might reflect that student satisfaction influences his/her subsequent behavior. Thus, satisfied students make a more significant contribution in initiating VFR tourism as they have a propensity for being a host for VFR visits. Under this circumstance, to maximize the willingness of being the host for future VFR trips, marketers need to identify and focus on variables contributed to the overall student satisfaction and then develop an approach to emphasise these variables in order to achieve students' satisfaction.

Finally, to test multicolinearity and collinearity, Durbin-Watson statistics, tolerance values and variance inflation factor are analyzed in each multiple regression model. According to Hair *et al.* (1995), the Durbin-Watson statistic close to the desired statistic of 2.0 is usually interpreted as representing an absence of multi-collinearity. In addition, tolerance value should be above 0.19 and variance inflation factor should be below 5.3 since very small tolerance values and very large variance inflation factor denote high collinearity or multicollinearity. As shown in Appendix 10, all multiple regression equations did not suffer from collienarity or multicollienary.

10.6 Conclusions

Overall, the thesis has focused on explaining student overall satisfaction as a result of motivation for taking a vacation trip in New Zealand, travel activities and the length of trips (behavior) and satisfaction derived from travel motives (attributes). It further tested the results of student satisfaction in terms of the likelihood of recommendations and revisits. Some interesting tendencies should be considered. Based on the findings in this chapter, Chinese university students seemed to be generally satisfied with overall trip experiences in New Zealand as well as specific satisfaction attributes. Overall satisfaction is primarily affected by attribute satisfaction with travel motives such as "mentally relax" and

"sightseeing", confirms **H**7(d). However, the relationships motivation, activity and satisfaction are not that simple. Travel motivation factor "relax and escape seeking" was found to be positively related to students' overall satisfaction, albeit the variance explained was rather low, and as such, **H**7(a) is confirmed. This might reflect that students do not always act as initially aimed for and that unexpected things happen during the process of 'producing' a holiday. From this perspective, it is suggested that to better understand the tourist experience, student travel should probably to a greater extent be viewed as a production process. In addition, the results also confirmed that Chinese university students to a certain degree act in a rational way. They choose activities, which are consistent with their initial motives for taking a vacation, and they become satisfied, and as such, **H**7(b) was confirmed. Interestingly, it was found that students choose to stay at the destination according to their initial motives, while this was not shown to effect on satisfaction, and as such **H**7(c) was rejected. Student satisfaction was not shown to effect on the intention to revisits, and as such, **H**7(f) was not confirmed. The results from the study, however, showed a somewhat statistically significant relationship between student satisfaction and the intention to recommend the trips to friends and relatives, and as such **H**7(e) was confirmed. However, the explained variance was rather low. Nevertheless, interestingly, student satisfaction negatively related to the intention of recommendations, which conflicts with previous tourism studies.

Regarding the Chinese students' VFR market, travel behavior was not shown to effect on VFR satisfaction, and as such, **H**8(a) and **H**8(b) were rejected. In addition, the results suggested that **H**8(c), **H**8(d) and **H**8(e) were at least partly supported in this study. It was found that travel inhibitors had significant impact on the level of VF travel in the future (**H**8(c)) and VR and VF satisfaction (**H**8(e)), and VR satisfaction significantly affected the level of VR visits in the future (**H**8(d)). However, unfortunately, the hypothesis that VFR satisfaction mediates the relationship between the level of VFR visits in the future and VFR travel inhibitors were not accepted.

In respect to the relationship between student satisfaction and inbound VFR tourism, the results showed that satisfied students make a significant contribution in initiating VFR

tourism by showing a higher probability to be a host for VFR visits and receive repeat VFR visits in the future and as such, **H**9(c) and **H**9(d) are accepted. Conversely, student satisfaction was not shown to effect on the level of VFR visits in the future, and as such, **H**9(b) is rejected. Moreover, the results show a statistically significant relationship between student satisfaction and VFR satisfaction, and as such, **H**9(a) is confirmed. It was also observed that the impact of overall student satisfaction upon VR satisfaction was more significant than that upon VF satisfaction. Further, acknowledging that the more positive experiences with trips in New Zealand the students have, the more likely their VFRs would be satisfied. Marketers of destinations need to ensure that Chinese university students are happy with their travel experiences in New Zealand by providing them with appropriate holiday products and services.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONCLUSION

11.1 Introduction

Understanding the travel behavior of the Chinese university student market and their VFR market has been the main focus of this thesis. Chapter One discussed the research background, subject matter, the significance of the subject and the structure of this study, and Chapter Two provided the context of the Chinese student and their VFR travel markets in New Zealand. Chapter Three reviewed previous literature and studies on travel behavior of the student travel market as well as the VFR market and identified important issues that need to be addresses from the review of the literature. Chapter Four discussed the methods used for this study. Chapter Five present the results of qualitative pilot study. Chapter Six justified the questionnaire by reference to the pilot study and literature. Chapter Seven investigated the nature of sample. Chapter Eight evaluated the relationships among socio-demographics, travel behavior and expenditure patterns. Chapter Nine focused on market segments of Chinese university student travelers. Chapter Ten analyzed potential relationships between attitudes, trip behaviors, satisfaction and loyalty for the Chinese university students travel market, measured the relationship between Chinese students and VFR tourism and established potential relationships between trip behaviors, travel inhibitors, satisfaction, loyalty and expenditures for the VFR market. Finally, to bring everything together, this chapter will provide a summary of the study's main findings and present an overview of the contribution to literature and marketing practice that emerged from the research. Also, in the final section of this chapter, the limitations of and recommendations for future research that have emerged from the findings of this study are discussed.

11.2 Research Conclusions and Market Implementations

Any review of the Chinese university student travel market, its size, current situation and future development, would confirm Chinese students are an essential market for tourism destinations in the world. With more visas being granted and application processes streamlined, more Chinese students are studying abroad. Also, after China's entry to the WTO, there was an even higher demand for internationally oriented and competent human resources, and this persuaded even more parents to insist on students going overseas to study.

These students have an influential continuing affect on the New Zealand tourism industry over and above their education-related activities and expenditures. They travel within New Zealand during their periods of study and in addition, they also contribute indirectly to the economy through visits by family and friends from their home countries. After China joined the WTO, restrictions for Chinese outbound travelers were and continue to be gradually relaxed, and the number of Chinese outbound VFRs to New Zealand is expected to grow. It is therefore imperative that tourism providers in the destination understand the socio-demographic profile and trip-related attributes of student-related VFRs. This study contributed to the literature by examining the travel behavior of Chinese university students in New Zealand, the relationship between study abroad and VFR travel and exploring the behavior and economic contribution by their VFRs to the tourism economy in New Zealand. A variety of conclusions and market implementations are drawn and briefly described below.

Who are the Chinese university student travelers?

The majority of student-tourists appear to be between the ages of 24-28 years, female, second and third year students studying for or possessing an undergraduate degree, not holding permanent residency in New Zealand, unmarried, supported by parents in China or partly by parents and partly by part-time work in New Zealand. Most of the sample came from the University of Auckland and Waikato, and that raised an issue as to whether the sample was representative of other universities.

Why Chinese university students travelling?

Chinese university students indicated that "to holiday somewhere safe", "to holiday somewhere clean and unpolluted", "to mentally relax", "to go sightseeing", "to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life", "to discover new places and things", "to physically relax", "to change my surroundings for the sake of change" and "to be in a calm atmosphere" were quite important motives for going on holiday in New Zealand. In addition, 'feeling safe in the destination' was also an important consideration. In spite of this, having conducted the survey at universities, it is not surprising to find that one important motive is "to look at other university courses". Astute marketers will be able to benefit from these findings as they attempt to develop and promote their ability to provide travel products and services related to these findings. On the other hand, generally, Chinese students were not likely to travel to

explore other cultures, take adventure and/or sport/physical activities, and seek educational-related motives. Therefore,

- Travel marketers focusing on the student market may choose to de-emphasize culture, adventure and physical related themes because these were the least important travel motivations for Chinese university student travelers.

However, this not to say that culture, adventure and physical related interests do not exist within the student market, but rather, that it is likely to be relatively small in comparison to other segments.

Importance-evaluation analysis of travel motivation

Given the significant potential that the student market represents, it was useful to examine the reasons for travel choices and the degree to which expectations are fulfilled. The importance-evaluation technique was used to assess the relative significance of attributes and derived satisfaction from holidays. The results of the empirical study clearly showed that "relax", "exploration and novelty seeking", "spent time with friends/families" and "visit natural, safe and clean attractions" can be represented as potential "strengths" of competitive advantage. Equally important to note, Chinese university students were less likely to put emphasis on and be satisfied with "to visit cultural attractions", "to visit VFRs and make new friends", "adventure seeking and fitness" and "educational seeking". Consequently,

- Travel motive attributes such as "to visit cultural attractions", "to visit VFRs and make new friends", "adventure seeking and fitness" and "educational seeking" require a lower priority in promotions.

The application of the importance-evaluation analysis yields clear insights into student thinking and the place attributes that need to be stressed in destination promotion.

Gap analysis on travel motivations

The importance of "to mentally relax" and "to holiday somewhere is safe" exceeded satisfaction scores. These two attributes also had the second and fourth highest satisfaction scores yet seemingly "to mentally relax" and "to holiday somewhere safe" still were unable to meet the level of importance attributed by Chinese university students to these motives.

- Marketers should put more emphasize on the improvement of the level of satisfaction

on "to mentally relax" and "to holiday somewhere safe" for the Chinese univeristy student travel market.

Equally important to note, the item that has the highest positive disconfirmation is “to challenge my abilities”.

What do they do on their travels?

Chinese university students engaged in a series of activities. The passive activities that were clearly highlighted as quite attractive including “to go whale-watching”, “to take scenic boat cruises”, “to go to the geothermal spa”, “to visit beaches”, “to see a volcano”, “take lots of photos to show friends and relatives”, “to view seal colony”, “to visit Waitomo Cave”, “to experience wildlife in natural setting” and “to visit National Park”. Some physical activities are a fairly important component of Chinese university students’ holiday experiences, such as “to go skiing”, “to experience dolphin swim”, “to climb glaciers”, and “to go scuba diving”. On the other hand, “to watch sporting events”, “to visit home shows” and “to gamble in a casino” were rated as the least attractive travel activities. These findings suggested that in the context of Chinese university student travel market, destinations should concentrate their promotion on sightseeing, relaxing, skiing, swimming with dolphin, glacier climbing and scuba diving. At the same time, expenditure promoting sporting events, home shows and casinos to Chinese university student travelers would generate little return. However, it is equally important to note that many New Zealand based cultural activities were not attractive to Chinese university students. Based on the findings of the study, it was suggested that

- Modifications to the existing tourism produces and services and new product development are necessary in order to meet the demand of this emerging market.

For example, and possibly contentious, shows based on Maori culture are not overly attractive, while one might suggest that many Chinese do not share a passion for rugby that is thought characteristic of New Zealand.

Travel behavior

The study also gathered information regarding total number of trips, day-trips and overnight trips. A large majority of students traveled within their country of study for tourism-related purposes, with almost one half engaging in an average of 5.6 trips each year within New

Zealand during their period of study, with 2.5 day trips and 3 overnight trips spent in New Zealand destinations.

- Marketers would be well advised to promote shorter trips with lower prices to attract the Chinese university student market.

Chinese students tended to travel with a small group of friends, usually with 3 other persons. Therefore,

- Tourism service providers may consider providing bulk purchase discounts when a group of three or four students travel together.

The average length of nights spent in New Zealand destinations for Chinese university students was approximately three. As the expenses of the trip increase in proportion to the length of trip, it was not surprising to find that very few students took 6 nights or more. The mean number of nights spent traveling in New Zealand was approximately 6.6, with the longest overnight trip as 21 nights. In other words, the majority of holidays taken by Chinese university students lasted about one week.

- Marketers would be well advised to promote shorter trips to keep costs down.

Chinese university students tended to travel with friends and outside of organized tours, primarily because they preferred flexible and informal travel itineraries. They preferred to organize their own vacations rather than take package holidays. In addition, the hesitation the students have in choosing all-inclusive package tours is the availability, design of the itinerary, and past poor experiences they have had when traveling with different age groups. The results of this study demonstrated that the tourism industry has a lot of work to do to in encouraging student travelers to take package holidays rather than organize their own. For example,

- Tourism service providers aiming to attract Chinese university students should either modify existing tours to make them more flexible for students or offer air-room packages for independent student travelers.

All-inclusive package tours are not designed to offer travelers much free time in which they can pursue their own activities; these trips would be perceived as unattractive and lacking in

value for money. The inclusion of more free time within package tours geared to students would allow them to enjoy their travel more because they can choose how to spend their time in their own way. They might want to make side trips to places of attraction not covered in the normal itinerary. Such packages would be more attractive because not only would core activities such as catering, transportation and accommodation be pre-arranged and covered, but add-on activities would be included to make the tours different (Heung & Leong, 2006). Also, if travel agents can offer interesting package tours, and the group consisted mainly of youngsters, they might be induced to purchase such all-inclusive package tours.

- Accommodation providers should offer special arrangements to Chinese university students who show overwhelming preference for traveling in groups.
- Instead of catering to individual needs and requests, special arrangement for groups would be very much appreciated.

This can be executived in terms of assigning rooms to group members on the same floor or preparing special breakfast items just for the groups (Mok & DeFranco, 1999).

During longer holidays, given the factor of limited time in longer holidays, it was not surprising to see that many students flew to their destinations and selected other modes of transportation such as rental cars, campervans and scheduled public transport in the destinations. While, during shorter holidays, an overwhelming number of Chinese university students chose private cars as their favorite transport modes. As discussed above, Chinese university students tended to travel in a group. Thus, car transport for a small group is probably not substantially more expensive than using public transport. Motels were the main types of accommodation used for both longer and shorter holidays in New Zealand. Additionally, it is important to note that the Chinese students also stayed in hotel rooms. Because students tended to travel in groups, they were likely to share rooms with friends to reduce costs while traveling. Thus, motel rooms that sleep three and four individuals are probably not much more expensive than many backpackers or hostels. However, the students were more likely to stay in motels than hotels. Unlike staying in hotels, students who live in motels, backpackers and hostels can prepare their own meals in hostel kitchens and make friends in the social setting. During longer holidays, Chinese restaurants were the most popular choice when travelling by Chinese university student, while Chinese restaurants and

fast-food restaurants were the most favorite choices for shorter holidays. The preferences for transportation, accommodation and restaurants of Chinese university student travelers should be taken into account.

- Destination marketing organizations might engage in a closer working relationship with other industry providers such as airlines, coach companies, attraction owners, and hoteliers and moteliers with a view to targeting this growing segment.
- Since student travelers are constrained by limited budgets, the pricing of any packages should take this into account.

The summer break (December-February) was the best time for Chinese university students travel around New Zealand. It was known as a “window of opportunity”, and is ideal for many tourist destinations that wish to obtain high economic gains from student tourists. This was followed by "any time that students host VFR trips from China". With this knowledge,

- The tourism industry should join with universities to promote their tourism product during the summer vacation period.

However, owing to the long summer breaks, student travelers almost always face problems related to the peak season. Rooms and transportation are hard to secure and more expensive; destinations and attractions are crowded with people; and long queues exist outside every point of interest.

Advance travel arrangements were made by a majority of Chinese university students for both longer and shorter holidays. However, Chinese university students vary in the extent to which they were involved in planning a trip. In general, long trips required more pre-trip planning than short trips. They normally planned 1-7 days in advance for longer holidays, while 2 days earlier for shorter holidays. Given the travel budgets of the student travelers, it is not surprising that they planned their trips in advance to ensure that they travel as cheaply as possible.

- Tourism service providers who want to target this market were urged to put promotion efforts of their services at least one week before semester breaks.

The results also showed that an overwhelming number of Chinese university students preferred leisure travel, followed by eco-travel, while culture and shopping were the bottom two modes of travel preferred by Chinese university students.

Research on use of travel information sources by Chinese university students reported that "family and friends" were the most important travel information source, indicating a preference for "word-of-mouth". This implied the importance of effective public relations activities for tourism operators. Because of the importance of social information sources,

- Distributing information to opinion leaders might also be an effective way of reaching the Chinese university student population.

In addition, the internet was also reported as a good method of reaching the Chinese university student market, possibly as a replacement for social information sources. University students are considered "technologically savvy" enough to handle online activities (Bai *et al*., 2004). Many students looked for products on the Internet and then made their own travel arrangements.

- Advertisements on the Internet were recommended.

There are signs that many student travelers are becoming "skilled consumers" (Richards, 1996) capable of using their own travel experiences and the growing range of information sources to develop their own "customized" holiday travel (for example, note the role of Chinese language sites, e.g. skykiwi). The Internet provides more sophisticated and flexible student travel products, combined with information, transport and accommodation opportunities, and is therefore likely to become more important in the future.

Very little information was sought from traditional information sources, such as television. In other words, traditional information sources were regarded as a relatively insignificant source. Also, given the presence of a student-focused travel agency on campus it was not clear why students did not use this office for information on travel planning. Current marketing and promotional practices by such intermediaries therefore need to be reviewed and examined to attract this key market. The tourism industry needs to

- Persuade students to use formal sources of information and feel that they can trust

them.

- Encourage students to use the Internet, which is viewed as the future of tourism marketing, and which students seem to trust as a source of holiday information among a population with relatively easy and often free access to this source.

Chinese university students visited all the regions in New Zealand, revealing the diversity of destinations in this market. In terms of the destinations of overnight trips in the North Island visited by Chinese university students, most had visited Auckland, Rotorua, Taupo, Hamilton and Wellington. Regarding destinations of overnight trips in the south island, Christchurch, Queenstown, Dunedin, Milford Sound, Mount Cook and West Coast were major destinations visited by Chinese university students. The respondents were from the North Island, they usually first chose destinations in the North Island because it costs them less than travelling in the South Island. Destination marketers looking for attracting Chinese university students would obviously be wise to emphasize these attributes in their marketing strategies.

In addition, Chinese university student travel destinations were not limited to travel within New Zealand. Of the twelve destinations mentioned, the most popular international destination was China, followed by Australia, Hong Kong, Korea, Singapore and Japan. It indicated that Chinese university students often travelled home for their summer vacation. Not surprisingly, the closest destination, Australia, was the second most popular foreign destination. Many universities now offer a summer school thus reducing the length of student breaks. Students may find it less expensive and more convenient to remain in their country of study during the breaks, thus providing an opportunity to introduce special student packages. This might lead to some substitution of New Zealand's travel in place of international travel. "Asia" was the third most popular international destination behind China and Australia.

Chinese university students would more likely fly with Cathay Pacific Airline on overseas holidays, followed by Singapore Airline, Air New Zealand and Air China. The choice of airline depends on the availability of seats on cheap flights, whether they travel alone or with family as well as finance. The wide range of factors that could potentially influence the choice of airline needs to be considered. An overwhelming number of Chinese university

students (89.9 per cent) indicated that they made their own choice of airlines. The remainder indicated their choice of a particular airline had been influenced by the family, friends and travel agent. Given that the major influencing factors were dominated by individual choice, and was not a high involvement decision, it would appear the involvement of parents, relatives and friends are not important in terms of the overall purchase strategy. An overwhelming number of Chinese university students indicated that their families had financed their holiday overseas. Clearly the fact that others finance the trip to a significant degree raises a number of issues. The standard of the trip is likely to be higher if additional funding is made available. The presence of others, particularly family, might also ensure a higher class of travel. This situation would have an impact on the promotional strategy used by marketers. For example,

- The parents and family of the student travelers were themselves targeted by airlines using loyalty programs, safety considerations and in-flight comfort appeals.

The results also revealed that an overwhelming number of Chinese university students were generally somewhat moderately satisfied to satisfied with their trips, would like to visit the same destination again in the future and recommend holidays in New Zealand to their friends and relatives.

This study also found that students spent average $1,186.61 in last year on holiday in New Zealand. The results showed that approximately 40 per cent of student respondents annually spent average NZ$901-$1,600 per person, while 37.7 per cent of them spent NZ$200-$900 on holiday in New Zealand. There was also approximately a quarter of the students who reported spending over NZ$1,601 per person. Financing has been identified by the industry as students' core constraint to travelling. Results from this study, however, indicated the opposite. Their propensity to spend is actually high.

- Chinese students could afford and were willing to spend on holidays in New Zealand. They participate in various forms of entertainment and activities.
- There was a hidden expenditure multiplier in VFR activity—the financial outlay by hosts incurred in entertaining guests.

The indirect spending effect through the hosts—Chinese university students—was $1,164.43 due to the visits by friends and relatives.

Overall, results from the above discussions revealed that the Chinese university student travel market is a unique group of customers whose behavior shares similarities with, and differences from the student market of other nationalities, which differences call for different satisfactions and marketing implications. To the extent that significant differences were identified, marketers should account for them by adapting their marketing strategy to students rather than standardizing the strategy. It the destination is to take full advantage of the opportunities, improved coordination between tourism and educational institutions will be needed.

- A strategic alliance of New Zealand's universities and tourism DMOs is an opportunity that would benefit the national interest besides helping universities and tourism.

Tourism New Zealand and destination marketing organizations (DMOs) could allocate a portion of their publicly funded resources to promotional campaigns designed to motivate overseas students to choose universities in New Zealand rather than other countries. In turn, universities would assist tourism industries, in particular via roles as directors on the tourism commissions' boards (Leiper & Hunt, 1998).

- There is also a need for better co-ordination between tourism promotion organizations and governmental bodies responsible for the promotion of New Zealand's education sector overseas.

There are education market fairs held in location like Beijing, China, these are also tourism promotional opportunities. However, at least until 2007, no linkage existed at all, yet education in an attractive destination may well enhance a desire to the educated in a given country or region.

VFR visits

One objective of this study was to also examine Chinese VFRs to New Zealand and to identify their behavioral characteristics. The VFR segment may generate a significant market opportunity provided that destination marketers of New Zealand develop effective strategies for market communication and product design. The following information gathered

ascertained how many and how often VFR trips were taken, who are their VFRs, why did they travel, when did they come, how long did they stay, which type of accommodation did they use while not traveling, who did they travel with, what are the preference for transportation, accommodation and restaurants when traveling, where did they travel, who was responsible for arranging them, activities that were undertaken and how much money was spent on each trip.

This study investigated number and frequency the students hosted visits from friends or relatives. The results indicated that Chinese students played a significant role in attracting VFRs to visit them in the host country where they are studying. An overwhelming number of students received visits by friends and family from the student's home country during their educational stay. A majority of the sample reported they have received at least one visit by relatives, while a small number have received at least one visit by friends while studying in New Zealand. There were a significant amount of VFR trips taking place each year. Therefore, it is beneficial for marketers to

- Increase the number and frequency of VFR visits to those already being visited was encouraged.

Targeting first-year students might be especially fruitful as there is a high probability of repeat business for the individual providers. Another opportunity arises in connection with the graduation ceremony at the end of a student's study period. As the dates of the graduation ceremonies are fixed well in advance, ideal opportunities present themselves for developing and marketing a 'graduation package' product. Strategies could be designed to increase the number of trips by promoting the desire to see more friends or relatives among those already doing so, i.e. encourage an expansion in total visitation or by getting non-visitors to start becoming VFRs (particularly getting people who have never done so to visit friends and relatives abroad.

Relatives were included in two-third of all overseas visits, and one-third had their friends visited them. Most VR visits were immediate family being one or both parents. It is important to note that students' mothers were more likely to visit the students compared with their fathers. This was quite a stereotypical role in Asian families where the mother would

normally take care of the children rather than the father. Some of the mothers were not working so they could spend more time with their children in New Zealand.

The study also found that VFR was not the sole travel motive but combined with one or more other motives. The current study noted that the overwhelming (72.1 per cent) of VRs had VR as a primary trip purpose, while 26.7 per cent had VR as a secondary trip purpose. The result of the study clearly show that were motivated simply by the desire to see the student concerned. In addition, while most VRs motivated primarily by a desire to spend time with the student, it is important to note that some of these visits "carried on" into trips by the students into other regions of New Zealand, and may even have provided an important inducement for such visits. It is evident that many of these visitors, although having the visit to the students as their main purpose, did undertake significant amounts of travel in New Zealand, which demonstrated that VFR was one component of hybrid travel.

VR and VF trips were more equally distributed throughout the year and actually peaked in the months of December and July, and VF trips were also peaked in February in the case of Chinese VFR market. This result partially demonstrated that VFRs were willing to make trips in the off-season periods. VFRs are, therefore, a suitable target group to better use the capacity of the tourism industry.

- A proactive promotion of VFR tourism thus plays an important role in achieving a more balanced tourism development that is less dependent on peak season factors vital for holiday tourism, such as good weather (Hay, 1996 and Seaton & Palmer, 1997).

Encouraging or organizing local events that appeal to the VFRs concerned, therefore, might help to increase the value of this traffic. In addition, VFRs are not strong seasonal travelers and will respond to special deals. The VFR generating market can be quickly mobilized for off season sales.

The average number of days that VRs stayed in New Zealand was 14-15 days and that for VFs was 7-9 days. A majority of VRs stayed on average 26.5 days for their visit in New Zealand, while VFs stayed 9.4 days. This showed that there was a clear length-of-stay

distinction between VRs and VFs. That is, long-stayers were particularly VRs, while short-break VFRs were mainly VFs. In addition, the results demonstrated that international VFRs have longer-than average lengths of stay when compared to many other groups of international visitors to New Zealand.

- Marketing strategies should be developed to increase length of stay during visits already taking place.

An overwhelming number of Chinese university students reported they accompanied VFRs to travel around New Zealand. The average number of days of these trips on VR visits that students accompanied was 9.43 days and those of on VF visits was 4 days. The main accommodation VRs used was with the students in rented houses, while VFs were much more likely to use commercial accommodation (motels). This finding supports previous studies in that VFRs did use commercial accommodation. Chinese university students played an important role in recommending other accommodation locally to VRs and VFs, while VFs also tended to select the accommodation by themselves. This shows the opportunity for accommodation providers if they are able to put together the right package for the VFRs. In addition, given that accommodation choice is driven by where the students live, it is suggested that

- The accommodation provider needs to direct their message to the students rather to the VFRs.

Both VRs and VFs preferred leisure travel. It is also important to note that VFs were much more likely to take adventure travel than VRs, a function of their more likely to be younger. The Chinese VFRs preferred to travel in groups due to a culture that values group collectivity. They seemed to rarely choose package travel to New Zealand. A majority of VRs travelled with students and without joining a tour group, while a majority of VFs travelled with tour group but without students in longer holidays. For shorter holidays, an overwhelming number of VRs and VFs travelled with students but without tour group.

The results showed that yhe majority of VRs and VFs used a combination of transportation on holiday, followed by private car during longer holidays, while an overwhelming number of VRs and VFs travelled by private cars in shorter holidays. From the researcher's

observation it is almost normal for Chinese university students studying in New Zealand to have a car during their period of study. This accounts for the high usage rates of private cars being reported. In addition, given the propensity of VFRs to travel beyond the student's home, an opportunity exists for regional car hire. Regarding the preference for accommodation, in longer holidays, a majority of VRs stayed at motels, while a majority of VFs stayed in hotels.

- Accommodation with a wider range of facilities, e.g. hotels with good restaurants or with leisure facilities could re-orient their packages to include discounts for guests that bring friends to eat in the restaurant or make special arrangements for friends and relatives to use the leisure facilities.

These relatively low cost ideas could maximize spending in the properties without needing to increase the number of rooms. During shorter holidays, the most popular form of accommodation used by VRs when they travelled in New Zealand was motels, while this patten was also true of VFs. Self-catering accommodation (such as motels) represented a particular opportunity as it allowed the VFRs to return hospitality for the students. In addition, a majority of VRs dined in the Chinese restaurants in longer holidays, as did an overwhelming number of VFs. In shorter holidays, a number of VRs chose Chinese restaurants, while a majority of VFs (46.2 per cent) choose likewise. Because a majority of VFRs dined in Chinese restaurants, students were the key decision-makers in recommending which restaurants to take VFRs to.

- Ideas such as loyalty and discount schemes, and promotions through the local media would help to grow this market.
- A degree of reassurance in this promotion would be critical as the students would not wish to be embarrassed by bringing their VFRs to somewhere of unreliable quality or which turns out to be more expensive than they expected.

A significant percentage of VFRs made a location visit to Auckland, Wellington and Hamilton in the North Island, followed by Rotorua and Taupo. Also, VFRs took time to visit destinations other than those in which their friends and relatives reside. The destination choice is influenced by the location of the friends and family and therefore marketers have a great opportunity to grow the market within New Zealand.

- Loyalty related promotions and promotions through very local media would open up new opportunities for destinations at a lower cost than national advertising.

Also, students played somewhat between equal and dominant roles in the following travel decisions when travelling with VRs and VFs: “the mode of transportation”, “trip information”, “site to visit”, “where to eat” and “what to do”. In addition, they also had an important role to play in deciding “where to stay”, “length of stay” and “souvenir purchasing” for VRs. Successful VFR tourism is highly dependent upon the attitudes of the students. As academic study abroad increases, it would benefit many tourist attractions to organize their facilities and marketing materials to cater to student travelers. Students are often not the only reason for a visit, but they can also motivate and instigate participation in local tourism attractions and activities. Therefore,

- Tourism marketing by its very nature tends not to market at a destination, but in the source areas where the student lives.

In addition, travel information sources sought by Chinese university student travelers can help marketers target this increasingly important VFR market segment. It is worth pointing out that, unlike local residents, the majority of students arrive as newcomers to the area and stay only for the duration of their studies.

- The information needs of this market segment, therefore, are quite different from the general VFR sector dependent on residents.

Moreover, students need to be encouraged to update themselves on accommodation establishments, events, special offers and other tourism services. This goal can be accomplished by:

- Using a student newspaper and associated outlets might offer a cheap and efficient way of delivering such information.
- Developing Modeled on resident-focused campaigns for promoting local tourism products with which some destinations have successfully experimented.

Examples include ‘Resident’s first weekend in York’ and Birmingham’s ‘Be a Local Tourist’ initiative (City of York Council, 2005 and Frall, 2005). In both cases local residents were

offered free entrance or reduced entrance fees to local attractions and facilities in order to raise the profile of these in the local community and to encourage VFR visits in this manner.

- Creating a 'Students' Weekend' with offers targeted specifically at this clientele would not only improve the students' awareness of what is available in the locality, but also contribute to promoting VFR activities in this area.
- Collaborating more actively with universities with a view to targeting Chinese university students and their VFRs more effectively as a market segment.

One approach could be the provision of information kits about the relevant travel information at the time of student enrolment or at orientation. This could enhance the motivation of students to travel around the destination where marketers should make staff available for presentations whenever possible to groups of Chinese university students. In addition, the distribution of travel-related information at the time of student graduation was also a good way to approach potential Chinese university student travelers. Furthermore, a strategic alliance between tourism industry and New Zealand universities was called to encourage additional growth in the international student market, since both the educational and tourism sectors derive substantial economic and other benefits from their presence. One way in which such an alliance might operate is to provide the tourism industry on major campuses to promote and facilitate travel within the country and VFR visits from the students' home country.

In examining leisure activity participation by the Chinese VFRs to New Zealand, shopping was a dominant activity, followed by visiting beaches and taking lots of photos to show their friends and relatives. In contrast, not many people intended to attend adventure activities, visit wineries, watch sports or gamble. Therefore,

- There is a potential for the shopping market.

Such a high level of participation in shopping by the Chinese VFRs can be attributed to the Chinese culture of gift giving. A person who visits a foreign country is supposed to bring novel gifts for family members, relatives, colleagues and associates. One important message to tour operators is that Chinese VFRs need to be given an appropriate amount of time and opportunities for shopping during their stay in New Zealand, and the merchandise must suit their needs. Specialty gift shops are required to provide VFRs with goods that are popular at

home, ranging from nutritional supplements to cosmetics. However, there is evidence from Australia and China that Chinese dislike tours that provide too many shopping overseas and especially when designed to provide commission for the tour guide

- Marketing campaigns aimed at encouraging local residents to take their friends and relatives to shops maybe worthwhile considering.

In order to tap into the VFR market it might worthwhile considering which markets the destination have something to offer i.e. does it have a souvenir brochure in Chinese other than English?

The results also revealed that the the contribution of the Chinese VFR market to the local economy is significant. The average travel expenditure of VRs was $3,263.53, while that of VFs was $2,856.67. Questions also asked the students to analyze their VFRs' expenses when they visited New Zealand by seven categories that were food and beverage, accommodation, transportation (excluding the return airfares between China and New Zealand), entertainment, shopping and souvenir items, sightseeing and other. In absolute dollar terms, accommodation and transportation account for the major expenditures. Food and beverage fell to third place, followed by sightseeing, entertainments, shopping and souvenirs items and other expenditures. In other words, the sectors of the tourism industry most likely to gain from attempting to stimulate VFR travel were accommodation and transportation sectors, the food and beverage sector, attractions, activity opportunities to VFRs and retailers supplying shopping.

- Accommodation sector could benefit more if VFRs could be persuaded to extend VFR visits to a country/region through a commercially provided stay after leaving host accommodation.

Both VRs and VFs were satisfied with their visits to New Zealand. A majority of students indicated that they would host VR trips in the future, while more than one-quarter of students said that they were going to host VF trips in the future. "Visa" and "time" were the important factors influencing future VR and VF visits. In addition, "lack of time to accompany VFRs" and "interests in New Zealand " were the important factors influencing future VF visits.

Impact of students' socio-demographics on student travel behavior and expenditure

The results indicated that in terms of student tourist behavior, there were several statistically significant differences among the selected socio-demographic groups concerning importance of travel motives, satisfaction with travel motives, travel activities, travel times, information sources, roles played by students, overall trip satisfaction, level of agreement with statements, number of trips, number of day trips and length of trips. However, the socio-demographic variables did not appear to be discriminating factors in explaining the variances in tourist behavior, since there were no significant differences in most cases. In addition, although statistically significant differences existed, the mean differences among the selected socio-demographic groups in relation to student tourist behavior were minimal, indicating that there was no practical significance.

Socio-demographic variables related to Chinese university students which affect spending patterns were also analyzed. Several key findings were evident in the study. Immigration status had significant influence on student expenditure, and age tended to be significantly related to student travel expenditure due to receiving VFRs. If it becomes necessary to draw implications from these findings to set marketing strategies, a possible recommendation could be:

- The promotion of vacations to attract younger non-PR students those who were willing to spend more on destinations.

Market segments of the student travel market

The results of this study implied that different motivation factors were found among Chinese university student travellers. Factor analysis has provided some underlying dimensions of travel behaviour. Push and pull factors demonstrated different domains of behaviour which have important marketing implications. To summarise, the results suggested that the student market could be explained in terms of four push and three pull underlying dimensions. Four push dimensions included "exploration and novelty reason", "adventure and fitness reason", "social interaction reason" and "relax and escape reason", while three pull dimensions related to "education and VFR attraction", "cultural, historical and natural attraction" and "safe, clean and calm destination". They 'explained' 58.7 per cent and 55.8 per cent of the

total variances, respectively. Additionally, the study also showed the importance of both push and pull factors perceived by Chinese university student travellers. The results revealed that Chinese university students were influenced by a combination of specific push and pull factors. Out of the four push and three pull underlying dimensions, "relax and escape seeking" and "safe, clean and calm destinations" emerged as the two most important push and pull factors to motivate Chinese university student travellers. Therefore, in order to support the push motives to attract more Chinese university student travellers,

- Destination marketing organizations should consider to focus marketing strategies on the important pull factor found in this study by consolidating New Zealand's image of beautiful natural sightseeing and the safe, clean and calm environment in the world to Chinese university students via various accessible media.

Three push-motive and two pull-motive market segments within this market were identified based on four push and three pull underlying dimensions. These push-motive segments were labelled "push-motive enthusiasts", "push-motive moderates" and "push-motive low scorers" while two pull-motive segments were termed "pull-motive enthusiasts" and "pull-motive moderates". Likewise, the scores assigned by push-pull motive segments were most similar with respect to aspects related to the push motive factor "relax and escape seeking" and the pull motive factor "safe, clean and calm destinations". Therefore,

- Promotional material and advertising messages would be more effective if the focus was on the "relaxation and escape" and "safety, cleanliness and calmness" opportunities available at the destinations.

Further, this study contributed to a body of literature an examination of the interrelationship between push and pull travel motivation factors as well as between push and pull motivation segments associated with Chinese university student travellers. The results indicated that there was a negative significant relationship between push and pull motivation segments, suggesting Chinese university student travelers who were pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision were less concerned with actual destination attributes.

Therefore,

- Destinations should tailor their products on the basis of push and pull motives to Chinese university student travelers separately.

However, the results implied that the there was a significant relationship between destination attributes and motives. This implied that a successful matching of push and pull items is possible for a marketing strategy destination areas. The results revealed that the pull motivation factor "education and VFR attraction" highly related to the push motivation factors "exploration and novelty", "adventure and fitness" and "social interaction" reasons, the pull motivation factor "cultural, historical and natural attraction" significantly impacted the pull motivation factors "exploration and novelty" and "relax and escape" reasons, and the pull motivation "safe, clean and calm attraction" strong influenced the pull motivation factors "exploration and novelty", "social interaction" and "relax and escape" experiences. This information is useful in helping marketing decision makers plan future promotions and product/development/renovation targeting this market. For example,

- Destinations with attributes "education and VFR", "culture, history and nature" as well as "safety, cleanliness and calmness" should all attempt to develop products that cater to "exploration and novelty" motivations of travellers.
- Destinations with the attribute "education and VFR" should emphasize "adventure and fitness" and "social interactions" experiences at the destination site.
- Destinations with the attribute "safety, cleanliness and calmness" should pay more attention to "social interaction" and "relax and escape" motivations of student travellers.
- Destinations with "culture, history and nature" attribute should emphasize "relax and escape" experience.

Also, the results of this study implied that there were different activity factors found among Chinese university student travellers (see Table 9.5). In order of attractiveness, "unique wildlife cruise" and "relaxation" received the highest mean attractiveness ratings among the ten activity factors, followed by "underwater exploration". Therefore, destination marketing organizations can develop a variety of different marketing strategies based on the specific

activities of the Chinese university student travel marker in order to satisfy their underlying needs. For example,

- These destinations could consider promoting their attributes to student by focusing on "unique wildlife cruise" such as seal colony, albatross colony, boat cruises, whale watching, and "relaxation" such as beaches, geothermal spa and festivals that ranked at the top by most students, regardless of the segment with which they were identified.

Additionally, a three activity-cluster solution was deemed to provide the most interpretable and useful results in this study. Three clusters were labelled "in-betweeners", "low activity oriented" and "high activity oriented". The implications for management are:

- Marketing strategies should not be solely based on decisions regarding whether or not to target a particular segment, but rather upon how to highlight the subtle differences among smaller groups in the level of importance attached to a set of travel motive attributes and the level of attractiveness attached to an assortment of activities.

The greatest differences among the three push-motive segments related to adventure and social interactions, those among the two pull-motive segments lay in education and VFR attractions, and those among the three activity segments involved taking part in "local sightseeing and shopping" and "sports and wine" activities. Although these aspects were not ranked at the very top by any groups,

- It would be in the interests of marketers to highlight access to such motives and activities, especially in promotional appeals to push-motive and pull-motive enthusiasts as well as activity enthusiasts, while at the same time minimizing it in appeals to push-motive low scorers, pull-motive moderates and activity low scorers.

The determinants of dimensions and segments according to socio-demographics and trip characteristics

This study also revealed information about socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics related to travel motivation and activity of Chinese university student travellers. Overall, three socio-demographic variables (e.g. gender, age and marital status) and three trip characteristics (e.g. the number of overnight trips, travel party size and overall trip satisfaction) were found to be significant differentiators related to travel motivations and

activities. Gender represented the differentiator for one of the three pull motive factors" "cultural, historical and natural attraction" and influenced four of the ten activity factors: "adventure", "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife", "local sightseeing and shopping" and "sports and wine". Age significantly interacted with two of the four push motive factors: "exploration and novelty" and "adventure and fitness", influenced the pull motive segments, and impacted on two of the ten activity factors: "adventure" and "underwater exploration". Marital status significantly impacted one of the ten activity factors: "relaxation". With respect to trip characteristics, the number of overnight trips affected one of the four push factors: "relax and escape", travel party size also significantly related to the push factor "relax and escape" and one of the three pull factors: "education and VFR attraction", and overall student trip satisfaction significantly interacted with three of the ten travel activity factors: "relaxation", "historical, culture and sightseeing" and "unique wildlife cruise". This study may provide decision makers with positioning statements and other marketing ideas when it comes to targeting and advertising to these groups with the objective to generate a better appeal to each. For example, the finding suggested marketers to:

- Offer female Chinese university students "cultural, historical places or experiences and beautiful scenery" may be an effective marketing ploy.
- Draw business from males who exhibited a higher preference for "sports and wine" activity.
- Tailor their products containing high "native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife" and "local sightseeing and shopping" experiences to the needs and preferences of female student travellers.

Equally, it is worth noting that although socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics were supportive in explaining Chinese university students' factor dimensions and segments on the basis of travel motivations and activities, the explanatory powers of such models were not high, reflecting the fact that travel motivation and activity are difficult to capture. The low coefficients of determination of the regression models suggested that the selected variables may be of limited value in predicting travel motivation and activity and this is an important caveat to note with reference to the above discussions.

The relationships between travel motivation, travel behavior, satisfaction and loyalty for the student travel market

Given that destination marketers are constantly seeking new ways to lead the market in an increasingly competitive environment, a thorough analysis of tourist motivations, tourists' satisfaction and loyalty is crucial to destination success. This study confirmed that much of the literature relating to general travel satisfaction can be applied to the student travel market.

Basically, the results indicated that students' satisfaction had a strongly significantly impact on loyalty. Therefore, it is important to understand the drivers of students' satisfaction in order to build the loyalty. The regression analysis results showed that overall student trip satisfaction could be directly explained by their motives for traveling. In particular, the motivation "relax and escape seeking" emerged as possessing importance. The results also demonstrated that travel motivations contributed indirectly to students' satisfaction through selected behaviors. Travel motivations help predict the attractiveness of travel activities, which in turn affects students' satisfaction. Tourism-related businesses interested in developing or expanding their student travel market will benefit from understanding motivation-specific messages to Chinese university students which can encourage students to take participate in vacation activities, and in turn improve their satisfaction levels. Particularly, the results of the study indicated that "historical, cultural and sightseeing activities" was found to be statistically significant in relation to students' satisfaction. As implied, the direct and indirect associates between/among these constructs suggested that:

- Marketers may want to concentrate on developing constructive alternatives and designing tourist products by understanding the importance of the push motivational factor in order to increase the level of satisfaction and encourage positive future trip behaviors of students. This can be accomplished by:

  a) developing destination programmes,

  b) promoting and distributing vacation packages containing students' emotional and psychologically beneficial messages

  c) designing productive communication channels to embrace students' basic needs and wants.

Apart from the direct and indirect effect of travel motivations on satisfactions, the results also confirmed that satisfaction with individual specific factors such as travel motive attributes also contributed to overall satisfaction. In particular, an improvement on students' satisfaction with specific travel motive attributes such as "mentally relax" and "sightseeing" would contribute to an increased overall satisfaction.

This study also confirmed the significant association of satisfaction with destination loyalty within the Chinese university student travel market. Interestingly, the findings of this study revealed the likelihood of students' recommendations negatively links to satisfaction, indicating that those students who were satisfied would decline to recommend New Zealand to their friends and relatives. As such, special attention should be paid to these satisfied students. The changes of recommendation intentions require

- More creative promotional materials and activities to be developed so as to stimulate interests of such students in recommending New Zealand destinations to other friends and relatives.
- Design more programmes encouraging students to enhance unique brand images of New Zealand destinations to those friends and relatives have or might have already known about New Zealand destinations.

The relationships between VFR travel behavior, travel inhibitors, satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future

A series of hypothesis for VFR travel satisfaction were empirically tested and verified through regression analyses between VFR tourist behavior variables, VFR satisfaction and the level of VFR trips. The results demonstrated that VFR satisfaction levels were not influenced by the length of VFR stays and month of VFR visits. Therefore, it is suggested to

- Develop promotion strategies to enhance vacation experiences of VFR visits, with no exception to be given on the basis of the length of VFR stays and month of VFR visits.

Given that the valid existence of the effect of travel inhibitors on satisfaction was confirmed in the VFR market associated with Chinese university students as well as the effect of

satisfaction on the level of VFR trips in the future, marketers need to focus on the influence of travel inhibitors on VFR satisfaction. The following strategies could be deployed:

- Because VR satisfaction decreased significantly as a result of the number of student trips made back to China while the VF satisfaction decreased due to the increased travelling costs, promotional campaigns should be focused on the opportunity for encouraging students to stay in New Zealand during their holidays.

- Emphasizes also should be made on decreasing travel barriers such as "travel costs" which would increase travelers' satisfaction with travelling to New Zealand.

- VF satisfaction positively related to "visa" application procedures and "interests in New Zealand". To respond to this concern, special interests should be given to relax visa application and create new travel activities and experiences that attract VFRs to visit New Zealand.

- Because the travel inhibitor "physical conditions" impact on the level of VF visits in the future, New Zealand can attract those VF travellers with disabilities to travel to the country. Promotional campaigns should include VFs with disabilities in the target market and should be focused on opportunities for providing appropriate facilities so as to better serve those travellers with "physical conditions" while travelling in New Zealand.

The relationships between VFRs' socio-demographics, VFR travel behavior and expenditure patterns

Some differences were found concerning the selected socio-demographic variables of in travel behavior for the VFR market. For example, this study demonstrated that older VRs (51 years and older), who had an income level of less than NZ$1,000, had primary to secondary education level and retired, tended to stay longer in New Zealand. Therefore, it is important to increase length of stay during visits. They comprise activities designed to:

- Develop special programmes for those older VRs and promoted through destination websites and other advertising.

Presumingly the longer the stay, the more money will be spent, it is also recommended that:

- Increase the amount of participation in activities for older VRs in the area.

It was also found that those VRs who were 51 years old and older, earned less than NZ$1, 500, and retired showed a higher tendency to travel with students and not in a tour group than those 21-50 years old, had income level of NZ$2,001 and above and entrepreneurs. From this perspective, an integrated marketing plan that targets VFRs is recommended. This observation further highlighted the important role of students for VFR tourism. Consequently, marketers should benefit greatly by consciously involving local hosts—students—in their marketing communication schemes and converting them into informed hosts. They can achieve this goal by:

- Educating students about the availability of attractions which would appeal to their VRs, who tended to stay longer in New Zealand.

Destination marketers should develop specific programs possibly linking with universities where the VFR dimension could be incorporated into the events within such programs. The result would be that when VFRs came to stay with them students would know what to recommend.

- Displaying information regarding attractions, events and unique areas in the country on cable television in hotels/motels and broadcasting on a local channel for residents.

This tourist channel on television could be updated on a regular basis to educate the resident as well as VFR tourists on things to do in the destinations. Chinese language subtitles are highly recommended. This in turn could lead to more active participation in activities in the destinations and therefore more revenue. Undoubtedly, further research of the Chinese VFR market is necessary. A study which examines the impact of a marketing programme aimed at the Chinese VFR market could, for example, include questions such as “does participation in activities increase after the implementation of a tourist channel?” and is recommended.

- Creating a link on travel websites which focuses on the VR market.

There is a potential to create a specific website which targets the uniqueness of this segment. The website could provide a discount offer might that read "Bring your friend from the country and receive 20 per cent off lunch". The discount would be available to download on the website. Additionally, one might look at similar messages using mobile phones.

Further, the results revealed that those VRs who earned less than NZ$1,000 tended to be much more concerned with "travel costs", while for those VFs who were professionals, "visa" was an important factor influencing their VFs to come over to New Zealand. Hence,

- Marketers may possibly capture the VR market with income level of less than NZ$1,000 by special offers on accommodation, attractions, and other services through selective packaging.

Also, as mentioned above, VRs with lower income level had a higher propensity to travel with students and marketers may consider providing purchase discounts when students and VRs travel together as a strategy for those interested in increasing VFR traffic.

- Chinese VFs who are 'professionals' should be encouraged to visit New Zealand by relaxing the process of visa applications.

Moreover, the results revealed that respondents whose VFs had secondary education levels were more likely to visit students in October, whereas those VFs with tertiary levels had a higher propensity to visit students in July.

- Marketers should develop promotion activities for VFs, such as encouraging students to invite their friends with different educational levels living overseas to visit them in October and July accordingly.

Socio-demographic variables were found significantly related to VFR travel expenditure. Knowing the effects of these variables on travel expenditure patterns would allow the tourism industry to adopt a predictive, rather than a reactive, stance. Age was found to be a positive predictor on how much VR travelers were willing to spend while travelling. As a

result, a strategy to attract as many VFR visitors as possible to the destination might not be the best marketing strategy.

What is important is to:

- Design strategies attract the older VRs who will have the greater economic impacts on the local economy by increasing expenditure over the existing stay-time of current visits by older VRs.

This option can be further divided into a number of sub-alternative, such as increase expenditure on accommodation, food and beverage, activities and entertainment and shopping.

In addition, travel behavior variables such as the purpose of VFR visits and length of stays were significant factors to explain VFR expenditures. Marketing managers should emphasize the length VR stays and especially on the purpose of VR visits to generate more income. The information about the purpose of VR visits and the length of VR stays can be used to develop tourism products and to efficiently allocate a limited tourism budget in a destination. Therefore, in order to increase VFR tourism expenditures to the destinations,

- Marketers should attract travelers to stay longer by providing packages that include local attractions (i.e. festivals, sporting events, cultural events and craft fairs) for VFRs while staying with students.

The heterogeneity of the VFR market

On another note, Chinese VFRs are not that homogeneous in terms of their travel behavior and destination spending patterns. Past research studies have clearly shown that the VFR market is not homogeneous. Moscardo et al. posit in their Australian study that VFRs are not a homogeneous whole; Lheto, Lee, Morrison & Webb (2005) pointed out in their French study that VFRs are also not homogeneous; Lockyer & Ryan (2007) argued that there were specific differences in tourist behavior which are concealed within the VFR category. This study confirmed that this was also the case for Chinese VFRs. The comparative analysis showed that the three travel behavior factors constituting part of the VFR typology, namely focus of visit, accommodation used and travel purpose, explained travel behavior and expenditure pattern differences of Chinese VFRs to New Zealand. Therefore, this study

partly validated the typology that Moscardo *et al.* (2000) suggested for differentiating types of VFRs. From a marketing standpoint, there is a need to target a typology individually and the lack of precision that would be associated with appealing to the VFR market as a whole.

In terms of focus of visit, VRs differed from VFs in that closeness to students appeared to be the major reason for the students' VRs to come to New Zealand, followed by holiday/pleasure, while the main reason for the majority of VFs was to holiday, followed by visit students. Angus (1990) classified the typology through his research findings that traveling for VFR purposes falls under the obligatory motivation, while traveling for holiday purposes is non-obligatory. Viewed in this way, an obligation to visit the students is the main reason for VRs to visit New Zealand, which might be because Asian cultures stress the importance of family.

- The clear motive distinction between VRs and VFs calls for the attention of travel marketers who are targeting this market.

In addition, compared with their VF counterparts, VRs show a different pattern of activity participation, tend to stay longer, travel in a larger party size and indicate stronger intention to revisit their VFR destinations.

Moreover, any VFR marketing campaign would have to take into account differences in the age of the tourist between the VF and VR trips. The VR tourists tend to be older, and this may suggest that

- Marketing to VR tourists needs to be focused in certain types of magazines aimed at this market segment.

Further, the empirical results showed that significant differences existed in expenditure patterns by focus of visit (VRs vs. VFs) and travel purpose.

- VFs spent less than VRs across all expenditure categories, including accommodation and transportation.

This might be because the former group of visitors seemed to rely heavily on the hospitality of the hosts in the destination for accommodation, transport and even meals.

The use of commercial lodging also had an effect on travel behavior. For example, the results demonstrated that those VRs who stayed in private homes differed significantly from VRs who stayed at commercial accommodation in the length of VR stay.

- The use of private homes exerted positive effects on the length of VR stays. VRs who stayed in private homes stayed longer than those who stayed at commercial accommodation.

The results also indicated that those VRs who stayed at commercial accommodation had a higher tendency to use tourist coach/tour bus, while those who stayed at private homes were more likely to use their own cars.

Finally, the results illustrated that VRs for whom VRs was the main travel purpose were more likely to stay with students and stay longer in the destination. The significant effect of the travel-purpose factor demonstrated:

- The need for destination marketers to stimulate extended VFR travel or activities through targeted marketing programs.

This, in turn, calls for a good understanding of VFR trip patterns and activities, as well as VFRs' travel information search strategies.

Further, as mentioned earlier, differences existed between the VR and VF tourists in terms of the effect of travel inhibitors on satisfaction and the level of VFR visits in the future as well as the impact of socio-demographics and travel behavior on travel expenditure. Therefore,

- Marketers have to pay more attention to the corresponding differences between VR and VF tourists they are handling so as to better to improve their overall satisfaction levels, increase their future visits and influence their expenditure.

The influence of students in inbound VFR tourism

This study also made contribution to the role of these students as catalysts for inbound VFR tourism to New Zealand. The results showed that Chinese students were a significant market

segment with a four-fold importance for New Zealand's VFR tourism industry. First, they were an important reason for attracting friends and relatives to visit them in New Zealand, many of whom spend significant period of time in this country.

- Promotional campaigns encouraging the students to invite friends and relatives are encouraged.

Second, students play a crucial role in VFR decision-making process. The VFR tourism experience tended to be a highly social event, i.e. involving two or more people in the travel group and the likelihood that many of these trips involved students. This result suggested that it is important to ensure that students are well informed regarding tourist attractions, entertainment, sports and recreational activities, side trips, and other activities in the area, where they live, as well as the rest of the country they are living in (Meis *et al.*, 1995).

- Promotional campaigns informing them of activities in which they can engage with their visiting friends and relatives could be developed, special host/guest produces and multi-visit incentives could also be featured (Meis *et al.*, 1995).

Third, knowing that the more positive experiences with trips in New Zealand the students have, the more likely their VFRs would be satisfied, marketers of destinations need to:

- Ensure Chinese university students are happy with their travel experiences in New Zealand by providing them with appropriate holiday products and services.

Fourth, students' recommendation was significantly related to the level of future VFR visits. Interestingly, the negative relationship might be explained by the fact that Chinese university student travellers were less likely to spread the positive word-of-mouth to others because they perceived others were already aware of the favourable image of New Zealand as a tourist destination.

- Practitioners should pay more attention to students' positive WOM publicity by providing students with more interesting promotional materials to encourage them to enhance the image of New Zealand as a tourist destination to their friends and relatives.

Given the importance of word-of-mouth recommendation in the Chinese community, they are important "ambassadors" for this country. The tourism industry needs to be able to effectively communicate with this market sector, and can do so through the New Zealand based Chinese press and web sites, especially by having Mandarin language pages. It also pays to advertise on intensively used Mandarin language New Zealand based web sites such as 'Skykiwi'. It is also worthwhile considering advertising in foreign language newspapers locally. The Chinese community is an example of groups who produce newspaper for their local community in their own language.

11.3 Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study also raised a number of important questions for further investigation. Travel patterns are bound to be geographical differences as a result of location. As a result, it is not possible to infer that the travel patterns reported in this study are representative of other Chinese university students. More studies are clearly required to verify the results demonstrated in this study and to determine whether they may be generalized to other Chinese student market, in addition to the Chinese student market in the North Island, New Zealand. Further research with the Chinese university student population drawn from South Island of New Zealand can enhance the understanding of Chinese university student travel patterns outlined in this study. In addition, because the VFR market identified in this study has been based on the analysis of individual empirical data sets for the Chinese university student-initiated VFR market in New Zealand, the results of this study can only be considered to be valid for Chinese university student-generated in North Island, New Zealand. As such, the study's results cannot be generalized to other countries.

Tourists are not the same, and their tastes are diverse and changing. The incentives should be carefully adapted to the specific and changing needs of student travel. University students have both specific motives for travel and financial constraints which can change drastically with a few years of maturity, job acquisition, children and other social responsibilities (Butts, Salazar, Sapio & Thomas, 1996). In this new situation, the identical travel behaviors can be perceived differently. Future studies are required to understand the changing characteristics, motivations and needs of the student market. Nevertheless, in order to supply adequately to

this niche market and to be effective in advertising efforts, periodic surveys on the Chinese university student travel market segmentation may be useful for spotting motivation and activity trends.

In addition, given the number of variables measured, the sample size used in this study may be judged as limited. The data were gathered within the Chinese student market in New Zealand and the question of respondent exhaustion ought to be addressed. This research instrument might be too long to be tested on students from other nationalities. In addition, the data regarding the VFR travel market were collected exclusively from their hosts i.e. students rather than investigating the VFR visitors. In this regard, it is conceivable that the results derived from these estimates were not uniform with others provided by VFRs. It is also possible that some of the respondents were merely "guesstimating" their VFR tourist behavior.

As one of the first attempts to analyze the impact of socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics on Chinese university student tourist behavior, the current research effort was still at a preliminary stage. More research efforts are needed to investigate the market. The results may not be generaliseable beyond the New Zealand destination. It would be of interest to see whether there is a destination country difference. In addition, the selected socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics in this study might be insufficient. Future research can be done incorporating other socio-demographic variables (e.g. years in the university and years of arrival in New Zealand) and trip characteristics (e.g. first-time vs. experienced student travelers), and thereby further examining the impact on tourist behavior. Furthermore, as one of the first attempts to analyze the impact of socio-demographic variables on Chinese university student-initiated tourist behavior, the current research effort was still at a preliminary stage. More replication and expansion of this study is needed for further generalization.

Since so few studies on the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction were reported in the New Zealand destination context, integrating past research on student behaviors into the current study is difficult. Therefore, more studies conducted in New Zealand are needed to

help cross-validate the findings of this study. In addition, it also provides a foundation of being applied and tested for other general travel markets to investigate and confirm the results demonstrated in this study. Moreover, in assessing the antecedents of satisfaction, a previous study by Gallarza & Saura (in press) revealed that perceived value was significantly related to university students' satisfaction. For future studies, researchers may incorporate perceived value such as "functional value", "overall value" and "emotional value" in assessing tourist satisfaction. This should help scholars develop a better theory on satisfaction and advance the current practice in the area of the student travel market.

The purpose of visits and length of stays were significant in VFR travel expenditure in this study may be study-specific (Chinese university students' VFR market) and destination-specific (New Zealand), the same results may not be obtained for other tourists groups or tourism destinations. To further test the validity of this study, future efforts should explore VFR travelers of different nationalities and in different travel markets. Also, the expenditure information in this data set may have been underestimated. Respondents tend to underestimate expenditures, giving an inherent bias (Frechtling, 1994). Another possibility is that VFR travelers paid their total or partial tour expenses before leaving their home countries. This may also have resulted in underreporting expenditure. In addition, the expenditure effects were also rather small, bearing in mind that expenditure highly interacts with a number of different attributes, including socio-demographic variables and travel-related variables. This study could be replicated and extended to study the effects of other travel-related variables. The results may not be generalisable beyond New Zealand, or indeed possibly just North Island New Zealand.

Other segmenting approaches of VFRs should be examined in the further studies. Because of the way the hosted VFR trips question was asked, it was not possible to disaggregate VFRs into domestic and international VFRs. While it can be hypothesized that domestic VFRs have different travel behavior from those international VFRs, the current study did not allow for these analyses, which requires further studies in this area. Specifically, it has been suggested that domestic and international VFRs were different from each other in socio-demographic composition, tendency to use commercial accommodation, duration of stay,

and other trip characteristics (Moscardo *et al.*, 2000; Seaton & Palmer, 1997). In spite of this, further efforts need to be emphasized in investigating the differences in travel behaviors between short and long-haul VFRs and between multi-destination and single destination visited, as implied by Hu & Morrison's (2002) typology. Further, VFR travel appeared to have a strong association with repeat travel (Lehto, Morrison & O'Leary, 2001). It would be worthwhile to continue the work begun by Meis, Joyal & Trites (1995) by examining the differences between VFR repeat travelers and vacation repeat travelers. Future research needs to explore repeat visitors' characteristics which are expected to greatly help destination marketers understand the Chinese VFR travelers and provide better services to this emerging market.

11.4 Conclusions

On the basis of research findings, this study contributed to literature in relation to travel behaviors of Chinese students and VFRs in the New Zealand market. It also provided recommendations on marketing strategies for tourism practitioners and policy makers who are interested in formulating policies to attract the Chinese university student and associated VFR markets. Whilst both the education sector and the tourism sector have shown significant growth in recent years, the marketing synergies between these two sectors based on the complementarily of the markets appears to be lagging in both strategy and policy developments (Taylor, Shanka & Pope, 2004). The significance of Chinese university student and tourism markets, the overlap for collaborative marketing ventures, and the development of associated VFR markets could be integrated simultaneously into strategies in a coherent and logical way. The limitations of the study were raised and at the same time directions for possible future research related to the scope of this study were pointed out.

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Appendices

Appendix Ⅰ: Consent Form

Title of Project:
Travel behaviour and expenditure patterns of Chinese university students and their VFRs in New Zealand

Project Supervisor: Professor Chris Ryan, University of Waikato

Researcher: Ge Liu, University of Waikato

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (*Information Sheet for Participants* dated_____)
- I have had the details of the study explained to me and an opportunity to ask questions that I may have had and have them answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I may ask more questions at any time.
- I understand that the interview will be audiotaped and transcribed.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- I agree to take part in this research and to provide information to the researcher under the conditions of confidentiality set out on the *Information Sheet for Participants*.
- I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research: Yes ○ No ○

Participant signature: .....

Participant name: .....

Participant contact details (if appropriate):

.....
.....

Date: .....

Appendix Ⅱ: Chinese Version of Consent Form

同意参加调查书

调查项目课题： 中国留学生和来探访的亲朋好友在新西兰的旅游和花销行为学

调查项目导师：Professor Chris Ryan, 怀卡托大学

调查者： Ge Liu, 怀卡托大学

- 我阅读同时了解了有关调查项目提供的相关信息。
- 调查者提供了调查项目的相关细节，给予了机会让我提问相关问题，并得到了解答。我明白如果之后有更多的问题，可以随时提出。
- 我同意会谈内容用录音机录音和转录。
- 我明白在数据收集完之前，我可以随时从调查中退出，同时也可以不回答任何问题。我所提供的任何信息也可以随时收回，不会受到任何损失或是负面影响。
- 如果我中途撤离，所有有关的磁带和抄本或者其中的部分都会被删除和销毁。
- 我同意参加这次调查，条件是我提供的所有信息都将被保密，正如在“关于调查项目的有关资料和信息”表上提到的。
- 希望获得一份调查报告的附件吗 ○希望 ○不希望

参与者的签名.....

参与者的姓名.....

参与者的联系方式

.....

.....

日期： .....

Appendix III: Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced: 01.06.2006

Project Title:
Travel behaviour and expenditure patterns of Chinese university students and their VFRs in New Zealand

Invitation:
This research is being conducted for a Ph.D. thesis based in the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Waikato Management School at the University of Waikato, New Zealand. You are invited to participate in the above outlined research project. I would appreciate any assistance you can offer to me for this research. I would like to conduct an interview with you, however, you are under no obligation to answer any or all my questions. The interview will last no more than 30 minutes and would be terminated at any time you wish to do so.

What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of this study is to examine travel behaviour and expenditure patterns of Chinese students and their VFRs in New Zealand.

How are people chose to be asked to be part of the study?
In order to get access to Chinese students, the researcher was standing at the outside of the library and selecting Chinese students as they walked by to participate in the interview. In order to minimize sample selection bias, the researcher initially explained the purpose of the study to students, and their nationalities were asked to identify whether they were capable to take part in the research. Chinese students who had hosted VFRs' visits before in New Zealand were invited to participate.

What happens in this study?
Participants will be involved in an in-depth interview with the researcher. The interviews will take approximately half an hour and will be audio-taped. Data will be kept confidential and participant will remain anonymous in the outcome from the research.

What are the discomforts and risks?
There is a small degree of ethical risk that participants might consider if certain information is culturally sensitive. However, the interpretation in the thesis will not be directly associated with particular attraction or business in New Zealand but rather translated in a general sense. Hence, no individual name of the participant or the business that participant mentioned will be identified.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?
Participants will be informed about the aim of the research project and assured that none of commercially and culturally sensitive information will be revealed. Moreover, they will receive a detailed Participation Information Sheet, which states that any information obtained

from them will be kept confidential to researcher involved in the study and would only be included in researcher's thesis, since the researcher is being done for a doctoral degree.

How will my privacy be protected?
Under the Privacy Act 1993 the researcher undertakes that the information supplied by the participant will be held securely. Information about individuals will be confidential to researcher involved in this study. Your personal information and the tapes will be kept in a locked cabinet and the tapes will be erased after they have been transcribed.

How do I join the study?
You can join the study by participating in an in-depth interview (approximately 30 minutes). You are free to deny consent of disclosure of any information that you do provide the researcher with on a confidential basis.

What are the costs of participating in the project? (Including time)
There are no costs of participating apart from the interview time (30 minutes).

Opportunity to consider invitation
An invitation will be considered at the point when we set up the meeting for the interview.

Opportunity to receive feedback on results of research
Every participant who is willing to receive feedback will be provided with a free copy of research report. In addition, this thesis will be available at the University of Waikato library.

Participant Concerns
Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the researcher's supervisor.

Researcher contact details: Ge Liu, University of Waikato, phone: 078384466 ext. 6569, e-mail: gml3@students.waikato.ac.nz

Project supervisor contact details: Professor Chris Ryan, University of Waikato, phone: 078384259, email: caryan@mngt.waikato.ac.nz

Appendix Ⅳ: Chinese Version of Participant Information Sheet

关于调查项目的有关资料和信息

表格完成日期： 01.06.06

项目标题：中国留学生和来探访的亲朋好友在新西兰的旅游和花销行为学

邀请：这个项目是为了获取怀卡托大学管理学院旅游酒店管理系的博士学位而进行的。我很荣幸邀请您加入到我的调查项目中来。我非常感谢您对这个调查项目的协助。我会和您进行一次会谈调查，您不需要回答我所提出的问题。会谈将不超过 30 分钟，您有权随时中止会谈。

调查目的：
这次研究的目的是找出中国留学生和来探访的亲朋好友在新西兰的旅游和花销行为。

参与者是怎样被挑选的：
研究者在大学图书馆前来邀请中国留学生参加会谈调查。为了减小挑选偏见问题，研究者一开始和学生解释了调查目的，然后询问了国籍来判断被挑选者参加调查的符合性。 而且，中国留学生在过去接待过来新西兰探访他们的亲友的被选为调查访问对象。

调查方式如何：
参与者将跟调查人员一起进行一次深入会谈。会谈大约是半个小时，谈话内容会用录音机录音然后纪录。所有数据和调查结果会对外保密。

会谈中会出现的问题：
有些参与者认为某些问题很敏感。但是，论文的结果不会特别服务于新西兰的某个景点或者是商家。 所以，参与者姓名或者是参与者提到的任何商家名字都不会提供在论文中。

怎么处理这些问题：
参与者将会被告知调查项目的目的，并保证所有信息不会对外公开。而且，参与者会被提供一张关于调查项目的有关资料和信息表，上面清楚注明直到调查者完成博士学位，参与者所提供的所有信息都会被调查者保证对外隐秘。

怎样保证参与者的隐私：
根据 1993 年研究隐私法案，研究人员担保所有信息的隐秘性，同时担负所有责任。参与者提供的个人资料和会谈调查的录音带将会被锁在调查者的带锁的柜子里。在所有录音资料被抄写下来以后，磁带内容会被删除。

您怎样参加调查：

和调查者进行一次面谈 （大约 30 分钟）。 您可以拒绝任何您提供的不想被公开的资料被公开出来。

参加项目的费用是什么：
除了被访问者的时间 （30 分钟）没有任何其他费用

被考虑邀请的机会：
当访问者和参与者商定一个会谈访问会议时，邀请被正式考虑。

参加项目的好处：
愿意获得反馈的每名参加者将被提供调查结果的复印件。另外，这篇论文将被放置在怀卡托大学图书馆。

参与者的质疑：
如果对于此项调查的内容和想法有任何质疑，请及时联系项目指导人。

如果对于此项调查的形式和方法有任何质疑，请及时联系项目指导人。

研究人员联系方法： Ge Liu, 怀卡托大学，电话：078384466 转 6569. 电子邮箱：gml3@students.waikato.ac.nz

项目指导人联系方法： Chris Ryan 教授，怀卡托大学， 电话：078384259，电子邮箱：caryan@mngt.waikato.ac.nz

Appendix Ⅴ: Interview Questions

The following questions guided the interviews:

- What were your motivations to travel in New Zealand?
- What activities and attractions did you visit within New Zealand?
- What was your preferred and actual mode of travel?
- Where did you stay when travelling within New Zealand?
- Which mode of transportation did you use when travelling in New Zealand?
- Which one do you prefer when travelling in New Zealand, independent travel or package tours?
- How did you know about destinations and tourist attractions within New Zealand?
- What do you think is the best time during the year to take holiday within New Zealand?
- Have you had any friends and relatives come over before? If no, why not?
- When did your friends and relatives visit you during your study here?
- What were the reasons for your friends and relatives to come here?
- How often do your friends and/or relatives visit you during your study here?
- Did they travel around in New Zealand?
- What activities and attractions did they visit when travelling in New Zealand?
- Where did your VFRs stay when they were travelling within your VFRs in New Zealand?
- Which mode of transportation did you use when travelling with your VFRs?
- Which one do you prefer when travelling with your VFRs in New Zealand, independent travel or package tour?
- Who takes the dominant role when travelling within your VFRs in New Zealand?
- Do you think your travel experience influences your friends and/or relatives to visit New Zealand?

Appendix Ⅵ: Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to ask about YOUR experiences of travel in New Zealand without and with families and friends during your period of study in this country. Your answers are confidential, and you need not answer every question and can withdraw at any time. It is expected that the survey will take 30 minutes to complete. The data are being collected for a doctoral thesis, and if you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me on gml3@students.waikato.ac.nz. Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the researcher's supervisor: Professor Chris Ryan, email: caryan@mngt.waikato.ac.nz. Your responses will vary from section to section: fill in or circle the appropriate answer in the designated spaces. Thank you for your help.

Importance							**Travel Motivation Items**	**Satisfaction**							
Of no importance	**Of little importance**	**Of some importance**	**Important**	**Quite important**	**Very important**	**Extremely important**		**Very dissatisfied**	**Dissatisfied**	**Of some dissatisfaction**	**Satisfied**	**Quite satisfied**	**Very satisfied**	**Extremely satisfied**	**Have no opinion**
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To mentally relax	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To physically relax	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To go sightseeing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To visit New Zealand's historic and cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To visit Maori attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To experience western lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To be with others and make new friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To change my surroundings for the sake of change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To be in a calm atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To discover new places and things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To holiday somewhere is safe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To travel with existing friends/relatives who are staying in NZ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To visit friend(s) and relative(s) in New Zealand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To explore new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To take some exercises (e.g. go caving)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To challenge my abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To satisfy a sense of adventure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To visit somewhere I had read about	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To go to places where my friends have not been	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To look at other universities and courses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To look at career opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To better understand yourself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Section One Your Travel Motivation in New Zealand

The following indicate some general reasons as to why people go on holiday in New Zealand. Could you please say how important they are to you and the level of your satisfaction by using the following scale? **{Circle the number reflecting your opinion}**

Section two You and Your VFRs' Travel Activities in New Zealand

Below there is a list of attractions in NZ. Please use the following scales to indicate how attractive these activities are to you and how frequently your VFRs take participate in?

How attractive these activities are to you								**Items**	How frequently your VFRs take participate in					
Of no attractive	Of little attractive	Of some attractive	Attractive	Quite attractive	Very attractive	Extremely attractive	Have no opinion	**Types of activities in NZ**	Very frequently	frequently	moderately	infrequently	never	Have no opinion
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	A visit to albatross colony	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	Visit gardens	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To view seal colony	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To take scenic boat cruises	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To climb glaciers	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go horse riding	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go jet boating	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To have short bush walks	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To take city tours	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go whale watching	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit National Park	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go to farm shows	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit museums and historical sites	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go scuba diving	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go canoeing/kayaking	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go shopping	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	Take lots of photos to show friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit Maori villages	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To learn about animals, birds, and plants of NZ	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To experience wildlife in natural setting	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	Go bungee jump	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit beaches	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To play golf	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go skiing	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To gamble in a casino	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go wine tasting/visit wineries	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To see kiwi birds	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	Go for ballooning or other festivals	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit home shows	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit sights associated with famous films	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To see a Maori Music and Dance performance	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To experience dolphin swim	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To experience cycle challenge	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To watch sporting events	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go to the geothermal spa	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To see a volcano	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To buy authentic indigenous Maori souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go on hunting/fishing tours	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	Nightlife	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To taste local foods	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit Waitomo Cave	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To go to the zoo/aquarium	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit art museums/galleries	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	To visit the uni campus where you studying in	1	2	3	4	5	0

Section three Your travel behaviour in New Zealand

3.1 How many trips have you made within New Zealand EACH year since you have arrived in NZ?_____

3.2 Of these trips that you have been made within New Zealand,
How many were **day trips**?_____
How many required **an overnight stay** away from your normal place of residence? _____

3.3 With reference to **your overnight trips**, normally for how long were you away? _____

3.4 What was your average travel **party size (incl. yourself)?** _____

3.5 Who did **you travel with** when you were travelling within New Zealand?

Longer holidays (single choice):	**Shorter holidays (single choice):**
☐Independently but without tour group	☐Independently but without tour group
☐With friends, but without tour group	☐With friends, but without tour group
☐Independently and with tour group	☐Independently and with tour group
☐With friends, and with tour group	☐With friends, and with tour group

3.6 What main forms of transportation, types of restaurants and accommodation did you use when travelling in NZ?

Longer holidays	**Forms of transportation (single choice)**	Shorter holidays
☐	Domestic flight	☐
☐	Rental car	☐
☐	Rental caravan	☐
☐	Rental van	☐
	Own car	
☐	Tourist coach	☐
☐	Intercity/naked bus	☐
☐	Others (specify)	☐

Longer holidays	**Types of restaurants (single choice)**	Shorter holidays
☐	Chinese restaurants	☐
☐	Other Asian restaurants	☐
☐	Western restaurants	☐
☐	Fast food and takeaways	☐
☐	Others (specify)	☐

Longer holidays	**Types of accommodation (single choice)**	Shorter holidays
☐	3 to 5 star hotel	☐
☐	1 to 2 star hotel	☐
☐	Motel	☐
☐	Backpackers/hostels	☐
☐	Bed& Breakfasts	☐
☐	Other friends' and relatives' homes	☐
☐	Holiday homes	☐
☐	Others (specify)	☐

3.7 Please indicate how important the following factors in influencing the choice of taking holidays in New Zealand. 1=Not at all important, 2=not important, 3=moderately, 4=important, 5=very important.

Semester breaks in **winter** 1 2 3 4 5
Semester breaks in **summer** 1 2 3 4 5
Public holidays 1 2 3 4 5
Middle break 1 2 3 4 5
Special occasions (e.g. graduation ceremony) 1 2 3 4 5
Anytime you receive **the VFR trips from China** 1 2 3 4 5

3.8 Do you **usually plan your travels in advance?**
Longer holidays Yes[1] No[2] **Shorter holidays** Yes[1] No[2]
If **Yes**, **how many days** did you plan in advance?_____

3.9 What was your preferred mode of travel? (Leisure or adventure or ecological, or others?)
_____

3.10 Below there is a list of **the sources of information** that people used to **organize trips** when travelling within New Zealand**.** Please use the following scales to say how frequently you used these sources of information when you were travelling in NZ? **(1=never, 2=infrequently, 3=moderately, 4=frequently, and 5=very frequently)**

Travel agent	1	2	3	4	5	Airport centre	1	2	3	4	5
Word of mouth by Asian friends	1	2	3	4	5	Yellow Page, AA guide book	1	2	3	4	5
Word of mouth by Kiwi friends	1	2	3	4	5	TV ads/Radio	1	2	3	4	5
Visitor centre	1	2	3	4	5	Magazines/brochures	1	2	3	4	5
The Internet	1	2	3	4	5						

3.11 Please identify all the **destinations you visited** within New Zealand

North Island:				
☐Rotorua	☐Taupo	☐Bay of Island	☐New Playmouth	☐Gisborne ☐Raglan
	☐Hamilton	☐Auckland	☐Waitomo Caves	☐Wellington
☐Russell	☐Waitangi	☐Bay of Plenty	☐Mount Maunganui	☐Tauranga ☐Napier
	☐90 Mile Beach	☐Coromandel	☐Hastings	☐Te Aroha
☐Palmerston North	☐Hauraki Gulf & Islands		☐Others(please specify)	
South Island:				
☐Christchurch	☐Milford Sound	☐Queenstown	☐Oamaru	☐Otago
☐Dunedin	☐Wanaka	☐Golden Bay	☐ Kaikoura	☐West Coast
☐Fox Glacier	☐Mount Cook	☐ Invercargill	☐Te Anau	☐Picton
☐Greymouth	☐Franz Jose	☐Others(please specify)		

3.12 Do you intend to **visit the destinations that you have visited before**?
Yes[1] No[2]

3.13 Your overall trip satisfaction?
Not at all satisfied [1] Less satisfied [2] Moderately [3]
Satisfied [4] Very satisfied [5]

3.14 Will you recommend New Zealand to your relatives and/or friends as a travel destination? Yes [1] **No**[2]

3.15 Which **overseas destinations** have you visited when you were studying in New Zealand?
_____

3.16 How often do you **go back to China**? Twice a year, once in two years, twice in three years, others? _____

3.17 Which **airlines** did you choose when **travelling overseas from New Zealand** (including China) ? _____

3.18 Who makes the dominant decision in choosing the airlines? (e.g. family, you, friend, others)? _____

3.19 Who pays for the **travelling expenses** for you to travel overseas? _____

Section Four Travel Behaviour and Expenditure Patterns when Travelling with Your VFRs in New Zealand

4.1 Since your arrival in New Zealand, **how many times** did you receive the visits from friends and relatives from China? _____

4.2 How often do your VFRs visit to you when you are in NZ?
☐Once a year ☐Twice a year ☐Three times a year ☐Others, please specify _____

4.3 Please indicate the **relationship** between your VFRs and you (friends, parents, brothers, sisters, etc).

4.4 Which month of the year did you receive the VFRs ? _____

4.5 How many days did your VFRs stay in NZ? _____

4.6 Did you accompany with VFRs to travel around NZ? **Yes** [1] **No**[2]
If yes, how many days did they travel within NZ? _____

4.7 When your VFRs visit you, **what form of accommodation did they use without travelling in NZ?**
Main Type: _____ **Secondary Type:** _____

4.8 If you did not have a room for them to stay overnight, who would select the accommodation for them? _____

4.9 What was the **main** purpose of your VFRs visit to NZ? (**Single Choice**: To visit you, to have a holiday, to visit other friends and relatives, for business/professional purpose, and other purposes). _____
What were other purposes they have? _____

4.10 When they were travelling within NZ, who did **your VFRs travel with**?

Longer holidays:	**Shorter holidays:**
☐Without you but with tour group	☐Without you but with tour group
☐With friends, but without you and tour group	☐With friends, but without you and tour group
☐With you, but without tour group	☐With you, but without tour group
☐With you, and with tour group	☐With you, and with tour group
☐Travel independently	☐Travel independently

4.11 What main forms of transportation, types of restaurants and accommodation did your VFRs during travelling with you in NZ?

Longer holidays	**Types of accommodation (single choice)**	Shorter holidays
☐	3 to 5 star hotel	☐
☐	1 to 2 star hotel	☐
☐	Motel	☐
☐	Backpackers/hostels	☐
☐	Bed& Breakfasts	☐

	Other friends' and relatives' homes	☐
☐	Holiday homes	☐
☐	Others (specify)	☐

Longer holidays	**Types of restaurants (single choice)**	Shorter holidays
☐	Chinese restaurants	☐
☐	Other Asian restaurants	☐
☐	Western restaurants	☐
☐	Fast food and takeaways	☐
☐	Others (specify)	☐

Longer holidays	**Forms of transportation (single choice)**	Shorter holidays
☐	Domestic flight	☐
☐	Rental car	☐
☐	Rental caraven	☐
☐	Rental van	☐
☐	Own car	☐
☐	Tourist coach	☐
☐	Others (specify)	☐

4.12 What was your VFRs' preferred mode of travel? (Leisure or adventure or ecological, or others?) _____

4.13 Please specify all the **destinations you and your VFRs visited** in NZ:

North Island:				
☐Rotorua	☐Taupo	☐Bay of Island	☐New Playmouth	☐Gisborne
☐Raglan	☐Hamilton	☐Auckland	☐Waitomo Caves	☐Wellington
☐Russell	☐Waitangi	☐Bay of Plenty	☐Mount Maunganui	☐Tauranga
☐Napier	☐90 mile beach	☐Coromandel	☐Hastings	☐Te Aroha
☐Palmerston North	☐Hauraki Gulf & Islands		☐Others(please specify)	
South Island:				
☐Christchurch	☐Milford Sound	☐Queenstown	☐Oamaru	☐Otago
☐Dunedin	☐Wanaka	☐Golden Bay	☐ Kaikoura	☐West Coast
☐Fox Glacier	☐Mount Cook	☐ Invercargill	☐Te Anau	☐Picton
☐Greymouth	☐Franz Jose	☐Others(please specify)		

4.14 Below there is a list of roles played by you as the host of VFRs. Using the following scale, could you indicate your role in each selected travel decision?
1= No role, 2= Less role, 3= Equal role, 4= Dominant role, 5= Sole decision maker
{Circle the number reflecting your opinion}

Length of stay	1	2	3	4	5	Where to stay	1	2	3	4	5
What to do	1	2	3	4	5	Which site to visit	1	2	3	4	5
Where to eat	1	2	3	4	5	Mode of transportation	1	2	3	4	5
Trip information	1	2	3	4	5	Souvenir purchasing	1	2	3	4	5

4.15 To what extent, would you say the **overall trip satisfaction of your VFRs with their visits to New Zealand**?

Not at all satisfied [1] Less satisfied [2] Moderately [3]
Satisfied [4] Very satisfied [5] Can't tell [0]

4.16 How many VFR trips do you think you are going to host in the future? _____

4.17 What factors influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you?

1= Very unimportant, 2= Not important, 3= Moderate, 4= Important, 5= Very important

{Circle the number reflecting your opinion}

Time 1 2 3 4 5 Visa 1 2 3 4 5
Travel costs 1 2 3 4 5 Physical condition 1 2 3 4 5
Interest to NZ destinations 1 2 3 4 5
Distance between China and NZ 1 2 3 4 5
How many times you go back to China 1 2 3 4 5
A lack of time to accompany VFRs 1 2 3 4 5
Others (please specify) 1 2 3 4 5

4.18 Please use the following scales **1=strongly disagree,** 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, **5=strongly agree** and 0=Have no opinion, to indicate the level of your agreement with the statement:

The arrivals of your VFRs have influenced your travel demand and expenditure in NZ	1 2 3 4 5 0
Your travel experience influences your VFRs' travel patterns in New Zealand	1 2 3 4 5 0
Your VFRs are likely to travelling in New Zealand again in the future	1 2 3 4 5 0
You would like to be a host for your VFRs in the future	1 2 3 4 5 0

4.19 How much did your **VFRs spend on** travelling in NZ**?**

Accommodation NZ$_____ **Transportation** NZ$ _____ **Food and beverage** NZ$ _____
Recreation NZ$ _____ **Shopping** NZ$_____ **Souvenirs/gifts** NZ$ _____
Others (identify) NZ$_____

Section five Demographic profiles

5.1 Are you? Male [1] Female[2]

5.2 Are you a permanent residence or citizen in NZ? Yes [1] No [2]

5.3 In which year you were born? _____

5.4 Your education level is?

University foundation study [1] Certificate [2] Bachelor's degree [3]
Graduate or postgraduate diploma [4] Master's degree [5] Doctor's degre [6]

5.5 Your **financial background** is?
Supported by parents in China [1] Supported by own saving or salary [2]
Supported by spouse or partners or other relatives [3]
Supported by scholarship or assistantship [4]
Partly by other people, partly by part-time work in NZ [5]

5.6 Your **marriage status** is?
Single [1] Living with spouse/partner [2]
Widowed [3] Married but spouse is not in New Zealand [4]

5.7 Approximately how much did you spend **in last year on holiday in NZ?**_____
Of these, how much was **due to the visits by friends and relatives**? _____

5.8 Age group of VFRs:
(a) What is **the average age group** the VRs that you have hosted in New Zealand?
Between 21 and 30 [1] Between 31 and 40 [2] Between 41 and 50 [3]
Between 51 and 60 [4] 61 and older [5]

(b) What is **the average age group** the VFs that you have hosted in New Zealand?
Between 21 and 30 [1] Between 31 and 40 [2] Between 41 and 50 [3]
Between 51 and 60 [4] 61 and older [5]

5.9 Occupations of VFRs:
(a) What is (are) the **occupation(s)** of your VR(s)?

☐Civil Servant	☐Professional	☐Factory worker	☐ Entrepreneur	☐Individual operator
☐Business person	☐Retired	☐Soldier	☐Students	☐Others (specify)

(b) What is (are) the **occupation(s)** of your VF(s)?

☐Civil Servant	☐Professional	☐Factory worker	☐ Entrepreneur	☐Individual operator
☐Business person	☐Retired	☐Soldier	☐Students	☐Others (specify)

5.10 Monthly income of VFRs:
(a) What is **average monthly income level of the VRs** that you have hosted in New Zealand?

☐Less than $500	☐NZD$501 to $1000	☐NZD$1,001 to NZD$1,500	☐NZD$1,501 to NZD$2,000	☐NZD$2,001to NZD$2,500	☐NZD$2,501 and over

(b) What is **average monthly income level of the VFs** that you have hosted in New Zealand?

☐Less than $500	☐NZD$501 to $1000	☐NZD$1,001 to NZD$1,500	☐NZD$1,501 to NZD$2,000	☐NZD$2,001to NZD$2,500	☐NZD$2,501 and over

5.11 Education level of VFRs:
(a) What is **the average education level** of the VRs that you have **hosted in NZ?**
Primary [1] Secondary [2] Tertiary [3]

(b) What is **the average education level** of the VFs that you have **hosted in NZ?**
Primary [1] Secondary [2] Tertiary [3]

5.12 Please use **three words** to describe your **perception of New Zealand culture, pattern of life and environment.** _____ _____ _____

5.13 What are **the consequences** of those perceptions on your **self-image** and **self understanding**?

_____

Many thanks for your time, your contribution is much appreciated. Enjoy your day!

Appendix Ⅶ: Chinese Version of Questionnaire

调查问卷中文版

这份问卷的调查目的是关于，留学期间里，你个人在新西兰的旅游经历以及来新西兰探亲的亲友和你一起在新西兰旅游时的经历。你的答案是保密的，你不需要回答所有的问题，而且你可以随时退出调查问卷。问卷调查将占用 30 分钟。 调查资料的用途是为了完成博士论文。如果你有任何问题，请发邮件给我: Ge Liu，电子邮箱是: gml3@students.waikato.ac.nz 。如果对于此项调查的形式和方法有任何质疑，请及时联系项目指导人: Professor Chris Ryan, 电子邮箱是：caryan@mngt.waikato.ac.nz。你在每个部分相对的回应是不同的：请在提供好的范围里，填写或圈选相对应的答案。 谢谢您的帮助。

第一节 品质评估之动机篇

以下是关于新西兰旅游动机的调查，请你参考数字刻度标准，圈选适当数字选项，来表达这些旅游动机对你的重要性和满意度。

重要度							项目	满意度							
极不重要	非常不重要	不重要	一般重要	重要	非常重要	极度重要	在新西兰旅游的动机	极不满意	非常不满意	不满意	一般满意	满意	非常满意	极度满意	没意见
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	精神上放松	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	身体上放松	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	观赏风景	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	了解新西兰历史及文化	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	体验毛利文化	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	经历西方文化事物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	远离尘嚣，缓解日常生活压力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	在旅行时结识新朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	接触与自己周围不同的环境	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	享受安宁的生活气氛	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	探索新地方与新鲜事物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	去新鲜空气与纯净的大自然中度假	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	目的地的安全性	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	和在新西兰熟识的朋友一起出游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	去探访在新西兰的其他亲人及好友	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	和从国内来探访我的人一起出游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	想去亲友没去过的地方一游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	锻炼身体（例如洞穴探索）	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	挑战自己的极限	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	寻找刺激	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	去我曾经读到过的地方旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	去探求新思维	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	去看看其他地方的大学和课程	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	去看看其他地方的工作机会	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	通过旅行更好的了解自己	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

第二节　　品质评估之活动篇

以下是关于新西兰旅游活动的调查，请你参考数字刻度标准，圈选适当数字选项，来表达这些旅游活动对你在新西兰旅游的吸引程度，以及你亲友来探亲时参加这些活动的频率。

这些活动对于**你在新西兰旅游时**起到的**吸引性**								项目	**来探访的亲朋好友**参加这些活动的**频度**					
极不吸引	非常不吸引	不吸引	一般吸引	吸引	非常吸引	**极度吸引**	**没有意见**	在新西兰旅游的活动	**很频繁**	频繁	适中	不频繁	从没参加过	没有意见
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观海鸟聚居地	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观赏花园	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	看海豹聚居地	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	出海欣赏自然风光	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	攀登冰山	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	骑马活动	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	乘坐喷射艇	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	短程丛林散布	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参加城市游	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	出海看鲸鱼	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观国家公园	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观赏农场表演	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观纪念馆，博物馆和历史遗迹	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	潜水	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	划橡皮艇	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	购物	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	拍很多照片给家人朋友看	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观毛利村	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观赏新西兰动植以及鸟类动物	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	体验野外生活	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	蹦极活动	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	去海滩	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	打高尔夫球	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	滑雪	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	去赌场	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	品尝酒，参观酒厂	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观赏新西兰奇异鸟	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参加热气球节/其他节日	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观家具/家居展	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观影视拍摄地	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观赏毛利人演出表演	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观看海豚游泳	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	体验驾驶自行车挑战	1	2	3	4	5	0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	观看体育活动	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	购买纯正的毛利纪念品	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参加射击打猎/骑马旅行	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	体验新西兰的夜生活	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	品尝新西兰的特色食物	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观萤火虫洞	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观动物园/水族馆	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观美术展/艺术画廊	1	2	3	4	5	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	参观您学习深造的大学校园	1	2	3	4	5	0

第三节　　你个人在新西兰的旅游行为

%__3 来新西兰至今，你每年在新西兰旅游的次数？_____

3．2 在新西兰所经历的这些旅行中，

有多少是当天就返回的？_____

又有多少是需要你离开家在外过夜的？_____

3．3 在外过夜的旅行中，通常需要逗留的天数为？_____

3．4 你平均会和多少人一起旅行，包括你本人在内？_____

3．5 在新西兰旅行时，你在长假日和短假日的主要**旅行方式分别**是？ 请在适当的选项前的☐中划√（**单选题**）。

长假日	短假日
☐ 个人不参加旅行团旅游	☐ 个人不参加旅行团旅游
☐ 和朋友， 但不参加旅行团旅游	☐ 和朋友， 但不参加旅行团旅游
☐ 个人参加旅行团旅游	☐ 个人参加旅行团旅游
☐ 和朋友，并参加旅行团旅游	☐ 和朋友，并参加旅行团旅游

长假日	**旅行时主要使用的住宿种类:**	短假日
☐	3 到 5 星级酒店宾馆	☐
☐	1 到 2 星级酒店宾馆	☐
☐	汽车旅馆	☐

3．6 在新西兰旅行时，你在长假和短假日的主要使用的**交通方式，宿种类和用餐饭店种类分别是（单题）？**

☐	背包/青年旅馆	☐
☐	Bed& Breakfast	☐
☐	亲朋好友家	☐
☐	度假别墅	☐
☐	其他（请指明）	☐

日住选

长假日	旅行时主要使用的交通方式:	短假日
☐	国内航空	☐
☐	租用私家车	☐
☐	租用旅游敞篷车	☐
☐	租用面包车	☐
☐	自家车	☐
☐	旅行团大巴	☐
☐	长途客车	☐
☐	其他（请指明）	☐

长假日	旅行时的用餐饭店种类:	短假日
☐	中国饭店	☐
☐	其他亚洲饭店	☐
☐	西餐厅	☐
☐	快餐店和外卖	☐
☐	**其他（请指明）**	☐

3．7 请圈选适当选项，来指明以下的各个**旅行时间对你选择在新西兰旅行时的重要程度**
（1=一点也不重要，2=不是重要，3=适中，4=重要，5=非常重要）。

寒假	1	2	3	4	5	Middle break	1	2	3	4	5
暑假	1	2	3	4	5	特别日子	1	2	3	4	5
公共假期	1	2	3	4	5	任何亲友来探望您的时间	1	2	3	4	5

3．8 在旅行前，你通常会做旅行计划安排吗？

长假日前，会[1] 不会[2] **短假日前，会[1] 不会[2]**

如果会，你会提前几天进行旅行计划安排？ _____

长假期 _____ 短假期

3．9 在新西兰，你喜欢的旅行种类是？（休闲旅游，探险旅游，环境生态旅游，或者其他）

3．10 以下是关于在安排新西兰旅行时所使用到的信息渠道的调查。请参考以下的数字刻度标准，圈选适当选项，来表达你使用这些信息渠道的频度。1=从来没使用过的信息渠道，2=不频繁使用的信息渠道，3=适中使用的信息渠道，4=频繁使用的信息渠道，5=很频繁使用的信息渠道。

旅行社	1	2	3	4	5	机场客务中心	1	2	3	4	5
亚洲朋友的口头推荐	1	2	3	4	5	黄页，AA 旅行指南手册	1	2	3	4	5
新西兰人的口头推荐	1	2	3	4	5	电视广告/广播	1	2	3	4	5
旅客信息中心	1	2	3	4	5	杂志/宣传手册	1	2	3	4	5
网络搜索	1	2	3	4	5						

3．11 请指明你在新西兰所去过的旅游目的地的地名。

北岛				
☐Rotorua	☐Taupo	☐Bay of Island	☐ New Playmouth	☐ Gisborne
☐Raglan	☐Hamilton	☐Auckland	☐Waitomo Caves	☐Wellington
☐Russell	☐Waitangi	☐ Bay of Plenty	☐Mount Maunganui	☐ Tauranga
☐Napier	☐90 mile beach	☐Coromandel	☐Hastings	☐Te Aroha
☐Palmerston North		☐Hauraki Gulf & Island		☐Others(please specify)
南岛				
☐Christchurch	☐Milford Sound	☐Queenstown	☐Oamaru	☐Otago
☐Dunedin	☐Wanaka	☐Golden Bay	☐ Kaikoura	☐West Coast
☐Fox Glacier	☐Mount Cook	☐ Invercargill	☐Te Anau	☐Picton
☐Greymouth	☐Franz Jose	☐Others(please specify)		

3．12 你将来打算去以前已经去过的新西兰旅游目的地旅游吗？会［1］　不会［2］

3．13 你对在新西兰旅行的整体满意程度是：
一点都不满意［1］　比较不满意［2］　适中［3］　满意［4］　非常满意［5］

3．14 你愿意将新西兰推荐给你的亲友来旅游吗？愿意［1］　不愿意［2］

3．15 你在新西兰留学期间，访问过的境外旅游目的地包括：_____

3．16 你多长时间会返回中国一次？_____

3．17 你在境外旅游时（包括返回中国），乘坐的是哪家航空公司的飞机？_____

3．18 在选择搭乘哪家航空公司的飞机时，谁起到了主要决定权？_____

3．19 是谁支付你进行境外旅游的？_____

第四节 你同来探访你的亲友一起在新西兰旅行时的旅行和花销行为

4．1 在过去，您一**共接待过**几次从中国来新西兰的探亲访友的旅行？_____

4．2 你多长时间就会接待一次来新西兰探亲访友的旅行？
☐一年一次　☐**一年两次**　☐**一年三次**　☐**其他，请注明次数**

4．3 请指明在过去接待过的**亲朋好友与您的具体关系**是（朋友，父母，兄弟姐妹，等等）？
_____

4．4 你都是在**哪个月份**接待过来新西兰探亲访友的旅行？_____

4．5 你的亲朋好友来新西兰**停留的天数？**_____

4．6 你有陪他们一起在新西兰旅游吗？ 有[1] 没有[2]

如果有，你们一起旅行的天数是？ _____

4．7 他们在新西兰不进行旅行时所使用的主要和其次主要的住宿种类是

主要：_____ 其次主要：_____

4．8 是谁帮他们选择这些住宿的？ _____

4．9 探访者来新西兰的最主要目的是什么（单选：专程探望你，度假，拜访其他亲朋好友，或者是商务原因， 其他）：

_____

什么是他们来新西兰的其次目的？ _____

4．10 探访者在新西兰旅行时，他们在长假日和短假日选择的旅行方式分别是（单选）？请在适当选项前的☐中划√。

长假日	短假日
☐没和您旅游，但参加旅行团旅游	☐没和您旅游，但参加旅行团旅游
☐没和您旅游，也没参加旅行团旅游，但和其他朋友一起	☐没和您旅游，也没参加旅行团旅游，但和其他朋友一起
☐和您一起旅游，但不参加旅行团	☐和您一起旅游，但不参加旅行团
☐和您，并参加旅行团一起旅游	☐和您，并参加旅行团一起旅游
☐他们自己但不参加旅行团旅游	☐他们自己但不参加旅行团旅游

4．11 在新西兰旅行时，他们在长假日和短假日选择的主要交通方式， 住宿种类和用餐饭店种类分别是（单选题）？请在适当选项前的☐中划√。

长假日	旅行时主要使用的交通方式:	短假日
☐	国内航空	☐
☐	租用私家车	☐
☐	租用旅游敞篷车	☐
☐	租用面包车	☐
☐	自家车	☐
☐	旅行团大巴	☐
☐	长途客车	☐
☐	其他（请指明）	☐

长假日	旅行时的用餐饭店种类:	短假日
☐	中国饭店	☐
☐	其他亚洲饭店	☐
☐	西餐厅	☐
☐	快餐店和外卖	☐
☐	其他（请指明）	☐

长假日	旅行时主要使用的住宿种类:	短假日
☐	3 到 5 星级酒店宾馆	☐
☐	1 到 2 星级酒店宾馆	☐
☐	汽车旅馆	☐
☐	背包/青年旅馆	☐
☐	Bed& Breakfast	☐
☐	亲朋好友家	☐
☐	度假别墅	☐
☐	其他（请指明）	☐

4．12 在新西兰，他们喜欢的旅行种类是？（休闲旅游，探险旅游，环境生态旅游，或者其他）_____

4．13 请指明你和探访亲友**在新西兰一起过的旅游目的地**的地名。

北岛				
☐Rotorua	☐Taupo	☐Bay of Island	☐ New Playmouth	☐ Gisborne
☐Raglan	☐Hamilton	☐Auckland	☐Waitomo Caves	☐Wellington
☐Russell	☐Waitangi	☐ Bay of Plenty	☐Mount Maunganui	☐ Tauranga
☐Napier	☐90 mile beach	☐Coromandel	☐Hastings	☐Te Aroha
☐Palmerston North		☐Hauraki Gulf & Island		☐Others(please specify)
南岛				
☐Christchurch	☐Milford Sound	☐Queenstown	☐Oamaru	☐Otago
☐Dunedin	☐Wanaka	☐Golden Bay	☐ Kaikoura	☐West Coast
☐Fox Glacier	☐Mount Cook	☐ Invercargill	☐Te Anau	☐Picton
☐Greymouth	☐Franz Jose	☐Others(please specify)		

4．14 下面是关于你**在接待探访亲友**时所起的角色。请用下面的数字来形容您在各个旅游决策项目中所起到的**角色程度**。

1=你不起决定权　　2=主要由探访者起决定权

3=和探访者起到同样的决定权　　4=大部分由你起决定权　　5=全部由你一人起决定权

旅行停留长度	1	2	3	4	5	旅行中的住宿	1	2	3	4	5
旅行中的活动	1	2	3	4	5	去哪个景点旅游	1	2	3	4	5
旅行中在哪吃饭	1	2	3	4	5	旅行交通方式	1	2	3	4	5
旅行相关信息	1	2	3	4	5	购买礼品/纪念品	1	2	3	4	5

4．15 你的探访亲友对在新西兰旅行的整体满意程度是
一点都不满意[1] 比较不满意[2] 适中[3] 满意[4] 非常满意[5]
不清楚 [0]

4．16 你认为将来还会接待几次来新西兰的探亲旅行 _____

4．17 请用下面的数字来指明，以下各因素对方便你**亲友将来从中国来新西兰旅行时的重要程度**
（1=一点都不重要，2=不重要，3=适中，4=重要， 5=非常重要）。
时间 1 2 3 4 5 签证 1 2 3 4 5
旅行花销 1 2 3 4 5 身体条件 1 2 3 4 5
对景点感兴趣的程度 1 2 3 4 5 两国间距离 1 2 3 4 5
你回国的次数 1 2 3 4 5 陪伴他们的时间 1 2 3 4 5

4．18 请用下面的数字来指明，你对以下陈述的现象的赞同程度
（1=非常不赞同，2=不赞同，3=适中，4=赞同， 5=非常赞同， 0=没有意见）
你的探访亲友的拜访影响了你在新西兰旅游的需求和花销 1 2 3 4 5 0
你在新西兰的旅游经验影响了你的探访亲友在新西兰的旅游趋势 1 2 3 4 5 0 你的探访亲友将来还有可能会返回新西兰旅游 1 2 3 4 5 0
你很愿意成为将来来探访你的亲友们的东道主 1 2 3 4 5 0

4．19 请指明你亲友在新西兰的旅行花销：
住宿： NZ$_____ 交通： NZ$ 饮食： NZ$
休闲娱乐： NZ$ _____ 购物：NZ$ 纪念品/礼品： NZ$
其他 （请注明）： NZ$ _____

第五节 基本资料

5．1 你的**性别** 男性 [1] 女性 [2]

5．2 你在新西兰拥有永久居住权 有 [1] 没有 [2]

5．3 你的出生年份是： _____

5．4 你的学历是：

大学预科	[1]	证书学历	[2]	大学本科	[3]
毕业生或者研究生文凭	[4]	硕士	[5]	博士	[6]

5．5 你的经济背景是：

在国内的亲人资助	[1]	自己以前攒下的钱	[2]
配偶或情侣或其他亲戚资助	[3]	奖学金或助学金	[4]
他人资助，并依靠自己打工	[5]		

5．6 你的婚姻状态是：

未婚[1]　　与配偶/恋人一起生活 [2]　丧偶[3]　　已婚但配偶不在新西兰[4]

5．7 去年一年你在新西兰的旅游花销是：　NZ$ _____

这些花销中多少钱是由于亲友来探亲时产生的:　NZ$ _____

5．8 探访亲友的平均年龄：

(a) 来探访的亲戚的平均年龄是

21 到 30 岁之间 [1]　31 到 40 岁之间 [2]　41 到 50 岁之间 [3]

51 到 60 岁之间 [4]　61 岁或者以上 [5]

(b)来探访的朋友的平均年龄是

21 到 30 岁之间 [1]　31 到 40 岁之间 [2]　41 到 50 岁之间 [3]

51 到 60 岁之间 [4]　61 岁或者以上 [5]

5．9 探访亲友的职业背景：

(a)来探访的亲戚的职业背景是：

公务员 [1]　专业人士 [2]　工人 [3]　企业家 [4]　个体户 [5]

营销人员 [6]　退休 [7]　军人 [8]　学生 [9]

其他 （请指明） [10]

(b)来探访的朋友的职业背景是：
公务员 [1] 专业人士 [2] 工人 [3] 企业家 [4] 个体户 [5]营销人员 [6] 退休 [7] 军人 [8] 学生 [9]
其他（请指明）[10]

5. 10 探访亲友的**平均月收入**：
(a)来探访的亲戚的平均月收入是
500 纽币以下 [1] 501 到 1,000 纽币之间 [2] 1,001 到 1,500 纽币之间 [3]
1,501 到 2,000 纽币之间 [4] 2,001 到 2,500 纽币 [5] 2，501 纽币或以上 [6]

(b)来探访的朋友的平均月收入是
500 纽币以下 [1] 501 到 1,000 纽币之间 [2] 1,001 到 1,500 纽币之间 [3]
1,501 到 2,000 纽币之间 [4] 2,001 到 2,500 纽币 [5] 2，501 纽币或以上 [6]

5. 11 探访亲友的**平均学历**：
(a)来探访的亲戚的平均学历是
初级教育程度 [1] 中等教育程度 [2] 高等教育程度[3]

(b)来探访的朋友的平均学历是
初级教育程度 [1] 中等教育程度 [2] 高等教育程度[3]

5. 12 请分别用词语来表达你对以下三项的理解：
（1）新西兰文化印象_____（2）新西兰生活方式_____和（3）新西兰环境_____

5. 13 这些理解对你自我形象和自我认识的影响是：_____

～问卷结束， 感谢您宝贵的时间和意见，敬祝您愉快～

Appendix 7

Appendix 7.1 Chi-square test between level of the student's education and other socio-demographics

		Level of education			Total
Age groups		**Bachelor's degree**	**Graduate or postgraduate diploma**	**Master's or doctor's degree**	
	19-23 years old	**116**	**13**	**6**	**135**
	24-28 years old	**175**	**49**	**50**	**274**
	29 years old and older	**31**	**21**	**43**	**95**
Total		**322**	**83**	**99**	**504**
X^2=78.682 df=4 P=0.000					
Immigration status					
	PR students	**65**	**39**	**51**	**155**
	Non-PR students	**257**	**44**	**48**	**349**
Total		**322**	**83**	**99**	**504**
X^2=47.195 df=2 P=0.000					
Financial background					
	Supported by parents in China	**166**	**24**	**27**	**217**
	Supported by own savings/salary/spouse/partner/scholarship	**38**	**19**	**34**	**91**
	Supported partly by parents, partly by part-time work in New Zealand	**118**	**40**	**38**	**196**
Total		**322**	**83**	**99**	**504**
X^2=39.850 df=4 P=0.000					
Marital status					
	Single	**276**	**60**	**58**	**394**
	Married or in de facto relationship	**46**	**23**	**41**	**110**
Total		**322**	**83**	**99**	**504**
X^2=34.678 df=2 P=0.000					

Appendix 7.2 Profiles of students' VFRs

The occupation(s) of VR(s)		
Civil servant	8	3.1
Professional	21	**8.2**
Worker	3	1.2
Entrepreneur	78	**30.6**
Individual operator	36	**14.1**
Business person	5	**2.0**
Soldier	3	1.2
Retired	40	**15.7**
Students	3	1.2
Others	15	5.9
Entrepreneur and individual operator	8	3.1
Entrepreneur and retired	10	4.0
Individual operator and sales person	4	1.6
Individual operator and retired	3	1.2
Entrepreneur and others	3	1.2
Total	255	100.0
The occupation(s) of VF(s)		
Civil servant	3	2.1
Professional	12	**8.4**
Worker	3	2.1
Entrepreneur	24	**14.7**
Individual operator	9	**6.3**
Business person	8	**5.6**
Retired	1	0.7
Soldier	1	0.7
Students	77	**53.8**
Others	5	3.5
Total	143	100.0
The average monthly income level of VR(s)		
Less than NZD$500	16	**6.3**
NZD$501-$1,000	56	**21.9**
NZD$1,001-$1,500	102	**39.8**
NZD$1,501-$2,000	47	**9.3**
NZD$2,001 -$2,500	16	6.3
NZD$2,501 and over	19	7.4
Total	256	100.0
The average monthly income level of VF(s)		

Less than NZD$500	64	**44.8**
NZD$501-$1,000	41	**28.7**
NZD$1,001-$1,500	26	**18.2**
NZD$1,501-$2,000	7	**4.9**
NZD$2,001 -$2,500	1	0.7
NZD$2,501 and over	4	2.8
Total	143	100.0
Average education level of VRs		
Primary	4	1.6
Secondary	141	**55.1**
Tertiary	111	**43.4**
Total	256	100.0
Average education level of VFs		
Secondary	18	12.6
Tertiary	125	**87.4**
Total	143	100.0

Appendix 7.3 IPA Table of Motivation for Travel in New Zealand

Quadrant B		**Quadrant A**	
		01	To mentally relax
		02	To physically relax
		03	To visit New Zealand's natural attractions
		07	To avoid hustle and bustle of daily life
		09	To change my surroundings for the sake of change
		10	To be in a calm atmosphere
		11	To discover new places and things
		12	To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted
		13	To holiday somewhere is safe
		14	To travel with existing friends/relatives who are staying in New Zealand
		16	To travel with the VFRs who are visiting me from China
Quadrant C		**Quadrant D**	
04	To visit New Zealand's historical and cultural attractions		
05	To visit Maori attractions		

06	To experience western lifestyle		
08	To be with others and make new friends		
15	To visit friends and relatives in NZ		
17	To explore new ideas		
18	To take some exercises		
19	To challenge your abilities		
20	To satisfy a sense of adventure		
21	To visit somewhere I had read about		
22	To holiday somewhere my friends have not been		
23	To look at other universities and courses		
24	To look at career opportunities		
25	To better understand yourself		

Appendix 7.4 Number of Trips Chinese University Students have Made within New Zealand EACH Year

N	Mean	Std. Deviation
504	**5.60**	3.38
Number of trips	**Frequencies**	**Percent**
1	3	0.6
2	25	5.0
3	77	**15.3**
4	125	**24.8**
5	93	**18.5**
6	58	**11.5**
7	31	**6.2**
8	26	**5.2**
9	4	**0.8**
10	44	**8.7**
12	4	0.8
13	1	0.2
15	4	0.8
20	6	1.2
25	1	0.2
30	2	0.4
Total	504	100

Appendix 7.5 Number of Day Trips and Overnight Trips

Day trips Chinese university students have made within New Zealand		
N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
504	**2.48**	2.66

Number of Day Trips	**Frequencies**	**Percent**
1	151	**33.7**
2	148	**33.0**
3	48	10.7
4	29	6.5
5	26	5.8
6	9	2.0
7	10	2.2
8	14	3.1
9	1	.2
10	4	.9
12	1	.2
14	1	.2
15	4	.9
18	1	.2
25	1	.2

Overnight trips Chinese university students have made within New Zealand		
N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
501	**3.11**	1.59

Number of Overnight Trips	**Frequencies**	**Percent**
1	49	9.8
2	157	**31.3**
3	130	**25.9**
4	84	16.8
5	52	10.4
6	16	3.2
7	2	.4
8	8	1.6
10	2	.4
15	1	.2

Appendix 7.6 Length of the Overnight Trips

Descriptive Statistics	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
With reference to your overnight trips, normally for how long were you away?	503	2.87	1.07

Night(s)	Frequency	Percent
1	12	2.4
2	185	36.8
3	219	43.5
4	46	9.1
5	27	5.4
6	5	1.0
7	7	1.4
8	1	0.2
Total	503	100.0

Appendix 7.7 Who did you travel with when you were travelling within New Zealand

		Longer holiday		Shorter holiday	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Independently and without tour group	13	2.6	53	10.5
	With friends, but without tour group	332	65.9	427	84.7
	Independently and with tour group	44	8.7	16	3.2
	With friends, but with tour group	115	22.8	8	1.6
	Total	504	100	504	100

Appendix 7.8 Size of Travel Party

Descriptive Statistics	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
What was your average travel party size (incl. yourself?)	504	3.99	1.67

Person(s)	Frequency	Percent
1-2	80	15.9
3	98	19.4
4	187	37.1
5	93	18.5
6 and more	46	9.1
Total	504	100.0

Appendix 7.9 Forms of transportation in longer and shorter holidays

		Longer holidays		Shorter holidays	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Domestic flight	11	2.2	1	0.2
	Rental car	24	4.8	12	2.4
	Rental caraven	12	2.4	2	0.4
	Rental van	41	8.1	4	0.8
	Own car	144	28.6	414	82.1
	Tourist coach	109	21.6	33	6.5
	Intercity/naked bus	28	5.6	38	7.5
	Domestic flight and Others	135	26.8	0	0
	Total	504	100	504	100

Appendix 7.10 Types of Accommodation in longer and shorter holidays

		Longer holidays		Shorter holidays	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	3 to 5 star hotel	30	6.0	29	5.8
	1 to 2 star hotel	37	7.3	17	3.4
	motel	252	50.0	204	40.5
	backpackers/hostels	141	28.0	127	25.2
	bed and breakfasts	6	1.2	9	1.8
	other friends' and relatives' homes	23	4.6	76	15.1
	holiday homes	13	2.6	7	1.4
	stay with you	2	0.4	4	0.8
	Others	0	0	31	6.2
	Total	504	100	504	100

Appendix 7.11 Types of Restaurants in longer and shorter holidays

		Longer holidays		Shorter holidays	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Chinese restaurants	277	42.7	183	36.5
	Other Asian restaurants	52	10.4	58	11.6
	Western restaurants	52	10.4	67	13.4
	Fast food and takeaways	93	18.6	148	29.5
	Others	27	5.4	45	9.0
	Total	501	100	501	100

Appendix 7.12 Best Travel Time

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Semester breaks in winter	504	3.37	1.140
Semester breaks in summer	504	4.07	1.048
Public holidays	504	3.03	1.122
Middle break	504	2.76	1.164
Special occasions (e.g. graudation ceremony)	504	3.45	1.319
Anytime you receive the VFR trips from China	504	4.05	1.077

Note: 1=Not at all important, 3=Moderate important, 5=Very important

Appendix 7.13 Do You Usually Plan Travels In Advance

Plan holidays	Longer holidays		Shorter holidays	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
yes	475	94.2	359	71.2
no	29	5.8	145	28.8
Total	504	100	504	100

Appendix 7.14 How Many Days Did You Plan Travels in Advance

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
If Yes, how many days did you plan your longer travels in advance	504	12.41	13.53
If Yes, how many days did you plan your shorter travels in advance	504	3.3	4.49

Appendix 7.15 Preferred Mode of travel

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	adventure	42	8.3
	adventure and ecology	3	.6
	camping	1	.2
	eco-travel	59	11.7
	hiking	1	.2
	leisure	363	72.0
	leisure and adventure	6	1.2
	leisure and ecology	25	5.0
	leisure, adventure and ecology	1	.2
	leisure, ecology, visit friends and relatives	1	.2
	Museum	1	.2
	shopping	1	.2
	Total	504	100.0

Appendix 7.16 Destinations of Overnight Trips in New Zealand

North Island	Frequency	Percent
Have you visited Rotorua	455	90.3
Have you visited Taupo	430	85.3
Have you visited Bay of Plenty	209	41.5
Have you visited New Playmouth	171	33.9
Have you viisted Gisborne	89	17.7
Have you visited Raglan	206	40.9
Have you visited Hamilton	418	82.9
Have you visited Auckland	477	94.6
Have you visited Waitomo Caves	189	37.5
Have you visited Wellington	339	67.3
Have you visited Russell	56	11.1
Have you visited Waitangi	128	25.4
Have you visited Bay of Plenty	161	31.9
Have you visited Mount Maunganui	206	40.9
Have you visited Tauranga	282	56.0
Have you visited Napier	191	37.9
Have you visited National Park	226	44.8
Have you visited 90 mile beach	192	38.1
Have you visited Coromandel	129	25.6
Have you visited Hasting	106	21.0
Have you visited Te Aroha	69	13.7
Have you visited Palmerston North	198	39.3
Have you visited Taranaki	65	12.9
South Island	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Have you visited Christchurch	200	39.7
Have you visited Milford Sound	86	17.1
Have you visited Queenstown	158	31.4
Have you visited Oamaru	47	9.3
Have you visited Dunedin	132	26.2
Have you visited Wanaka	37	7.3
Have you visited Golden Bay	30	6.0
Have you visited Kaikoura	34	6.8
Have you visited West Coast	64	12.7
Have you visited Fox Glacier	56	11.1
Have you visited Mouth Cook	77	15.3
Have you visited Te Anau	37	7.3
Have you visited Picton	56	11.1
Have you visited Greymouth	43	8.5
Have you visited Franz Jose	19	3.8

Appendix 7.17 Overseas Holiday Destinations

Descending	Frequency	Percentage
CHINA	462	66.1
AUSTRALIA	87	12.4
HONGKONG	50	7.2
KOREA	25	3.6
SINGAPORE	24	3.4
JAPAN	20	2.9
FIJI	12	1.7
MALAYSIA	9	1.3
THAILAND	7	1.0
AUSSIE	1	0.1
OCEANISLANDS	1	0.1
VANNATU	1	0.1

Appendix 7.18 Transportation Choice of Overseas Travel

	Frequency	Percent
CATHAYPACIFIC	254	21.0
SINGAPOREAIRLINE	196	16.2
AIRNEWZEALAND	172	14.2
AIRCHINA	140	11.6
KOREANAIRLINE	125	10.3
MALAYSIAAIRLINE	65	5.4
QANTAS	65	5.4
JAPANAIRLINE	54	4.5
CHINAEASTERNAIRLINE	55	4.5
THAIAIRLINE	51	4.2
ASIANAAIRLINE	20	1.7
AIRPACIFIC	6	0.5
AREOLINEASARGENTINA	3	0.2
DRAGONAIRLINE	2	0.2
FREEDOMAIRLINE	1	0.1
PACIFICAIRLINE	1	0.1

Appendix 7.19 Dominant decision in choosing the airlines

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	friends	6	1.2
	friends and myself	13	2.6
	myself	453	89.9
	parents	13	2.6
	partly by parents, partly by myself	16	3.2
	travel agent	2	.4
	Total	504	100.0

Appendix 7.20 Who Pays for the travelling expenses for you to travel overseas

		Frequency	Percent
Valid			
	friends	1	.2
	myself	31	6.2
	parents	373	74.0
	partly by myself, partly by friends	3	.6
	partly by parents, partly by myself	95	18.8
	Total	504	100.0

Appendix 7.21 Overall Trip Satisfaction in New Zealand

N	Mean	Std. Deviation
494	**3.6**	0.7536

	Frequency	Percent
less satisfied	49	9.9
moderately	121	24.5
satisfied	291	58.9
very satisfied	33	6.7
Total	494	98.0

Note: 1=Not at all satisfied, 3=Moderate satisfied, 5= Very satisfied.

Appendix 7.21 Do you intend to visit the destinations that you have visited before

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	439	87.1
	No	65	12.9
	Total	504	100.0

Appendix 7.22 Will you recommend New Zealand to your relatives and/or friends as a travel destination

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	424	84.1
	No	78	15.5
	Maybe yes maybe no	2	0.4
	Total	504	100.0

Appendix 7.23 Percentage of Chinese students who have had friends or relatives to stay

	Number you received the visits from	Percentages
Relatives	256	50.8%
Friends	148	29.4%

Appendix 7.24 Times that students received the visits from relatives and friends from China

		VR visits		VF visits	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	1	213	81.9	114	77.6
	2	41	15.8	28	19.0
	3	5	1.9	4	2.7
	4	1	.4	1	.7
	Total	260	100.0	147	100.0

Appendix 7.25 Approximate number of times VFR trips made in the past

		VR trips		VF trips	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Once a year	11	4.3	7	4.7
	Once-twice in three years	127	49.6	64	43.2
	Once –three times in four years	115	44.9	66	44.6
	Once-three times in five years	3	1.2	8	5.4
	Once in six years			3	2.0
	Total	256	100.0	148	100.0

Appendix 7.26 Relationship to Friends or Relatives

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Friends	143	34.0
Parents	111	26.4
Mother	81	19.2
Father	32	7.6
Brothers	14	3.3
Sisters	13	3.1
Uncle	9	2.1
Aunty	7	1.7
Grandparents	4	1.0
Cousin	4	1.0
Spouse	2	0.5
Colleague	1	0.2
Total	421	100

Appendix 7.27 Months of VFRs Arrival

	VRs		VFs	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
December	60	21.8	26	15.0
July	37	13.5	34	20.0
April	26	9.5	16	9.5
October	25	9.0	9	5.3
February	24	8.7	17	10.0
May	21	7.6	14	8.3
November	21	7.6	12	7.1
June	15	5.5	13	7.7
January	15	5.5	1	0.6
March	12	4.4	10	5.9
September	10	3.6	8	4.7
August	9	3.3	9	5.3
Total	275	100.0	169	100.0

Appendix 7.28 Number of days VFRs stayed in New Zealand

		VRs			VFs	
		Mean	S.D.		Mean	S.D.
		26.54	37.22		9.36	6.12
		Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
Valid	2-6 days	35	13.67	2-6 days	37	24.15
	7-9 days	41	16.10	7-9 days	58	38.93
	10-12 days	28	10.94	10-15 days	46	30.86
	14-15 days	42	16.41	20-40 days	8	5.37
	20-28 days	25	9.77			
	30-35 days	51	19.92			
	40-90 days	22	8.59			
	100 -270 days	12	4.68			
	Total	256	100.00	Total	504	100.00

Appendix 7.29 Did you accompany with VFRs to travel around NZ

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	yes	256	99.6	140	95.2
	no	1	.4	7	4.8
	Total	257	100.0	147	100.0

Appendix 7.30 Average number of days you travelled with VFRs

		VRs		VFs		
Average number of days		9.43		5.15		
		Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
Valid	1-3 days	41	15.99	1-2 days	14	9.86
	4-6 days	36	14.04	3 days	27	19.01
	7-9 days	43	16.77	4 days	22	15.49
	10 days	71	27.69	5 days	30	21.13
	11-15 days	39	15.21	6-7 days	39	27.46
	16-40 days	26	10.14	8-18 days	10	7.04

Appendix 7.31 Selection of accommodation that VFRs used

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	herself/himself	1	0.4	7	4.7
	me	219	84.2	87	59.2
	me and friends	1	0.4	1	0.7
	themselves	1	0.4	36	24.5
	travel agent	37	14.2	12	8.2
	travel agent and me	1	0.4	0	0
	Themselves and me	0	0	4	2.7
	Total	260	100	147	100

Appendix 7.32 The main purpose of your VFRs visit to NZ

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	business	9	3.5	8	5.36
	business and holiday	1	0.4	1	0.67
	graduation ceremony	2	0.8	0	0
	holiday	60	23.3	134	89.78
	visit me	186	72.1	2	1.34
	visit other friends and me	0	0	2	1.34
	visit other friends and relatives	0	0	1	0.67
	Total	258	100.0	148	100.00

Appendix 7.33 The secondary purpose of your VFRs visit to NZ

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	holiday	185	71.7	5	3.4
	holiday and visit other friends and relatives	1	0.4	0	0
	visit me	69	26.7	119	80.4
	visit other friends and relatives	2	0.8	0	0
	visit other relatives and me	1	0.4	0	0
	visit other friends and me	0	0	24	16.2
	visit other friends and relatives	0	0	0	0
	Total	258	100.0	148	100.00

Appendix 7.34 Preferred mode of travel by VFRs

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	leisure	229	88.8	103	69.1
	Eco travel	27	10.5	20	13.4
	adventure	2	0.8	26	17.4
	Total	258	100.0	149	100.00

Appendix 7.35 Who did your VFR travel with during longer holiday in New Zealand

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Without you but with tour group	37	14.1	50	35.2
	With friends, but without you and tour group	28	10.7	26	18.3
	With you, but without tour group	127	48.5	43	30.3
	With you, and with tour group	64	24.4	16	11.3
	Travel independently	6	2.3	7	4.9
	Total	262	100.0	142	100.0

Appendix 7.36 Who did your VFR travel with during shorter holiday in New Zealand

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Without you but with tour group	3	1.1	2	1.3
	With friends, but without you and tour group	14	5.3	16	10.9
	With you, but without tour group	239	91.2	121	82.9
	With you, and with tour group	6	2.3		
	Travel independently			7	4.8
	Total	262	100.0	146	100.0

Appendix 7.37 Forms of transportation that your VFRs chose during longer holidays

		VR		VF	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	domestic flight	11	4.2	6	4.1
	rental car	10	3.8	8	5.5
	rental caraven	2	.8	11	7.6
	rental van	7	2.7		
	own car	78	29.8	23	15.9
	tourist coach and tour bus	49	35.1	35	52.4
	domestic flight and others	53	22.9	20	13.8
	own car and tourist coach	2	.8	1	0.7
	Total	262	100.0	145	100.0

Appendix 7.38 Forms of transportation that your VFRs chose during shorter holidays

		VR		VF	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	domestic flight	2	.8	3	2.1
	rental car	7	2.7	7	4.8
	rental caraven	3	1.1	5	3.4
	Rental van	1	.4		
	own car	233	88.9	113	77.9
	tourist coach and tour bus	13	4.9	17	11.7
	domestic flight and others	0	0	0	0
	own car and tourist coach	3	1.1	0	0
	Total	262	100.0	145	100.0

Appendix 7.39 Type of accommodation that your VFRs chose during longer holidays

		VR		VF	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	3 to 5 star hotel	52	19.8	6	4.1
	1 to 2 star hotel	78	29.8	16	11.0
	motel	109	41.6	63	43.4
	backpackers	14	5.3	53	36.6
	bed&breakfasts	2	.8	3	2.1
	other friends' and relatives' homes	2	.8	1	.7
	holiday homes	2	.8	3	2.1
	stay with you	3	1.1	0	0
	Others	0	0	0	0
	Total	262	100.0	145	100.0

Appendix 7.40 Types of accommodation that your VFRs chose during shorter holidays

		VR		VF	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	3 to 5 star hotel	21	8.0	4	2.8
	1 to 2 star hotel	17	6.5	3	2.1
	motel	168	64.1	65	44.8
	backpackers/hostels	15	5.7	31	21.4
	bed&breakfasts	5	1.9	5	3.4
	other friends' and relatives' homes	14	5.3	25	17.2
	holiday homes	2	.8	4	2.8
	stay with you	8	3.1	3	2.1
	Others	12	4.7	5	3.5
	Total	262	100.0	145	100.0

Appendix 7.41 Types of restaurants that your VFRs chose during longer holidays

		VR		VF	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Chinese restaurants	212	81.5	98	67.6
	Other Asian restaurants	20	7.7	11	7.6
	Western restaurants	11	4.2	15	10.3
	Fast food and takeaways	8	3.1	18	12.4
	others	6	2.7	2	1.4
	Chinese restaurants and Other Asian restaurants	2	.8	1	.7
	Fast food and takeaways and others	1	.4		
	Total	260	100.0	145	100.0

Appendix 7.42 Types of restaurants that your VFs chose during shorter holiday

		VR		VF	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Chinese restaurants	120	46.2	54	37.2
	Other Asian restaurants	56	21.5	32	22.1
	Western restaurants	38	14.6	24	16.6
	Fast food and takeaways	27	10.4	23	15.9
	others	17	6.5	11	7.6
	Chinese restaurants and Other Asian restaurants	1	.4	1	.7
	Fast food and takeaways and others	1	.4		
	Total	260	100.0	145	100.0

Appendix 7.43 Destinations visited in New Zealand

North Island	Mean	Std. Deviation
Have you and your VFRs visited Hauraki Gulf & Islands	1.98	.148
Have you and your VFRs visited Taranaki	1.96	.200
Have you and your VFRs visited Te Aroha	1.95	.220
Have you and your VFRs visited Russell	1.92	.271
Have you and your VFRs visited Waitangi	1.87	.334
Have you and your VFRs visited Hastings	1.87	.337
Have you and your VFRs visited Gisborne	1.86	.344
Have you and your VFRs visited New Plymouth	1.81	.391
Have you and your VFRs visited Bay of Plenty	1.77	.420
Have you and your VFRs visited Coromandel	1.75	.431
Have you and your VFRs visited Raglan	1.75	.436
Have you and your VFRs visited Waitomo Caves	1.74	.438
Have you and your VFRs visited Mount Maunganui	1.73	.447
Have you and your VFRs visited Palmerston North	1.72	.448
Have you and your VFRs visited National Park	1.72	.450
Have you and your VFRs visited Bay of Island	1.70	.460
Have you and your VFRs visited Tauranga	1.67	.470
Have you and your VFRs visited Napier	1.66	.474
Have you and your VFRs visited 90 mile beach	1.61	.490
Have you and your VFRs visited Wellington	1.44	.497
Have you and your VFRs visited Hamilton	1.25	.431
Have you and your VFRs visited Taupo	1.21	.408
Have you and your VFRs visited Auckland	1.11	.307
Have you and your VFRs visited Rotorua	1.10	.303

South Island	Mean	Std. Deviation
Have you and your VFRs visited Golden Bay	1.98	.125
Have you and your VFRs visited Invercargill	1.98	.125
Have you and your VFRs visited Greymouth	1.97	.176
Have you and your VFRs visited Te Anau	1.97	.176
Have you and your VFRs visited Kaikoura	1.97	.184
Have you and your VFRs visited Franz Joseph	1.97	.184
Have you and your VFRs visited Wanaka	1.97	.184
Have you and your VFRs visited Oamaru	1.96	.206
Have you and your VFRs visited Picton	1.96	.206
Have you and your VFRs visited Canterbury	1.95	.226
Have you and your VFRs visited Fox Glacier	1.94	.232
Have you and your VFRs visited West Coast	1.94	.232
Have you and your VFRs visited Mount Cook	1.90	.298
Have you and your VFRs visited Milford Sound	1.87	.340
Have you and your VFRs visited Otago	1.83	.375
Have you and your VFRs visited Dunedin	1.82	.383
Have you and your VFRs visited Queenstown	1.74	.440
Have you and your VFRs visited Christchurch	1.68	.466

Note: 1=Yes, 2=No.

Appendix 7.44 Travel activities

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
To experience cycle challenge	310	4.5	0.803
Go bungee jump	310	4.5	0.808
To go scuba diving	314	4.5	0.857
To go on hunting/fishing tours	314	4.3	0.913
To go jet boating	314	4.3	0.878
To view geothermal activity and glaciers	316	4.3	0.910
To go canoeing/kayaking	312	4.3	0.874
To visit sights associated with famous films	308	4.3	0.837
To visit home shows	300	4.3	0.878
To go horse riding	318	4.2	0.897
To go whale watching	319	4.2	0.975
To gamble in a casino	309	4.1	0.994
To experience dolphin swim	317	4.1	0.942
To view seal colony	304	4.1	0.902
To go wine tasting/visit wineries	321	4.1	0.964
To play golf	311	4.1	1.042
To watch sporting events	311	4.0	0.960

To experience wildlife in natural setting	313	4.0	0.984
To go skiing	316	4.0	1.041
Go for ballooning or other festivals	313	3.9	1.011
A visit to albatross colony	315	3.9	0.864
To visit Waitomo Cave	319	3.9	1.010
To visit art museums/galleries	313	3.8	0.986
To see kiwi birds	314	3.8	0.994
To go to the zoo/aquarium	320	3.8	0.878
Nightlife	303	3.7	1.058
To visit Maori villages	318	3.7	0.989
To go to farm shows	317	3.7	0.955
To see a volcano	318	3.6	1.040
To see a Maori Music and Dance performance	314	3.6	0.990
To have short bush walks	319	3.5	1.081
To take scenic boat cruises	319	3.5	1.138
To visit National Park	317	3.5	0.967
To learn about animals, birds, and plants of NZ	320	3.4	0.983
To visit museums and historical sites	319	3.3	1.030
To taste local foods	314	3.3	1.039
To buy authentic indigenous Maori souvenirs	312	3.2	1.134
To take city tours	314	3.2	1.165
To go to the geothermal spa	319	3.2	1.084
Visit gardens	321	3.1	0.941
To visit the uni campus where you are studying	306	3.0	1.188
To visit beaches	320	2.5	1.111
Take lots of photos to show friends and relatives	318	2.5	1.108
To go shopping	321	2.5	1.054

Note: 1=Very frequently, 3= moderately, 5=never.

Appendix 7.45 Overall satisfaction of VFR visits to New Zealand

	Mean	Std. Deviation
To what extent, would you say the overall trip satisfaction of your VRs with their visits to New Zealand	4.04	.780
To what extent, would you say the overall trip satisfaction of your VFs with their visits to New Zealand	4.03	.758

Appendix 7.46 Overall satisfaction of VFR visits to New Zealand

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	0	39	7.7	97	19.2
	1	121	24.0	75	14.9
	2	65	12.9	37	7.3
	3	20	4.0	11	2.2
	4-5	9	1.8	9	1.8
	6-8	7	1.4	7	1.4
	Not sure	261	51.8	268	53.2
	Total	504	100.0	504	100.0

Appendix 7.47 Number of VFR trips to host in the future

		VRs		VFs	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	less satisfied	9	3.5	4	2.7
	moderately	46	17.9	28	19.0
	satisfied	128	49.8	75	51.0
	very satisfied	74	28.8	40	27.2
	Total	257	100.0	147	100.0

Appendix 7.48 Factors influence future VR visits

	VRs		VFs	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Does visa influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	4.32	.972	4.38	.911
Does time influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	4.12	.836	4.36	.833
Does a lack of time to accompany VFRs your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	3.97	.981	4.30	.770
Does interest to NZ destination influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	3.80	.878	4.13	.851
Does travel costs influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	3.75	.925	3.16	.849
Does physical condition influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	3.51	1.068	2.74	1.060
Does how many times you go back to China influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	3.35	1.016	2.70	.918
Does distance between China and NZ influence your VFRs to come over NZ to visit you	3.14	1.002	2.62	.920

Note: 1= Very unimportant, 3=Moderate, 5=Very important

Appendix 7.49 Agreement with following Statements

	Mean	Std. Deviation
You tried to find a local event or attraction to go when you had visitors	4.33	.725
You took VFRs out to eat in local restaurants at once during their stay	4.23	.724
You would like to be a host for VFRs in the future	3.99	.840
Your travel experience influences VFR travel patterns	3.93	.840
Your VFRs will travel in New Zealand in the future	3.80	.806
You recommend accommodation locally	3.76	.885
The arrivals of VFR have influenced travel demand	3.64	1.061
Your VFRs would visit New Zealand if you were not in New Zealand	3.13	.981

Note: 1=strongly disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 5= strongly agree

Appendix 7.50 The role you played in VFR travel

	VRs		VFs	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
The role you played in deciding mode of transportation when travelling with VRs	3.97	.978	3.57	1.004
The role you played in deciding trip information when travelling with VRs	3.93	.925	3.52	.958
The role you played in deciding where to stay when travelling with VRs	3.88	1.000	3.47	.986
The role you played in deciding which site to visit when travelling with VRs	3.83	.960	3.39	.907
The role you played in deciding what to do when travelling with VRs	3.70	.972	3.36	1.041
The role you played in deciding where to eat when travelling with VRs	3.59	1.012	3.35	.934
The role you played in deciding length of stay when travelling with VRs	3.36	1.162	2.96	1.069
The role you played in deciding souvenir purchasing when travelling with VRs	3.12	1.175	2.85	1.220

Note: 1= no role, 3= equal role, 5= sole decision maker

Appendix 7.51 Chi-square test between VR accommodation and length of stay

		VR accommodation		Total
Length of stay		**Commercial accommodation**	**Private homes**	
	2-6 days	**30**	**5**	**35**
	7-9 days	**32**	**8**	**40**
	10-12 days	**22**	**6**	**28**
	14-15 days	**17**	**25**	**42**
	20-28 days		**25**	**25**
	30-35 days	**3**	**48**	**51**
	40-90 days		**21**	**21**
	100-270 days		**12**	**12**
Total		**104**	**150**	**254**
X^2=136.785 df=7 P=0.000				

Appendix 7.52 Chi-square test between VR accommodation and mode of transportation

		VR accommodation		Total
Transportation		**Commercial accommodation**	**Private homes**	
	Domestic flight	**4**	**4**	**8**
	Rental car/caravan/van	**6**	**26**	**32**
	Own car	**31**	**40**	**71**
	Tourist coach/tour bus	**19**	**35**	**54**
	others	**45**	**49**	**94**
Total		**105**	**154**	**259**
X^2=9.626 df=4 P=0.047				

Appendix 7.53 Chi-square test between VR main purpose and VR accommodation

		VR main purpose		Total
Transportation		**holiday**	**Visit students**	
	Commercial accommodation	**53**	**51**	**104**
	Private homes	**16**	**137**	**153**
Total		**69**	**188**	**257**
X^2=51.719 df=1 P=0.000				

Appendix 7.54 Chi-square test between VR main purpose and length of stay

		VR main purpose		Total
Length of stay		**holiday**	**Visit students**	
	2-6 days	**24**	**11**	**35**
	7-9 days	**21**	**20**	**41**
	10-12 days	**6**	**22**	**28**
	14-15 days	**9**	**33**	**42**
	20-28 days	**2**	**23**	**25**
	30-35 days	**8**	**43**	**51**
	40-90 days		**21**	**21**
	100-270 days		**12**	**12**
Total		**70**	**185**	**255**
X^2=63.402 df=7 P=0.000				

Appendix 7.55 VFR expenditure on holidays in NZ

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
VRs' average spending on travelling in NZ	249	$3,263.53	$757.46
VFs' average spending on traveling in NZ	135	$2,856.67	$876.24
VRs' average spending on transportation	239	$1,396.65	$371.33
VFs' average spending on transportation	130	$1,317.31	$359.30
VRs' average spending on recreation	238	$360.67	$148.27
VFs' average spending on recreation	130	$340.38	$159.35
VRs' average spending on shopping	238	$260.08	$235.38
VFs' average spending on shopping	130	$258.08	$395.02
VRs' average spending on souvenirs/gifts	239	$427.24	$187.02
VFs' average spending on souvenirs/gifts	130	$319.23	$206.14
VRs' average spending on food	239	$421.97	$159.60
VFs' average spending on food	130	$358.08	$206.75
VRs' average spending on others	6	$425.00	$325.19
VFs' average spending on others	4	$187.50	$175.00

Appendix 7.56 Students' total spending on holidays in NZ

	N	Mean	S.D.
Approximately how much did you spend in last year on holiday in NZ	504	$1,186.61	$607.036
Of these, how much was due to the visits by friends and relatives	246	$1,164.43	$525.284

Appendix 7.57 Chi-square test between VR main purpose and expenditure

		VR main purpose		Total
Average expenditure		**holiday**	**Visit students**	
	$2,999 or less	**24**	**37**	**61**
	$3,000-$3,449	**25**	**63**	**88**
	$3,500 or above	**18**	**77**	**95**
Total		**67**	**177**	**244**
$X^2=7.821$ df=2 P=0.020				

Appendix 8

Appendix 8.1 Comparison between Genders on the Level of the Importance of Travel Motives

	Male		Female		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
To physically relax	4.94	1.207	5.17	1.092	2.26*****
To visit New Zealand's historical and cultural attractions	4.19	1.391	4.51	1.178	2.80*****
To visit Maori attractions	3.70	1.290	4.03	1.217	2.98*****
To holiday somewhere is safe	5.48	1.312	5.86	1.178	3.42*****
To satisfy a sense of adventure	4.00	1.530	3.56	1.483	3.21*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.2 Comparison between Immigration Status on the Level of the Importance of Travel Motives

	PR		Non-PR		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
To visit friends and relatives in New Zealand	4.51	1.377	4.14	1.446	2.68*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3 . * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.3 Comparison among Age Groups on the Level of the Importance of Travel Motives

	19-23 years old	**24-28 years old**	**29-33 years old**	**F-value**
To change my surroundings for the sake of change	5.22	5.05	4.83	3.60*
To take some exercises (e.g. go caving)	4.04	3.85	3.45	4.37*
To challenge my abilities	3.93	3.69	3.34	3.83*
To satisfy a sense of adventure	4.07	3.74	3.32	7.34*
To holiday somewhere my friends have not been	4.56	4.12	4.00	6.07*
To look at other universities and courses	4.27	3.87	3.57	5.40*
To better understand yourself	4.91	4.47	4.32	4.99*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.4 Comparison among Education Groups on the Level of Importance of Travel Motives

	Bachelor's degree	Graduate or postgraduate diploma	Master's degree old	F-value
To satisfy a sense of adventure	3.85	3.77	3.40	3.27*
To better understand yourself	4.70	4.47	4.20	4.29*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.5 Comparison among Financial Background on the Level of Importance of Travel Motives

	Supported by parents in China	Supported by own saving or salary/scholarship	Partly by others, partly by part-time work in NZ	F value
To travel with existing friends and relatives	4.88	4.48	4.81	3.13*
To look at career opportunities	4.46	3.98	4.35	3.19*
To better understand yourself	4.69	4.24	4.59	2.87*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.6 Comparison among Marital Status on the Level of Importance of Travel Motives

	Single		Married or in de facto relationship		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
To be with others and make new friends	4.16	1.28	3.79	1.08	2.77*****
To satisfy a sense of adventure	3.82	1.53	3.47	1.44	2.18*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.7 Comparison between Genders on the Degree of Satisfaction Derived from Travel Motives

	Male		Female		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
To look at other universities and courses	4.46	1.145	4.70	1.068	2.19*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Very dissatisfied, ***2***=Dissatisfied, ***3***=Of some dissatisfied, ***4***=Satisfied, ***5***=Quite satisfied, ***6***=Very satisfied, ***7***=Extremely satisfied
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.8 Comparison between Immigration Status on the Degree of Satisfaction Derived from Travel Motives

	PR		Non-PR		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
To mentally relax	5.29	0.914	5.09	0.969	2.15*****
To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted	5.76	0.954	5.49	1.033	2.78*****
To holiday somewhere is safe	5.44	1.030	5.20	1.123	2.22*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Very dissatisfied, ***2***=Dissatisfied, ***3***=Of some dissatisfied, ***4***=Satisfied, ***5***=Quite satisfied, ***6***=Very satisfied, ***7***=Extremely satisfied
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.9 Comparison among Age Groups on the Degree of Satisfaction Derived from Travel Motives

	19-23 years old	**24-28 years old**	**29-33 years old**	**F-value**
To holiday somewhere that is clean and unpolluted	5.54	5.51	5.80	2.97*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Very dissatisfied, ***2***=Dissatisfied, ***3***=Of some dissatisfied, ***4***=Satisfied, ***5***=Quite satisfied, ***6***=Very satisfied, ***7***=Extremely satisfied
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.10 Comparison among Financial Background on the Degree of Satisfaction Derived from Travel Motives

	Supported by parents in China	**Supported by own saving or salary/scholarship**	**Partly by others, partly by part-time work in NZ**	**F value**
To change my surroundings for the sake of change	5.24	4.93	5.11	3.06*
To challenge my abilities	4.53	4.36	4.92	7.64*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Very dissatisfied, ***2***=Dissatisfied, ***3***=Of some dissatisfied, ***4***=Satisfied, ***5***=Quite satisfied, ***6***=Very satisfied, ***7***=Extremely satisfied
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.11 Comparison among Age Groups on the level of Attractiveness of Travel Activities

	19-23 years old	24-28 years old	29-33 years old	F-value
To go jet boating	4.83	5.03	4.52	5.19*
To go scuba diving	5.41	5.30	4.78	5.50*
To go canoeing/kayaking	5.09	5.00	4.51	5.78*
To learn about animals, birds, and plants of NZ	4.85	4.73	4.38	3.47*
To experience wildlife in natural setting	5.30	5.10	4.64	4.88*
To go bungee jumping	4.79	4.59	4.13	3.85*
To go skiing	5.53	5.49	5.07	3.67*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.12 Comparison among Education Groups on the Level of Attractiveness of Travel Activities

	Bachelor's degree	Graduate or postgraduate diploma	Master's or Doctor's degree	F-value
To go jet boating	4.89	5.22	4.60	5.62*
To go bungee jumping	4.66	4.67	4.15	3.10*
To visit art museums/galleries	4.21	4.71	4.28	4.00*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.13 Comparison among Financial Background on the Level of Attractiveness of Travel Activities

	Supported by parents in China	Supported by own saving or salary/scholarship	Partly by others, partly by part-time work in NZ	F value
To go skiing	5.31	5.25	5.64	3.77*
To see Kiwi birds	4.89	5.06	4.63	3.30*
To go hunting/fishing	4.88	4.52	5.10	4.52*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.14 Comparison among Marital Status on the Level of Attractiveness of Travel Activities

	Single		Married or in de facto relationship		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
To go for ballooning or other festivals	4.63	1.44	5.01	1.08	-2.48*
To experience cycle challenge	4.17	1.63	3.78	1.44	2.17*
To go to the geothermal spa	5.48	1.18	5.72	1.10	-1.98*
To go to the zoo/aquarium	4.68	1.33	4.99	1.28	-2.12*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.15 Comparison between Genders on Best Travel Times

	Male		Female		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Semester breaks in summer	3.94	1.032	4.16	1.052	2.35*
Special occasions (e.g. graduation ceremony)	3.30	1.309	3.57	1.317	2.23*
Anytime you receive the VFR trips	3.86	1.063	4.20	1.067	3.52**

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all important, ***2***=Not important, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=Important, ***5***= Very important
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.16 Comparison between Immigration Status on Best Travel Times

	PR		Non-PR		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Middle break (Intra/inter semester breaks)	2.97	1.377	2.67	1.159	2.69*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all important, ***2***=Not important, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=important, ***5***= Very important
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.17 Comparison among Age Groups on Best Travel Time

	19-23 years old	**24-28 years old**	**29-33 years old**	**F-value**
The middle break	2.64	2.72	3.03	3.42*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all important, ***2***=Not important, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=important, ***5***= Very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.18 Comparison among Education Groups on Best Travel Time

	Bachelor's degree	Graduate or postgraduate diploma	Master's or Doctor's degree	F-value
Semester breaks in winter	3.47	3.23	3.15	3.79*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all important, ***2***=Not important, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=important, ***5***= Very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.19 Comparison among Financial Background on Best Travel Time

	Supported by parents in China	Supported by own saving or salary/scholarship	Partly by others, partly by part-time work in NZ	F value
Middle breaks	2.71	3.05	2.68	3.62*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all important, ***2***=Not important, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=important, ***5***= Very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.20 Comparison between Genders on the Frequency of Using Information Sources when Planning Holidays

	Male		Female		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Yellow page, AA guide book that people used to book the accommodation	2.76	1.319	**3.00**	1.397	-1.99*
Magazines/Brochures used to book the accommodation	2.56	1.250	**2.81**	1.240	-2.23*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Never, ***2***= Infrequently, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=Frequently, ***5***= Very frequently
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.21 Comparison among Education Groups on the Frequency of Using Information Sources when Planning Holidays

	Bachelor's degree	Graduate or postgraduate diploma	Master's or Doctor's degree	F-value
The internet	1.36	1.42	1.08	4.05*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=Never, ***2***= Infrequently, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=Frequently, ***5***= Very frequently
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.22 Comparison between Genders on Advance Planning for Longer and Shorter Holidays

	Male		Female		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Advance planning for longer holidays	1.50	0.80	1.70	0.91	-2.55*****
Advance planning for shorter holidays	2.60	1.22	2.91	1.28	-2.34*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=yes, ***2***=No
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.23 Comparison among Age Groups on Advance Planning for Longer Holidays

	19-23 years old	**24-28 years old**	**29-33 years old**	**F-value**
Advance planning for longer holidays	1.45	1.64	1.77	3.87*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all important, ***2***=Not important, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***=important, ***5***= Very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.24 Comparison between Immigration Status on the Roles Played by Students when Travelling with VFRs

	PR		Non-PR		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
What to do when travelling with VRs	3.88	0.853	3.56	1.038	2.58*****
Where to stay when travelling with VFs	3.65	0.954	3.18	1.056	2.82*****
What to do when travelling with VFs	3.59	0.722	3.19	1.019	2.64*****
Mode of transportation when travelling with VFs	3.90	0.775	3.36	1.077	3.35*****
Trip information when travelling with VFs	3.75	0.883	3.38	0.980	2.34*****

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=No role, ***2***=Less role, ***3***=Equal role, ***4***=Dominant role, ***5***= Sole decision maker
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.25 Comparison among Age Groups on the Role Played by Students when Travelling with VRs

	19-23 years old	**24-28 years old**	**29-33 years old**	**F-value**
Where to stay when travelling with VRs	3.55	4.01	4.04	5.59*
Which site to visit when travelling with VRs	3.59	3.89	4.04	3.80*
Mode of transportation when travelling with VRs	3.76	3.96	4.29	4.12*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=No role, ***2***=Less role, ***3***=Equal role, ***4***=Dominant role, ***5***= Sole decision maker
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.26 Comparison among Education Levels on Role Played by Students when Travelling with VRs

	Bachelor's degree	Graduate or postgraduate diploma	Master's and doctor's degree	F-value
Length of stay when travelling with VRs	3.19	3.73	3.50	4.44*
What to do when travelling with VRs	3.52	4.07	3.88	6.40*
Which site to visit when travelling with VRs	3.70	4.14	3.94	4.24*
Mode of transportation when travelling with VRs	3.84	4.23	4.09	3.50*
Trip information when travelling with VRs	3.79	4.25	4.06	5.23*
Souvenir purchasing when travelling with VRs	2.97	3.09	3.52	5.08*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2 . Mean ***1***=No role, ***2***=Less role, ***3***=Equal role, ***4***=Dominant role, ***5***= Sole decision maker
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.27 Comparison among Financial Background on the Role Played by Students when Travelling with VFRs

	Supported by parents in China	Supported by own saving or salary/scholarship	Partly by others, partly by part-time work in NZ	F value
What to do when travelling with VRs	3.47	3.79	3.88	5.20*
Mode of transportation when travelling with VFs	3.36	3.96	3.63	3.80*
Where to stay when travelling with VFs	3.10	3.78	3.45	4.64*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=No role, ***2***=Less role, ***3***=Equal role, ***4***=Dominant role, ***5***= Sole decision maker
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.28 Comparison among Age Groups on Overall Satisfaction

	19-23 years old	24-28 years old	29-33 years old	F-value
Your overall trip satisfaction in New Zealand	3.46	3.67	3.76	5.02*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all satisfied, **2**=Less satisfied, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***= Satisfied, ***5***=Very satisfied
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.29 Comparison among Marital Status on Overall Satisfaction

	Single		Married or in de facto relationship		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Your overall trip satisfaction in New Zealand	3.59	0.76	3.75	0.73	-2.03*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Not at all satisfied, ***2***=Less satisfied, ***3***=Moderately, ***4***= Satisfied, ***5***=Very satisfied
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.30 Comparison among VR Age Groups on VFR Travel Inhibitors

	21-40 years old	**41-50 years old**	**51 years old and above**	**F-value**
Travel costs	3.84	3.59	3.89	3.14*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=very unimportant, ***2***=not important, ***3***=moderate, ***4***=important, ***5***=very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.31 Comparison among VR Income Groups on VFR Travel Inhibitors

	Less than NZ$1,000	**NZ$1,001-$1,500**	**NZ$1,501-$2,000**	**NZ$2,001 and over**	**F value**
Travel costs	4.16	4.20	4.13	4.03	4.29*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=very unimportant, ***2***=not important, ***3***=moderate, ***4***=important, ***5***=very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.32 Comparison between VF Education levels on VFR Travel Inhibitors

	Secondary		Tertiary		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Lack of time to accompany VFs travel in New Zealand	2.94	0.64	3.45	1.04	-1.99*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=very unimportant, ***2***=not important, ***3***=moderate, ***4***=important, ***5***=very important
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.33 Comparison among VF Occupation Groups on VFR Travel Inhibitors

	Students	Entrepreneur	Professional	Individual operator or business person	Others	Combined jobs	F value
Visa	3.88	4.08	4.67	3.71	3.36	4.50	2.17*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***=very unimportant, ***2***=not important, ***3***=moderate, ***4***=important, ***5***=very important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.34 Comparison among VR Age Groups on the Travel Companions

	21-40 years old	41-50 years old	51 years old and above	F-value
Who did your VRs travel with when travelling within New Zealand during longer holiday	2.40	2.82	3.13	6.54*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= without you but with tour group, 2= with friends, but without you and tour group, 3= with you, but without tour group, 4= with you, and with tour group, 5= travel independently
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.35 Comparison among VF Age Groups on the Travel Companions

	21-30 years old	31-40 years old	41 years old and above	F-value
Who did your VFs travel with when travelling within New Zealand during longer holiday	2.31	3.56	2.40	3.92*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= without you but with tour group, 2= with friends, but without you and tour group, 3= with you, but without tour group, 4= with you, and with tour group, 5= travel independently
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.36 Comparison ajmong VR Income Groups on Travel Companions

	Less than NZ$1,000	NZ$1,001-$1,500	NZ$1,501-$2,000	NZ$2,001 and over	F value
Who did your VRs travel with when travelling within New Zealand during longer holiday	3.00	3.02	2.83	2.40	3.86*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= without you but with tour group, 2= with friends, but without you and tour group, 3= with you, but without tour group, 4= with you, and with tour group, 5= travel independently
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.37 Comparison between VF Education Levels on the Month of VF Visits

	Secondary		Tertiary		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Which month of the year did you receive the VFs	10.45	3.70	7.46	4.07	2.31*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=January, 2=February, 3= March, 4=April, 5= May, 6= June, 7= July, 8= August, 9 = September, 10= October, 11= November, 12=December
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.38 Comparison among VR Age Groups on the Length of VR Stays

	21-40 years old	**41-50 years old**	**51 years old and above**	**F-value**
Length of VR stays	3.24	4.00	4.45	3.74*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= 2-6 days, 2= 7-9 days, 3= 10-12 days, 4=14-15 days, 5=20-28 days, 6=30-35 days, 7=40-90 days, 8=100-270 days
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.39 Comparison among VR Income Groups on the Length of VR Stays

	Less than NZ$1,000	**NZ$1,001-$1,500**	**NZ$1,501-$2,000**	**NZ$2,001 and over**	**F value**
Length of VR stays	4.97	4.12	3.43	3.23	8.28*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= 2-6 days, 2= 7-9 days, 3= 10-12 days, 4=14-15 days, 5=20-28 days, 6=30-35 days, 7=40-90 days, 8=100-270 days
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.40 Comparison between VR Education Levels on the Length of VR stays

	Primary or Secondary		Tertiary		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Length of VR stays	4.49	2.16	3.60	1.93	3.41*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= 2-6 days, 2= 7-9 days, 3= 10-12 days, 4=14-15 days, 5=20-28 days, 6=30-35 days, 7=40-90 days, 8=100-270 days
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.41 Comparison among VR Occupation Groups on the Length of VR Stays

	Entrepreneur	Retired	Professional	Individual operator or business person	Others	Combined jobs	F value
Length of VR stays	3.71	5.76	4.00	4.07	3.21	3.93	7.63**

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2.Mean ***1***= 2-6 days, 2= 7-9 days, 3= 10-12 days, 4=14-15 days, 5=20-28 days, 6=30-35 days, 7=40-90 days, 8=100-270 days
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.42 Comparison among VR Occupation Groups on the Frequency of VR Stays

	Entrepreneur	Retired	Professional	Individual operator or business person	Others	Combined jobs	F value
Frequency of VR stays	2.35	2.42	2.30	2.68	2.34	2.49	2.17*

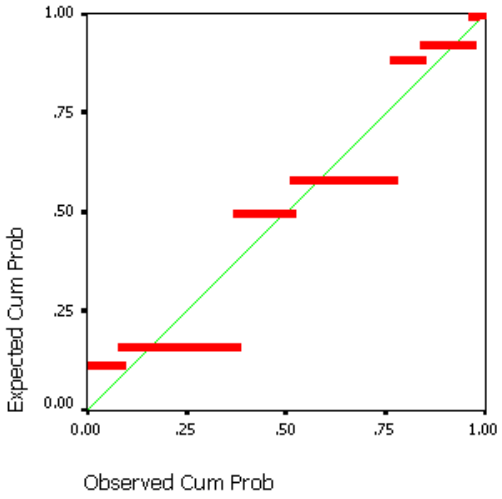
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented
2. Mean ***1***= once a year, 2= once-twice in three years, 3= once-three times in four years, 4= once-three years in five years, 5= once in six years, 6=once in ten years
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.43 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Immigration Status on Student Expenditure

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient of immigration status *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Are you a permanent resident in NZ	4.62*	0.01	2.179	-.173	1.716	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: Approximately how much did you spend in last year on holiday in New Zealand
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.44 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Immigration Status and Student Expenditure



Appendix 8.45 Comparison between Immigration Status on Student Expenditure

	PR		Non-PR		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Student travel expenditure	2.01	0.79	1.83	0.85	2.15*

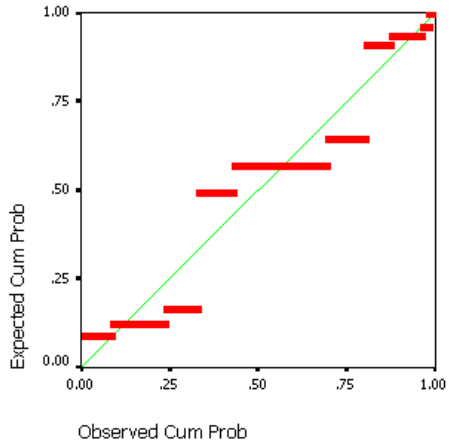
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=NZ$200-$900, 2=NZ$901-$1,600, 3=NZ$1,601-$2,300, 4=NZ$2,301-$3,000
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.46 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Age Groups on Student Expenditure due to Visits by VFRs

	F	***R* square**	**Constant (*β*)**	**Regression coefficient of age *(β)***	**Durbin-Watson**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
Age groups	4.48 *	0.02	2.159	-.144	1.685	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: Of these, how much was due to the visits by friends and relatives
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

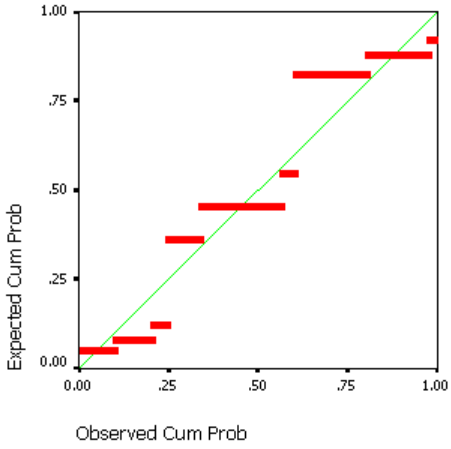
Appendix 8.47 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Age Groups and Student Expenditure due to Visits by VFRs



Appendix 8.48 Regression Analysis of the Impact of VR Age Groups on VR Expenditure

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient of age (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
VR age groups	5.46*	0.02	1.726	.184	1.721	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: Of these, how much was due to the visits by friends and relatives 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 8.49 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between VR Age Groups and VR Expenditure



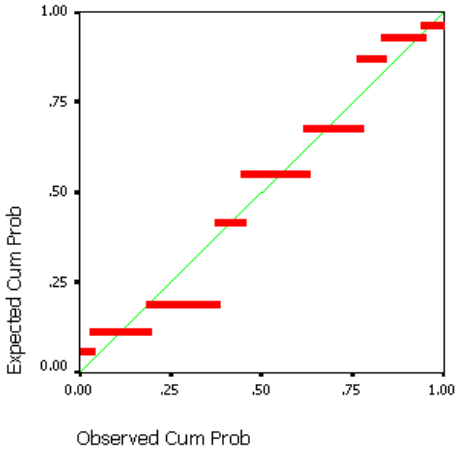
Appendix 8.50 Comparison among VR Age Groups on VR Expenditure

	21-40 years old	41-50 years old	51 years old and above	F-value
VR expenditure	1.79	2.14	2.25	3.29*
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented. 2. Mean ***1***= Less than NZ$2,999, 2= NZ$3,000-$3,449, 3= NZ$3,500 or above 3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05				

Appendix 8.51 Regression Analysis of the Impact of the Length of Trips on Student Expenditure

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Length of trips	14.22**	0.03	1.566	.095	1.700	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: **Student expenditure** 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

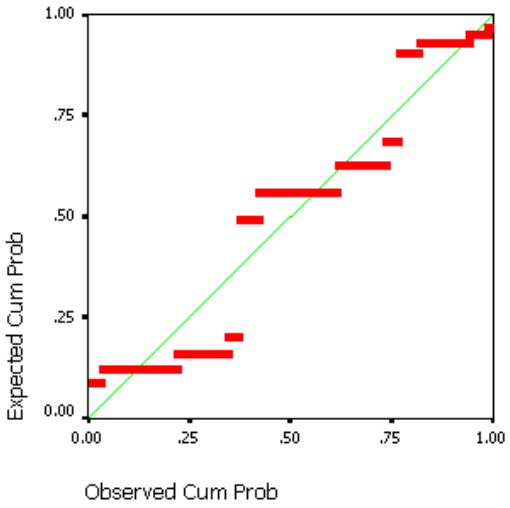
Appendix 8.52 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Length of Trips and Student Expenditure



Appendix 8.53 Regression Analysis of the Impact of the Type of Accommodation during Longer Travels on Student Expenditure

	F	***R* square**	**Constant (*β*)**	**Regression coefficient (*β*)**	**Durbin-Watson**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
Type of accommodation	3.90*	0.18	2.143	-.128	1.713	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: **Student expenditure** 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 8.54 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Type of Accommodation during Longer Travels and Student Expenditure



Appendix 8.55 Comparison among the Type of Accommodation during Longer Travels on Student Expenditure

	Hotels	Motels	Backpacker/ hostels/bed &breakfast	others	F-value
Student expenditure	2.10	1.88	1.73	1.77	3.90**

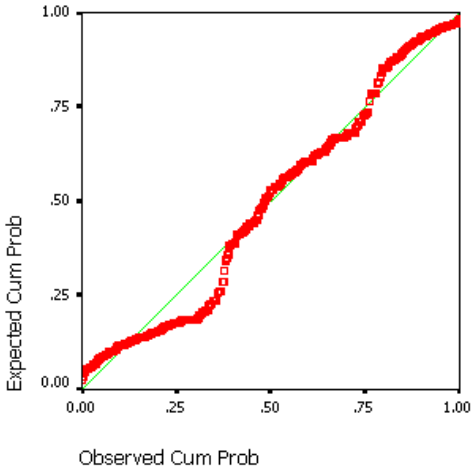
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=NZ$200-$900, 2=NZ$901-$1,600, 3=NZ$1,601-$2,300, 4=NZ$2,301-$3,000
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.56 Regression Analysis of the Impact of the Usage of Information Sources on Student Expenditure

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Travel agent, Visitor centre, Word of mouth by Kiwi friends	14.86**	0.08	1.527	.118, .073, -.067	1.668	.990, .928. .933	1.010, 1.078 1.071

Note: 1. Dependent variable: **Student expenditure**
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.57 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Usage of Information and Student Expenditure

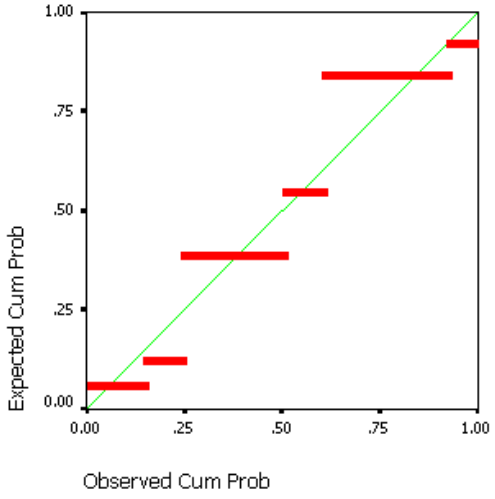


Appendix 8.58 Regression Analysis of the Impact of the Main Purpose of VR Visits on VR Expenditure

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Main purpose of VR visits	10.274*	0.04	1.588	.304	1.700	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: **VR expenditure**
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.59 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Main Purpose of VR Visits and VR Expenditure



Appendix 8.60 Comparison among the Main Purpose of VR Visits on VR Expenditure

	1-2 nights	3 nights	4 to 8 nights	F-value
VR expenditure	1.66	1.90	2.16	14.44**

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***= Less than NZ$2,999, 2= NZ$3,000-$3,449, 3= NZ$3,500 or above
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 8.61 Comparison between the Main Purpose of VR Visits and the Length of VR Stays

	Holiday		Visit students		
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	***t***
Length of VR stays	2.54	1.67	4.68	1.94	-8.132*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=2-6 days, 2=7-9 days, 3=10-12 days, 4=14-15 days, 5=20-28 days, 6=30-35 days, 7=40-90 days, 8=100-270 days
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 8.62 Regression Analysis of the Impact of the Length of VR Stays on the VR Expenditure

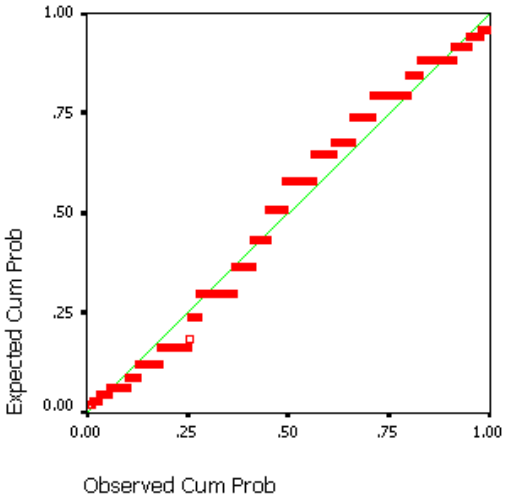
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Length of VR stays	36.021**	0.13	1.583	.135	1.802	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: **VR expenditure**
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

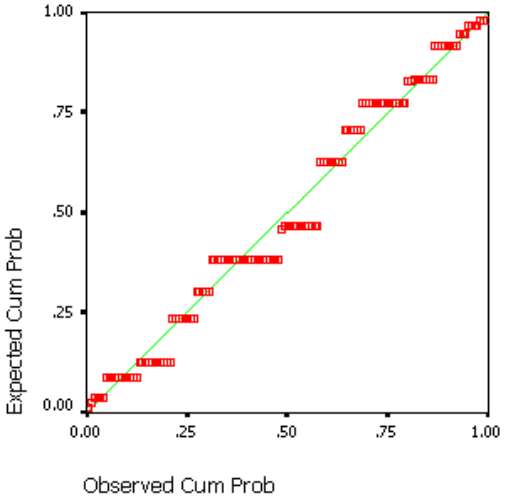
Appendix 8.63 Regression Analysis of the Impact of the Length of VF Stays on the VF Expenditure

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Length of VF stays	9.535*	0.07	1.876	.203	2.078	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: **VF expenditure** 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 8.64 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Length of VR Stays and VR Expenditure



Appendix 8.65 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Length of VF Stays and VF Expenditure



Appendix 9

Appendix 9.1 Regression Analysis of "Exploration and Novelty" Reason and Pull Motive Factors

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Education and VFR attractions, Safe, Clean and Calm destinations, Cultural, historical and natural attractions	143.038 **	0.48	1.147	0.385, 0.216 and 0.167	2.012	.792, .805, .832	1.262, 1.242, 1.202
Note: 1. Dependent variable: Exploration and novelty reason 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.2 Regression Analysis of "Adventure Seeking" and Pull Motive Factors

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Education and VFR attractions	186.475 **	0.28	0.929	0.678	1.911	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: adventure seeking 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.3 Regression Analysis of "Social Interaction Reason" and Pull Motive Factors

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Education and VFR attractions, safe, clean and calm destinations	82.968 **	0.26	1.522	0.357 and 0.329	1.982	.845, .845	1.183, 1.183
Note: 1. Dependent variable: social interaction reason 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.4 Regression Analysis of "Relax and Escape Reason" and Pull Motive Factors

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Safe, clean and calm destinations, Cultural, historical and natural attractions	106.590 **	0.31	1.820	0.430 and 0.241	1.987	.890, .890	1.124, 1.124
Note: 1. Dependent variable: relax and escape seeking 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.5 Regression Analysis of "Education and VFR Attraction" and Push Motive Factors

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Exploration and novelty seeking, adventure seeking, social interaction	148.156 **	0.49	0.099	0.502, 0.221 and 0.189	1.925	.733, .763, .850	1.364, 1.311, 1.176
Note: 1. Dependent variable: education and VFR attraction 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.6 Regression Analysis of "Cultural, Historical and Natural Attractions" and Push Motive Factors

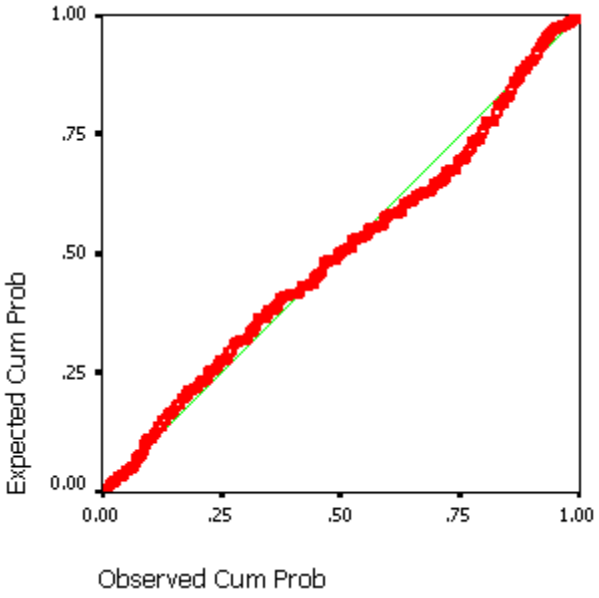
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Exploration and novelty seeking, relax and escape seeking	77.622 **	0.25	1.359	0.354 and 0.293	1.948	.834, .834	1.199, 1.199
Note: 1. Dependent variable: cultural, historical and natural attractions 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.7 Regression Analysis of "Safe, Clean and Calm Destinations" and Push Motive Factors

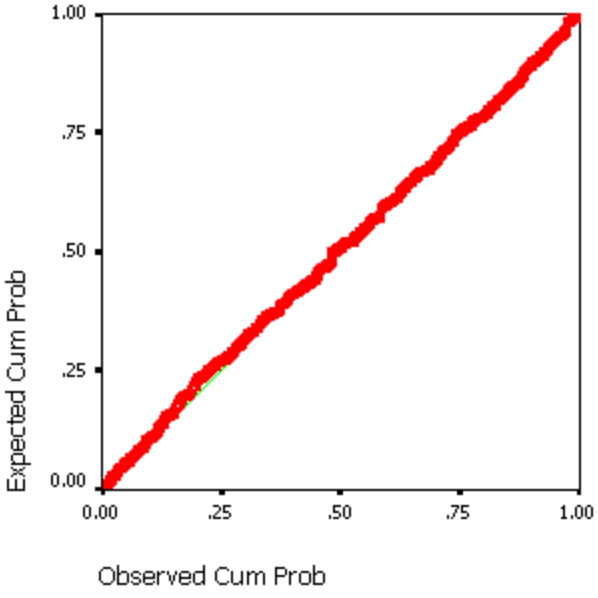
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Relax and escape seeking , Exploration and novelty seeking, Social interaction	101.659 **	0.40	1.348	0.337, 0.285 and 0.194	1.903	.832, .760, .860	1.201, 1.316, 1.163
Note: 1. Dependent variable: safe, clean and calm destinations 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.8 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Exploration and Novelty" Reason and Pull Motive Factors

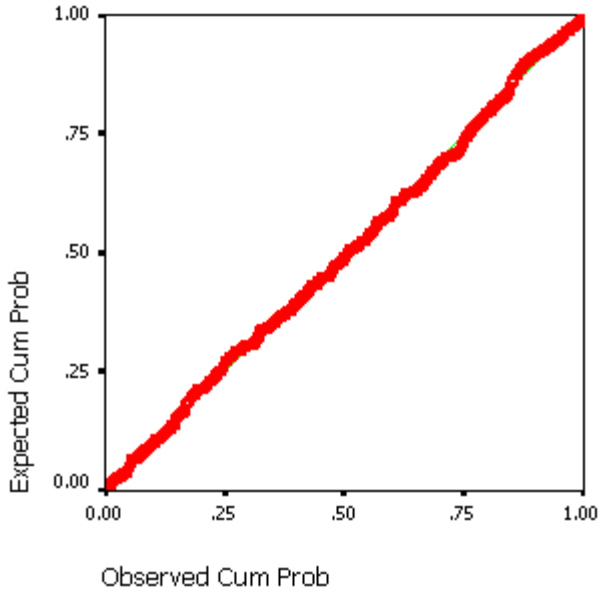
Appendix 9.9 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Adventure Seeking" Reason and Pull Motive Factors



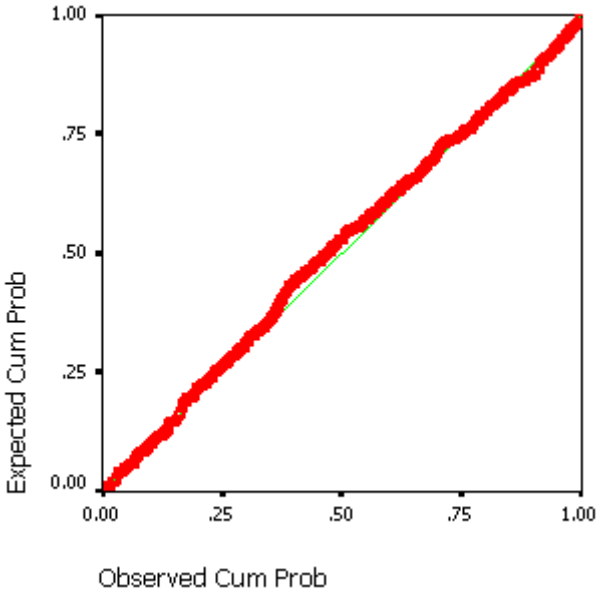
Appendix 9.10 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Social Interaction Reason" and Pull Motive Factors



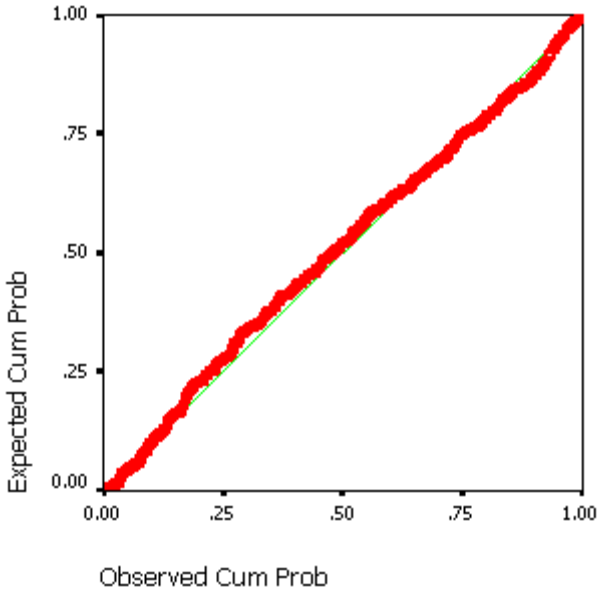
Appendix 9.11 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Relax and Escape Reason" and Pull Motive Factors



Appendix 9.12 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Education and VFR Attractions" and Push Motive Factors



Appendix 9.13 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Cultural, Historical and Natural Attractions" and Push Motive Factors



Appendix 9.14 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between "Safe, Clean and Calm Destinations" and Push Motive Factors

Appendix 9.15 Cluster Analysis Based upon Four Push Motivational Factors

	Push-motive moderates	Push-motive enthusiasts	Push-motive low scorers
Exploration	4.61	5.25	3.90
Adventure	3.33	4.97	2.65
Social interaction	4.92	5.42	3.50
Relax and escape	5.31	5.51	**4.52**
N=	200	171	105

Note: Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important

Appendix 9.16 Cluster Analysis Based upon Three Pull Motivational Factors

	Pull-motive enthusiasts	Pull-motive moderates
Education and VFR attractions	3.45	4.79
Cultural, historical attractions	3.99	5.00
Safe, clean and calm	4.76	5.87
N=	212	267

Note: Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important

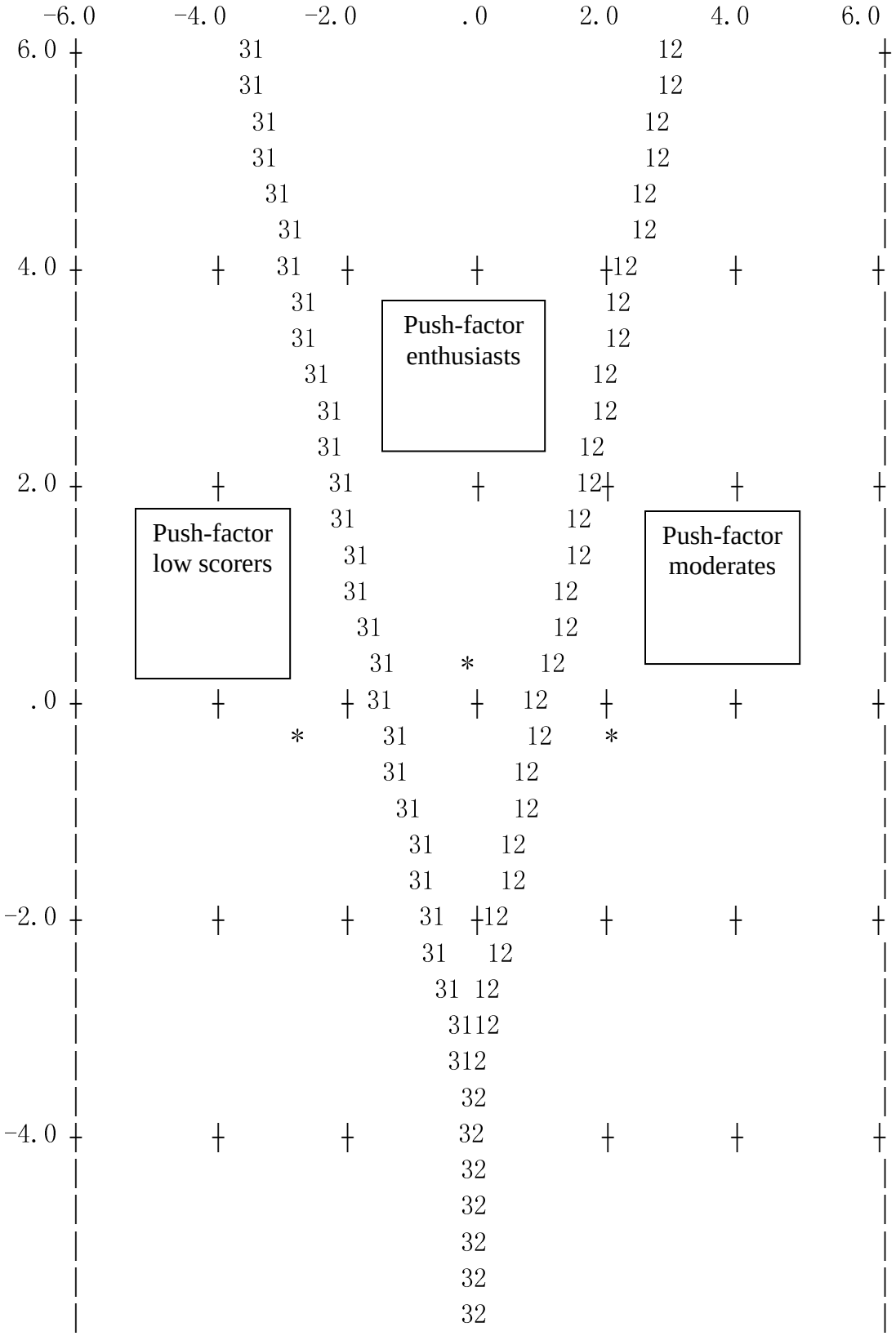
Appendix 9.17 Summary of Four-Group Discriminant Analysis Results

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Canonical Correlation	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	Sig.
1	3.14	95.3	.871	0.209	737.916	0.000
2	0.16	4.7	.367	0.865	68.405	0.000

Appendix 9.18 Summary of Three-Group Discriminant Analysis Results

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Canonical Correlation	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	Sig.
1	1.88	100.0	.806	0.350	498.657	0.000

Appendix 9.19 Territorial Map of Push Factors

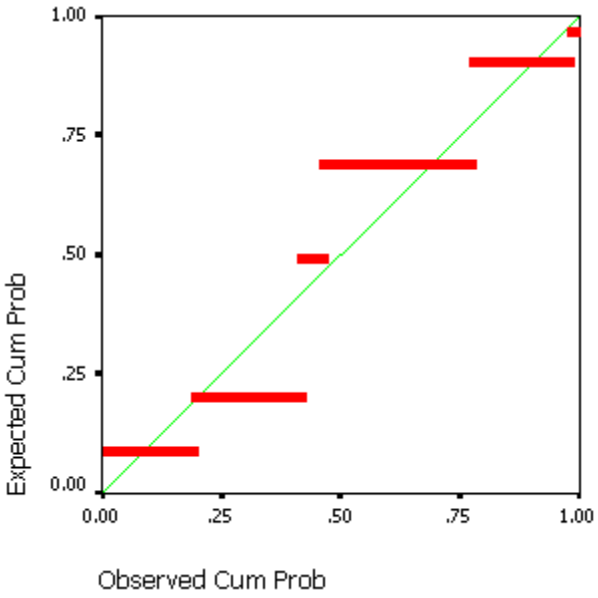


-6.0 ┼ 32 ┼
-6.0 -4.0 -2.0 .0 2.0 4.0 6.0
Canonical Discriminant Function 1

Appendix 9.20 Regression Analysis of Push and Pull Motive Clusters

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Pull motive clusters	29.977 **	0.06	2.408	-.388	1.964	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: push motive clusters 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

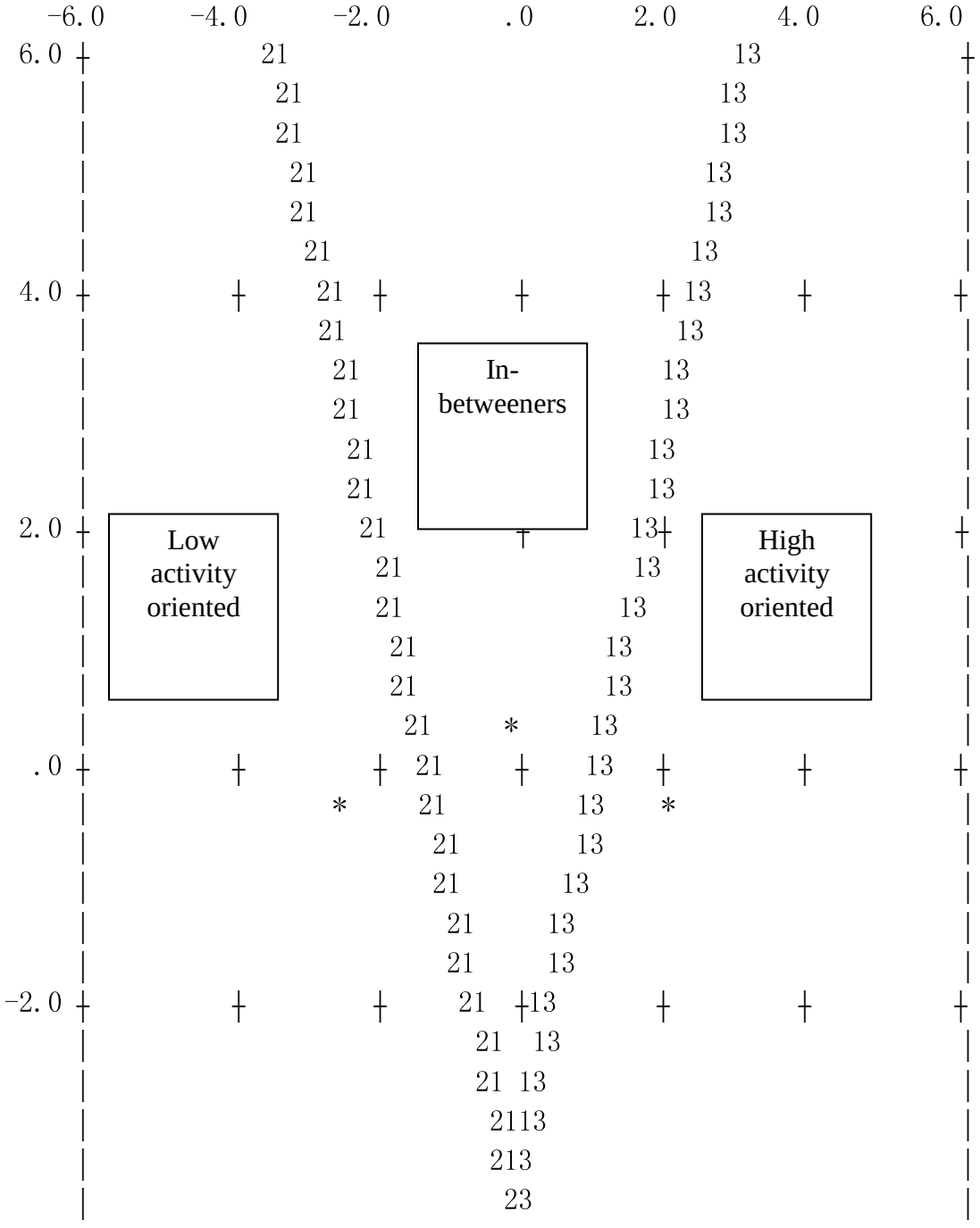
Appendix 9.21 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Push and Pull Motive Clusters

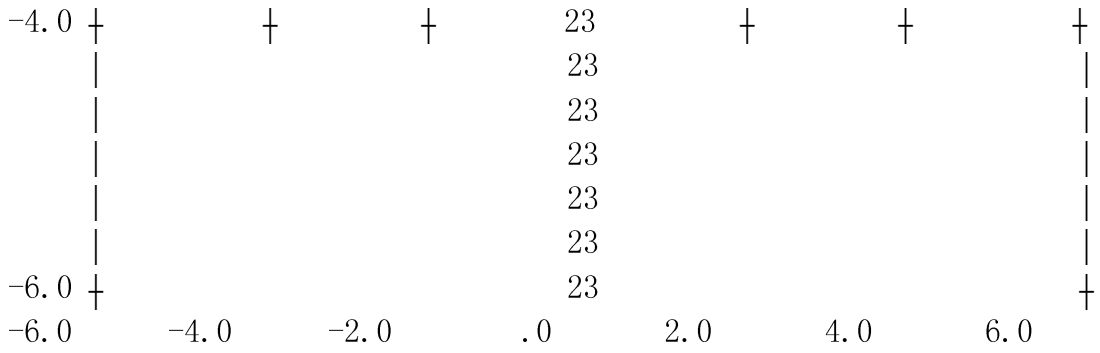


Appendix 9.22 Summary of Ten-Group Discriminant Analysis Results

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Canonical Correlation	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	Sig.
1	3.37	95.5	.878	0.197	560.872	0.000
2	0.16	4.5	.372	0.862	51.429	0.000

Appendix 9.23 Territorial Map of Travel Activity Factors





Appendix 9.24 Comparison among Age Groups on Push and Pull Motive Factors

	19-23 years old	24-28 years old	29-33 years old	F-value
Exploration and novelty reason	4.87	4.65	4.53	5.04*
Adventure reason	4.02	3.76	3.41	6.19*
Education and VFR attractions	4.44	4.15	4.00	6.15*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 9.25 Comparison between Genders on Pull motive Factor

	Male		Female		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	*t*
Culture, history and natural attractions	4.41	0.948	4.66	0.927	-2.87*****

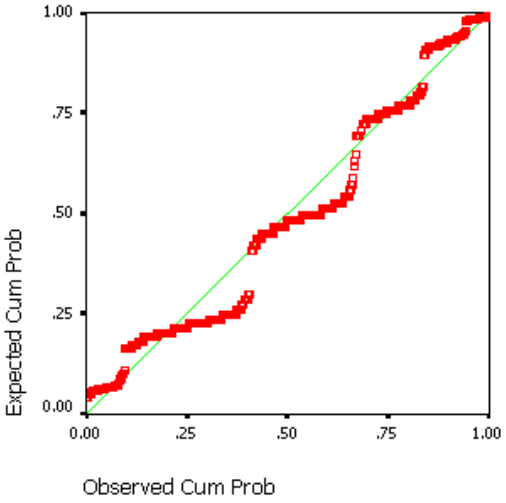
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 9.26 Regression Analysis of the Number of Overnight Trips and Travel Party Size and "Relax and Escape Seeking"

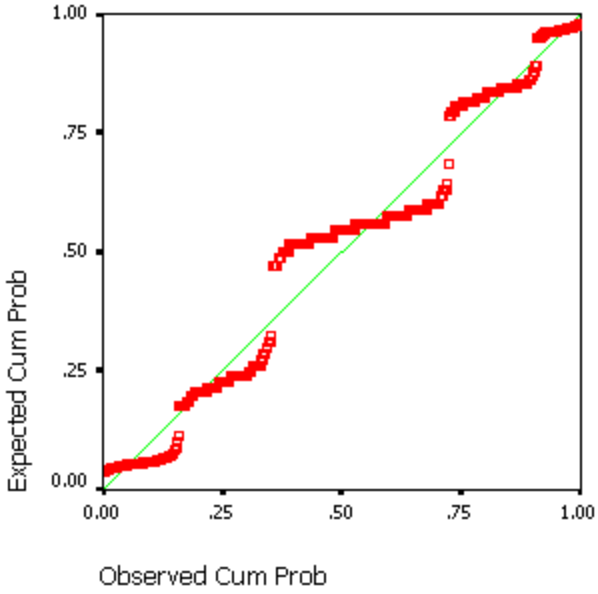
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Number of overnight trips	5.274*	0.01	5.015	0.069	2.043	1.000	1.000
Travel party size	4.918*	0.01	5.009	0.077	2.058	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: relax and escape seeking
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 9.27 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between the Number of Overnight Trips and "relax and escape seeking"



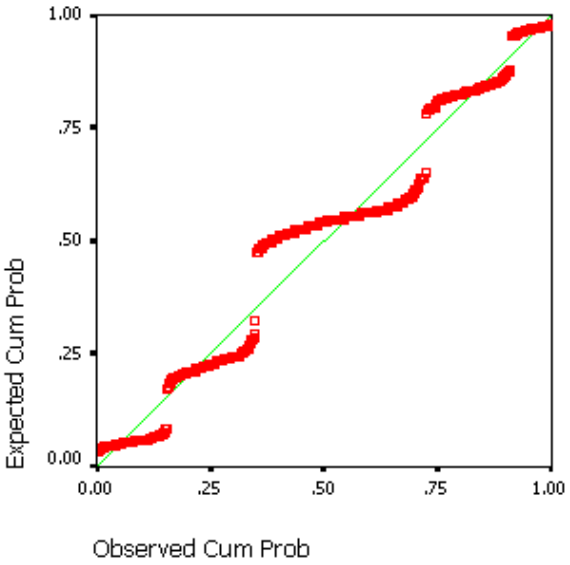
Appendix 9.28 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Party Size and "Relax and Escape Seeking"



Appendix 9.29 Regression Analysis of Travel Party Size and "Education and VFR Attractions"

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Travel party size	4.109*	0.01	3.974	0.080	1.997	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: Education and VFR attractions 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 9.30 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Party Size and "Education and VFR Attractions"



Appendix 9.31 Comparison among Travel Party Size on "Education and VFR Attractions"

	1-2 people	3 people	4 people	5 people	6 people and more	F value
Education and VFR attractions	4.02	4.19	4.15	4.45	4.21	2.18**
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<0.05) only are presented 2. Mean ***1***=Of no importance, ***2***=Of little importance, ***3***=Of some importance, ***4***=Important, ***5***=Quite important, ***6***=Very important, ***7***=Extremely important 3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05						

Appendix 9.32 Regression Analysis of Age Groups and "Adventure" Activities

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Age groups	13.406**	0.03	5.387	-.246	2.172	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: adventure activities 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

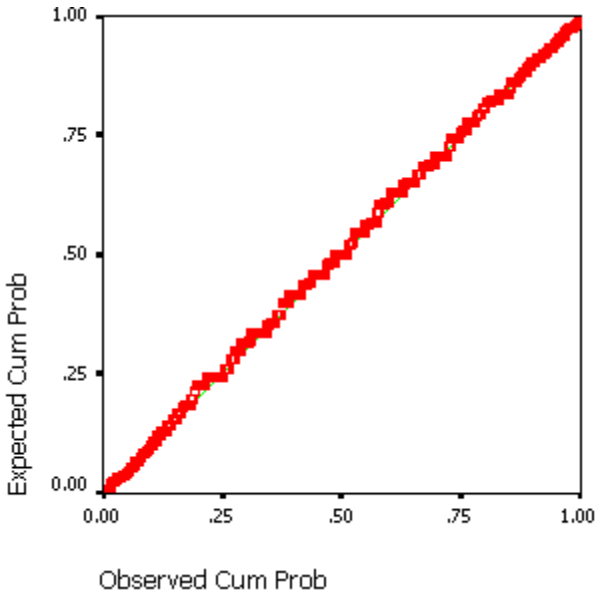
Appendix 9.33 Regression Analysis of Gender and Travel Activity Factors

	Gender						
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Adventure activities	18.647**	0.04	5.540	-.395	2.128	1.000	1.000
Native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife	7.230*	0.02	4.247	.258	2.077	1.000	1.000
Local sightseeing and shopping	15.101**	0.03	3.615	.415	2.089	1.000	1.000
Sports and wine	3.941*	0.01	4.398	-.228	1.922	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: adventure activities, native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife, local sightseeing and shopping, sports and wine 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

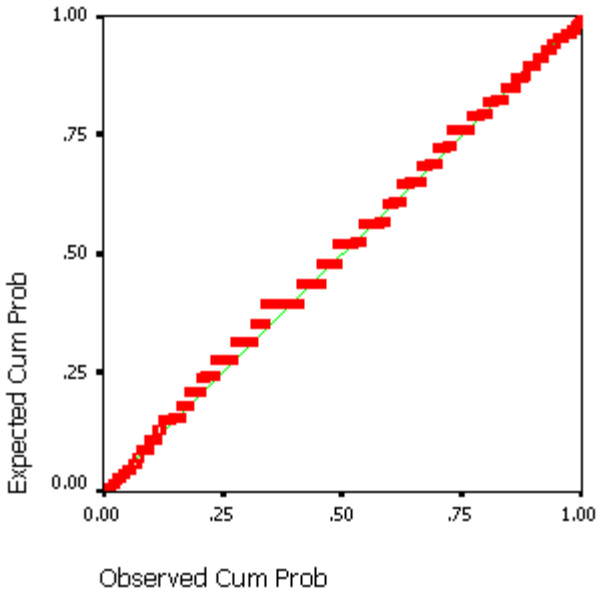
Appendix 9.34 Regression Analysis of Marital Status and "Relaxation"

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Marital status	5.84*	0.01	4.933	.246	1.878	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: relaxation 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

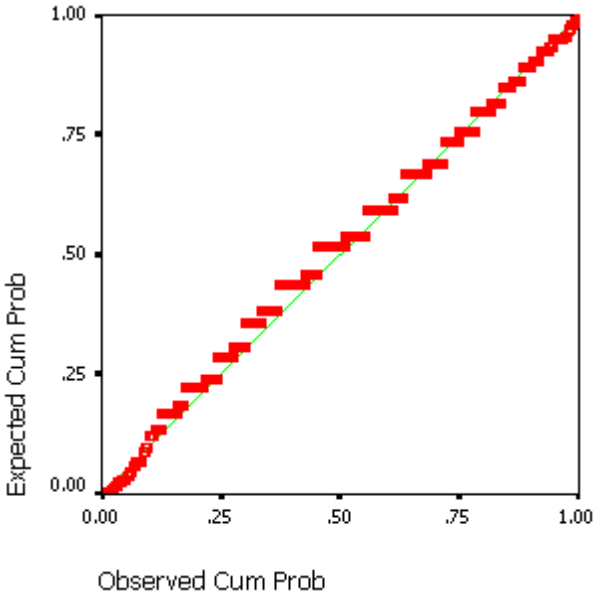
Appendix 9.35 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Age Groups and "Adventure" Activities



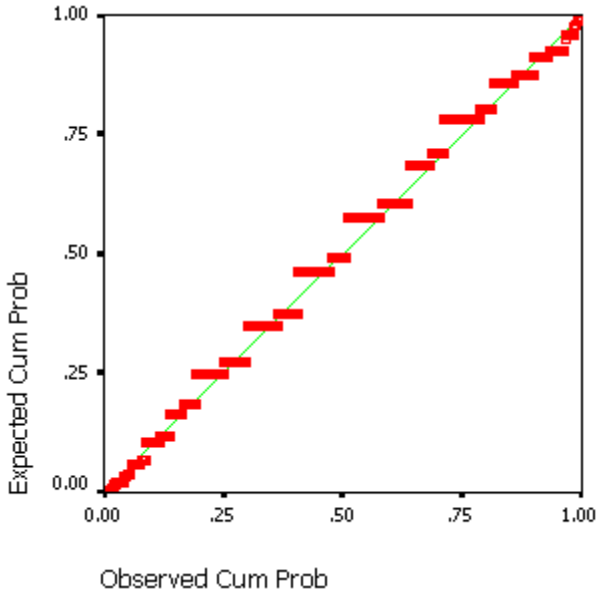
Appendix 9.36 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Gender and "Adventure" Activities



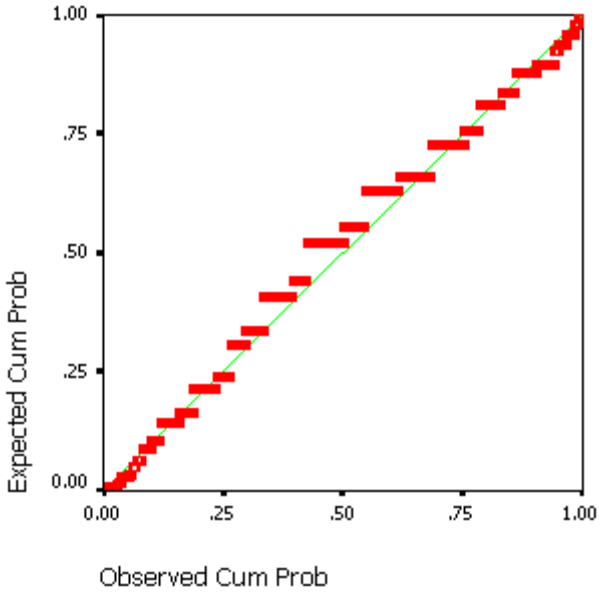
Appendix 9.37 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Gender and "Native, Aaboriginal Culture and Indigenous Wildlife"



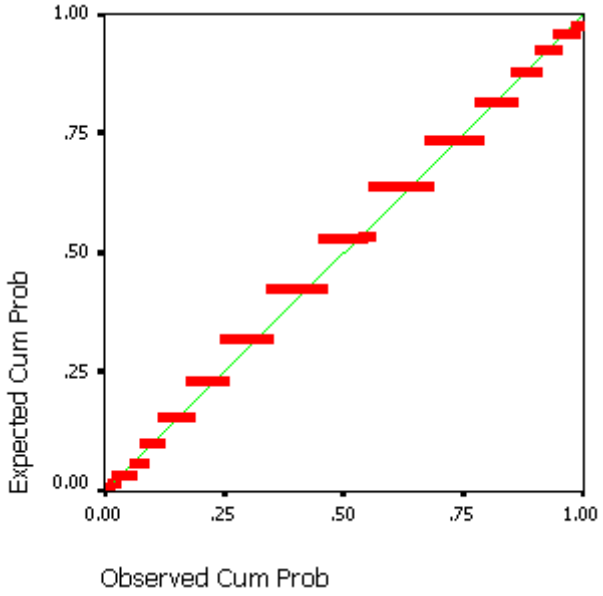
Appendix 9.38 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Gender and "Local Sightseeing and Shopping"



Appendix 9.39 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Gender and "Sports and Wine"



Appendix 9.40 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Marital Status and "Relaxation"



Appendix 9.41 Comparison among Age Groups on "Adventure" Activity Factor

	19-23 years old	24-28 years old	29-33 years old	F-value
Adventure activity factor	5.07	4.97	4.54	8.47**

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 9.42 Comparison between Genders on Travel Activity Factors

	Male		Female		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	*t*
Adventure	5.15	0.91	4.75	0.94	4.32**
Native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife	4.50	1.08	4.76	0.95	-2.69*
Local sightseeing and shopping	4.03	1.25	4.45	1.06	-3.89**
Sports and wine	4.17	1.23	3.94	1.16	1.99*

Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 9.43 Comparison between Marital Status on "Relaxation"

	Single		Married or in de facto relationship		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	*t*
Relaxation	5.18	0.93	5.43	0.86	-2.42*

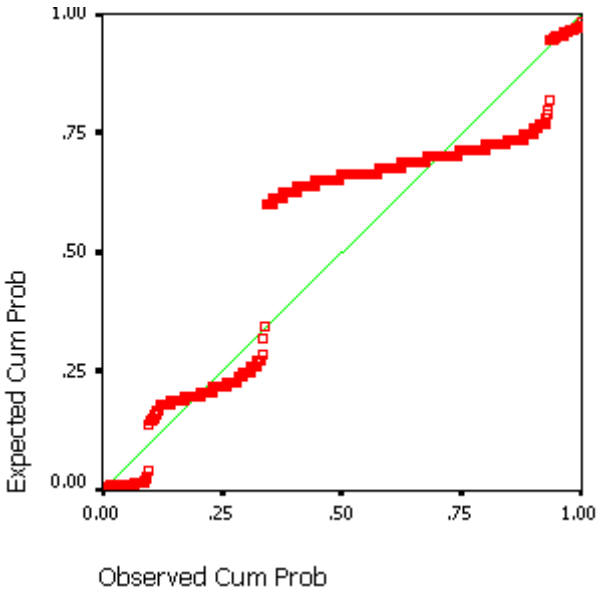
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. * * p<0.001 * p<0.05

Appendix 9.44 Regression Analysis of Overall Satisfaction and Travel Activity Factors

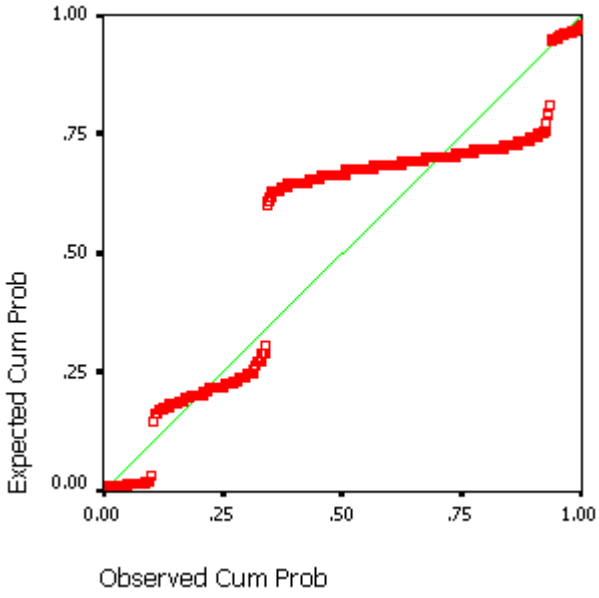
	Overall trip satisfaction						
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Relaxation	7.50 *	0.01	4.674	.156	1.883	1.000	1.000
Historical, culture and sightseeing	5.41 *	0.01	4.120	.128	2.172	1.000	1.000
Unique wildlife cruise	7.84 *	0.02	4.700	.154	2.226	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: adventure activities, native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife, local sightseeing and shopping, sports and wine
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

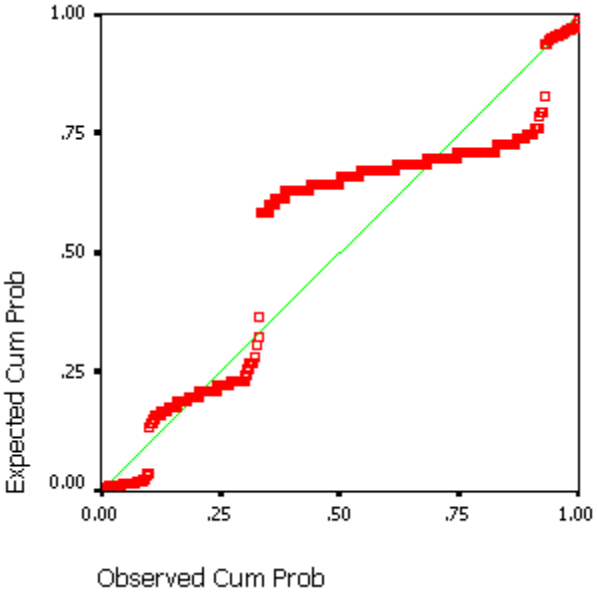
Appendix 9.45 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and "Relaxation"



Appendix 9.46 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and "Historical, Culture and Sightseeing"



Appendix 9.47 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and "Unique Wildlife Cruise"



Appendix 9.48 Comparison among Levels of Student Overall Satisfaction on Travel Activity Factors

	Less satisfied	Moderately	Satisfied	Very satisfied	F-value
Relaxation	5.41	4.90	5.29	5.81	10.243**
Historical, culture and sightseeing	4.69	4.33	4.61	5.10	6.78**
Unique wildlife cruise	5.16	5.05	5.32	5.55	3.67*

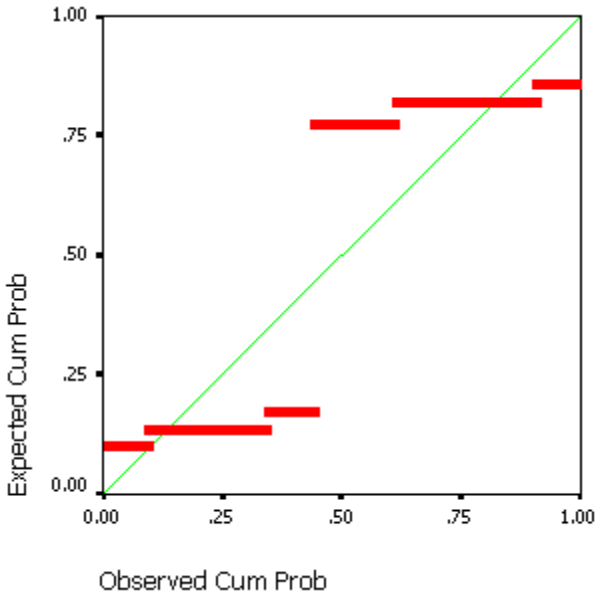
Note: 1. Results showing significant differences (<.05) only are presented.
2. Mean ***1***=Of no attractive, ***2***=Of little attractive, ***3***=Of some attractive, ***4***=Attractive, ***5***=Quite attractive, ***6***=Very attractive, ***7***=Extremely attractive
3. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 9.49 Regression Analysis of Age Groups and Pull Motive Clusters

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Age groups	5.706*	0.01	1.712	-.0.08	2.029	1.000	1.000

Note: 1. Dependent variable: pull motive clusters
2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05

Appendix 9.50 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Age Groups and Pull Motive Clusters

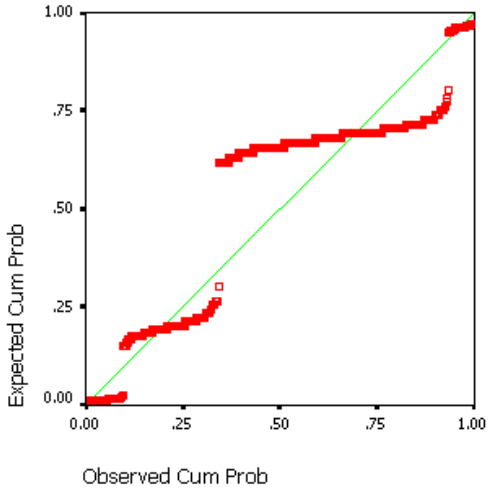


Appendix 10

Appendix 10.1 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Travel Motivation on Overall Student Satisfaction

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Relax and escape seeking	4.11*	0.01	3.234	.078	1.974	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: Student overall satisfaction in NZ; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.2 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and Overall Student Satisfaction

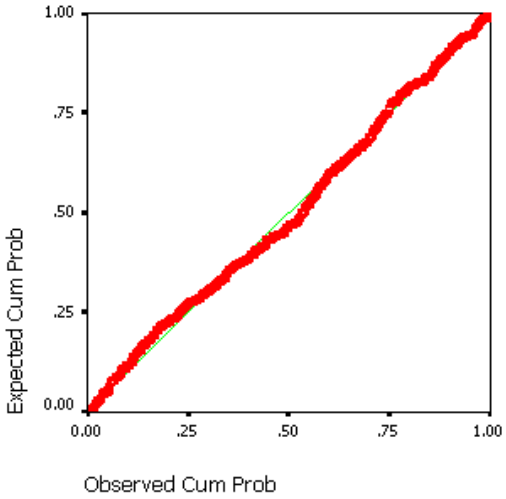


Appendix 10.3 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Travel Motivation on Travel Activity

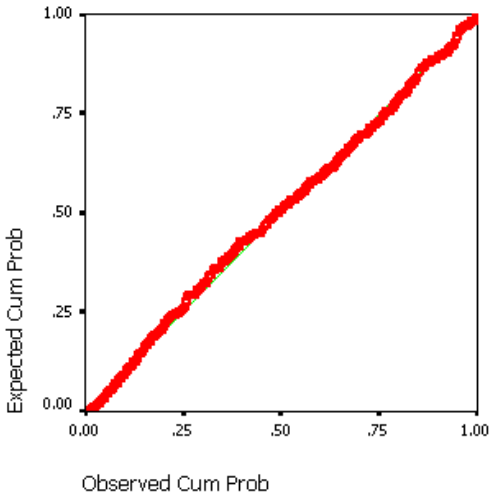
	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Adventure seeking, Exploration and novelty seeking	55.38**	0.23	2.690	.251 , .272	2.237	.786, .786	1.273, 1.273
Note: 1. Dependent variable: travel activity factors; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Cultural, historical and natural attractions, Safe, clean and calm destinations	67.89**	0.25	1.794	.473 , .133	1.966	.890, .890	1.124, 1.124
Note: 1. Dependent variable: native aboriginal culture and indigenous wildlife; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Cultural, historical and natural attractions, Safe, clean and calm destinations, Exploration and novelty seeking, Relax and escape seeking	25.61**	0.20	2.279	.192, .131, .165 .111	1.912	.764, .650, .685 .683	1.309, 1.538, 1.460 1.463
Note: 1. Dependent variable: relaxation; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Cultural, historical and natural attractions, Safe, clean and calm destinations, Adventure seeking	30.40**	0.18	2.137	.233, .197 .091	2.064	.845, .853, .918	1.183, 1.172, 1.089
Note: 1. Dependent variable: historic, cultural and sightseeing; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Exploration and novelty seeking, Safe, clean and calm destinations, Cultural, historical and natural attractions	30.56**	0.18	2.556	.207, .218 .128	2.103	.704, .766, .801	1.420, 1.306, 1.249
Note: 1. Dependent variable: unique wildlife cruise; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Education and VFR attractions, Cultural, historical and natural attractions	41.90**	0.17	1.811	.379 .143	1.920	.867, .867	1.154, 1.154
Note: 1. Dependent variable: special events and sits visit; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Education and VFR attractions, Cultural, historical and natural attractions	14.38**	0.06	2.729	.226 .132	2.047	.869, .869	1.150, 1.150
Note: 1. Dependent variable: local sightseeing and shopping; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Education and VFR attractions, Cultural, historical and natural attractions	19.43**	0.09	2.148	.261 .171	1.926	.855, .855	1.170, 1.170
Note: 1. Dependent variable: sports and wine; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Safe, clean and calm destinations, Education and VFR attractions, Social interaction	23.75**	0.14	2.454	.292, .114 .108	2.046	.783, .746, .735	1.277, 1.340, 1.360
Note: 1. Dependent variable: underwater exploration; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							
Relax and escape seeking, Exploration and novelty seeking	15.73**	0.07	2.354	.216 .224	2.105	.850, .850	1.177, 1.177
Note: 1. Dependent variable: entertainment; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

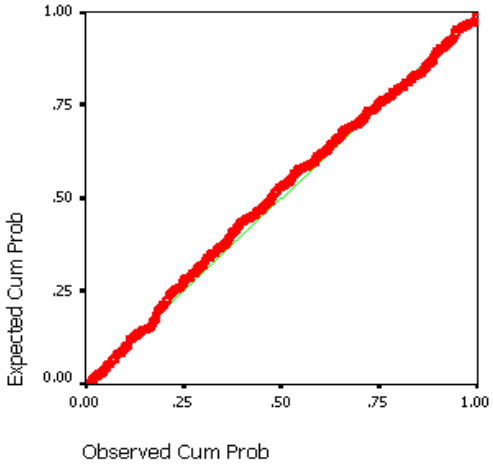
Appendix 10.4 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Adventure" Activity



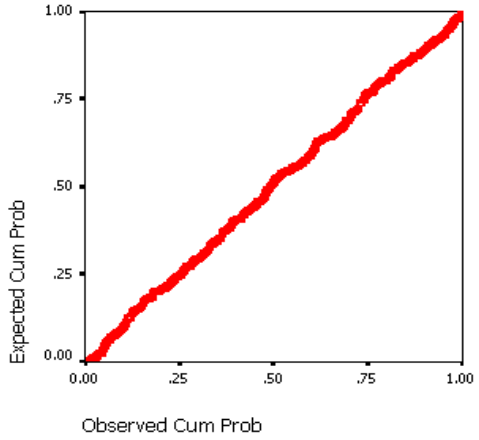
Appendix 10.5 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Native Aboriginal Culture and Indigenous Wildlife" Activity



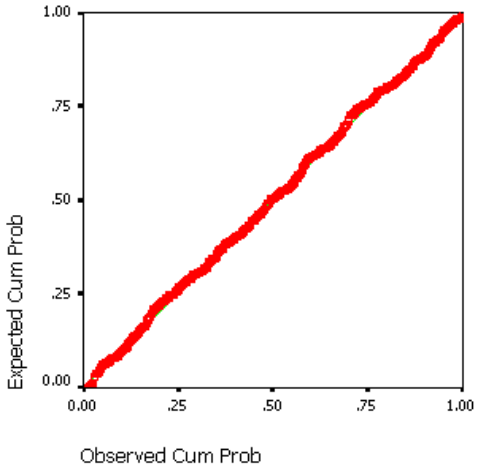
Appendix 10.6 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Relaxation" Activity



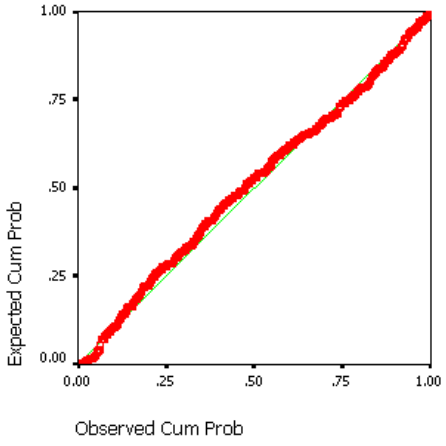
Appendix 10.7 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Historic, Cultural and Sightseeing" Activity



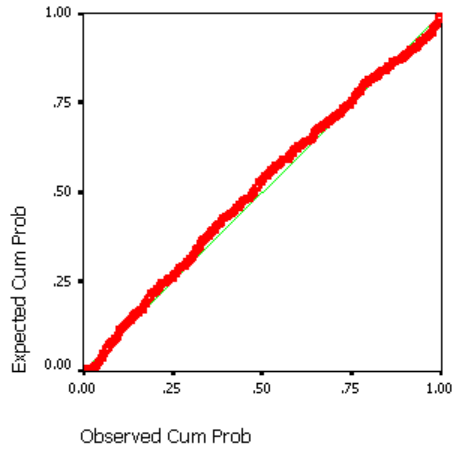
Appendix 10.8 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Unique Wildlife Cruise" Activity



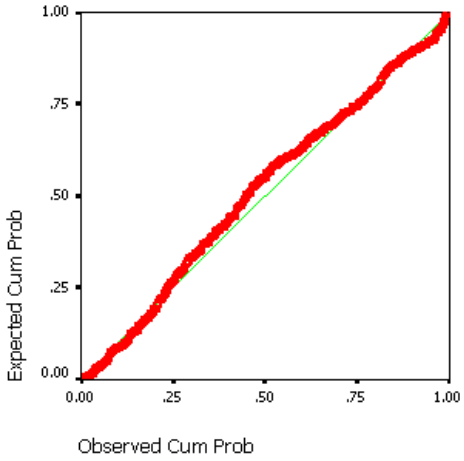
Appendix 10.9 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Special Events and Sites Visit" Activity



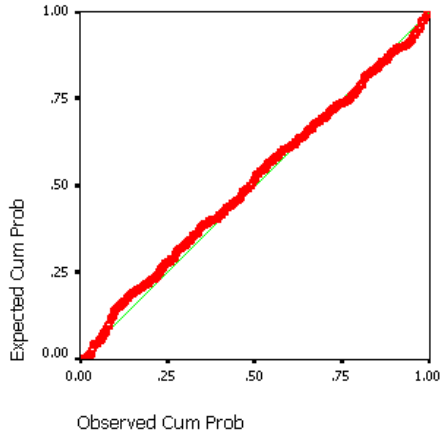
Appendix 10.10 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Local Sightseeing and Shopping" Activity



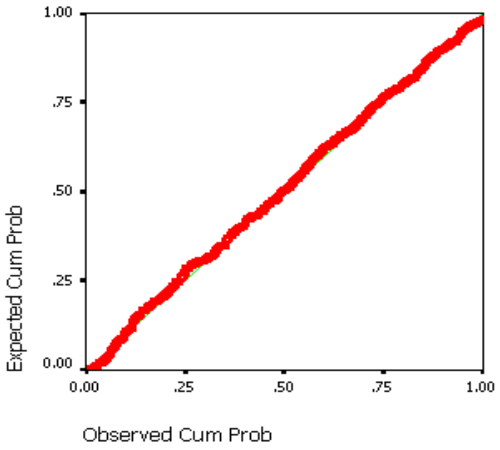
Appendix 10.11 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Sports and Wine" Activity



Appendix 10.12 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Underwater Exploration" Activity



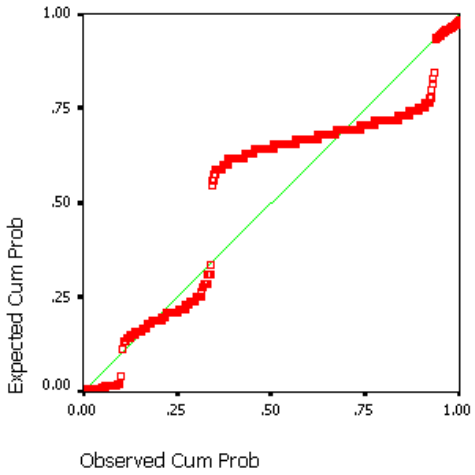
Appendix 10.13 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Motivation and "Entertainment" Activity



Appendix 10.14 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Travel Activity on Overall Student Satisfaction

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Historic, cultural and sightseeing	7.66*	0.02	3.045	.132	1.972	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: Overall student satisfaction; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

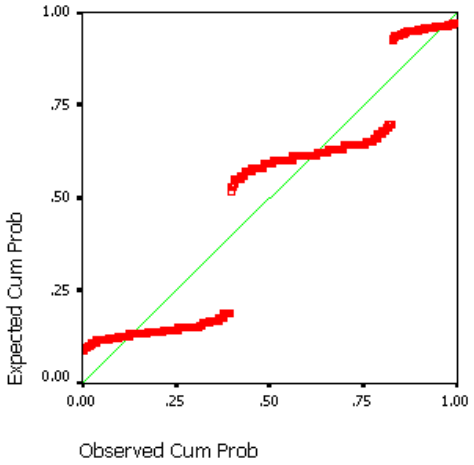
Appendix 10.15 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Activity and Overall Student Satisfaction



Appendix 10.16 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Travel Motivation on the Length of Student Trips

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Adventure seeking	4.62*	0.01	1.569	.057	1.845	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: length of student trips; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.17 Residuals analysis of the relationship between travel motive factors and length of student trips



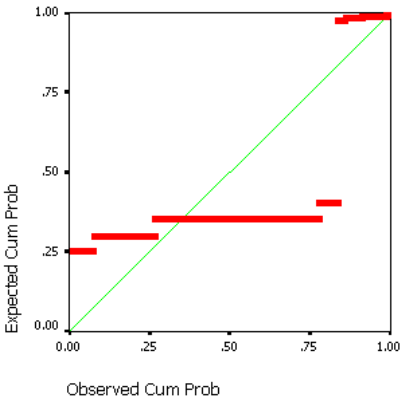
Appendix 10.18 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Satisfaction with Individual Travel Motive Attribute on Overall Student Satisfaction

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
To mentally relax, To go sightseeing	19.51**	0.12	1.893	.181 .147	1.914	.744, .744	1.344, 1.344
Note: 1. Dependent variable: overall student satisfaction; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.19 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Overall Student Satisfaction on the Likelihood of Recommendations

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Overall trip satisfaction in NZ	5.62*	0.01	1.362	-.054	2.004	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: the likelihood of recommendations to others; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

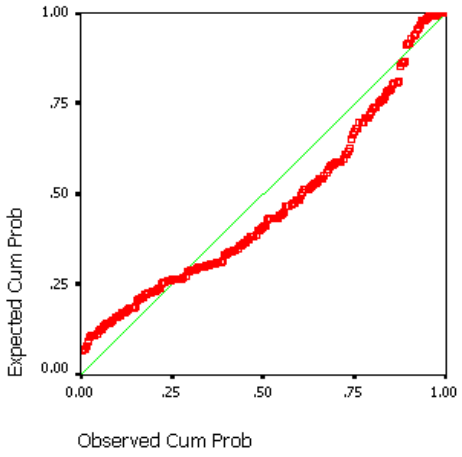
Appendix 10.20 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Student Satisfaction and the Likelihood of Recommendations



Appendix 10.21 Regression Analysis of VF Travel Inhibitors on the Level of VF Visits in the Future

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Visa, Physical conditions	7.36*	0.06	1.445	-.237 .222	1.780	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: the level of VF visits in the future; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

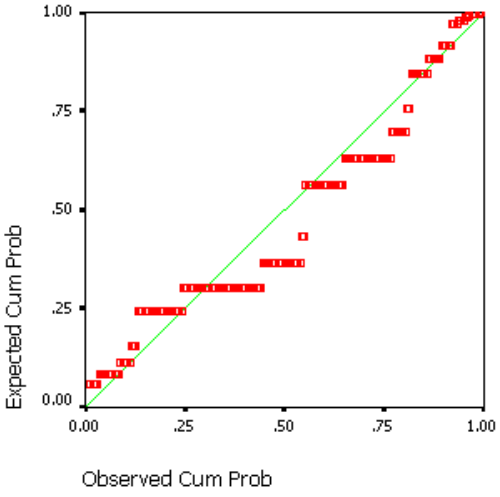
Appendix 10.22 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between VF Travel Inhibitor and the Level of VF Visits in the Future



Appendix 10.23 Regression Analysis of VR Satisfaction on the Level of VR Visits in the Future

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
VR satisfaction	4.05*	0.02	.779	.207	2.079	0.993	1.008
Note: 1. Dependent variable: the level of VR visits in the future; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

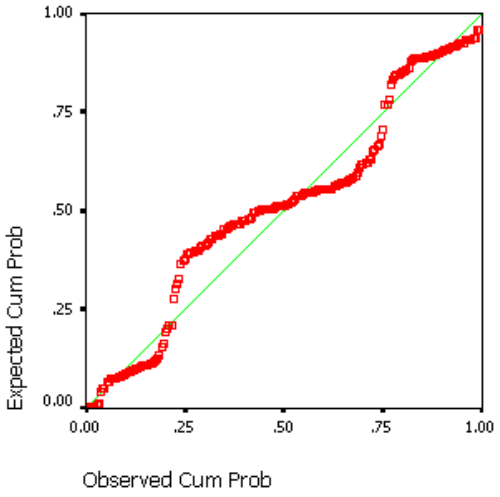
Appendix 10.24 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between VR Satisfaction and the Level of VR Visits in the Future



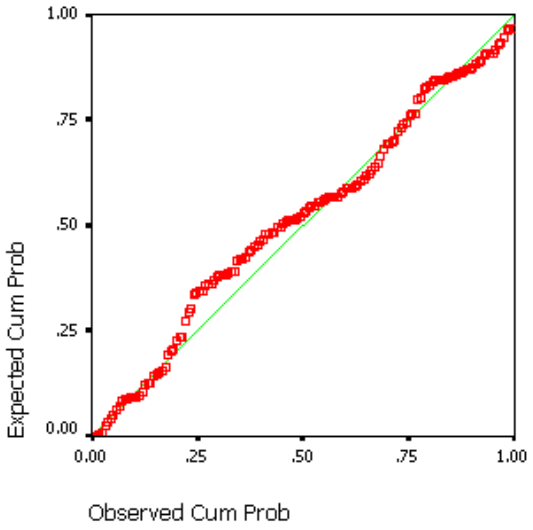
Appendix 10.25 Regression Analysis of VFR Travel Inhibitors on VFR Satisfaction

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient (*β*)	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
How many times you go back to China that influence your VRs to come over NZ	1.32	0.05	3.601	-.148	2.053	0.620	1.613
Interest to NZ destination, Visa, Travel costs that influence your VFs to come over NZ	2.05*	0.11	3.459	.179, .150 -.147	1.926	.764, .581, .682	1.309, 1.720, 1.467
Note: 1. Dependent variable: VR and VF satisfaction with their visits in NZ; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.26 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Inhibitor and VR satisfaction



Appendix 10.27 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Travel Inhibitor and VF Satisfaction



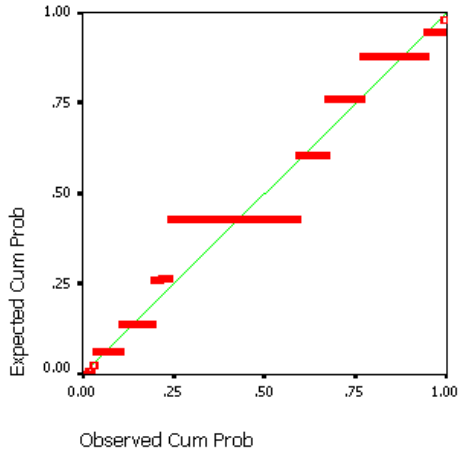
Appendix 10.28 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Overall Student Satisfaction on VR Satisfaction

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Student overall trip satisfaction in NZ	27.69**	0.10	2.806	.333	2.049	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: VR satisfaction with their visits in NZ; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

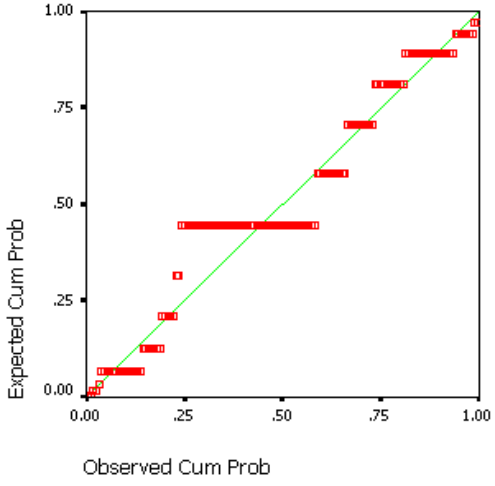
Appendix 10.29 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Overall Student Satisfaction on VF Satisfaction

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Student overall trip satisfaction in NZ	11.49*	0.08	3.094	.252	1.980	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: VF satisfaction with their visits in NZ; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.30 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Student Satisfaction and VR Satisfaction



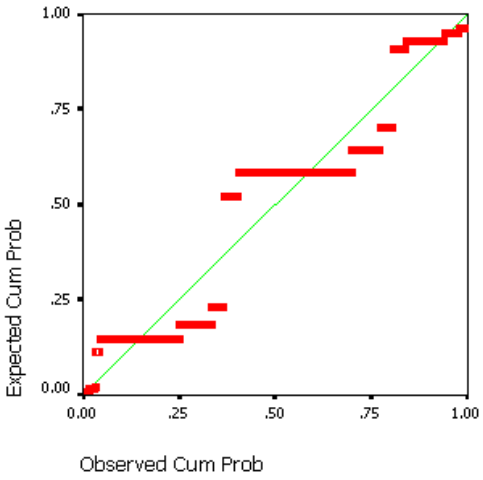
Appendix 10.31 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Student Satisfaction and VF Satisfaction



Appendix 10.32 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Overall Student Satisfaction on the Likelihood of Receiving Repeat VFR Visits

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Student overall trip satisfaction in NZ	4.16*	0.01	3.332	.125	2.059	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: the likelihood of receiving repeat VFR visits; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.33 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Student Satisfaction and the Likelihood of Receiving Repeat VFR Visits



Appendix 10.34 Regression Analysis of the Impact of Overall Student Satisfaction on the Likelihood of Being a Host for VFRs in the Future

	F	*R* square	Constant (*β*)	Regression coefficient *(β)*	Durbin-Watson	Tolerance	VIF
Student overall trip satisfaction in NZ	11.18*	0.04	3.185	.213	2.042	1.000	1.000
Note: 1. Dependent variable: the likelihood of being a host for VFRs in the future; 2. ** p<0.001 *p<0.05							

Appendix 10.35 Residuals Analysis of the Relationship between Overall Student Satisfaction and the Likelihood of Being a Host for VFRs in the Future