CHINESE TOURISTS' INTENTIONS TO VISIT SOUTH AFRICA:

AN EXTENDED MODEL OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED

BEHAVIOUR

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2014

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By

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (Business Management)

in the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences

at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

December 2014

Promoter: Prof Laetitia Radder

DECLARATION

I, Xiliang Han (20309634), hereby declare that the thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Business Management) is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment or completion of any postgraduate qualification to another University or for another qualification.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

The South African National Department of Tourism has recently initiated the National Tourism Sector Strategy aimed at developing a sustainable tourism economy, and making the country a Top 20 global tourism destination by 2020. China is one of South Africa's major non-African sources of tourist arrivals. To ensure a growing share of this booming market, South African tourism scholars and practitioners have to pay close attention to the behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists, particularly their destination choice behaviour.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) – an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) – can serve as a basis for researching destination choice. According to the TPB literature, intention is the most immediate and important determinant of behaviour. Three direct predictors of intention, namely, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control, are functions of latent behavioural, normative, and control beliefs, respectively. The TPB is parsimonious but open to the inclusion of additional predictors if there is evidence that these predictors may explain a significant proportion of the variance in intention and behaviour after the basic predictors (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) have been accounted for. The current research successfully extended the TPB model for predicting potential Chinese tourists' intentions to visit South Africa by adding two additional variables: travel motivation and travel constraints. The push-pull motivation framework discussed in the study postulates that people travel because they are pushed by internal forces (inner needs) and pulled by external forces (destination attributes). Typical barriers to travel include intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints.

The new model makes an important contribution to the literature on destination choice, and provides South Africa's destination marketers with

suggestions for attracting and serving Chinese tourists. In addition, the research shows that both travel motivation and travel constraints can be used as bases for segmenting the outbound Chinese tourist market interested in visiting South Africa.

A survey approach and a structured questionnaire distributed electronically to the online panel members of a Chinese market research company were instrumental in collecting the empirical data for the study. The questionnaire was originally written in English and translated into Chinese (Mandarin) via a blind translation-back-translation method. Attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were all operationalised as unidimensional and used scales adapted from previous studies. New scales were developed for travel motivation and travel constraints – both operationalised as multidimensional. Quota sampling, used to identify respondents aged 18 or older and living in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, resulted in 630 usable questionnaires obtained from 1,510 sent invitation e-mails, yielding a response rate of 41.7%.

The raw data collected were prepared through the sequential steps of editing, coding, and filing, and then analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive analysis suggested that broadening personal horizons, viewing the natural scenery, and seeing something different were the top motives for visiting South Africa, while language, fear of crime, and lack of travel companions were the top barriers to visiting South Africa. According to the factor analysis, travel motivation had three underlying dimensions – learning, escape, and aesthetics and appreciation, while operational, risk and fear, and social barriers were three underlying dimensions of travel constraints. Regression analysis showed that the proposed extended TPB model had higher predictive power for visit intention than both TRA and TPB models; the basic predictors – attitude, subjective norms, and perceived

control – all had a significant impact on visit intention; and in terms of the additional predictors, learning, operational constraints, and social constraints had a significant impact on visit intention. The analysis of variance indicated that travel frequency and age were the most profound background factors with an influence on the extended TPB model. Finally, cluster analysis resulted in two market segments with distinct profiles, that is, High-Motivation/Low-Constraint (HMLC) tourists and Low-Motivation/High-Constraint (LMHC) tourists.

Based on the theoretical and empirical findings of the current research, it is recommended that destination marketers in South Africa:

- advertise specific benefits of touring South Africa, namely, increasing knowledge, relieving stress, and enjoying high environmental quality, to advance Chinese residents' perceptions of the country;

- develop tourism experiences that can be taken in a week or shorter to cater for the unique annual leave and public holiday policy in China;

- launch a media relations campaign in China to ensure that the facts about South Africa are communicated without distortion;

- collaborate with other destination stakeholders such as government and businesses, to actively attract and retain Chinese tourists for example by educating the public about Chinese culture and training employees to improve the quality of service;

- target the HMLC tourists via the Internet (particularly the social media) and by developing holiday packages that include activities related to cultural tourism, rest and relaxation, and nature-based tourism; and

- target the LMHC tourists by cooperating with local travel agencies and by developing holiday packages that highlight the diversity of tourism activities and offer value-added products/services.

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ADS	Approved Destination Status
ANOVA	ANalysis Of VAriance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CR	Composite Reliability
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
HMLC	High-Motivation/Low-Constraint
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LIS	Library and Information Services
LMHC	Low-Motivation/High-Constraint
MI	Modification Indices
MODE	Motivation and Opportunity as DEterminations
MRA	Multiple Regression Analysis
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
NTSS	National Tourism Sector Strategy
RECH	Research Ethics Committee: Human
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SANDT	South African National Department of Tourism
SAT	South African Tourism
TCL	Travel Career Ladder
TCP	Travel Career Pattern
TDM	Tourism Destination Management
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action

UNWTO   United Nations World Tourism Organisation

VIF   Variance Inflation Factor

WTTC   World Travel & Tourism Council

CHAPTER 1 OVERVIEW

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(TPB)   (Results)

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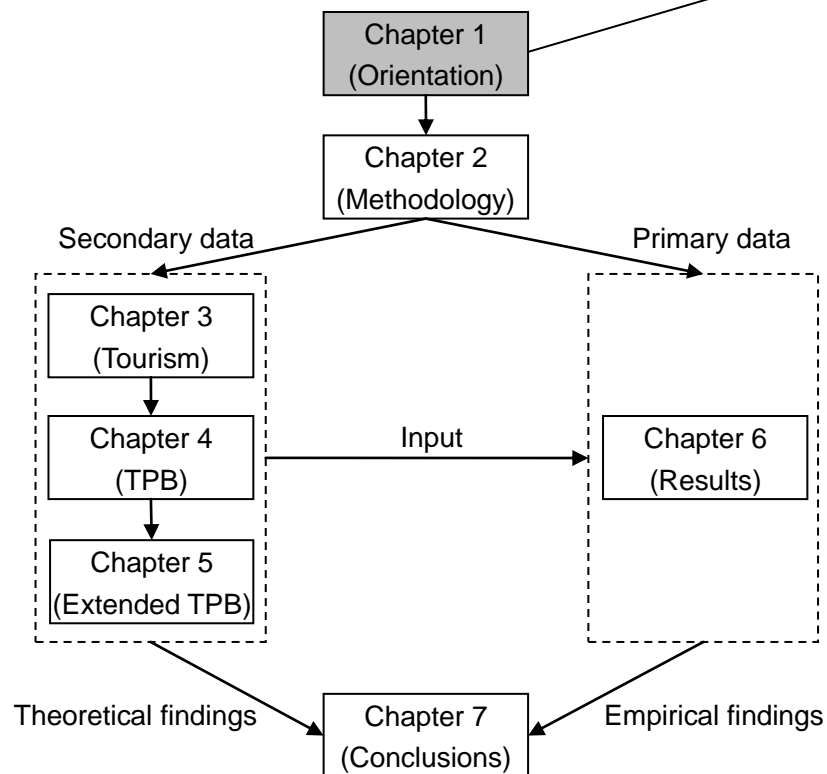
CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries, representing a major source of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employment, investment, and exports (World Travel & Tourism Council [WTTC] 2011:2). During 2013, the tourism industry contributed to 9.5% (US$ 7 trillion) of global GDP, and provided one in 11 (266 million) of the world's total jobs, 4.4% (US$ 754 billion) of global investment, and 5.4% (US$ 1.3 trillion) of the world's exports (WTTC 2014:1).

South Africa remains the top tourist destination in Sub-Saharan Africa (United Nations World Tourism Organisation [UNWTO] 2013:12). International tourist arrivals to South Africa reached a total of 9,188,368 in 2012. This shows an increase of 10.2% (849,014) over 2011, far exceeding the global average growth of 3.9% (South African Tourism [SAT] 2013a:6). According to the latest statistics, the first three quarters of 2013 saw 7,044,339 tourist arrivals to the country, an increase of 4.4% (293,703) compared with the same period in 2012 (SAT 2013b:8, 2013c:7, 2013d:8).

The hosting of numerous mega-sport events since 1994, such as the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and the 2010 Soccer World Cup, has arguably boosted the South African tourism system by attracting foreign tourists, expanding tourism infrastructure, and enhancing destination images (Fourie & Spronk 2011:76). Of particular importance is the country's scenic beauty, diverse wildlife, vibrant culture, and relative novelty (George 2010:806). However, it is widely accepted that there are still many unexploited means to achieve tourism growth in addition to sporting events. Against this

background, since 2011, the South African National Department of Tourism (SANDT) has implemented the National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) to grow a sustainable tourism economy in South Africa, with the vision of making the country a Top 20 global tourism destination by 2020 (SANDT 2011:3).

As part of the broader tourism growth strategy, the SAT – the national tourism agency mainly responsible for marketing South Africa as a global destination – has also updated its tourism marketing strategy since 2011. One of the highlights of this marketing strategy was the selection and segmentation of 11 target markets (i.e. Australia, China, France, Germany, India, Japan, Kenya, the Netherlands, Nigeria, the United Kingdom, and the United States), owing to their vast potential to contribute to South African inbound tourism. It was estimated that the number of potential tourists from these markets is around 76.5 million, with the size of target (focus) segments being over 28.1 million consumers (SAT 2010b:73). For the Chinese market, the number of potential tourists and the size of target segments were estimated to be approximately 12.9 million and 6.3 million, respectively (SAT 2010a:26).

China is of particular relevance to the current study because of South Africa's great potential to attract a larger share of the booming Chinese outbound market. With a population of over 1.3 billion and rapid economic development, China has become one of the major outbound-tourist-generating countries in the world. During 2012, the number of Chinese outbound tourists reached 83,182,700, up 18.4% over the previous year. China's outbound tourism market has become a US$ 102 billion business (Beattie 2014:27). By using an incidental target-market approach, Li, Harrill, Uysal, Burnett, and Zhan (2010:250-259) *conservatively* estimated the size of China's outbound tourism market to be close to 22 million people, among whom approximately 11.5 million have travelled or plan to travel to destinations outside Asia.

The Chinese government is implementing the Approved Destination Status (ADS) scheme to control and monitor the country's outbound tourism market, which means that Chinese citizens can only travel to destinations with ADS in organised group tours handled by licensed Chinese local travel agencies (Tse 2011:498). South Africa gained ADS in 2003 through a bilateral government agreement. Chinese tourists to South Africa numbered 132,334 in 2012, adding 47,451 arrivals to the 84,883 of 2011 (SAT 2013a:18). The 55.9% growth was much higher than the South African average growth of 10.2%. Although South Africa's share in Chinese outbound tourism is low, China ranked 4th among all the non-African source markets of tourist arrivals to South Africa in 2012 (SAT 2013a:23).

Chinese outbound tourism is becoming the focus of an increasing number of studies worldwide. A review of the literature shows that these studies include (but are not limited to) the following foci: macro-environmental factors (e.g. Tse & Hobson 2008:136-155), destination shopping (e.g. Xu & McGehee 2012:427-430), travel characteristics and preferences (e.g. Agrusa, Kim & Wang 2011:261-278), destination satisfaction (e.g. Liu 2008), perceived constraints (e.g. Li, Zhang, Mao & Deng 2011:629-643), travel expectations (e.g. Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline & Wang 2011:741-749), travel motivation (e.g. Hua & Yoo 2011:355-376), cultural values (e.g. Kwek & Lee 2010:129-141), and destination choice (e.g. Yun & Joppe 2011:459-489).

With regard to destination choice, earlier studies on Chinese outbound tourists focused mostly on short-haul destinations (e.g. Japan and Thailand); research on Chinese tourists' long-haul destinations is a recent phenomenon (Yun & Joppe 2011:464). Theoretically, the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour have served as a basis for some studies on destination choice (Hsu & Huang 2012:392), but the researcher could locate only six studies (i.e. Han, Lee & Lee 2011:45-74; Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417; Huang

& Hsu 2009:29-44; Lam & Hsu 2004:463-482; Quintal, Lee & Soutar 2010:797-805; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494) that applied these theories to Chinese outbound tourists. None of these studies selected South Africa as a destination for Chinese tourists as the current research does.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1991:179-211) is an extended version of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975:1-18) (see Section 4.7 of Chapter 4 for a detailed discussion). The major difference between the two theories is that the TRA attempts to account for rational, volitional behaviour only, while the TPB can explain behaviour over which people have incomplete volitional control. In doing so, the TPB incorporates perceived behavioural control as another determinant of intention and behaviour, distinct from attitude and subjective norms. There has been consistent evidence that the TPB is more effective than the TRA for predicting intention and behaviour in different settings, including tourism (e.g. Han, Hsu & Sheu 2010:331). The TPB is particularly important in the tourism domain, since it may explain consumers' complex decision making processes leading to the choice of a destination.

However, the TPB is open to the inclusion of additional predictors if there is evidence that they may explain a significant proportion of the variance in intention and behaviour after the basic predictors (i.e. attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) have been taken into account (Ajzen 1991:199). Among many other additional predictors, travel motivation (e.g. Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417) and travel constraints (e.g. Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494) seem to be conducive when predicting the behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination (see Sections 5.3 and 5.4 of Chapter 5 for a detailed explanation). Surprisingly, the specific roles of these two variables in Chinese travellers' decision making processes related to visiting South Africa have not been verified. The question driving the current research was therefore:

"Can an extended model of the theory of planned behaviour, which includes travel motivation and travel constraints in addition to attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, explain potential Chinese outbound tourists' intentions of travelling to South Africa?"

1.2   RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

Given the significance of the Chinese outbound tourism market, it is reasonable to believe that scholars and practitioners in the South African tourism sector would have a vested interest in understanding Chinese tourists' behaviour, particularly their destination choice behaviour. Despite the TPB being considered a powerful tool to predict intentions and actions in the destination choice context, empirical studies that adopted/adapted it to comprehend Chinese tourists' decision making processes when choosing a leisure travel destination seem hard to find. Exceptions are research that dealt with travelling to Hong Kong (Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417; Huang & Hsu 2009:29-44; Lam & Hsu 2004:463-482), to South Korea (Han et al 2011:45-74), and to Australia (Quintal et al 2010:797-805; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494). However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no single study has applied the TPB model as a basic theoretical framework to predict the travel intentions of potential Chinese tourists to South Africa, despite the fact that China has become one of South Africa's major inbound markets. In an attempt to help fill these voids, the current research aimed at *developing an extended model of the theory of planned behaviour for predicting potential Chinese tourists' intentions of choosing South Africa as a leisure travel destination.* It was expected that developing such a model would not only contribute to the literature on tourism destination choice, but also provide South Africa's destination marketers with ideas on how to better attract and serve Chinese tourists.

According to the TPB model (see Figure 1.1), intention is assumed to be the immediate antecedent of behaviour. The intention to perform a certain behaviour is determined by three major factors – a positive or negative evaluation of the behaviour (i.e. attitude), perceived social pressure to engage or not engage in the behaviour (i.e. subjective norms), and perceived capability to perform the behaviour (i.e. perceived control). As a general rule, the more favourable the attitude and subjective norms, and the greater the perceived control, the stronger should be the person's intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen 2008:537-538). By means of a meta-analytic review of 185 independent studies based on the TPB, Armitage and Conner (2001:471) report that the combination of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control account for 39% and 27%, respectively, of the variance in intention and behaviour. Background factors (e.g. demographic characteristics and personality traits) could indirectly influence intentions and behaviour by their effects on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of control (Ajzen & Fishbein 2005:197).

FIGURE 1.1: THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR
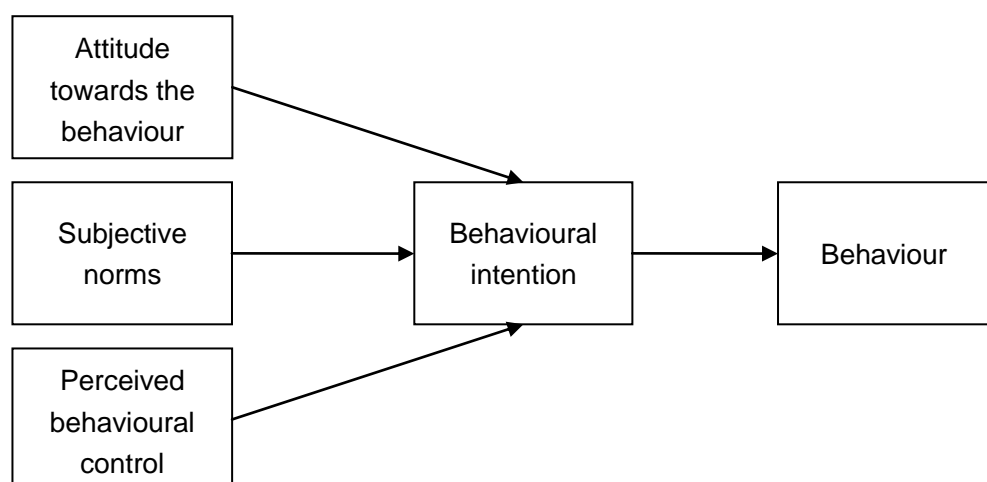
Source: Adapted from Ajzen (1991:182)

Literature (Lai, Li & Harrill 2013:136; Um & Crompton 1992:18-25) reveals that understanding travellers' destination choice decisions requires an understanding of both facilitating (e.g. motivational) and inhibiting (e.g. constraining) factors impacting these decisions. For this reason the researcher proposed adding two further constructs – travel motivation and travel constraints – to the original TPB model, in an attempt to enhance the model's predictive power for potential Chinese tourists' intentions to visit South Africa.

Travel motivation seems more influential at the early stage of the destination choice decision making process, while travel constraints seem more influential at the later stage of the process (Huang & Hsu 2005:195; Um & Crompton 1992:18-25). It has been suggested that both constructs are multidimensional, affected by socio-demographics, and ideal bases for market segmentation (e.g. Hua & Yoo 2011:355-376; Kau & Lim 2005:231-248; Li, Zhang et al 2011:629-643).

Given the preceding discussion, nine specific objectives were formulated for the present study. The first three objectives could be addressed theoretically; objectives four to eight could be addressed empirically; and the last objective could be addressed by a combination of theory and empirical results. These nine research objectives were to:

- review the literature related to the nature of international tourism, and the history, status quo, and development trends in China's outbound tourism and South Africa's inbound tourism;
- review the literature with respect to the TPB's basic components, namely, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, behavioural intention, and actual behaviour;
- review the literature regarding the constructs of travel motivation and travel constraints that were proposed as additional predictors of visit intention;

- identify the underlying dimensions of both travel motivation and travel constraints;

- examine the influence of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints on visit intention;

- compare three competing models (TRA, TPB, and the proposed extended TPB) in terms of their predictive power on visit intention;

- explore the impact of background factors (demographic and travel-related characteristics) on attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, travel constraints, and visit intention;

- segment the market of potential Chinese tourists to South Africa based on travel motivation and travel constraints; and

- arrive at conclusions based on theoretical and empirical findings and provide recommendations to destination marketers.

1.3   CONCEPTUALISATION AND HYPOTHESES

Considering the primary aim and specific objectives of the current research, this section provides a brief review of the literature regarding the influence of attitude on behaviour and the development and extension of the TPB model. This review, together with the discussion in Sections 1.1 and 1.2, culminates in the conceptual model with five hypothesised relationships (see Figure 1.2).

1.3.1   Attitude and behaviour

Nearly 80 years ago, Allport (1935:798) argued that attitude is "probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept" in the field of social psychology. This argument is as appropriate today as it was then. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine what social psychology would be like without the concept of attitude (Gawronski 2007:573). In general, social psychologists consider the study of

attitudes as crucial for two reasons: attitudes influence people's thoughts and often guide their behaviour (Baron, Byrne & Branscombe 2006:126).

Social psychologists have sought to construct models that explain the internal structure of an attitude. Among these, the tripartite model and the belief-based model (also known as the expectancy-value model) are worth mentioning. The tripartite model considers an attitude as consisting of three components, that is, cognitive, affective, and behavioural. The cognitive component refers to a person's beliefs about an object; the affective component denotes the person's feelings or emotions towards the object; and the behavioural component represents the person's past behaviour with respect to the object (Haddock & Huskinson 2004:36). In contrast, the belief-based model assumes that emotional reactions and past behaviour are simply different types of beliefs about an object (Olson & Maio 2003:302), and consequently suggests that an attitude is a function of an individual's beliefs. These beliefs are a product of expectancy and value for each perceived attribute of the attitude object. "The expectancy is the perceived likelihood that the attribute will occur, and the value represents one's evaluation of the attribute" (Olson & Kendrick 2008:113). The TPB's attitude construct is conceptualised following the belief-based/expectancy-value framework (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:20-21).

Scholars (e.g. Hawkins & Mothersbaugh 2010:399-400; Lake 2009:106-107; Maio & Haddock 2009:62-64) have identified a variety of factors that may cause an inconsistency between attitude and behaviour, namely, lack of need, lack of ability, relative attitudes, attitude ambivalence, weak beliefs and emotions, personality variables, interpersonal influence, situation factors, and measurement issues. From a measurement perspective, Ajzen and Fishbein (1977:888-918) introduce the *principle of compatibility* in an attempt to clarify the relationship between attitude and behaviour. According to this principle, a strong causal relationship between attitude and behaviour could be expected

to the extent that measures of attitude and behaviour involve exactly the same action, target, context, and time elements. In fact, each TPB construct should be operationalised in accordance with this principle (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:155).

1.3.2　The theory of planned behaviour

To predict behaviour more precisely, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:1-18) raise the TRA, which has two distinctive characteristics. First, behaviour can be influenced by more than attitude alone. Among others, the impact of subjective norms is acknowledged (Hewstone, Fincham & Foster 2005:367). Second, the immediate determinant of behaviour is not attitude or subjective norms, but rather behavioural intention (Franzoi 2003:172). In view of the TRA's limitation in predicting behaviour over which people have incomplete volitional control, Ajzen (1991:179-211) later extends the TRA by including perceived behavioural control as a third predictor of intention and behaviour, and terms this extended model the *theory of planned behaviour.*

Overall, the TPB can be expressed in the following algebraic equation:

$$B \approx BI = (A_{act})W_1 + (SN)W_2 + (PBC)W_3$$

where *B* is behaviour; *BI* is behavioural intention; A_{act} is attitude towards the behaviour; *SN* is subjective norm; *PBC* is perceived behavioural control; and W_1, W_2, and W_3 are empirical weights showing the relative importance of the three predictors in the model (Phillips & Jang 2012:316). Given the nature of research respondents (i.e. *potential* tourists), the present investigation aimed to measure only behavioural intention and not the behaviour itself.

In the TPB the first immediate determinant of behavioural intention is *attitude towards the behaviour*, which is conceptualised as a function of behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations. Behavioural beliefs describe an individual's

perceptions of the important consequences of performing the behaviour, while outcome evaluations are the assessment of the consequences (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:75-128). As a general rule, the more favourable one's attitude towards a given behaviour, the stronger should be the intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen 2012:18). This positive causation from attitude to intention has been documented in some destination choice literature (e.g. Lam & Hsu 2004:463-482; Lee, Han & Lockyer 2012:69-86). Against this background, the following hypothesis for the relationship between attitude and visit intention was proposed:

H1: Attitude has a *positive* influence on visit intention.

The second direct predictor of behavioural intention is *subjective norms*, which are conceptualised as a function of normative beliefs and motivation to comply. Normative beliefs pertain to an individual's perceptions of the expectations of important referents (e.g. family, relatives, friends, neighbours, and co-workers) regarding whether the behaviour should be engaged in, while motivation to comply is the tendency to conform to the expectations (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:129-152). In general, consumers are more likely to engage in a particular behaviour if they perceive greater social pressure from important others to perform the behaviour (Lam & Hsu 2004:466). This positive causal link from subjective norms to intention has been observed by some scholars in the field of destination choice (e.g. Lam & Hsu 2006:589-599; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494). Compared with those in individualistic cultures (e.g. Western cultures), tourists in collectivistic cultures (e.g. Chinese cultures) tend to be more affected by their social environment, more under pressure to behave in a socially accepted manner, and more likely to take into account the attitudes of others when making travel decisions (Reisinger 2009:329). Accordingly, the relationship between subjective norms and visit intention was hypothesised as follows:

H2: Subjective norms have a *positive* influence on visit intention.

Perceived behavioural control as a non-volitional variable is also regarded as a direct predictor of behavioural intention. This construct is conceptualised as a function of control beliefs and perceived power. Control beliefs are an individual's perceptions of the availability of important resources required to perform the behaviour, while perceived power is concerned with the assessment of the resources (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:153-178). In general, a high level of perceived control over a specific behaviour would strengthen a person's intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen 2002:667). Some previous studies concerning destination choice behaviour (e.g. Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494) demonstrated that travellers' intentions are positively influenced by their self-confidence in their ability to perform the behaviour. When tourists feel that they have little control over taking a trip to a particular destination due to the lack of required resources (e.g. skills, time, and money), their intentions to travel will diminish despite positive attitudes and supporting subjective norms regarding visiting the destination (Han et al 2010:327). Based on the above discussion, the hypothesis for the relationship between perceived behavioural control and visit intention was formulated as follows:

H3: Perceived behavioural control has a *positive* influence on visit intention.

1.3.3   Extension of the theory of planned behaviour

For the sake of parsimony, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010:282) admonish that possible additions to the TPB must meet five requirements, namely, that the proposed variable should be:

- behaviour-specific, conforming to the principle of compatibility;
- conceived as a causal factor determining intention and behaviour;
- conceptually independent of the theory's existing constructs;
- applicable to a wide range of human social behaviour; and
- able to improve the prediction of intention and behaviour.

The current research attempted to extend the TPB model by incorporating two multidimensional constructs, travel motivation and travel constraints, with the hope of better predicting Chinese tourists' intentions to visit South Africa. Both travel motivation and travel constraints met the five requirements suggested by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010:282).

Travel motivation deals with a subset of the wider range of human motivation (Pearce 2011b:40), and addresses the question of "why people travel" or "why people visit a particular destination". It is widely believed that motivation is an important driving force behind behaviour (Hsu & Huang 2008:25). Among different theories underlying travel motivation, the push-pull framework has attracted the most attention from scholars studying tourist behaviour (Kao, Patterson, Scott & Li 2008:18). This framework posits that people travel because they are pushed by internal forces and pulled by external forces (Li, Meng, Uysal & Mihalik 2013:787). It is generally agreed that travel motivation is multidimensional, since tourists seek to satisfy a number of distinct needs simultaneously (Chien, Yen & Hoang 2012:493). According to Johanson (2007:46), Chinese people's common motives for outbound tourism include seeing something different, increasing knowledge about an overseas destination, rest and relaxation, being able to share travel experiences after returning home, and experiencing a different lifestyle/culture. Given the above information, the hypothesis for the relationship between travel motivation and visit intention was developed as follows:

H4: Travel motivation has a *positive* influence on visit intention.

Whereas motives may facilitate intention and behaviour, constraints are likely to inhibit them (Funk 2008:191). The concept of travel constraints has its roots in early leisure constraints research (Hung & Petrick 2012:857). According to Crawford and Godbey (1987:119-127), leisure constraints typically have three distinct dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Intrapersonal

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constraints represent a potential leisure participant's psychological state, such as disinterest and anxiety; interpersonal constraints are concerned with the interaction between the potential leisure participant and others, such as unavailability of possible travel partners; and structural constraints focus on external environmental conditions, such as lack of facilities and inconvenient transportation. However, later research showed that leisure constraints are not only multidimensional, but also hierarchical (Crawford, Jackson & Godbey 1991:309-320) and negotiable in nature (Jackson, Crawford & Godbey 1993:1-11). For Chinese outbound tourists, common travel constraints include safety; lack of time, money, and travel information; difficulty in getting travel documents; language; and cultural barriers (Li, Zhang et al 2011:632; Sparks & Pan 2009:485). Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis for the relationship between travel constraints and visit intention was formulated:

H5: Travel constraints have a *negative* influence on visit intention.

As a summary for Section 1.3, Figure 1.2 illustrates a *simplified* conceptual model for the present study. Focusing on visit intention as a sole dependent (outcome) variable, this model includes five independent (predictor) variables: attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints. The first three predictors were assumed to be unidimensional, while the last two were assumed to be multidimensional. The efficacy of the combination of these five predictors in predicting Chinese travellers' intentions to visit South Africa was evaluated by collecting and analysing primary data, as discussed below.

FIGURE 1.2: THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL
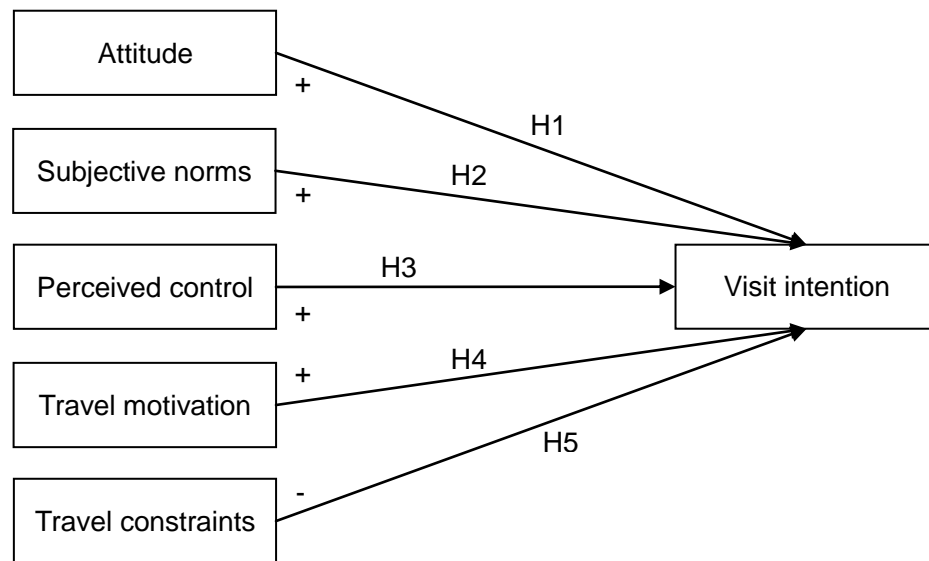
Source: Own construction

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section briefly introduces the research design and methodology applied in the present study. Key issues related to choosing an appropriate research design, data collection, and statistical analysis are highlighted.

1.4.1 Research design

A research design is a plan or blueprint for conducting a study, and depicts the procedures necessary for obtaining the information needed to identify or solve problems. An appropriate research design can help ensure that the study is conducted effectively and efficiently (Malhotra & Birks 2007:64). According to Collis and Hussey (2003:10), research designs can be classified in terms of the study's outcome (basic or applied), logic (deductive or inductive), process (quantitative or qualitative), and purpose (exploratory, descriptive, or causal). The present study was characterised as fundamentally *basic* (in terms of its

outcome), *deductive* (in terms of its logic), *quantitative* (in terms of its process), and *causal* (in terms of its purpose). The research design is expounded on in Chapter 2.

1.4.2   Data collection

Secondary data pertain to data that already exist and need not be originally gathered by the researcher (Sekaran 2000:57). Secondary data can be classified as either internal or external. Internal data are typically generated within the organisation for which the research is being conducted, while external data are obtained from sources outside the organisation (Malhotra 2010:137). To address the first three research objectives as stated in Section 1.2, the current research relied mostly on external secondary data, accessed from the Internet and the Library and Information Services (LIS) of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU). During the acquisition of external secondary data, Malhotra and Birks' (2007:97-100) six criteria for assessing the quality of secondary data were taken into account, namely, specifications, error, currency, objectivity, nature, and dependability.

Unlike secondary data, primary data are originated by the researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the problem at hand (Shukla 2008:32). There are three basic methods of primary data collection: survey, observation, and experimentation. "The survey is the overwhelming choice of researchers for collecting primary data" (Aaker, Kumar & Day 2007:228). Surveys can be executed in four basic modes – person-administered, telephone-administered, self-administered, and online (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2006:232-247). The current research involved collecting primary data through an Internet (online) survey. Compared with traditional survey modes, the Internet survey holds the following major advantages: it ensures greater speed and lower cost and is more visual, flexible, and interactive; it eliminates interviewer effects and is

effective in reaching certain target groups (Duffy, Smith, Terhanian & Bremer 2005:617-618).

An Internet survey is "a self-administered questionnaire that is placed on a Web site for prospective subjects to read and complete" (Hair et al 2006:245). The questionnaire used in the current survey was organised in the following order: the cover letter that explains the purpose of the survey, gives assurance with respect to legitimacy, anonymity, and confidentiality, and offers instructions for completing the survey; the measures of travel motivation and travel constraints that were developed according to Churchill's (1979:64-73) suggested procedures for developing measures of marketing constructs; the measures of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention that were adapted from previous studies; and demographic and travel-related questions about gender, age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, travel mode, and city of residence. The questionnaire was originally written in English and translated into Chinese (Mandarin) using the blind translation-back-translation method suggested by Brislin (1976:215-229). Two consecutive pilot studies (offline and online) were conducted to identify and eliminate potential problems of the Chinese questionnaire to ensure that the data collected could address the research objectives.

In addition to questionnaire construction, sampling design is also important for primary data collection. In the current context, the *population* comprised potential Chinese leisure travellers to South Africa, while the *target population* was potential Chinese leisure travellers to South Africa who were aged 18 or older and living in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. Lai et al (2013:139) regard these three cities as major outbound-tourist-generating areas in China, because they not only record the highest outbound tourism incidence, but also set the trends for the entire outbound tourism market. Li et al (2010:253)

indicate that the demand for outbound tourism in China is particularly vested in the *adult* population of these three cities.

The sampling frame chosen for the current investigation was the Shanghai Loop Information Technology Ltd's (www.sojump.com) online panel members who were aged 18 or older and living in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. Sekaran (2000:296) proposes a few common rules of thumb for determining sample size: a sample size of larger than 30 and less than 500 is appropriate for most research; when the sample is divided into subsamples, a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is needed; and when advanced statistical techniques (e.g. factor analysis) are used, the sample size should be several times (preferably 10 times or more) larger than the number of variables to be analysed. Given these common rules, and considering budgetary constraints since the panel provider charged a fee per usable questionnaire, the current investigation aimed at collecting 630 *usable* questionnaires from the target population (sampling frame). A quota was set at 210 questionnaires for each targeted city.

1.4.3   Statistical analysis

The raw data obtained from the survey instrument must undergo preliminary preparation before starting analysis using statistical techniques. The quality of the results and their subsequent interpretation depend largely on how well the data were prepared (Aaker et al 2007:432). A typical preparation procedure consists of three sequential steps: data editing, data coding, and data filing (Zikmund & Babin 2010:493-502). In this research, the raw data obtained from the online questionnaires went through all three data preparation steps. The data were first captured in an Excel spreadsheet, and then imported into the SPSS 15 and AMOS 7 software packages for statistical analysis.

There are two major types of statistics: descriptive and inferential. Descriptive statistics enable researchers to organise and summarise information, while inferential statistics allow researchers to draw conclusions about a population based on the information obtained from a sample of the population (Weiss 2012:4). In the context of the present study, descriptive statistics were used to report the respondents' demographic and travel-related characteristics and their responses to the measurement scales. Inferential statistics were used to test for significant differences between groups and for significant relationships between variables. The main statistical techniques used in this study include Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA), ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA), cluster analysis, discriminant analysis, and cross-tabulation analysis. These are discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

1.5   DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Delimitations are controllable factors that narrow the scope of the study and are integral parts of the study design (Mauch & Park 2003:114-115). Two delimitations are associated with the current research.

On the one hand, this study focused on developing a TPB-based model that could be used to predict the intention of visiting South Africa for *Mainland* Chinese residents only. Therefore, it excluded residents from Hong Kong and Macau. Although the sovereignty of Hong Kong and Macau was handed over to China in 1997 and 1999, respectively, for historical reasons these areas are still regarded as China's outbound tourism destinations (Xie & Li 2009:228).

On the other hand, this study focused on China's *pleasure vacation* outbound travel segment and excluded its other outbound travel segments. The other

segments include government/corporate business travel, personal business travel, and visiting friends/relatives (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:8).

1.6   DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

There are six key concepts that must be clearly defined as they constitute the conceptual model of this research: they are intention, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, motivation, and constraints.

- *Behavioural intentions* are "conscious decisions to carry out specific actions" (Franzoi 2003:172).
- *Attitude towards the behaviour* refers to "the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question" (Ajzen 1991:188).
- *Subjective norms* can be understood as "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (Ajzen 1991:188).
- *Perceived behavioural control* refers to "the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior" (Ajzen 1991:188).
- *Tourist motivation* refers to "a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision" (Dann 1981:205).
- *Travel constraints* are "those factors that inhibit continued traveling, cause inability to travel, result in the inability to maintain or increase frequency of travel, and/or lead to negative impacts on the quality of the travel experience" (Hung & Petrick 2012:857).

1.7   STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the background, main purpose, and specific objectives of the study. A simple conceptual model

with five hypothesised relationships is also presented in this chapter. Chapter 2 deals with key methodological issues in the study, including research design, data collection, questionnaire development, sampling process, and statistical analysis.

Chapter 3 highlights the nature and characteristics of tourism in general and international tourism in particular, followed by a review of the history, status quo, and development trends in China's outbound tourism and South Africa's inbound tourism. The chapter provides a context for understanding tourism and tourist behaviour.

Chapters 4 and 5 elaborate on the study's conceptual framework. Chapter 4 focuses on the origin and evolution of the TPB model, including a detailed discussion of the basic predictor constructs (i.e. attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) and the outcome construct (i.e. visit intention). Chapter 5 reviews the literature related to the constructs of travel motivation and travel constraints. These two constructs were proposed as additional predictors of visit intention.

Chapter 6 presents the major findings resulting from the online panel survey, with a special focus on modelling and hypothesis testing. Finally, Chapter 7 offers a synopsis of the study, draws conclusions about the study, and makes recommendations to destination marketers.

CHAPTER 2 OVERVIEW

- ➤ Research design
  - ▪ Basic and applied research
  - ▪ Deductive and inductive research
  - ▪ Quantitative and qualitative research
  - ▪ Exploratory, descriptive and causal research
- ➤ Data collection
  - ▪ Secondary data collection
  - ▪ Primary data collection
- ➤ Questionnaire construction
  - ▪ Scale adaption and development
  - ▪ Translating and piloting the questionnaire
- ➤ Sampling design
  - ▪ Target population and sampling frame
  - ▪ Sampling methods
  - ▪ Sample size
- ➤ Statistical analysis
  - ▪ Preparing the data for analysis
  - ▪ Scale reliability and validity
  - ▪ Statistical methods and techniques

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                    Chapter 1
                    (Orientation)
                         |
                         v
                    Chapter 2
                    (Methodology)
        Secondary data          Primary data
        /                                  \
  +-------------+                    +-------------+
  | Chapter 3   |                    |             |
  | (Tourism)   |                    |             |
  |     |       |                    | Chapter 6   |
  | Chapter 4   |  ---- Input --->   | (Results)   |
  | (TPB)       |                    |             |
  |     |       |                    |             |
  | Chapter 5   |                    +-------------+
  |(Extended TPB)|
  +-------------+
        \                                  /
Theoretical findings   Chapter 7   Empirical findings
                       (Conclusions)
```
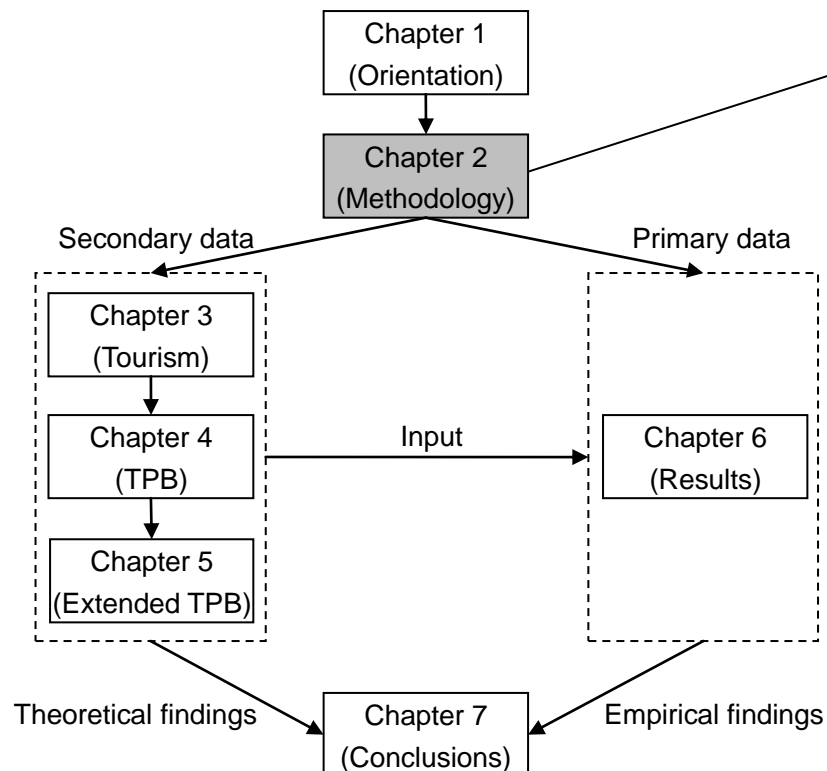
CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided the background and rationale to the research, identified the research purposes, objectives, and hypotheses, specified the boundaries for the research, and defined key concepts associated with the conceptual model. This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology relevant to the present study. Issues concerning choosing an appropriate research design, searching and assessing secondary data, and collecting and analysing primary data, are discussed.

2.2   RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a plan or blueprint for conducting a study, and depicts the procedures necessary for obtaining the information needed to identify or solve problems. An appropriate research design can help ensure that the study is conducted effectively and efficiently (Malhotra & Birks 2007:64). According to Collis and Hussey (2003:10), research designs can be classified in terms of the study's *outcome* (basic or applied), *logic* (deductive or inductive), *process* (quantitative or qualitative), and *purpose* (exploratory, descriptive, or causal).

2.2.1   Basic and applied research

One useful way to describe research is based on the specificity of its outcome. Basic research, which is also termed fundamental or pure research, attempts to expand the limits of human knowledge rather than solve specific problems. Research aimed at solving a particular pragmatic problem is termed applied

research (Burns & Bush 2006:12). Basic research is undertaken largely by academics or students in universities as the result of an academic agenda or programme (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2009:8). Although the findings of basic research are not likely to be directly and immediately implemented, they may help people learn more about specific problems at hand and later contribute to solving these problems (McDaniel & Gates 2008:8-9).

The present study led to the completion of a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, which was deemed a basic research activity from an academic perspective. From a problem-solving perspective, the knowledge presented by the thesis resulting from the current research may provide South African destination marketers with a better understanding of the Chinese outbound tourism market and with suggestions on how to better attract and serve Chinese tourists.

2.2.2   Deductive and inductive research

Another way to distinguish research is through logical reasoning approaches (see Figure 2.1). Reasoning is a purposeful mental activity that involves using premises to draw conclusions. Through deduction, reasoning progresses from the particular to the general. A conclusion *necessarily* results from a set of premises and if the premises are accurate, the conclusion should also be accurate. In contrast, induction entails reasoning flowing from the general to the particular. A conclusion *probably* results from a set of premises: although the premises may be accurate, it is still possible for the conclusion to be inaccurate (Hackley 2003:34; Wade & Tavris 2012:228).

FIGURE 2.1: COMPARISON OF DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE REASONING

Deductive reasoning   **Inductive reasoning**
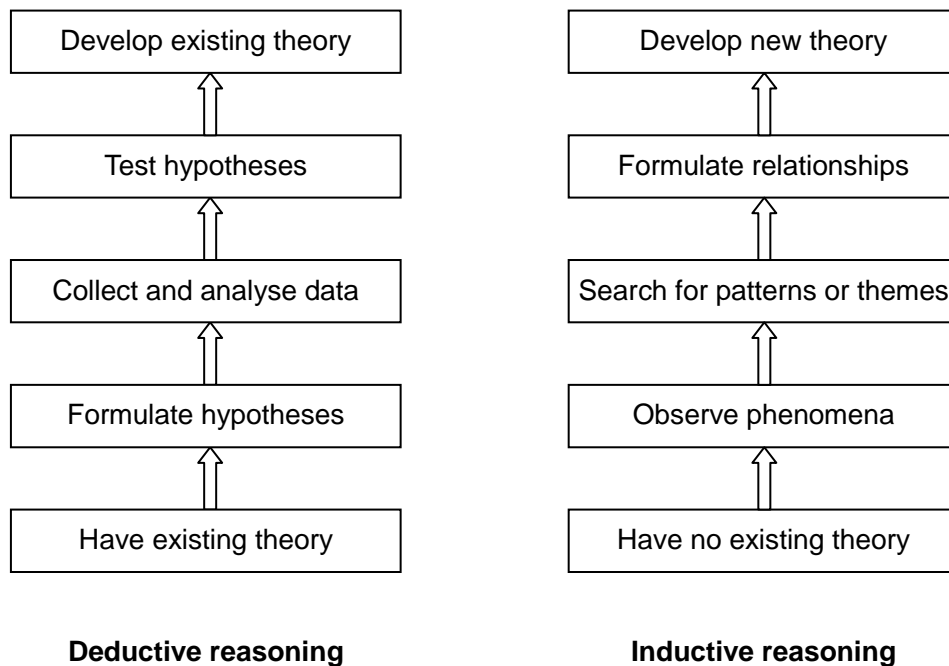
Source: Adapted from Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran (2001:36)

Existing theory plays a crucial role in deductive studies because deductive researchers seek to test and incrementally develop existing theory based on whether their hypotheses are accepted or rejected. However, existing theory is considered to be an inhibitor of the creativity of inductive researchers, who develop theory based primarily on observed occurrence and the interconnectedness of phenomena (Malhotra & Birks 2007:160-161).

The present study followed a deductive reasoning approach, in which a thorough literature review of existing theory (i.e. TPB) led to the formation of five relationship hypotheses. Rigorous analysis of the empirical data collected supported or partially supported these hypotheses, suggesting that the TPB could be extended by adding two extra predictors, travel motivation and travel constraints.

2.2.3   Quantitative and qualitative research

Research can furthermore be classified as quantitative or qualitative (see
Table 2.1), based on the specificity of its process. Quantitative studies
generally involve collecting primary data from large numbers of respondents
using structured questionnaires. Decision makers often use quantitative data
to predict relationships between market factors and actions, gain insights into
those relationships, validate existing relationships, and test different types of
hypotheses (Hair et al 2006:171-172).

TABLE 2.1: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE
RESEARCH STUDIES

FACTOR	QUALITATIVE	QUANTITATIVE
Research purpose	Discovery and identification of new ideas, thoughts, feelings; preliminary insights on and understanding of ideas and objects	Validation of facts, estimates, relationships, predictions
Type of research	Exploratory	Descriptive and causal
Data collection	Open-ended, semi-structured, unstructured, deep probing	Close-ended, structured, limited probing
Time of execution	Relatively short time frames	Usually significantly longer time frames
Representativeness	Small samples, limited to the sampled respondents	Large samples, normally good representation of target populations
Data analysis	Debriefing, subjective, content, interpretive, semiotic analyses	Statistical, descriptive, causal predictions and relationships
Researcher competency	Interpersonal communications, observations, interpretive skills	Scientific, statistical procedure, translation skills; some subjective interpretive skills
Generalisability of outcome	Very limited; only preliminary insights and understanding	Usually very good; inferences about facts, estimates of relationships

Source: Adapted from Hair, Bush & Ortinau (2006:172)

Qualitative studies, on the other hand, gather data from smaller samples through less structured and more intensive questioning techniques, such as in-depth interviews and focus groups (Aaker et al 2007:189). Although qualitative research is often cost-effective and the best way to find out what is in a consumer's mind, decision makers are reluctant to base important decisions on small-sample findings and interviewers' subjective interpretations (McDaniel & Gates 2008:108).

The current research fundamentally adopted a quantitative research process, in which raw data were collected from 630 Chinese residents using a sample survey and a structured questionnaire. However, qualitative techniques were employed to assist in developing measurement scales for travel motivation and travel constraints.

2.2.4   Exploratory, descriptive and causal research

Based on its purpose, research can be classified as exploratory, descriptive, or causal. Exploratory research emphasises discovering ideas and gaining insights. It is particularly useful for becoming familiar with problems, clarifying concepts, formulating hypotheses, and establishing priorities for further research (Iacobucci & Churchill 2010:81).

Unlike exploratory research, descriptive studies are undertaken on the basis of a sufficient understanding of the given problem. The purpose of descriptive research is to portray the characteristics of the variable or case of interest and make relatively simple decisions through addressing who, what, when, where, and how questions (Zikmund & Babin 2007:51-53).

Causal research allows decision makers to make sense of cause-and-effect relationships between two or more variables. It is most suitable when the

research objectives include the need to understand which variables are the causes of a dependent phenomenon (Hair et al 2006:64).

The present study followed a causal research design, with a special interest in examining the predictive power of an extended TPB model for visit intention. However, the study also employed secondary data analysis (discussed in Section 2.3.1) that is a form of exploratory research, and descriptive analysis. Descriptive analysis was typically used to describe the characteristics of the sample and the centre and spread of each of the measurement items.

Figure 2.2 is a diagrammatic representation of Collis and Hussey's (2003:10) typology of research designs. As summarised in this figure, the fundamental nature of the current research was *basic* (in terms of its outcome), *deductive* (in terms of its logic), *quantitative* (in terms of its process), and *causal* (in terms of its purpose).

FIGURE 2.2: CLASSIFICATION OF RESEARCH DESIGNS
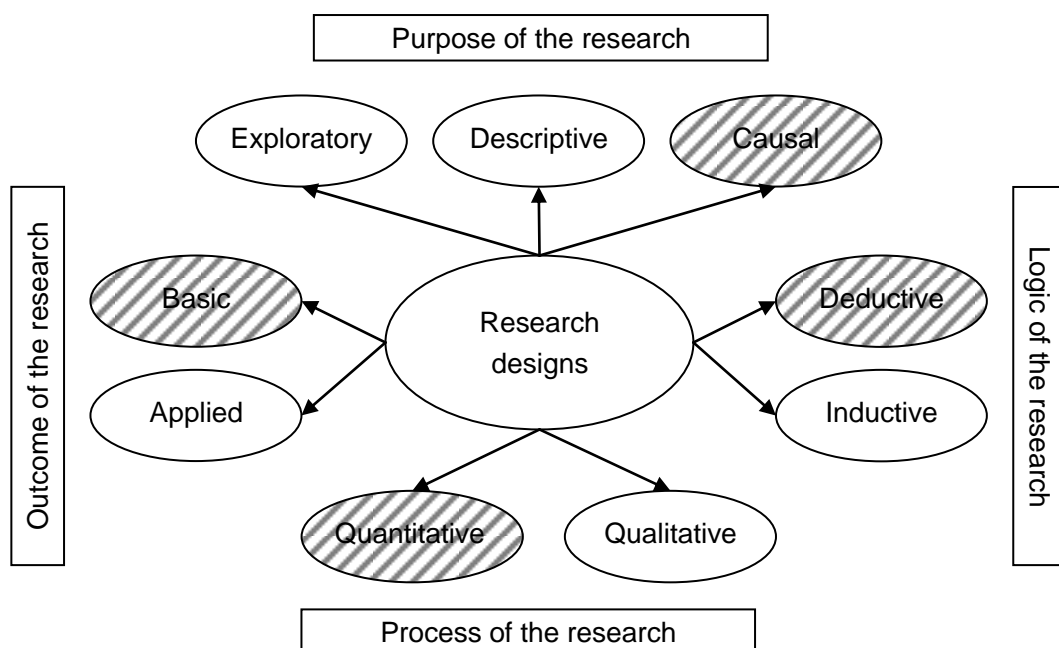
Source: Adapted from Collis & Hussey (2003:10)

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2.3 DATA COLLECTION

In addition to determining the appropriate research design, the individual methods or techniques adopted and how they unfolded and connected with each other should be detailed (Malhotra & Birks 2007:39). This section focuses on the methods of collecting secondary and primary data and ethical issues related to their collection.

2.3.1 Secondary data collection

Secondary data is data that already exist and need not be originally gathered by the researcher (Sekaran 2000:57). This form of data offers the following main advantages: it is quick to obtain, relatively inexpensive, readily available, useful in aligning the focus of primary research, and sometimes useful in achieving the research objective. However, given that the data have been collected for some purpose other than the one at hand, the problems associated with secondary data include incompatibility with the researcher's needs in terms of reporting units, measurement units, and class definitions, timeliness of the data, and a lack of information needed to evaluate the data's quality (Burns & Bush 2006:151-154). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007:97-100), the quality of secondary data can be evaluated using six distinct criteria (see Table 2.2), namely, *specifications* (methodology used to collect the data), *error* (accuracy of the data), *currency* (when the data have been collected), *objectives* (why the data were collected), *nature* (content of the data), and *dependability* (reliability of the data). These evaluation criteria were implemented while collecting secondary data for the current research.

TABLE 2.2: CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING SECONDARY DATA

CRITERION	CONSIDERATION	COMMENT
Specifications	• Data collection method • Questionnaire development • Population definition • Sampling technique • Sample size • Response rate • Fieldwork • Data analysis • Reporting	Data should be reliable, valid, and generalisable to the problem at hand.
Error	Errors in the approach, research design, data collection, sampling, data analysis, and reporting stages of the project	Accuracy can be assessed by comparing data from different sources.
Currency	Time lag between data collection and publication; frequency of data updates	Census data are periodically updated by governments, international organisations, and syndicated firms.
Objectives	The purpose for which the data were collected	The objective will determine the relevance of the data.
Nature	• Definition of key variables • Units of measurement • Categories used • Relationships examined	Sometimes, it is possible to reconfigure the data to increase their usefulness.
Dependability	The expertise, credibility, reputation, and trustworthiness of the source	Data should be secured from an original rather than an acquired source.

Source: Adapted from Malhotra & Birks (2007:97)

Secondary data can be classified as either internal or external. Internal data are typically generated within the organisation for which the research is being conducted, while external data are obtained from sources outside the organisation (Malhotra 2010:137). External secondary data can be further classified. For example, based on the nature of the producer of information, external data originate from five basic sources, that is, publishers of books and periodicals, government sources, media sources, trade association sources, and commercial sources (Zikmund & Babin 2007:173).

To address the first three research objectives stated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, the current investigation relied mostly on external secondary data accessed from the Internet (e.g. Google Scholar) and the NMMU's LIS. The latter has a large collection of printed publications (e.g. textbooks and monographs, refereed academic and professional journals, and government and international organisation documents) and electronic databases (e.g. EBSCO, Emerald, JSTOR, Nexus, SABINET Online, Sage, ScienceDirect, and Taylor & Francis Online). An analysis of the secondary data collected is presented in Chapters 3 to 5.

2.3.2   Primary data collection

In contrast with secondary data that are collected from numerous established sources, primary data are originated by a researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the problem at hand (Shukla 2008:32). There are three basic methods of primary data collection: survey, observation, and experimentation. "The survey is the overwhelming choice of researchers for collecting primary data" (Aaker et al 2007:228). Most surveys are conducted through a deductive process and allow researchers to collect a large set of data from a sizeable population at relatively low cost. The data can be analysed quantitatively to not only answer descriptive (i.e. who, what, when, where, and how) questions, but also suggest possible reasons for the relationships between variables and produce models of these relationships (Saunders et al 2009:144). In general, the survey strategy is typically related to descriptive and causal research designs (Hair et al 2006:221). The present study applied the survey strategy to collect the primary data from Chinese residents.

Survey research usually relies on a structured questionnaire, consisting of a set of questions with predetermined answers from which the respondents must choose (Kolb 2008:195). Survey questionnaires are often distributed to

prospective respondents using four basic methods: person-administered, telephone-administered, self-administered, and online methods. *Person-administered surveys* may be further categorised as in-home, executive, mall-intercept, and purchase-intercept interviews and require the presence of trained human interviewers; *telephone-administered surveys* may be undertaken by traditional, computer-assisted, or completely automatic telephone interviews; *self-administered surveys* may be further classified as direct mail, mail panel, and drop-off surveys, without the presence of trained interviewers; and *online surveys* may be seen as innovative self-administered surveys often conducted via e-mail or the Internet (Hair et al 2006:232-247). Compared with many traditional survey methods, the online survey has the following major advantages: it ensures greater speed and lower cost and is more visual, flexible, and interactive; it eliminates interviewer effects and is effective in reaching certain target groups (Duffy et al 2005:617-618). Table 2.3 provides more detail on the different survey methods. Since this table is self-explanatory, no further discussion thereof is deemed necessary.

The present study involved collecting primary data through an Internet survey, that is, "a self-administered questionnaire that is placed on a Web site for prospective subjects to read and complete" (Hair et al 2006:245). The detailed procedure used to construct such a questionnaire for purposes of the current research is discussed in Section 2.4. The post-pilot questionnaire can be found in Annexure A (English) and Annexure B (Chinese).

TABLE 2.3: BASIC SURVEY METHODS

SURVEY METHOD	BRIEF DESCRIPTION
Person-administered	
In-home interview	An interview takes place in the respondent's home or, in special situations, within the respondent's work environment.
Executive interview	A business executive is interviewed in his/her office.
Mall-intercept interview	Shoppers in a mall are approached and asked to take part in a face-to-face survey.
Purchase-intercept interview	The respondent is stopped and asked for feedback at the point of purchase.
Telephone-administered	
Telephone interview	Interviews take place over the telephone and may be conducted from a central telephone location or the interviewer's office or home.
Computer-Assisted Telephone Interview (CATI)	A computer is used to assist in the interview process in which an interviewer enters respondents' answers directly into the computer.
Completely Automated Telephone Survey (CATS)	The survey is completely administered by a computer without the use of any human interviewer.
Self-administered	
Mail panel survey	Questionnaires are mailed to a representative number of individuals who have agreed in advance to participate.
Mail survey	Questionnaires are distributed to and returned from respondents via the postal service.
Drop-off survey	Questionnaires are left with the respondent to be completed at a later time; the completed ones may be picked up by the researcher or returned via mail.
Online	
E-mail survey	Questionnaires are distributed to and returned by respondents via electronic mail.
Internet survey	The Internet is used to ask questions of and record responses from respondents.

Source: Adapted from Hair, Bush & Ortinau (2006:232)

2.3.3   Ethical issues related to primary data collection

The ability of the market research industry to use sample surveys to collect primary data depends on the willingness of the public to devote their time to

answering questions. By treating the public honestly, openly, and respectfully when compiling a survey questionnaire, a researcher can differentiate between market research and other activities such as direct marketing, thus encouraging the public to more willingly participate in survey investigations (Brace 2008:184-185).

The NMMU's Research Ethics Committee: Human (RECH) adopted the Belmont report (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research 1979) as a code of ethics by which to evaluate research projects. According to the report, there are three basic ethical principles to follow in research involving human subjects, namely, *respect for persons*, *beneficence,* and *justice*. Corresponding requirements are *informed consent*, *assessment of risks and benefits*, and *selection of subjects*. These principles and requirements overlap somewhat, and therefore the remainder of this section discusses respect for persons and informed consent.

Respect for persons requires that human subjects "be given the opportunity to choose what shall or shall not happen to them". This is provided for when the basic elements of informed consent are communicated to subjects (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research 1979:7). De Vaus (2002:60) suggests that potential participants in research studies be informed about the study purpose and basic procedure, any potential risks or harm, the likely benefits of the study, how the participants were selected, the ability to ask any question in relation to the study, the voluntary nature of participation, the identity of the researcher and sponsor, and how the study findings will be used. Two other issues regarding informed consent have to be noted, that is, *anonymity* and *confidentiality*. De Vaus (2002:62) suggests three main reasons for assuring confidentiality (these also apply to assuring anonymity): enhancing the quality

and honesty of responses, particularly on sensitive issues; encouraging participation and hence improving the representativeness of the sample; and protecting privacy.

According to Jennings (2010:109), researchers may either provide potential respondents with an informed consent letter (normally referred to as a cover letter), or they may read the letter to potential respondents (normally referred to as the opening comments). In the present study, a cover letter was printed on the first page of the questionnaire that included all essential elements of informed consent. The entire questionnaire and the procedure for selecting human subjects were reviewed and approved by the RECH of the NMMU (see Annexure C). The ethics clearance reference number for this study is H13-BES-MRK-007.

2.4   QUESTIONNAIRE CONSTRUCTION

Once the decision regarding the method of primary data collection has been made, the researcher needs to construct the questionnaire. This is paramount to the success of primary data collection and analysis (Jennings 2010:246). In constructing a questionnaire, it is important that the researcher understands the range of both question and data types because "[d]ifferent types of questions are appropriate for different purposes and different types of data can be used and analysed differently" (Brace 2008:45).

2.4.1   Question and data types

Any question in a questionnaire can be classified as either *open* or *closed* ("whether or not the answer can come only from a finite number of possible responses"), *spontaneous* or *prompted* ("whether respondents are asked to reply in their own words or given a number of options from which to choose a

response"), *open-ended* or *pre-coded* ("whether the answer is recorded verbatim or against one or more of a number of predetermined answers"). Generally, open questions are asked spontaneously and recorded as either open-ended or pre-coded responses, while closed questions are prompted and pre-coded (Brace 2008:45-46).

The questionnaire used in the present study comprised closed questions only. According to Bryman and Bell (2011:250), closed questions pose five major advantages over open ones.

- The availability of possible answers may help respondents to clarify the meaning of a question.
- Closed questions are easy for fieldworkers or respondents to complete.
- Closed questions reduce the possibility of variability when recording answers.
- It is easy to process answers for analysis.
- Closed questions improve the comparability of answers, making it easier to display the relationship between variables and to distinguish between respondents.

There are three basic types of closed questions: dichotomous, multiple-choice, and scale questions (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & Van Wyk 2005:397). A *dichotomous* question requires the respondent to choose between two mutually exclusive alternatives (Zikmund & Babin 2010:372). For example, in the current study, this type of question was used to ask the survey participants to indicate their gender.

Multiple-choice questions that provide respondents with more than two alternatives can be classified into two forms, namely, single-response and multiple-response, depending on whether respondents are asked to select one answer most appropriate to their situation, or as many answers as are

relevant to their situation (Cooper & Schindler 2006:369). The questionnaire used in the current research included seven multiple-choice, single-response questions that captured seven demographic and travel-related characteristics of the survey participants, that is, age, education, household structure, household income, city of residence, travel frequency, and travel mode.

Finally, a *scale* question requires the respondent to place the object being rated at some point along a continuum or in one of an ordered range of categories (Tustin et al 2005:401). According to Malhotra (2010:308-314), the widely adopted itemised rating scales are the Likert, semantic differential, and Stapel scales. When constructing any of these scales, the researcher must decide on the number of categories, balanced versus unbalanced choice, odd or even number of categories, forced versus non-forced choice, the nature and degree of verbal description, and the physical form of the scale. Likert scale questions were used in the present study for assessing the latent variables, namely, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, travel constraints, and visit intention. The survey participants were requested to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a number of statements (i.e. items) related to a given variable. Each scale item had five ordered response categories, namely, 'strongly disagree (1)', 'disagree (2)', 'neutral (3)', 'agree (4)', and 'strongly agree (5)'.

Data can be categorised in terms of the presence or absence of four basic, hierarchical characteristics. From the lowest to the highest level these characteristics are *description* (the use of unique descriptors or labels), *order* (the relative sizes or positions of the descriptors), *distance* (the absolute differences between the descriptors), and *origin* (fixed beginning or true zero point) (Malhotra 2010:282-284). As shown in Table 2.4, combinations of these characteristics provide four widely recognised types of data – nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio.

TABLE 2.4: TYPES OF DATA AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

TYPE OF DATA		BASIC CHARACTERISTICS			
		Description	Order	Distance	Origin
Categorical	Nominal	Yes	No	No	No
	Ordinal	Yes	Yes	No	No
Continuous	Interval	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Ratio	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Source: Adapted from Burns & Bush (2006:276)

Nominal data allow the researcher to identify and classify objects (variables or cases) in possession of the characteristic of description; *ordinal data* permit the researcher to rank the objects in possession of the characteristic of order (and description); *interval data* enable the researcher to compare the differences between the objects with the characteristic of distance (and order and description); and *ratio data* allow the researcher to compute the ratios between the objects with the characteristic of origin (and distance, order, and description). In general, nominal and ordinal data are categorical data, while interval and ratio data are continuous data (Burns & Bush 2006:276-278; Cooper & Schindler 2006:342-346). In the current context, the questionnaire was designed to collect nominal, ordinal, and interval data. More specifically, gender, household structure, travel mode, and city of residence were treated as nominal data; age, education, household income, and travel frequency were considered as ordinal data; and visit intention and its various predictors were viewed as interval data.

To summarise, the questionnaire constructed for this study collected nominal, ordinal, and interval data by using dichotomous, multiple-choice, and scale questions. The questionnaire was organised in the following order: the cover letter (discussed in Section 2.3.3), the scales of travel motivation, travel constraints, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention (discussed in the next section), and demographic and travel-related questions

(also referred to as classification questions). Brace (2008:44) advocates that classification questions are invaluable for cross-analysis purposes, although they rarely relate directly to the study's subject matter.

2.4.2   Scale adaption and development

Multi-item scales (rather than single-item scales) were employed to assess the latent variables of this study. Malhotra (2010:316) defines a multi-item scale as consisting of "multiple items, where an item is a single question or statement to be evaluated". The Likert scale is an example of the multi-item scale.

There are three approaches to generating a multi-item scale – *adopting* items used in other questionnaires, *adapting* items used in other questionnaires, and *developing* new items (Saunders et al 2009:374). In the current research, both the adaptation and development approaches were applied. The scales of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were adapted from previous studies, while the scales of travel motivation and travel constraints were developed following Churchill's (1979:64-73) recommended procedures for developing measures of marketing constructs. Both these approaches are discussed in greater detail below.

In the current context, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were all operationalised as *uni-dimensional, multi-item* constructs. In particular, attitude towards visiting South Africa was measured using six items adapted from Han et al (2011:56). All these items shared an umbrella question stem: "I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be…". Subjective norms were measured using three items adapted from Hsu and Huang (2012:404). An example is: "Most people who are important to me think that I should visit South Africa within the next five years". Perceived

control was measured using three items adapted from Hsu and Huang (2012:405). An example is: "Whether I visit South Africa within the next five years is entirely up to me". Five items mainly adapted from Huang and Hsu (2009:38) and Lee et al (2012:86) were used to measure the intention to visit South Africa. An example is: "I would like to visit South Africa within the next five years". The current research followed Jang and Feng's (2007:580-590) idea that tourists' intentions to (re)visit a destination may vary depending on time frames – *short-term* (within the next 12 months), *mid-term* (within the next three years), and *long-term* (within the next five years). Given that South Africa is a long-haul holiday destination for Chinese travellers, the present survey focused on the long-term intentions of Chinese tourists.

For the purpose of the current research, both travel motivation and travel constraints were operationalised as *multi-dimensional, multi-item* constructs. To develop measures for these two constructs, this study adopted the scale development process suggested by Churchill (1979:64-73). The eight steps involved in this process and the recommended techniques to accomplish each step are demonstrated in the first two columns of Table 2.5. Steps one through four can be executed with a set of data collected from the pilot sample dealing with the issues of content validity, dimensionality, and internal consistency. Steps five through eight can be executed with another set of data collected from the survey sample dealing with the concerns for reliability, criterion validity, and construct validity (Echtner & Ritchie 1993:5). In practice, researchers may use these steps with some flexibility and the recommended techniques could be replaced with other similar techniques (Hung & Petrick 2010:213). The present study used all eight steps in developing the measures of travel motivation and travel constraints. The corresponding techniques used in this study are shown in the third column of Table 2.5. The remainder of this section elaborates on the generation of potential items (i.e. Step two).

TABLE 2.5: PROCEDURE FOR DEVELOPING MEASURES

STEPS SUGGESTED BY CHURCHILL (1979)	TECHNIQUES RECOMMENDED BY CHURCHILL (1979)	TECHNIQUES USED IN THE CURRENT RESEARCH
1. Specify domain of construct	• Literature search	• Literature search
2. Generate sample of items	• Literature search • Experience survey • Insight-stimulating examples • Critical incidents • Focus groups	• Literature search • Semi-structured interviews • Panel of experts
3. Collect data	• Small-scale data collection	• Pilot survey (n=120)
4. Purify measure	• Cronbach's alpha • Exploratory factor analysis	• Cronbach's alpha • Exploratory factor analysis
5. Collect data	• Large-scale data collection	• Formal survey (n=630)
6. Assess reliability	• Cronbach's alpha • Split-half reliability	• Cronbach's alpha • Composite reliability • Split-half reliability
7. Assess validity	• Multitrait-multimethod matrix • Criterion validity	• Content validity • Construct validity
8. Develop norms	• Average and other statistics summarising distribution of scores	• Means • Standard deviations

Source: Adapted from Churchill (1979:66); Hung & Petrick (2010:213)

Having specified the domain of travel motivation and travel constraints (see Chapter 5), an item pool was generated to measure these constructs. Echtner and Ritchie (1993:6) advise that employing multiple techniques is more likely to produce a complete list of measurement items. Therefore, three techniques were adopted in this context: *a literature search*, *semi-structured interviews*, and *using a panel of experts*. These techniques are subsequently discussed.

Firstly, an initial pool of 105 motive items and 36 constraint items was generated from an extensive search of both academic literature (see Table 2.6 for a list of the literature) and non-academic literature (e.g. promotional and advertising materials, guidebooks, and newspaper reports). Truong and

Foster (2006:844) maintain that non-academic literature is an effective source for identifying a suite of attributes associated with a specific travel destination.

TABLE 2.6: ACADEMIC LITERATURE USED TO GENERATE THE INITIAL ITEM POOL

TRAVEL MOTIVATION	TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS
1. Li, Meng, Uysal & Mihalik (2013)	1. Lai, Li & Harrill (2013)
2. Hsu & Huang (2012)	2. Chen & Gassner (2012)
3. Li & Cai (2012)	3. Dong & Chick (2012)
4. Zhang, Ma & Qu (2012)	4. Zhang, Zhang, Cheng, Lu & Shi (2012)
5. Hua & Yoo (2011)	5. Li, Zhang, Mao & Deng (2011)
6. Li, Wen & Leung (2011)	6. Liang & Walker (2011)
7. Lu (2011)	7. Huang & Hsu (2009)
8. Yun & Joppe (2011)	8. Sparks & Pan (2009)
9. Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)	9. Zhang (2009)
10. Huang & Hsu (2009)	10. Johanson (2007)
11. Ma (2009)	11. Huang & Hsu (2005)
12. Chow & Murphy (2007)	12. Hsu & Lam (2003)
13. Johanson (2007)	13. Zhou, King & Turner (1998)
14. Mohsin (2007)	-
15. Huang & Hsu (2005)	-
16. Kau & Lim (2005)	-
17. Kim, Guo & Agrusa (2005)	-
18. Hsu & Lam (2003)	-
19. Ryan & Mo (2001)	-
20. Yu & Weiler (2001)	-
21. Zhang & Lam (1999)	-

Source: Own construction

Secondly, the researcher purposively selected and interviewed 48 Chinese individuals using both closed and open questions. The interviewees included individuals who had visited South Africa (n=28) and those who had not (n=20). The interviewees were first asked to rate the items derived from the literature search on a three-point Likert-type scale, with 1 being 'unimportant', 2 being 'moderately important', and 3 being 'very important'. Thereafter, the interviewees were encouraged to add additional items that were considered important from their perspectives.

Thirdly, the results of the interviews were presented to a panel of experts comprising two tour guides with extensive experience in guiding Chinese tour groups in South Africa, two faculty members with expertise in consumer research, and one linguistic specialist. The panel then evaluated all potential items for applicability, redundancy, and representativeness. Based on the panel's constructive comments, 24 motive items and 24 constraint items were retained and used for data collection and purification (i.e. Steps three and four), discussed in the next section. It is important to note that all the motive items shared an umbrella question stem: "If I were to visit South Africa within the next five years, I would like to …", and all the constraint items shared an umbrella question stem: "I would not visit South Africa within the next five years because …".

2.4.3   Translating and piloting the questionnaire

The questionnaire for the present study was originally written in English and translated into Chinese (Mandarin) using a blind translation-back-translation method as described by Brislin (1976:215-229). Back-translation is thought to be better than direct translation for discovering translation errors and reaching translation equivalence (Usunier & Lee 2009:155). The translation team comprised a translation coordinator and two translators. The researcher, who has excellent English and Chinese language skills, acted as the translation coordinator, supervised the work of the hired translators, and was available to provide clarification and guidance. Both translators had a minimum of five years of professional translation experience, which included translating survey questionnaires. During the course of translation, one translator was asked to translate the questionnaire into Chinese – the target language; then the other translator was asked to blindly translate it back into English – the original language. The translation team compared the two English versions to identify any differences that might have been caused by errors in the first

translation. By resolving any differences, a Chinese equivalent version of the questionnaire was ensured.

Two pilot studies (often referred to as pre-tests) were conducted to identify and eliminate potential problems of the Chinese questionnaire and ensure that the data collected would satisfy the research objectives. Malhotra (2010:354) warns that pre-test participants should be selected from the target population under investigation. Following his recommendation, the first pilot study was done using personal interviews (n=16). The participants were evenly distributed in terms of gender and age, and were asked to comment on question content, form of response, wording, sequence, instructions, and other aspects of the Chinese questionnaire. After the necessary revisions had been made, a second pilot study was conducted in online panels (n=120) similar to the process discussed in Section 2.5.1. Cronbach's alphas resulting from the second pilot study were 0.829 for attitude, 0.821 for subjective norms, 0.801 for perceived control, and 0.899 for visit intention – all exceeding the acceptable lower limit of 0.7 (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson 2010:125). With the initial ratio of five participants per item, EFAs were performed resulting in the travel-motivation scale being reduced from 24 to 20 items and the travel-constraint scale being reduced from 24 to 22 items. Therefore, the post-pilot questionnaire comprised a six-item attitude scale, a three-item subjective-norm scale, a three-item perceived-control scale, a five-item visit-intention scale, a 20-item travel-motivation scale, and a 22-item travel-constraint scale.

2.5   SAMPLING DESIGN

In addition to questionnaire construction, sampling design is also important for primary data collection. According to Malhotra (2010:372-375), the sampling process typically involves five logical steps: definition of the target population,

identification of the sampling frame, selection of the sampling method, determination of the sample size, and execution of the sample plan. These steps are discussed in detail below.

2.5.1 Target population and sampling frame

Sampling design commences with specifying the target population. Jennings (2010:137) makes a distinction between population and target population: a population comprises all the elements (people or objects) that are the focus of the research project, while the target population comprises only the elements of a population whom the researcher wishes to target for study. In this context, the *population* comprised potential Chinese leisure travellers to South Africa, while the *target population* was potential Chinese leisure travellers to South Africa who were aged 18 or older and living in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. The selection of these three cities was inspired from a range of empirical investigations on Chinese outbound tourists that have recently been published in mainstream tourism journals (see Table 2.7). These three cities are major outbound-tourist-generating areas in China because they not only record the highest outbound tourism incidence, but also set the trends for the entire outbound tourism market (Lai et al 2013:139). The demand for outbound tourism in China is particularly vested in the *adult* population of these three cities (Li et al 2010:253). Further justifications for choosing the target population can be found in Section 3.4.4 of Chapter 3.

TABLE 2.7: SURVEY LOCATIONS SELECTED BY PREVIOUS STUDIES
ON CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS

STUDY	TRAVEL DESTINATION	BEIJING	SHANGHAI	GUANGZHOU	NUMBER OF OTHER CITIES
Lai, Li & Harrill (2013)	United States	√	√	√	-
Li, Meng, Uysal & Mihalik (2013)	Unspecified	√	√	√	-
Hsu & Huang (2012)	Hong Kong	√	√	√	-
Zhang, Ma & Qu (2012)	Unspecified	-	√	-	-
Han, Lee & Lee (2011)	South Korea	√	√	√	1
Hua & Yoo (2011)	United States	√	√	-	-
Li, Zhang, Mao & Deng (2011)	Australia	√	√	√	1
Yun & Joppe (2011)	Multiple (n=7)	√	√	√	1
Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)	Hong Kong	√	√	√	-
Li, Harrill, Uysal, Burnett & Zhan (2010)	Unspecified	√	√	√	8
Quintal, Lee & Soutar (2010)	Australia	√	√	√	-
Huang & Hsu (2009)	Hong Kong	√	-	-	-
Ma (2009)	Unspecified	√	-	-	-
Sparks & Pan (2009)	Australia	-	√	-	-
Lam & Hsu (2004)	Hong Kong	√	√	√	-
Hsu & Lam (2003)	Hong Kong	√	√	√	-

Source: Own construction

After the target population has been defined, the researcher needs to identify a sampling frame, that is, a list of elements from which the sample is drawn. Ideally, a sampling frame should be a complete and accurate list of the target population elements (Cooper & Schindler 2006:443); however, in practice, it invariably contains error (Burns & Bush 2006:331). Sampling frame error may be caused by a subset problem, a superset problem, or an intersection problem. A *subset problem* occurs when the sampling frame is smaller than the target population; a *superset problem* arises when the sampling frame is larger than the target population but encompasses all the elements of the population; and an *intersection problem* occurs when some elements of the

target population are excluded from the sampling frame and when the frame contains more elements than the population (Aaker, Kumar & Day 2004:379).

Some traditional examples of sampling frames are telephone books, lists of registered voters or students, and customer lists from magazine publishers or credit card companies. In recent years, online panels have been increasingly used to provide sampling frames for market research studies (Zikmund & Babin 2010:419). An online panel is a pre-recruited group of individuals who have agreed in advance to take part in a series of online surveys (Fricker 2008:203). The key benefits of using an online panel as a sampling frame are cost effectiveness and speed; high-quality data from willing, interested, and motivated participants; covering a large target population; conducting international research from one place; and electronically monitoring respondents through the log file analysis (Aaker et al 2007:172).

In the current context, the sampling frame consisted of the Shanghai Loop Information Technology Ltd's (www.sojump.com) online panel members aged 18 and older, living in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. This caused a sampling frame error owing to the said subset problem. It is therefore acknowledged as a limitation of the current research.

2.5.2   Sampling methods

The third step in sampling is selecting an appropriate sampling method. All existing sampling methods can be grouped under two general categories: probability and non-probability (see Figure 2.3 for a classification). *Probability sampling* is an objective procedure in which the chance of being selected is known for each population element (Parasuraman, Grewal & Krishnan 2004:360). The research results obtained by employing a probability sampling method (i.e. simple random, systematic, stratified, or cluster sampling) can be

generalised to the target population, and the sampling error – the difference between the sample value and the population value – can be estimated (Proctor 1997:76).

FIGURE 2.3: CLASSIFICATION OF SAMPLING METHODS
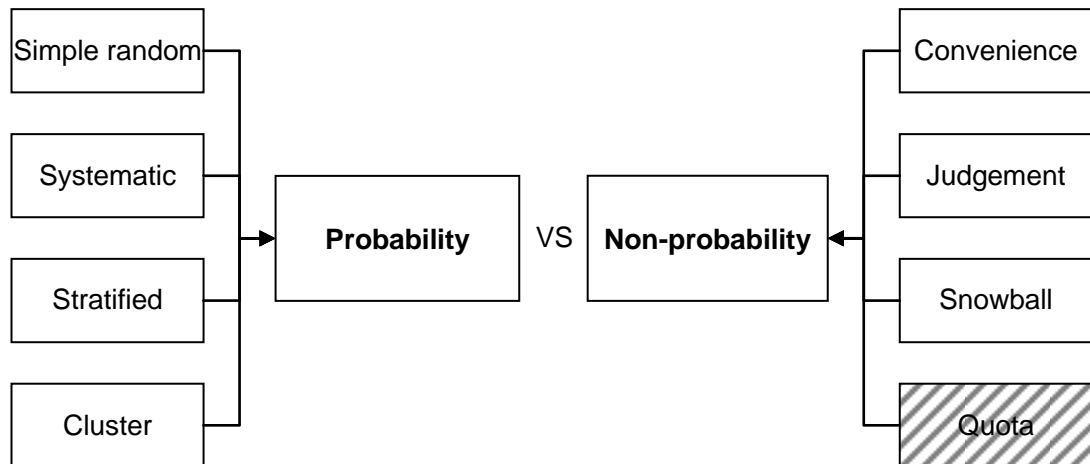
Source: Adapted from Wiid & Diggines (2009:199)

On the other hand, *non-probability sampling* (the second group of sampling methods shown in Figure 2.3) is a subjective procedure in which the chance of being selected is unknown for each population element (Parasuraman et al 2004:360). Through employing a non-probability sampling method (i.e. convenience, judgement, snowball, or quota sampling), the researcher is able to reduce the cost and time of sampling, but has to tolerate a sample that may or may not be representative of the target population, depending on how well the researcher organises and controls the selection activities (Hair et al 2006:331). Having taken many factors into consideration (e.g. availability of resources, research objectives, scope of the research, and knowledge of the target population), the researcher employed the quota sampling method to select survey participants for the current study. "Quota sampling is judgmental sampling with the constraint that the sample includes a minimum number from

each specified subgroup in the population" (Aaker et al 2004:389). Based on location of residence and age, the researcher identified three subgroups of the target population under study: those living in Beijing aged 18 and older, those living in Shanghai aged 18 and older, and those living in Guangzhou aged 18 and older. Once the subgroups and the number of people to be investigated within each subgroup (discussed in the next section) had been determined, the choice of respondents was left to the online panel (sampling frame) provider. This hired provider has successfully executed more than 2,200 panel survey projects for its clients since its founding in 2005, with almost one million questionnaires being completed by its online panel members across China (Sojump 2013:¶1). Therefore, the quality of selecting respondents via the panel provider could be assured.

2.5.3 Sample size

Step four in the sampling process requires the sample size to be determined. Sample size is "the number of elements to be included in the study" (Malhotra 2010:374). According to Aaker et al (2007:408-410), determining sample size involves three general considerations, that is, the number of groups and subgroups within the sample that will be statistically analysed, the trade-off between the value of more accurate information and the cost of an increased sample size, and the variability of the target population. In addition to relying on statistical formulas, sample size can also be determined by some ad hoc methods. Sekaran (2000:296) proposes a few common rules of thumb for determining sample size: a sample size of larger than 30 and less than 500 is appropriate for most research; when the sample is divided into subsamples, a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is needed; and when advanced statistical techniques (e.g. factor analysis) are used, the sample size should be several times (preferably 10 times or more) larger than the number of variables to be analysed. Given these common rules, and considering

budgetary constraints since the panel provider charged a fee per usable questionnaire, the current investigation aimed at collecting 630 *usable* questionnaires from the target population (sampling frame). A quota was set at 210 *usable* questionnaires for each targeted city.

2.5.4   Executing the sample plan

The last step involved in the sampling process is execution of the sample plan. The Internet survey was conducted in China from July 24, 2013 to August 20, 2013 to collect primary data for the current survey investigation. The panel provider sent an invitation e-mail containing the content of the said cover letter to everyone in its database who met the parameters of the required sample. Those who were interested could voluntarily respond by clicking on the link provided to complete the questionnaire. The target of collecting 630 *usable* questionnaires was reached by sending 1,510 invitation e-mails. The average combined completion rate (of the three cities) was 41.7%.

2.6   STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The purpose of statistical analysis is to make sense of the data collected so that accurate conclusions and recommendations can be drawn. This section discusses three important aspects in the process of statistical analysis: data preparation, scale reliability and validity assessment, and statistical methods and techniques.

2.6.1   Preparing the data for analysis

The raw data obtained from the survey instrument must undergo preliminary preparation before starting analysis using statistical techniques. The quality of the results and their subsequent interpretation depend largely on how well the

data were prepared (Aaker et al 2007:432). A typical preparation procedure consists of three sequential steps, namely, data editing, data coding, and data filing. *Data editing* entails the raw data being inspected and, if necessary, corrected to make them more complete, consistent, and readable. In *data coding*, the edited data are transformed into numerical scores or other classifying symbols, while *data filing* occurs when the coded data are entered into a spreadsheet in the form of an $n \times m$ matrix of numbers (where n is the number of respondents and m is the number of variables) (Zikmund & Babin 2010:493-502). In the current context, the raw data obtained from the online questionnaires went through all these data preparation steps. The data were first captured in an Excel spreadsheet, and then imported into the SPSS 15 and AMOS 7 software packages for statistical analysis.

2.6.2   Scale reliability and validity

Ideally, any measurement scale used in research should be reliable and valid (Burns & Bush 2006:290). *Reliability* is the degree to which a scale provides consistent or stable data, while *validity* is the degree to which a scale truly reflects the concept being measured (Parasuraman et al 2004:294). Figure 2.4 illustrates the relationship between reliability and validity using rifle hunting as an analogy. In brief, reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for validity (Iacobucci & Churchill 2010:259).

FIGURE 2.4: RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY IN ANALOGY TO RIFLE HUNTING
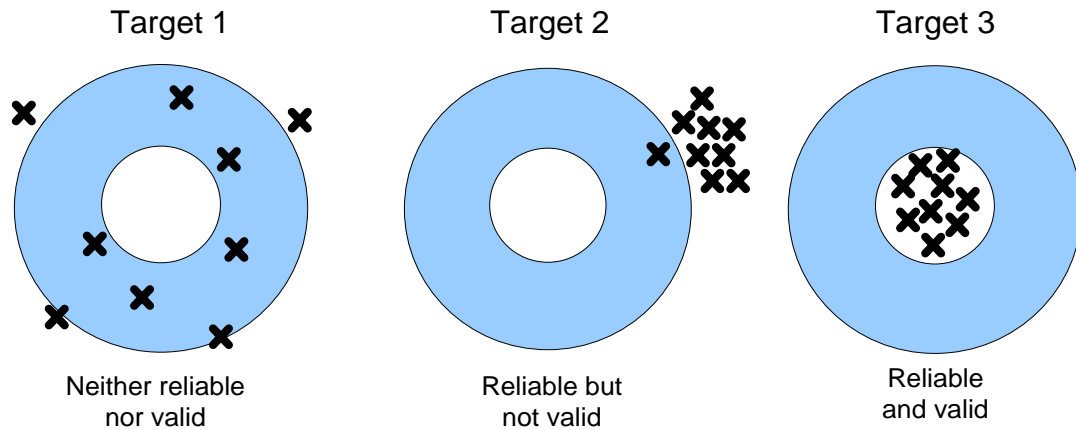
Source: Adapted from Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran (2001:212)

The reliability of scales can be assessed by two general methods: test-retest and internal consistency. The *test-retest* method involves administering the same scale to the same sample of respondents at two different times to test for stability (Zikmund & Babin 2010:334). Potential problems associated with this method are as follows: it may be impossible to make repeated measurements; it is sensitive to the time interval between measurements; the first measurement may have a carryover effect to second or subsequent measurements; the initial measurement may change the characteristic being measured; and the characteristic being measured may alter between measurements (Malhotra 2010:319). A second and more commonly used method of checking reliability is *internal consistency*, which is concerned with "the homogeneity of the items within a scale" (DeVellis 2012:34). There are two prevalent techniques used to assess internal consistency, that is, split-half and coefficient alpha, also referred to as Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al 2006:374). Both techniques were employed in this study. The sample was randomly split into two equal halves, one as the calibration sample and the other as the validation sample. As a general procedure, an EFA was first performed with the calibration sample to identify the underlying structure of a

research construct; then a CFA was performed with the validation sample to verify the results of the EFA and adjustments were made where necessary.

Researchers may assess the validity of scales with three basic approaches: content (face) validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (Cooper & Schindler 2006:349). The present study focused on content and construct validity. *Content validity* refers to the degree to which the items of a scale appear to represent all the aspects of the concept being measured (Parasuraman et al 2004:294). The researcher and the panel of experts (discussed in Section 2.4.2) scrutinised the measurement items for content validity at the stages of questionnaire design and data reduction. *Construct validity* is related to a scale encapsulating several items that are theoretically sound (Jennings 2010:150). The current research assessed convergent validity (an important aspect of construct validity) for each study variable at the CFA stage. Convergent validity assumes that "the items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance in common" (Hair et al 2010:709).

2.6.3   Statistical methods and techniques

Statistics can be either descriptive or inferential (Crow 2006:147). Descriptive statistics enable researchers to summarise the data collected from a sample of respondents by calculating frequency distributions, central tendency (e.g. mean, median, and mode), variability (e.g. range and standard deviation), and shape (e.g. skewness and kurtosis) (Cooper & Schindler 2006:468). However, researchers often desire to go beyond describing the sample data to make statements about the population from which the sample was selected (Tustin et al 2005:559). This can be achieved by using inferential statistics, which test whether a given sample statistic is likely to have occurred by chance due to sampling error. This testing process is referred to as the hypothesis testing

procedure (Finn, Elliott-White & Walton 2000:217-218). The *p-value* approach is most often used for conducting hypothesis tests (Baggio & Klobas 2011:22). Table 2.8 illustrates p-values at a 95% confidence level, which is considered satisfactory for tourism research (Finn et al 2000:217). In the present study, descriptive statistics were used to report the respondents' demographic and travel-related characteristics and their responses to the measurement scales. Inferential statistics were used to test for significant differences between groups and for significant relationships between variables.

TABLE 2.8: P-VALUES AND THEIR MEANING

P-VALUE	MEANING	SHORTENED FORM
>0.05	Not significant	n.s.
≤0.05 – >0.01	Significant	*
≤0.01 – >0.001	Very significant	**
≤0.001	Extremely significant	***

Note: Alpha=0.05

Source: Adapted from Baggio & Klobas (2011:23)

The main statistical techniques used in this particular study were EFA, CFA, MRA, ANOVA, cluster analysis, discriminant analysis, and cross-tabulation analysis. The detailed procedures for applying these techniques to analyse the data and address the research objectives are presented in Chapter 6. A brief overview of these techniques is given below.

- *EFA* – used in the early stages of research to investigate the correlations among a large set of scale items, in an attempt to refine and reduce these items to form a smaller number of coherent subscales (Pallant 2007:179).
- *CFA* – used later in the research process to validate the results of the EFA, contributing to a stricter and more objective evaluation of construct validity (Santouridis, Trivellas & Reklitis 2009:232).

- *MRA* – used to predict a single continuous dependent variable from the knowledge of two or more continuous independent variables (Hair et al 2010:162).

- *ANOVA* – used to determine whether two or more means are statistically different (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007:37).

- *Cluster analysis* – used to place individuals into groups with the purpose of achieving high internal (within-group) homogeneity and high external (between-group) heterogeneity (Zikmund & Babin 2010:628).

- *Discriminant analysis* – used to estimate the relationship between a categorical dependent variable and a set of continuous independent variables (Malhotra & Birks 2007:617).

- *Cross-tabulation analysis* – used to present information on two categorical variables simultaneously and determine whether any relationship exists between them (Jennings 2010:290).

2.7   DIFFICULTIES OF CONDUCTING THE ONLINE SURVEY

One of the major difficulties experienced while conducting the online survey was related to access control. According to Best and Krueger (2008:221), subject fraud poses a greater threat to the Internet survey than traditional survey methods (e.g. face-to-face, telephone, and mail). Notably, when prospective respondents receive an e-mail invitation to participate, they could forward it to others outside the sample (i.e. bogus respondents) to fill out, or submit completed questionnaires multiple times (i.e. multiple submissions) (Burns & Bush 2006:404). In collaboration with the online panel provider, the researcher employed a number of security measures to eliminate fraudulent participation and maintain data quality. These measures included setting a minimum time frame; using trap questions; identifying respondents by their e-mail addresses, IP addresses, or Cookies; and post-checking for duplicate responses in the final dataset.

2.8   SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology applied in the present study. Research designs can be classified according to the study's outcome (basic or applied), logic (deductive or inductive), process (qualitative or quantitative), and purpose (exploratory, descriptive, or causal). The nature of this study was basic, deductive, quantitative, and causal. Secondary data can be classified as either internal or external. The current research involved collecting and analysing external data accessed from the Internet and the NMMU's LIS to address specific research objectives.

There are three basic methods of primary data collection: survey, observation, and experimentation. This study assembled primary data by using the survey approach with a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire included a cover letter; scales of travel motivation and travel constraints, developed following the scale development procedure; scales of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention, adapted from previous studies; and some classification questions. The questionnaire was distributed by a hired Chinese market research company to its online panel members using a quota sampling method. The data collected were prepared through the sequential steps of editing, coding, and filing, and then analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Chapter 3 describes the subject of tourism in general, and international tourism in particular. The theory of a tourism system is highlighted.

- ➤ What is tourism?
  - ▪ Tourism and related concepts
  - ▪ Definition and conceptualisation of tourism
  - ▪ The tourism system
- ➤ Tourism demand
  - ▪ The definitions and elements of tourism demand
  - ▪ The determinants of tourism demand at the macro level
  - ▪ The determinants of tourism demand at the micro level
- ➤ China's outbound tourism
  - ▪ The impact of government policy on outbound tourism demand
  - ▪ Other factors with an impact on outbound tourism demand
  - ▪ The influence of Chinese culture on tourist behaviour
  - ▪ The development of the Chinese outbound travel market
- ➤ South Africa's inbound tourism
  - ▪ The impact of tourism on a destination
  - ▪ International tourist arrivals in South Africa
  - ▪ Tourism destination management

Chapter 1
(Orientation)

Chapter 2
(Methodology)

Secondary data   Primary data

Chapter 3
(Tourism)

Chapter 4
(TPB)   Input   Chapter 6
(Results)

Chapter 5
(Extended TPB)

Theoretical findings   Chapter 7
(Conclusions)   Empirical findings
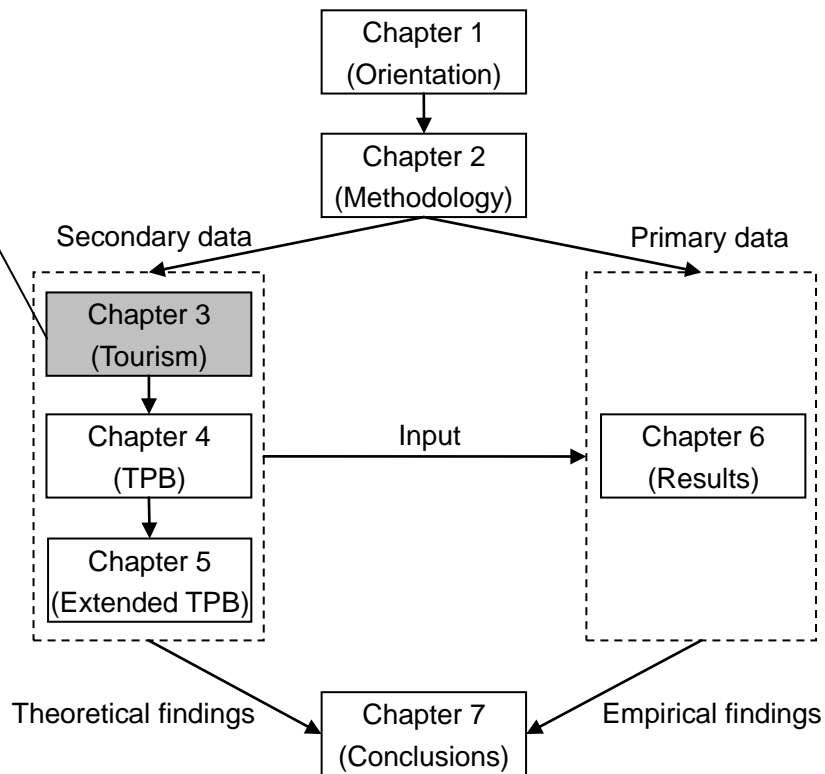
CHAPTER 3

INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

3.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 dealt with research design and methodology. This chapter, the first of three theoretical chapters in this study, addresses the first research objective stated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, namely, to review the literature related to the nature of international tourism, and the history, status quo, and development trends in China's outbound tourism and South Africa's inbound tourism.

3.2   BACKGROUND OF TOURISM

Tourism is a relatively young domain of study among academics, researchers, and commentators. Some of the very early textbooks on tourism date back as recently as the early 1970s, with a second wave of interest in the 1980s and then an explosion in the 1990s as tourism education expanded worldwide. Since the new millennium, a wide range of niche books have been published focusing on particular aspects of tourism research (Page 2009:8; Page & Connell 2009:6).

In the field of tourism, the development of academic journals is consistent with that of textbooks. Prior to 1970, only five scholarly journals related to tourism existed, namely, *Tourism Review*, *Turizam* (now *Tourism*), *World Leisure Journal*, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, and *Journal of Leisure Research* (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:412-413). Since the early 1970s, the total number of tourism academic journals has increased dramatically. Of particular note is the emergence of the *Journal of Travel*

Research in 1972 and *Annals of Tourism Research* in 1973. By 2004, there were over 59 tourism academic journals published either fully or partially in English. The disciplinary coverage of tourism journals has broadened over time from 17 disciplinary focus areas pre-1970 to 26 disciplinary focus areas post-1991 (Cheng, Li, Petrick & O'Leary 2011:53-61).

This section attempts to explain tourism by considering the distinction between tourism and related concepts and exploring the definitions and approaches that have been used to study the subject and which provide a foundation for the current research.

3.2.1   Tourism and related concepts

An important starting point for understanding tourism is to consider its association with and differences from related concepts. The first of these concepts is *leisure*. In the post-war period, particularly in recent decades, the nature of the economy in most developed and some developing countries changed from one characterised by manufacturing and production to one where the dominant source of industry is consumer services. The amount of leisure time and paid annual leave for workers increased, enabling them to engage in new forms of consumption such as tourism. These social changes have been acknowledged as being part of the so-called leisure society – a term coined by sociologists (Page 2009:10).

However, sociologists are not the only scientists to conduct leisure studies. Neoclassical economists define leisure as an economic activity in which people consume goods or services purchased with wages. Anthropologists treat leisure as a cultural activity, focusing on artistic expression, play, and community building. Social psychologists view leisure from the perspective of contributing to social integration and psychological well-being (Biggart

2001:8717-8718). Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Fyall, and Wanhill (2005:17) – a group of tourism scholars – think of leisure as "a combined measure of time and attitude of mind to create periods of time when other obligations are at a minimum".

The second concept closely related to tourism is *recreation*. Best (2010:11) argues that recreation is a narrower concept than leisure and can be best understood and learned through the notion of play. Play is an activity voluntarily performed at specific times and in specific places, according to rules freely accepted but absolutely binding. The aim of this voluntary activity is the performance of the activity itself and the enjoyment of various feelings (e.g. tension and happiness) that accompany the activity. In a similar vein, Boniface and Cooper (2005:4) think of recreation as "the variety of activities undertaken during leisure time". Recreation may refresh an individual's strength and spirit and encompasses activities as diverse as watching television and holidaying overseas. Boniface and Cooper also conceived a spectrum (see Figure 3.1) based on the time required for a specific activity and the distance travelled to disentangle the meaning of recreation and to illustrate the relationship between leisure, recreation, and tourism. In essence, leisure involves a measure of time; recreation describes the activities undertaken during that time; and tourism is simply one type of recreation activity.

FIGURE 3.1: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LEISURE, RECREATION AND TOURISM

Leisure time | *Work time*

Leisure
(The time available to an individual when work, sleep and other basic needs have been met)

Serious leisure

Recreation
(Pursuit engaged in during leisure time)

The recreation activity continuum

| **Home-based recreation** (Reading, gardening, watching TV, socialising, etc) | **Daily leisure** (Visiting theatres or restaurants, sports, socialising, etc) | **Day trips** (Visiting attractions, picnicking, etc) | **Tourism** (Temporary movement to destinations outside normal home and workplace, the activities undertaken during the stay, and the facilities created to cater for the needs) |

Business tourism

Geographical range

Home   Local   Regional   National   International

Source: Adapted from Boniface & Cooper (2005:4)

However, as shown in Figure 3.1, the major complexity here relates to two issues of positioning: first, business tourism, which is deemed a work-oriented form of tourism, and second, serious leisure, which represents "the breakdown between leisure and work pursuits and the development of leisure career paths" (Hall & Page 2002:4).

A third concept closely related to tourism is *travel*. Tourism requires movement to a destination – known as travel. In the absence of travel there would be no tourism. Improvements in the ease of travel increased the magnitude of tourism and influenced the forms which it takes (Ivanovic, Khunou, Reynish, Pawson, Tseane & Wassung 2009:13; Wall 2000:600). Conversely, it can be argued that travel is a broader concept than tourism. According to Medlik (2003:vii), travel is one of the most common human activities and includes any movement "from one place to another, over short or long distances; to, from and as part of one's work, during leisure and for any purpose; using any mode of transport by air, land or sea".

In conclusion, it is clear that there is general agreement that all tourism includes some travel but all travel is not tourism (George 2008:21; Middleton, Fyall, Morgan & Ranchhod 2009:9). Colloquially, travel is often used as a substitute for tourism. The term 'tourism' is frequently used in Europe and Commonwealth countries (e.g. South Africa), while in the United States the more common term is 'travel' (Vanhove 2005:8). In the context of the current research, the two terms are used interchangeably to mean the same thing and no conceptual difference is implied between these two expressions.

3.2.2   Definition and conceptualisation of tourism

Numerous definitions of tourism are cited in the literature. These focus on characteristics such as distance, time, purpose, economics, and tourists' needs. This diversity makes it difficult to compile accurate tourism statistics and to conduct standardised tourism studies across training and research institutions (Ivanovic et al 2009:9). Burkart and Medlik (1981:42) conceptualise tourism by identifying its essential nature.

● Tourism arises from the movement of people to, and their stay at, various destinations.

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- There are two elements in all tourism – the journey to the destination and the stay (including activities) at the destination.

- The journey and the stay take place outside the normal place of residence and work.

- The movement to destinations is temporary and short-term in character.

- The destination is visited for purposes other than taking up permanent residence or employment.

In recognition of the importance of agreeing on tourism terminology, industrial classifications, and performance indicators, 250 delegates from 90 countries participated in a landmark conference convened by the UNWTO in Ottawa, Canada, in 1991 (Theobald 2005:15). One of the principal conference resolutions was the recommendation that tourism be defined as "the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes" (UNWTO 1994:5). This definition has some important features:

- tourism is demand-focused, something that people engage in, and not something businesses and institutions offer;

- the phrase 'usual environment' is intended to exclude trips within the area of residence and routine trips;

- the phrase 'not more than one consecutive year' is intended to exclude long-term migration;

- the phrase 'leisure, business and other purposes' is intended to exclude migration for temporary work; and

- same-day visits are tourism trips, as are multi-month tours, as long as they last less than one year (Cooper & Hall 2008:16; Smith 2004:29-30).

As demonstrated in Figure 3.2, the visitor is the subject of tourism activities. The visitor constitutes the basic unit of the entire system of tourism statistics. The latter includes overnight visitors (tourists) as well as same-day visitors

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(excursionists) (UNWTO 1994:7). In the current research, the terms 'traveller', 'visitor', and 'tourist' are used interchangeably to mean the same thing and no conceptual difference is implied between these expressions.

FIGURE 3.2: CLASSIFICATION OF TRAVELLERS
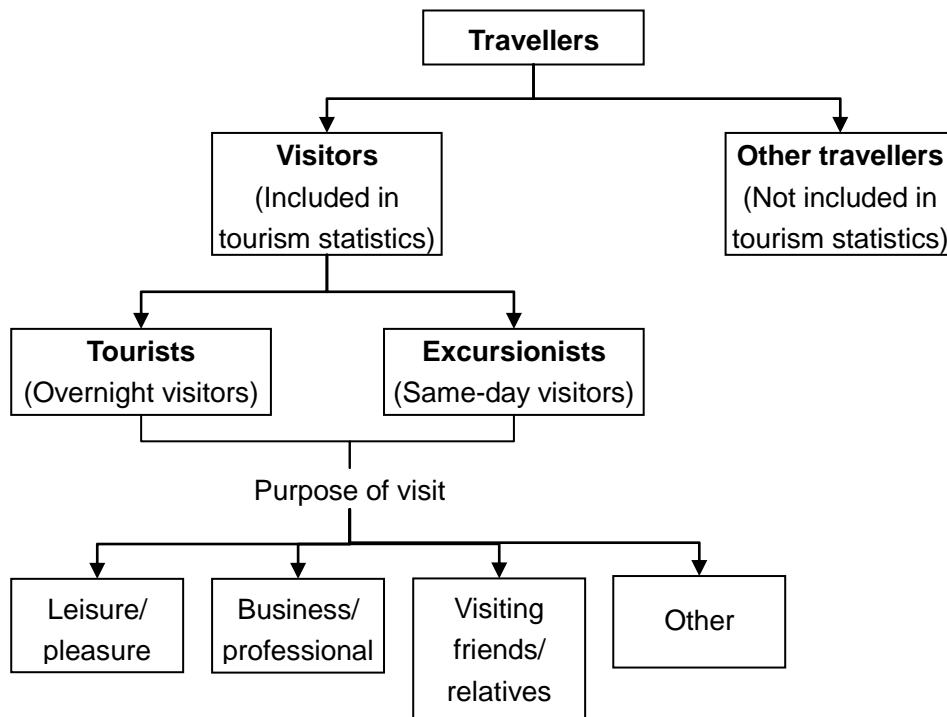
Source: Adapted from Goeldner & Ritchie (2012:8)

Besides developing a uniform definition of tourism, the Ottawa conference identified three basic forms of tourism, namely, *domestic tourism* (residents travelling in their own country), *inbound tourism* (non-residents travelling in a selected country), and *outbound tourism* (residents travelling outside their own country) (UNWTO 1994:5). The latter two forms are relevant to the current research context. When a tourist from China visits South Africa, the South African government would classify that person as an inbound tourist. The government of China would, however, classify the same person as an outbound tourist. As shown in Figure 3.3, the three basic forms of tourism can

be combined in various ways to result in broader categories of tourism. They include *internal tourism* (domestic tourism plus inbound tourism), *national tourism* (domestic tourism plus outbound tourism), and *international tourism* (inbound tourism plus outbound tourism) (UNWTO 1994:5). The present study fits into the category of international tourism.

FIGURE 3.3: FORMS OF TOURISM
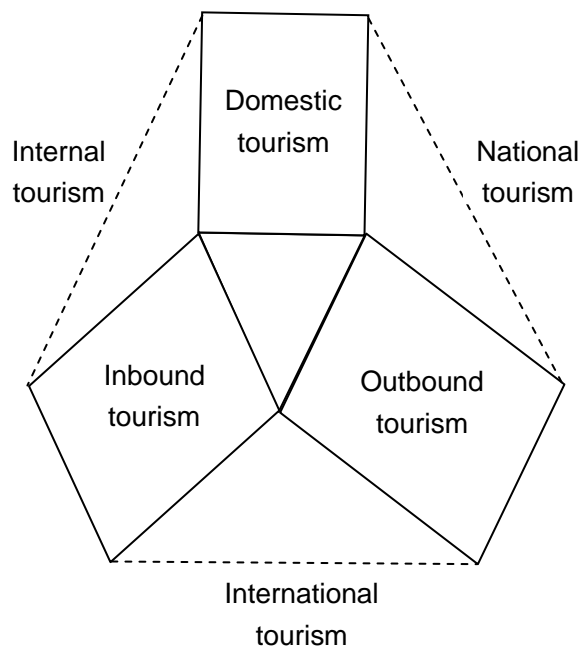
Source: Adapted from Theobald (2005:18)

In addition to geographic boundaries, travel distance is another objective approach to categorising tourism. According to Boniface and Cooper's (2005:13) rules of classification, *short-haul tourism* comprises journeys of less than 1,000 kilometres; *medium-haul tourism* implies journeys of between 1,000 and 3,000 kilometres; and *long-haul tourism* involves journeys of over 3,000 kilometres. In the context of the current research, South Africa is a long-haul travel destination for Chinese tourists.

3.2.3   The tourism system

The study of tourism can be approached from various points of view. However, there is a lack of agreement on how this should be undertaken. According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2012:15-17), tourism scholars have used at least nine different approaches to studying tourism, as listed below.

- *Institutional approach* – examines the intermediaries and institutions that perform tourism activities, such as the travel agency. It investigates the functions of the organisation and what each contributes to tourism, as well as their importance to the tourism sector.

- *Product approach* – involves the study of various tourism products – how they are designed, produced, marketed, advertised, and even consumed. It serves as an ideal source of examples, but tends to be time-consuming and does not allow a quick understanding of tourism fundamentals.

- *Historical approach* – is not widely used and involves an analysis of tourism activities and institutions from an evolutionary perspective. It attempts to determine the driving forces of innovations, their growth or decline, and shifts in interest.

- *Managerial approach* – is popular and firm-oriented and focuses on various management activities such as the planning and marketing necessary to operate a tourism business. This approach is particularly common among the articles published in both *Tourism Management* and *Journal of Travel Research* – leading journals in the field.

- *Economic approach* – is based on the fact that tourism is an important economic phenomenon that influences local, national, and international economies through factors such as supply and demand, employment, and multipliers. *Tourism Economics* typically features this approach.

- *Sociological approach* – is often used to understand the behaviour of individuals and groups of tourists and tourism's impact on society. It is useful in investigating the social classes, habits, and customs of both hosts and guests.

- *Geographical approach* – sheds light on the location of tourist areas, the movement of people created by tourism locales, the changes that tourism brings to the landscape, dispersion of tourism development, and other spatial aspects. *Tourism Geographies* utilises this approach.

- *Interdisciplinary approach* – is based on the fact that tourism is vast and complex and therefore requires multiple disciplines to study the domain. It includes those disciplines that are affected by tourism or that affect tourism (e.g. law, politics, anthropology, psychology, and education). *Annals of Tourism Research* typifies this approach.

- *Systems approach* – intends to integrate all other approaches into a single comprehensive method that deals with both micro- and macro-issues. It is what is really needed to study tourism (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:15-17; Ivanovic et al 2009:10-12). Given its significance, this approach is discussed in more detail below.

The concept of a tourism system originated from the systems theory (Leiper 2000:589). At its most basic level, a tourism system is an organising framework that embraces production and consumption and the experiences that are generated (Cooper & Hall 2008:6). The analytical value of such an approach is that it enables one to understand the overall process of the contemporary tourism experience from both the producer's and the consumer's perspectives while identifying the organisations which influence and regulate tourism (Page & Connell 2009:11). The most widely used framework is the one suggested by Leiper (1990:21-26), who posits a tourism system as comprising three basic elements, namely, tourist-generating area, tourist-receiving area, and transit route. These basic elements are influenced

by environmental factors (e.g. political, economic, and socio-cultural factors), and in turn affect various environments (see Figure 3.4).

FIGURE 3.4: A BASIC TOURISM SYSTEM
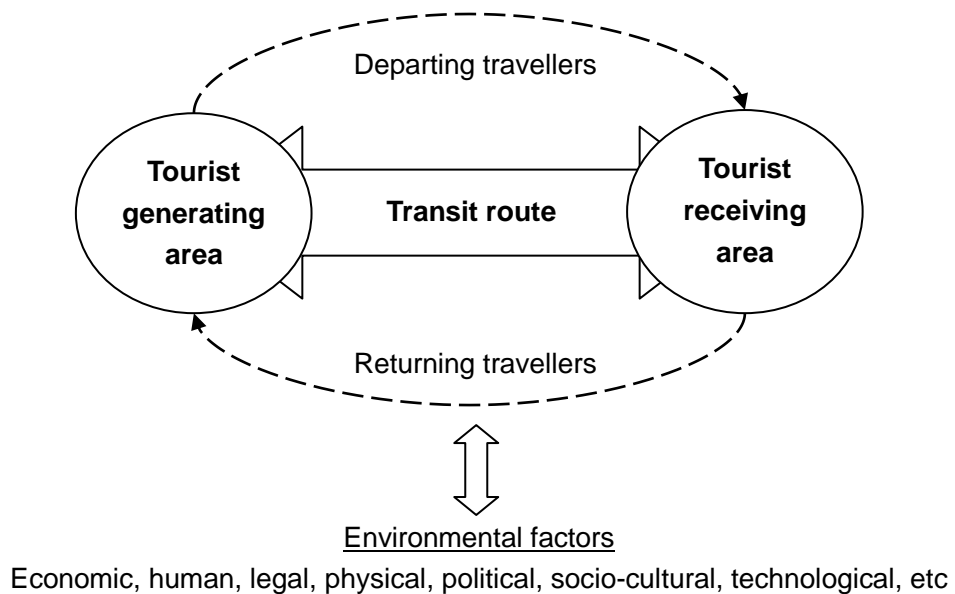
Source: Adapted from Leiper (1990:25)

In terms of the basic elements highlighted in Figure 3.4, the *tourist-generating area* represents the permanent residence of the tourist, where the journey begins and ends. The major issues to examine in this area are the key determinants of the demand for tourism at both the individual (micro) and the collective (macro) level (Cooper et al 2005:136). In the current context, the tourist-generating area is China, more specifically, the Chinese outbound travel market. The factors influencing demand from this market are reviewed in Section 3.4. The *tourist-receiving area*, on the other hand, refers to the destination the tourist chooses to visit. This is the central part of the tourism system, not only attracting the tourist and hence energising the system, but also where the overall impact of tourism is felt and therefore where management strategies are implemented (Boniface & Cooper 2005:6). In the

present study, the tourist destination area is South Africa. An overview of tourism impacts, international tourist arrivals, and destination management in South Africa is provided in Section 3.5. Finally, the *transit route* reflects an interval in a trip when travellers feel they have left their home region or country, but have not yet arrived in the region or country they intend to visit (Leiper 1990:22). In this context, transit routes may include any stopover region or country outside China and South Africa, such as Hong Kong, Qatar, Mauritius, and Kenya. Transit routes were not the focus of this research and are thus not elaborated upon.

3.3   TOURISM DEMAND

Before discussing the factors which impact on outbound tourism demand in China, it is necessary to understand the basic concepts of tourism demand. In this section, the literature on the definitions, elements, and determinants of tourism demand is reviewed.

3.3.1   The definitions and elements of tourism demand

Demand is a basic economic concept. Economists define demand as "the amount of a product that people are willing and able to purchase at each possible price during a given period of time, everything else held constant" (Boyes & Melvin 2011:47). Within the context of tourism, demand is "the total number of persons who travel, or wish to travel, to use tourist facilities and services at places away from their places of work and residence" (Mathieson & Wall 1982:1). The fundamental difference between the two definitions is that purchasing power is an essential part of demand within the economic definition (i.e. not only must people want to purchase something, but they must also be able to do so). The tourism-context definition implies that the source of demand includes not only those who are actually travelling, but also

those who wish to travel but for some reason (e.g. a lack of money or time) do not travel (Keyser 2009:252). These reasons can be described as constraints to tourism.

The total demand for tourism comprises three principal elements – effective (or actual) demand, suppressed demand, and no demand (Page 2009:84-85). *Effective demand* refers to the total number of people participating in tourism. A commonly adopted indicator of effective demand is travel propensity, which is calculated as the percentage of a population who actually engages in tourism (Boniface & Cooper 2005:17-18). On the other hand, *suppressed demand* refers to the total number of people who are unable to travel due to certain constraints. Based on the nature of these constraints, suppressed demand can further be divided into two categories, namely, potential and deferred demand. Potential demand denotes those who will travel in future if their socio-economic conditions improve (e.g. higher income and more paid leave), while deferred demand represents those who will travel at some future date if the supply environment changes (e.g. better weather conditions, lower crime rates, and larger capacity in accommodation). Finally, *no demand* describes those who simply do not wish to travel (Ivanovic et al 2009:125). Considering South Africa's current low share but great potential in China's outbound tourism market as explained in Section 1.1 of Chapter 1, the current research aimed at providing South African destination marketers with ideas on how to convert suppressed demand into effective demand by identifying Chinese travellers' perceived constraints to visiting South Africa.

Tourism demand can be examined at either the macro (collective) or the micro (individual) level. Typically, the former is concerned with the external factors that shape the general demand for tourism within a particular society (e.g. China) and are expressed as travel volume and direction, while the latter is concerned with the personal factors that directly affect the individual (e.g. a

Chinese outbound tourist) and are expressed as travel desire and choice (Page & Connell 2009:50). The next two sections discuss the determinants of tourism demand at the macro level and the micro level, respectively.

3.3.2 The determinants of tourism demand at the macro level

At the macro level, Middleton et al (2009:60-72) categorise the determinants of a demand for tourism into ten broad groups, that is, economic factors and comparative prices, demographic factors, geographic factors, socio-cultural attitudes to tourism, access to personal transport, government and regulatory factors, media communications, information and communications technology, environmental concerns, and international terrorist actions. Although the above determinants tend to be common to nearly all countries, Keyser (2009:254) highlights two important caveats of reviewing demand: first, populations are not homogenous, and second, averages do not portray the full picture of a market. For these reasons, subgroups have to be analysed to obtain a full understanding of the market. Keeping Keyser's admonitions in mind, the current study aimed at constructing profiles of the characteristics of potential Chinese travellers to South Africa by using the market segmentation strategy (discussed in Section 3.5.3).

3.3.3 The determinants of tourism demand at the micro level

At the micro level, the factors influencing tourism demand are closely linked to theories of consumer behaviour (Cooper et al 2005:52). Moutinho, Ballantyne, and Rate (2011:83) define consumer behaviour as "the process of acquiring and organizing information in the direction of a purchase decision and of using and evaluating products and services". In tourism the process of consumer buying behaviour can be expressed as a stimulus-response model composed of three main components – external factors, buyer's factors, and buyer's

responses (Middleton et al 2009:78). As illustrated in Figure 3.5, *external factors* include environmental stimuli (e.g. political, cultural, and economic stimuli), market stimuli (e.g. suppliers and customers), and marketing efforts (e.g. marketing mix). External factors influence three types of *buyer's factors*, namely, personal characteristics (e.g. religion, occupation, and lifestyle), psychological characteristics (e.g. motivation, perception, and attitudes), and the decision process (e.g. problem recognition and alternative evaluation). Buyer's factors influence *buyer's responses*, including product selection, price acceptance, and seller choice (Reisinger 2009:289-291). As a type of buyer's factors, the decision process is further discussed below, owing to its centrality to tourists' buying behaviour (Sirakaya & Woodside 2005:816).

FIGURE 3.5: A STIMULUS RESPONSE MODEL OF
CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR
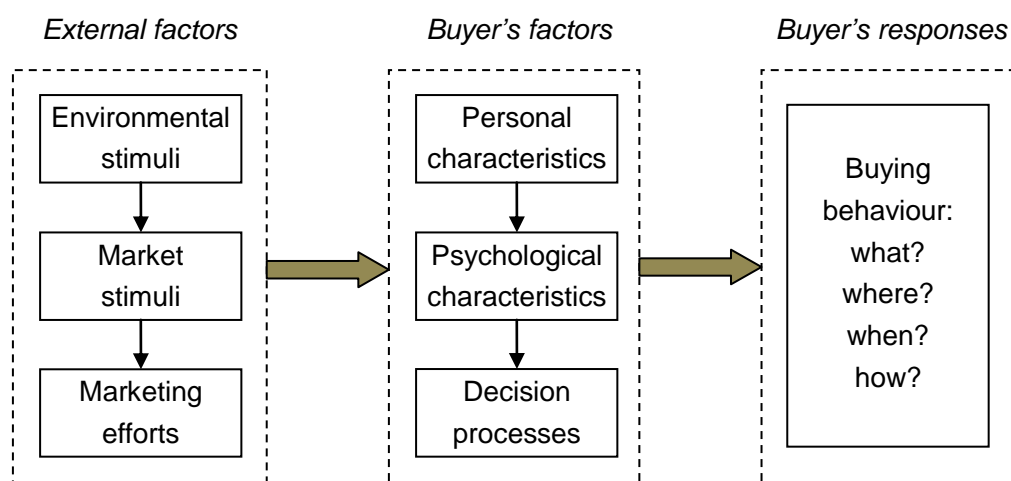
Source: Adapted from Middleton, Fyall, Morgan & Ranchhod (2009:78); Reisinger
(2009:290)

Decision making refers to "the process of making choices between different options" (Page & Connell 2009:641). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:526-527), one can distinguish three levels of decision making on a continuum of effort ranging from very low to very high. These are habitual,

limited, and extensive decision making. Apart from short trips near home, the first two levels are not applicable to tourism (Cooper et al 2005:66). In fact, tourism decision making is typically characterised by high levels of perceived risk and involvement and extensive problem solving behaviour (Clarke 2005:106). This is particularly true for Chinese tourists, who tend to spend a lot of time searching for information and comparing alternatives, and thus are unlikely to make impulse decisions or convenience purchases (Reisinger 2009:334).

Various theories attempt to describe the *extensive* consumer decision making process. Two examples are briefly discussed, namely, the tourism destination choice process proposed by Hsu, Killion, Brown, Gross, and Huang (2008:90) and the TPB. Hsu et al (2008:90) conceptualise the tourism destination choice process as consisting of six sequential steps, as summarised in Figure 3.6.

FIGURE 3.6: THE TOURISM DESTINATION CHOICE PROCESS
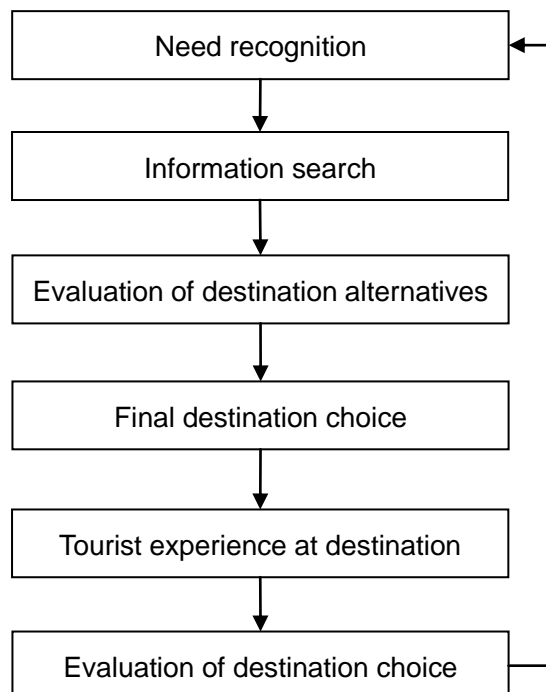
Source: Adapted from Hsu, Killion, Brown, Gross & Huang (2008:90)

The destination choice process starts with *need recognition* – a decision maker recognises a possible need to travel. A destination marketer may use advertising and sales promotion to stimulate prospective visitors' desire for a holiday.

The second step is called *information search*, where the decision maker gathers information on possible suitable destinations. Typical information sources include personal experience, family, relatives, friends, peer group members, returnees, travel agencies, tourism fairs, printed media, television, the Internet, and social media.

In the third step, *evaluation of destination alternatives*, the decision maker evaluates an 'awareness set' of destinations and then reduces it to an 'evoked set', which encompasses those destinations that remain under consideration after undesirable or impractical options have been discarded.

In the fourth step, *final destination choice*, a buying decision is made and the tourist makes a purchase, usually in the form of a booking. Research has revealed that although online booking is possible, tourists have a preference for booking with travel agents due to the desire for human interaction.

The fifth step, *tourist experience at destination*, represents the culmination of the whole choice process, as the tourist experiences the travel plan through actual travel.

The last step in the process is termed *evaluation of destination choice*, which implies the beginning of the next journey, as the tourist reflects on what went well and what could be changed on future tourism occasions. Therefore, the tourist's reflection activities contribute to the cyclical nature of the destination choice process (George 2008:177-178; Hsu et al 2008:90-91).

Another theory, the TPB, can also be applied to explain the decision making process leading to the choice of a travel destination. It is postulated that tourists' intentions to visit a destination should be strong when they hold a favourable attitude towards visiting the destination, feel great social pressure from important others to visit the destination, and perceive high control over visiting the destination. The TPB has been successfully applied in the context of Chinese travellers choosing Hong Kong (Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417), South Korea (Han et al 2011:45-74), and Australia (Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494) as their travel destinations. The current research aimed at applying the TPB as a basic theoretical framework to comprehend potential Chinese travellers' decision making processes related to visiting South Africa. The TPB is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

To summarise, Section 3.3 briefly reviewed the definitions and elements of tourism demand and its general determinants at both macro and micro levels. The following section discusses the factors impacting on outbound tourism demand in China.

3.4   CHINA'S OUTBOUND TOURISM

As mentioned in Section 3.2.3, in the context of the current research, the tourist-generating area or the demand side of tourism is China. The demand represented by Chinese tourists is affected by various factors at both country and individual levels. These factors are subsequently discussed.

3.4.1   The impact of government policy on outbound tourism demand

According to Xie and Li (2009:240), the most important factor that influences the development of China's tourism in general and outbound tourism in particular is *government policy*, which can act as an accelerator or decelerator

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regulating the volume and direction of tourist flow. Since the founding of the People's Republic of China on October 1, 1949, tourism has become an essential part of state activities, political life, and national development. It experienced a slow start between 1949 and 1966, discouragement and stagnation between 1966 and 1976 (due to the Cultural Revolution), and unprecedented development since 1978. In Mao Zedong's era (1949-1978), tourism was viewed as a political-diplomatic vehicle only, operating regardless of any economic rationale. Under Deng Xiaoping's rule (1978-1997), tourism developed from a new economic activity to an important industry contributing to the national economy's growth. From the Collective Leadership era (1997-present), tourism has been acknowledged as a multifunctional strategic industry with economic, socio-cultural, diplomatic, and political-ideological goals. These changes have all taken place within China's changing national development models and the dynamic international environment (Airey & Chong 2011:25-31).

For many years the general tourism policy of the Chinese government has been that inbound tourism should be developed *rapidly*; domestic tourism should be developed *actively*; and outbound tourism should be developed *moderately* and only in a way that maintains the balance between revenue and expenditure of China's international service trade. In an attempt to control outbound tourism's development, the Chinese government introduced the ADS system in 1995. This system is based on bilateral tourism agreements between governments: a foreign government allows self-paying Chinese tourists to travel for pleasure to its territory in the form of guided package groups (at least five people per group) and with a special visa (Arlt 2006:40-42). Countries wanting to receive ADS have to go through protracted negotiations with the Chinese government. In general, an applying country must abide by seven guidelines as listed below to obtain permission to have inbound tourists from China (Guo, Kim & Timothy 2007:322-323).

- The country should also generate outbound travellers to China.

- The country should have good political relations with China.

- The country must have attractive tourism resources and suitable facilities for Chinese visitors.

- The safety of Chinese travellers must be guaranteed, along with freedom from discrimination.

- The country should be easily accessible from China.

- There must be a balance between the expenditure of tourists from the country visiting China and Chinese tourists travelling to that country.

- The number of tourists to China and from China should be increased reciprocally.

ADS agreements typically include a list of authorised travel agencies in both China and the host country, which are made responsible for ensuring that group departures and arrivals take place (Airey & Chong 2011:212). From the Chinese travellers' perspective, the main benefits of the ADS system are that ADS visas can be obtained from designated travel companies directly, the travellers do not have to visit the consulates personally and do all the paperwork themselves; private passports can be used for ADS countries and foreign currency exchanged; the waiting time for getting visas is reduced; and there is no need to pretend to visit business partners or fairs. For the host countries, the major advantage of obtaining ADS is the opportunity to receive a larger number of Chinese tourists, particularly if the country is granted this status earlier than competing countries. This is because only ADS countries can be openly communicated as a tourism destination in the Chinese media (Arlt 2006:42-43). Australia became the first country to obtain ADS in 1999, while Canada was the last major developed country to gain such status in 2009. In 2003, South Africa became the second African country, following Egypt, to acquire ADS. By the end of 2010, there were 110 officially approved tourism destinations for Chinese citizens distributed across five continents (37

from Europe, 31 from Asia, 17 from America, 16 from Africa, and 9 from Oceania) (China Tourism Academy 2011:44-45).

3.4.2   Other factors with an impact on outbound tourism demand

Government policy alone cannot explain outbound tourism demand in its entirety. Many other factors also influence the outbound tourist flows from China. First of all, the steady growth in the disposable income of Chinese residents, particularly that of the urban population, acts as an important stimulus for expenditure on holidays abroad. This is further supported by the continuous appreciation of China's currency.

The introduction of the two-day weekend in 1995 and of the Golden Week (weeklong holiday) in 1999 increased people's leisure time and stimulated their outbound travel demand. An increasing number of Chinese enterprises began to organise incentive trips for their employees and so further facilitated longer overseas stays than would otherwise have been possible (Guo et al 2007:323-326; Pearce & Chen 2012:394-415; Xie & Li 2009:241).

The availability of travel information and the convenience of making travel arrangements via the Internet also boosted China's outbound tourist flows. By the end of 2010, the number of Internet users in China reached 450 million, with an Internet penetration rate of 33.9% (China Tourism Academy 2011:4). These Internet users are most likely better educated, more affluent, hungry for information, and eager to see the outside world and learn about others' way of living.

Fourthly, the idea of travel is deeply rooted in Chinese culture, as reflected in traditional Chinese literature. There are many age-old sayings that indicate the importance of travel as part of life among the Chinese. For instance, "[o]ne

learns more by traveling ten thousand miles than reading ten thousand books" implies that travelling widely is more important than studying diligently, although studying is held in very high regard in Confucianism (Tse & Hobson 2008:143). Further explanation of Chinese cultural values and their influence on tourist behaviour is provided below.

3.4.3   The influence of Chinese culture on tourist behaviour

The investigation of tourists' cultures is crucial because people from different cultures tend to have different consumption preferences and expectations. By investigating the cultural differences between the host and the target market and between various target markets, destination marketers will be able to better design and market the tourism offering, which in turn will contribute to an improved destination image, higher levels of tourist satisfaction, and increased economic benefits (Meng 2010:342).

According to Moutinho et al (2011:85), *culture* refers to "values, ideas, attitudes and meaningful symbols, as well as artefacts elaborated [on] in a society". Essentially, these elements are learned and transmitted from one generation to the next and have the ability to shape human behaviour.

Chinese culture is a term used to represent all cultural values held by ethnic Chinese regardless of where they live in the world. In general, Buddhism, Confucianism, and Taoism constitute the essence of the traditional Chinese culture, with Confucianism playing a more dominant role (Ball, Horner & Nield 2007:31).

Confucianism is a Chinese ethical and philosophical system developed from the teachings of the Chinese philosopher *Confucius* (551-479 BC) during the Spring and Autumn periods (770-476 BC). In brief, Confucius's teachings

were lessons in practical ethics without any religious content, aimed at achieving harmonious human relationships through discipline, obedience, devotion, and dutifulness (Li 2009:230; Mok & DeFranco 1999:103). *Mencius* (372-289 BC) is deemed the best interpreter of Confucius's thoughts (Rainey 2010:87) and the most famous Confucian after Confucius himself. Mencius's interpretation of Confucianism has been recognised as the orthodox version by successive Chinese philosophers (Xu 2012:90). Mencius assumes the existence of four cardinal virtues: *ren* (benevolence), *yi* (righteousness), *li* (politeness), and *zhi* (intelligence); later, *xin* (trust) was added to this set of merits. These cardinal virtues find their application in *wu lun* (the five human relationships in which an individual is defined) – the love between father and son, the duty between ruler and subject, the distinction between husband and wife, the precedence between the elder and the younger brother, and the faith between friends. The consequences of wu lun are that superiors (people) can expect respect and obedience from subordinates (others), but in turn must care for and protect them (Ball et al 2007:32; Kwek & Lee 2010:130; Langenberg 2007:35-36). In summary, Chinese culture is highly complex and Chinese society is rooted mainly in Confucianism.

Major differences exist between Chinese and Western cultures and have to be acknowledged for an in-depth understanding of the Chinese outbound tourist (Reisinger 2009:115). The foundation for most cross-cultural research is the work of Hofstede and his colleagues (e.g. Hofstede 1980, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov 2010). Hofstede et al (2010:53-298) identify six dimensions of national culture that allow for differentiation among cultures at a country level. These dimensions, acquired through 'mental programming' (i.e. learned patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting), are briefly described below.

- *Power distance* (from small to large) – the extent to which a society accepts the unequal distribution of power among people.

- *Individualism/collectivism* – the extent to which a society is concerned about the individual as opposed to the group.

- *Masculinity/femininity* – to extent to which a society stresses masculine values (e.g. money and material possessions) over feminine values (e.g. quality of life and caring for others).

- *Uncertainty avoidance* (from weak to strong) – the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain situations and tries to avoid them.

- *Long-term/short-term orientation* – the extent to which a society accepts delayed gratification of material, social, and emotional needs.

- *Indulgence/restraint* – the extent to which a society allows relatively free gratification of basic human desires related to enjoying life (Hofstede 2011:1-26; Hofstede et al 2010:53-298).

In addition to theorising these dimensions of national culture, Hofstede et al (2010:57-285) evaluate a large number of countries based on vast amounts of data, using a scale of roughly 0-100 for each dimension. Table 3.1 presents their evaluation of the five countries that are relevant to the context of the present study. The United Kingdom, the United States, and Germany are included because they remained the top three non-African source markets of tourist arrivals to South Africa during 2011 and 2012 (SAT 2012:21, 2013a:23). As shown in Table 3.1, in five of the six dimensions, China has an extreme position when compared with the other four countries. More specifically, for power distance and long-term orientation, China scores higher than the other countries; for individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and indulgence, China scores lower than the other countries; and only for masculinity are the scores more or less the same for China and the other countries.

TABLE 3.1: DIMENSIONS OF NATIONAL CULTURE

DIMENSION	SOUTH AFRICA	CHINA	UNITED KINGDOM	UNITED STATES	GERMANY
Power distance	49	**80**	35	40	35
Individualism	65	**20**	89	91	67
Masculinity	63	**66**	66	62	66
Uncertainty avoidance	49	**30**	35	46	65
Long-term orientation	34	**87**	51	26	83
Indulgence	63	**24**	69	68	40

Note: A high score on a dimension on the scale of 0-100 indicates a high evaluation on that dimension.

Source: Adapted from Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov (2010:57-285)

With reference to the influence of Chinese culture on tourist behaviour, some important implications for destination marketers can be named. First of all, a low level of individualism (or a high level of collectivism) suggests that Chinese tourists are "we" oriented and emphasise belongingness and relationships. They prefer group tours to individual tours for outbound holidays (Meng 2010:344-345). Secondly, a large power distance suggests that Chinese tourists are interested in seeing the most famous sights and the places connected to superlatives, and in imitating the travel behaviour of famous Chinese people. Since tour guides typically play the role of temporary authority, high demands are made regarding their knowledge and problem-solving skills. Thirdly, a weak uncertainty avoidance might imply that Chinese tourists show flexibility in planning and executing travel arrangements. Encounters with strange, unknown situations or persons are considered a reason for curiosity and amusement instead of a threat (Arlt 2006:105-106). Fourthly, a high long-term orientation explains why Chinese people often use learning as a justification for engaging in leisure activities, since Confucius's ethics suggest that spare time should not be spent leisurely, but should be devoted to self-improvement through education and learning. Finally, a low level of indulgence (or a high level of restraint) suggests that

Chinese tourists expect quiet, passive activities rather than strenuous physical exertion. In fact, it is a tradition for Chinese people to engage in appreciating natural beauty and thus experience true inner peace, harmony, and tranquillity, and develop a better understanding of the meaning of life (Li 2009:231).

3.4.4   The development of the Chinese outbound travel market

Given the factors discussed above in Sections 3.4.1 to 3.4.3, the development of China's outbound tourism can be characterised as having had "a late start, fast growth, and vast future potential" (Xie & Li 2009:242). Table 3.2 exhibits the growth trends in the number of Chinese outbound tourists between 1991 and 2010. The number of outbound tourists was 2.13 million in 1991, increased dramatically between 1997 and 1998 because of a relaxed passport restriction policy and the increase in alternative destinations (Yun & Joppe 2011:460), and grew to more than 10 million in 2000. Despite the scare of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome in 2003, the number of outbound tourists nevertheless increased to more than 20 million that year. By 2005, Chinese outbound travellers numbered more than 30 million and by 2007, the number reached in excess of 40 million. Despite the growth rate of global tourism having declined by 4.0% in 2009 over the previous year, China's outbound tourism market maintained a growth rate of 4.0% (Yun & Joppe 2011:460). In 2010, more than 57 million Chinese residents travelled abroad for holidays, spending US$ 48 billion (China Tourism Academy 2011:3-4).

TABLE 3.2: NUMBER OF CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS (1991-2010)

YEAR	NUMBER OF CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS	ANNUAL GROWTH RATE (%)
1991	2,130,000	-
1992	2,930,000	37.6
1993	3,740,000	27.6
1994	3,733,600	-0.2
1995	4,520,500	21.1
1996	5,060,700	12.0
1997	5,323,900	5.2
1998	8,425,600	58.3
1999	9,232,400	9.6
2000	10,472,600	13.4
2001	12,133,100	15.9
2002	16,602,300	36.8
2003	20,222,000	21.8
2004	28,850,000	42.7
2005	31,026,000	7.5
2006	34,524,000	11.3
2007	40,954,000	18.6
2008	45,840,000	11.9
2009	47,660,000	4.0
2010	57,390,000	20.4

Source: Adapted from Yun & Joppe (2011:461)

According to UNWTO's (2001:23) 'Tourism 2020 Vision' report, China will generate 100 million outbound tourists and rank the fourth largest outbound-tourist-generating market in the world by 2020, following Germany, Japan, and the United States. This will represent 6.4% of the global outbound tourism market share. However, a more recent estimate by the same authority indicates that this forecast may become reality five years earlier. China is expected to be ranked second for outbound tourism spending by 2015 (Hua & Yoo 2011:356).

By employing an incidental target-market approach, Li et al (2010:250-259) recently made a *conservative* estimate of the size of the Chinese outbound travel market. Excluding leisure trips to Hong Kong and Macau, it was estimated that the Chinese outbound travel market consists of approximately 22 million people, of whom 11.5 million have travelled or intend to travel to destinations outside Asia.

Li et al (2010:250-259) also identified three primary and 34 secondary tourist-generating cities across China. The three primary cities are Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, while most secondary cities are provincial capitals of China (see Figure 3.7). According to these scholars, the Bohai Sea Rim Region (where Beijing is based), the Yangtze River Delta Region (where Shanghai is based), and the Pearl River Delta Region (where Guangzhou is based) are the country's most promising tourist-generating places. These three regions are characterised by relatively high urbanisation and industrialisation, and represent the country's major concentration of economic growth. For the current study, inhabitants of Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou served as the source of primary data.

To summarise, as a tourist-generating area China represents the demand side of tourism. Major factors influencing China's outbound tourism include the changes in government policy, disposable income, and holiday system; the rapid adoption of the Internet and the fast-growing Internet-savvy consumer segment; and traditional cultural values. China's outbound tourism's development trends can be summarised in three phrases, namely, a late start, fast growth, and vast future potential. The next section discusses the South African tourism industry, focusing on its inbound tourism market.

FIGURE 3.7: PRIMARY AND SECONDARY OUTBOUND TOURIST GENERATING
CITIES IN CHINA

Note: Red stars represent primary cities and blue points represent secondary cities.

Source: Adapted from Li, Harrill, Uysal, Burnett & Zhan (2010:255)

3.5   SOUTH AFRICA'S INBOUND TOURISM

As mentioned in Section 3.2.3, in the context of the current research, the
tourist-receiving area is South Africa, which represents the supply side of
tourism. A detailed discussion of tourism impacts, international tourist arrivals,
and destination management in South Africa is presented below.

3.5.1   The impact of tourism on a destination

There is consensus that tourism has both positive and negative environmental,
socio-cultural, and economic impacts on a given tourist destination, and that

responsible and sustainable tourism practices are the key to maximising the positive impact of tourism and minimising its negative impact (Ivanovic et al 2009:352). An overview of tourism impacts is provided in Table 3.3.

TABLE 3.3: AN OVERVIEW OF TOURISM IMPACTS

IMPACT	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Environmental	- Motivation and financial means to conserve natural resources and biodiversity - Motivation and financial means to preserve or restore historical buildings - Motivation and financial means to enhance and improve the built environment	- Ecological damage - Damage to important sites - Pollution - Overcrowding and congestion
Socio-cultural	- Renewal of local and cultural pride - Promotion of socio-cultural awareness and peace - Revival and conservation of cultural heritage - Improvement in standards of living - Provision of shared infrastructure	- Decline in morality in society - Interruption of family and gender relationships - Interference with value systems and religions - Commodification - Staged authenticity - Standardisation - Imitation of tourist behaviour and lifestyle
Economic	- Contribution to GDP - Contribution to foreign exchange earnings - Contribution to employment	- Loss of money spent overseas by South African tourists - Loss of money due to imports and foreign investments - Unemployment due to the seasonal nature of tourism - Increase in prices - Dependence of the local community on tourism - Vulnerability of tourism to market trends

Source: Adapted from Ivanovic, Khunou, Reynish, Pawson, Tseane & Wassung (2009:271-284, 297-301, 325-337)

First of all, tourism has a symbiotic relationship with the environment, both natural and man-made. If the environment is allowed to deteriorate, this will have a negative influence on tourism. Simultaneously, without tourism the need and the financial means to conserve the environment may be reduced (Ivanovic et al 2009:325-337).

Furthermore, tourism has a range of social and cultural consequences which affect *both* the host and the guest. Positive socio-cultural impacts include the opportunity for cultural exchange between the host and the guest that fosters peace and greater understanding between the two parties, protection of cultural heritage, improvement in standards of living, and enhancement of local infrastructure. Negative socio-cultural impacts include the threat posed to traditional cultural values, and specific social problems such as sex, crime, and health problems (Ivanovic et al 2009:297-301).

When tourism activities affect a destination's economy positively, the economy will grow. Common signs of economic growth include increased wealth, fewer poor and unemployed people, and improvement in the balance of payments. Negative effects include inflation, opportunity costs, dependency, and seasonality (Ivanovic et al 2009:271-284).

The remainder of this section explains the economic impact of tourism: this argument is most frequently used by the government and the private sector to justify tourism investment (Page & Connell 2009:383). Thereafter follows a description of the relationship between tourism and crime, deemed important because South Africa has gained a reputation for having one of the highest violent crime rates in the world (George 2010:806).

Theoretically, the total economic impact associated with tourism is the sum of direct, indirect, and induced effects within a destination region. *Direct effects*

are the changes resulting from "the immediate effects of changes in tourism expenditures"; *indirect effects* are the changes resulting from "various rounds of re-spending of the tourism industry's receipts in backward-linked industries"; and *induced effects* are the changes resulting from "household spending of income earned directly or indirectly as a result of tourism spending" (Keyser 2009:308).

From a measurement perspective, the WTTC in collaboration with Oxford Economics, developed a system for producing annual estimates for the economic contribution of tourism to 181 countries, 20 regions, and the world overall (WTTC 2011:4). Differing from the United Nations-approved Tourism Satellite Account system that quantifies only the *direct* contribution of tourism (UNWTO 2010:3), the WTTC's system attempts to measure the *total* contribution of tourism, particularly to GDP and employment, by taking into account indirect and induced effects in addition to direct effects (Oxford Economics 2013:3-7). Figure 3.8 provides a summary of the WTTC's system. Since this figure is self-explanatory, no further discussion thereof is deemed necessary.

In South Africa, tourism's total contribution to GDP was ZAR 251.8 billion (8.6% of total GDP) in 2011 and is expected to rise by 3.9% per annum to ZAR 385.3 billion (8.5% of total GDP) by 2022. The total contribution of tourism to employment was 1,188,000 jobs (9.0% of total employment) in 2011 and is forecast to grow by 2.0% per annum to 1,498,000 jobs (9.4% of total employment) by 2022 (WTTC 2012:1). Therefore, it can be argued that tourism is one of the largest and fastest-growing industries and a major provider of jobs in South Africa.

FIGURE 3.8: MEASURING THE ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION
OF TRAVEL AND TOURISM

DIRECT
T&T
CONTRIBUTION

INDUSTRIES
- Accommodation
  services
- Food & beverage
  services
- Retail trade
- Transportation services
- Cultural, sports &
  recreational services

COMMODITIES
- Accommodation
- Transportation
- Entertainment
- Attractions

SOURCES OF SPENDING
- Residents' domestic
  T&T spending
- Businesses' domestic
  travel spending
- Visitor exports
- Individual government
  T&T spending

INDIRECT
T&T
CONTRIBUTION

- T&T investment
  spending
- Government
  collective T&T
  spending
- Impact of
  purchases from
  suppliers

INDUCED
T&T
CONTRIBUTION

- Food &
  beverages
- Recreation
- Clothing
- Housing
- Household
  goods

TOTAL
T&T
CONTRIBUTION

- To GDP
- To employment

Note: T&T=Travel & Tourism

Source: Adapted from Oxford Economics (2013:3)

One of the undesirable effects of tourism is crime. There is sufficient evidence in the tourism-crime literature to suggest that an increase in tourism activities contributes to increased crime rates, and that acts of crime against tourists are more likely to occur at destinations that are already experiencing high levels of crime (George 2010:807). Crime levels are exceptionally high in post-apartheid South Africa. However, the most distinctive feature of crime in

the country is not so much its volume, but rather its violence. For instance, among the over two million crimes committed nationwide in 2008/2009, more than one-third were violent, such as murder, attempted murder, serious assault, and rape. According to statistics, on average South Africa experiences 49.7 murders per day, comparable with China's statistics, but bearing in mind that China has a population thirty times larger than South Africa's (Altbeker 2005:1; Breetzke 2010:446).

Although the tourism sector cannot be held responsible for the occurrence of crime, one must be aware that tourists may become crime victims because criminals perceive them as wealthy and soft targets; or they may simply be in the wrong place at the wrong time. The enhancement of tourist safety is essential to the survival and growth of the tourism sector (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:241). Research finds that prospective tourists may decide not to visit a holiday destination due to their fear of crime; if tourists feel unsafe in a destination, they are unwilling to participate in tourism activities outside their accommodation facility; and tourists who have felt threatened at a destination are not likely to revisit the destination or to recommend it to others (George 2003:577).

Given the above discussion and considering SAT's (2010a:66) findings that safety concerns are among the primary reasons for Chinese residents not wanting to visit South Africa, the current research incorporated the element of tourism safety into the measurement scale of potential Chinese travellers' perceived constraints to visiting South Africa.

3.5.2   International tourist arrivals in South Africa

With Nelson Mandela's release, the lifting of international sanctions, and the first democratic elections, an improved business environment catalysed the

reinvigoration of South Africa's tourism economy (Rogerson 2013:60). From 1994 to 2009, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has been responsible for national tourism policy, regulation, and development. After the 2009 elections, President Jacob Zuma made considerable changes in the structure of his government, including establishing a stand-alone Ministry of Tourism: the implication is that "the tourism industry itself has grown in stature and is being taken seriously by government" (SANDT 2011:8). The South African government is striving to achieve and maintain sustained economic growth in various ways, one via international tourism. Akinboade and Braimoh (2010:149-163) provide evidence for the existence of a unidirectional causality from international tourism receipts to the economic growth of South Africa, both in the short and long term.

According to SAT's (2012:1-57) annual tourism report, in 2011, South Africa's inbound tourism sector performed well with 8.3 million international tourist arrivals, an increase of 3.3% over 2010. On a regional scale, Asia-Australasia saw an increase in tourist arrivals of 8.4%, followed by Africa-land markets (+6.8%) and Africa-air markets (+6.3%). Conversely, tourist arrivals from the Americas and Europe decreased by 5.5% and 3.5%, respectively. At a country level, neighbouring countries continued to be the major source markets for tourist arrivals with the most arrivals coming from Zimbabwe. The United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, the Netherlands, and France remained the top five non-African source markets, followed by Australia, India, and China. In terms of repeat rate, 15.8% of all foreign tourists were first-time visitors. In terms of purpose of travel, one-fifth of all foreign tourists were holiday makers. The average length of stay and spending capacity of all foreign tourists were 8.3 nights and ZAR 8,900, respectively. The average number of provinces visited by all foreign tourists was 1.2, with Gauteng (46.3%), Western Cape (16.7%), and Mpumalanga (15.8%) remaining the top three most visited provinces (SAT 2012:1-57).

The number of Chinese tourists visiting South Africa increased strongly since 1998, particularly after ADS was obtained in 2003. The 2010 Soccer World Cup further enhanced the Chinese image of South Africa as a tourist destination (SAT 2011:88). This resulted in an increase in tourists of 24.3%: 84,883 Chinese travellers chose to visit South Africa in 2011 (SAT 2012:18). To better capitalise on market growth opportunities in China, SAT opened its Beijing office in May 2010, and South African Airways introduced non-stop flights between Johannesburg and Beijing in January 2012.

According to SAT's (2010a:44-46) report on "current Chinese travellers to South Africa", the ratio of males to females is 70:30; two-thirds are between 25 and 44 years old; and the majority are high-income earners. These visitors originate mostly in the three main outbound tourist source provinces of Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangdong (where Guangzhou is the capital and largest city) (Arlt 2006:195-197).

From a travel behaviour perspective, during 2003-2008, the most common purpose of Chinese travellers to South Africa was to enjoy a holiday; the most common length of stay was five days; the average spending per trip was ZAR 11,400; the most popular mode of travel was package tours; the most common activities undertaken by tourists were visiting natural attractions and watching wildlife; the most common reasons for satisfaction were scenic beauty and wildlife/game-park experience; and the most visited provinces were Western Cape, Gauteng, and North West (which translates mainly into visits to Cape Town, Johannesburg, and Sun City) (SAT 2010a:51-58). Arlt (2006:198) argues that to a large extent the security problems and the long travel time prevent South Africa becoming a major destination of Chinese outbound tourism.

3.5.3   Tourism destination management

As stated in the NTSS report (SANDT 2011:11-13), South Africa has the vision of becoming a Top 20 tourism destination in the world by 2020, with over fifteen million international tourist arrivals. This poses a major challenge for South Africa given its recent ranking among global tourism destinations. According to SAT's (2012:11) estimate, South Africa's global ranking was 33[rd] in 2011, while according to the World Economic Forum's (2013:xvi) Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index, the country ranked 66[th] in the world in the same year. To achieve the 2020 vision, South Africa should create a competitive advantage through the success of Tourism Destination Management (TDM). TDM has two primary parameters, namely, competitiveness and sustainability. The former refers to the ability of a destination "to compete effectively and profitably in the tourism marketplace", while the latter is the destination's ability "to maintain the quality of its physical, social, cultural, and environmental resources while it competes in the marketplace". Therefore, successful TDM entails business and economic management skills balanced with environmental management capabilities (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:329). One of the fundamental economic business skills is *marketing*, which is relevant to the current research and is discussed in more detail below.

The most concise definition of marketing is "meeting needs profitably", and the most comprehensive is that of the American Marketing Association – "the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large" (Kotler & Keller 2012:5). Tourism marketing, of which destination marketing is a special (perhaps the most complex) form, refers to "the process through which a tourism organisation first anticipates consumer needs, then manages and satisfies those needs to achieve sales"

(George 2008:23). As a significant part of an economy's service sector, tourism shares four basic characteristics with other industries of the service sector, namely, perishability, variability, inseparability, and intangibility (Clarke 2005:104). However, compared with other service-related industries, tourism is more concerned with providing memorable experiences to tourists. In this regard, tourism marketing efforts need to focus on tourists as customers and concentrate on developing and staging experiences (Hsu et al 2008:13). For the tourism marketing manager, succeeding in delivering experiences in the marketplace depends largely on an appropriate target market strategy and an effective marketing mix (Boone & Kurtz 2010:44).

The target market refers to that segment of a total potential market to which the tourism destination would be most saleable (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:434). The process of identifying and profiling that segment is known as *market segmentation* and is of "critical strategic and tactical importance to the tourism industry" (Hsu et al 2008:93).

Over half a century ago, Smith (1956:3-8) introduced the concept of market segmentation in the marketing literature; since then a variety of segmentation bases and methods have been identified. According to Wedel and Kamakura's (2000:16) classification (summarised in Table 3.4), the nature of a segmentation base can be either general or specific, observable or unobservable. The effectiveness of a segmentation base can be judged against six quality criteria – identifiability, substantiality, accessibility, stability, actionability, and responsiveness. In general, the most effective bases are unobservable specific ones, while unobservable general bases are least effective (Han & Radder 2012:95).

TABLE 3.4: CLASSIFICATION OF SEGMENTATION BASES

CLASSIFICATION	TYPICAL BASES	EFFECTIVENESS					
		Identifiable	Substantial	Accessible	Stable	Actionable	Responsive
Observable, general	• Geographic: nationality, region, habitat… • Demographic: gender, age, marital status… • Socio-economic: income, occupation, education…	√	√	√	√	×	×
Observable, specific	• Usage frequency and situation • Brand and store loyalty • Stage of adoption • Type and place of purchase	√	√	×	√	×	√
Unobservable, general	• Personality traits • Personal values • Lifestyle	-	×	-	-	×	×
Unobservable, specific	• Benefits sought • Perceptions • Expectations • Preferences • Attitudes	√	√	×	-	√	√

Note: '√'=positive effect; '-'=moderate effect; '×'=negative effect.

Source: Adapted from Wedel & Kamakura (2000:16)

All existing segmentation methods can be categorised as either apriori or posteriori. Researchers adopting an apriori approach determine the number of segments in advance based on their prior knowledge of the market, while researchers adopting a posteriori approach rely on an algorithm or model to gain insight into the market structure (Radder & Han 2011:130). The present study attempted to segment potential Chinese tourists to South Africa based on two unobservable specific bases – travel motivation and travel constraints – following the posteriori approach, given the research void of subgroups in this market.

Once a target market is determined through market segmentation, the tourism marketing manager needs to develop a marketing mix that will appeal to the target market. The marketing mix is a set of controllable, tactical marketing tools that an organisation blends to produce the response it wants in the target market (Armstrong & Kotler 2005:57). The *traditional* marketing mix is composed of the four Ps – product, place, promotion, and price. Product is the starting point of a marketing mix, as it is hard to develop a distribution channel, design a promotion campaign, and formulate a price without knowing the product to be marketed (McDaniel, Lamb & Hair 2007:14). Recognising the role of human experience in the tourism product, Smith (1994:582-595) developed a generic model portraying the tourism product as five concentric rings (from the core to the shell): the physical plant, service, hospitality, freedom of choice, and involvement. Forbord, Schermer, and Grießmair (2012:896) define a tourism product as "any offer facilitating travel and activity of individuals away from their usual home environment", and George (2008:222) describes a tourism product as "a tourism offering" because of its composite nature, that is, comprising products, services, and experiences.

In addition to the traditional mix of four Ps, services marketing scholars (e.g. Zeithaml, Bitner & Gremler 2009:24) suggest an *extended* marketing mix with three extra Ps – people, process, and physical evidence (see Figure 3.9). In general, the extended mix is particularly applicable in the tourism industry (Middleton et al 2009:143), and different marketing mixes should be arranged for different market segments at the destination (Kozak & Baloglu 2011:139).

The present study did not attempt to suggest a marketing mix for destination marketers in South Africa; however, its resulting managerial implications may assist marketers in creating their marketing mix elements to attract Chinese tourists.

FIGURE 3.9: AN EXTENDED MARKETING MIX
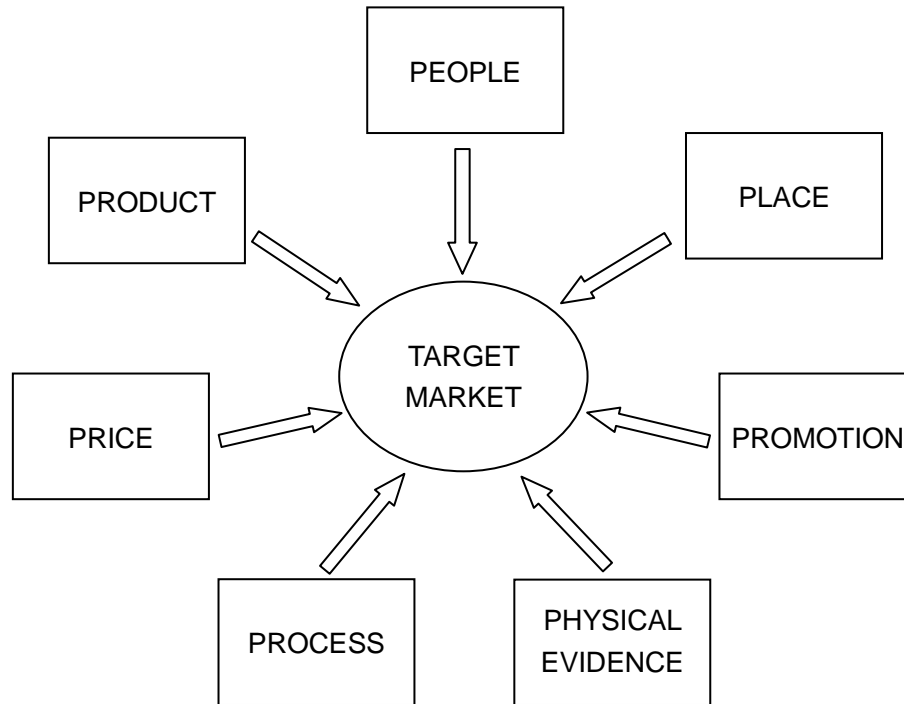
Source: Adapted from Boone & Kurtz (2010:45)

3.6   SUMMARY

This chapter examined the subject of tourism in general and international tourism in particular. Leisure, recreation, tourism, and travel are different but related concepts: leisure involves a measure of time; recreation describes the activities undertaken during that time; tourism is simply one type of recreation activity; and all tourism involves travel yet not all travel is tourism. Domestic tourism and inbound and outbound tourism are three basic tourism forms; international tourism comprises inbound and outbound tourism.

A tourism system consists of three basic elements, namely, tourist-generating area, tourist-receiving area, and transit route. In the current research, China is the tourist-generating area, representing the demand side of tourism. Major

factors influencing the demand for outbound tourism from Chinese travellers include the changes in tourism policy, disposable income, and holiday system; the rapid adoption of the Internet and the fast-growing Internet-savvy consumer segment; and traditional cultural values. South Africa is the tourist-receiving area or the destination, representing the supply side of tourism. Successful destination management is a source of competitive advantage, entailing not only business and economic management skills but also environmental management capabilities.

Chapter 4 depicts the origin and evolution of the TPB model, focusing on the three predictor variables of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control, as well as the dependent variable of behavioural intention.

- ➤ The development of attitude research
- ➤ Definitions and properties of attitudes
- ➤ The functions of attitudes
- ➤ The structure of attitudes
    - ▪ The tripartite model of attitudes
    - ▪ The expectancy-value model of attitudes
- ➤ The attitude-behaviour relationship
- ➤ The theory of planned behaviour
    - ▪ The intention-behaviour relationship
    - ▪ Conceptualising behavioural intention
    - ▪ The determinants of behavioural intention
    - ▪ The role of background factors
- ➤ A review of TPB-based tourism studies

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                    │   Chapter 1     │
                    │  (Orientation)  │
                    └─────────────────┘
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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │   Chapter 2     │
                    │  (Methodology)  │
                    └─────────────────┘
Secondary data          ╱         ╲          Primary data
              ┌────────────────┐      ┌────────────────┐
              │ ┌────────────┐ │      │                │
              │ │ Chapter 3  │ │      │                │
              │ │ (Tourism)  │ │      │                │
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              │ │ Chapter 4  │ │Input │  │ Chapter 6  ││
              │ │   (TPB)    │─┼──────┼─▶│ (Results)  ││
              │ └────────────┘ │      │  └────────────┘│
              │ ┌────────────┐ │      │                │
              │ │ Chapter 5  │ │      │                │
              │ │(Extended   │ │      │                │
              │ │   TPB)     │ │      │                │
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Theoretical findings  ╲              ╱  Empirical findings
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                    │   Chapter 7     │
                    │  (Conclusions)  │
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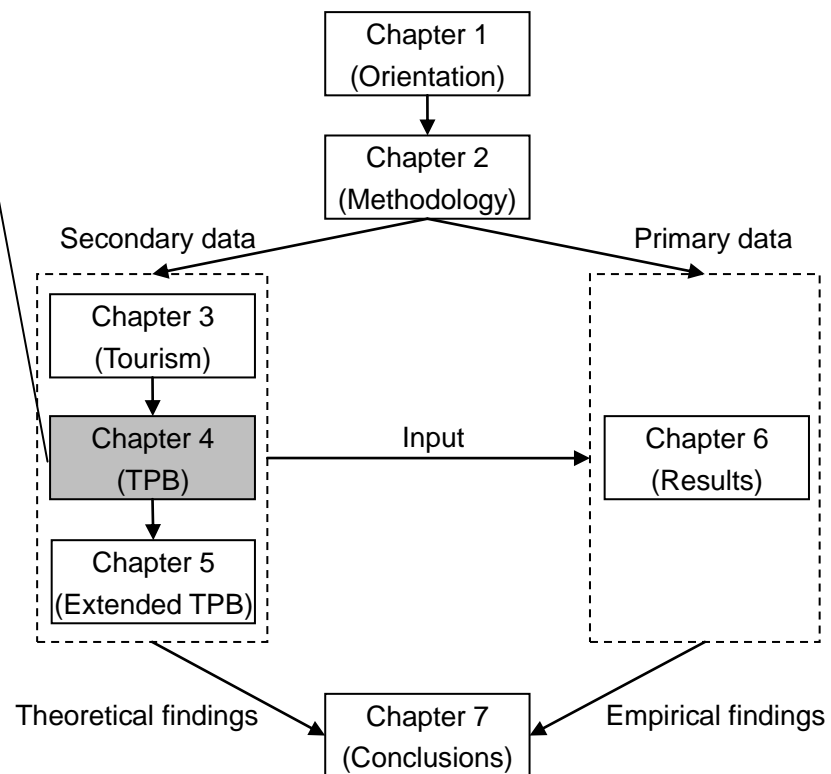
CHAPTER 4

ATTITUDES AND THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 investigated the subject of tourism in general and international tourism in particular. This chapter, the second of three theoretical chapters in this study, addresses the second research objective stated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, namely, to review the literature with regard to the TPB's basic components, that is, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, behavioural intention, and actual behaviour.

4.2   THE DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDE RESEARCH

Nearly 80 years ago, Allport (1935:798) argued that attitude is "probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept" in the field of social psychology. This argument is as appropriate as it was then. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine what social psychology would be like without the concept of attitude (Gawronski 2007:573). Generally, social psychologists consider the study of attitudes as crucial for two main reasons. First, attitudes influence people's thoughts, although the former may not always be reflected in overt behaviour. In fact, attitudes as evaluations of the objective world represent a fundamental aspect of social cognition. Second, attitudes often guide behaviour, particularly when they are strong, well-established, and accessible (Baron et al 2006:126).

McGuire (1986:89-130) notes that attitude has been the central concept of social psychology over three distinct periods. The first was *attitude-measurement*, prominent during the 1920s and 1930s. This era saw

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the development of the Likert-scale approach to measuring attitudes (Likert 1932:1-55). The second era of the 1950s and 1960s was dominated by *attitude-change*, such as the rise of the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger 1957:1-31). In the third era (1980s and 1990s), *attitude-structure* became the focus, emphasising the tripartite theory of attitudes (Zanna & Rempel 1988:315-334). McGuire points out that these three stages of attitude research (focusing successively on measurement, change, and structure) were separated by two interregna (1935-1955 and 1965-1985), during which research on attitudes remained "at a respectable level", although it was displaced as the central concern of social psychology by other topics, such as group dynamics and social cognition. According to Maio and Haddock (2009:9), attitude research continued to flourish during the first decade of the new millennium because of advances in computer technology, for example, implicit measurement and brain imaging.

Social psychologists are not the only scientists interested in the study of attitudes (Maio & Haddock 2009:9). Attitude research has obvious implications for understanding marketing and tourism. From a marketing perspective, marketers value consumers' attitudes towards products because attitudes can help marketers develop marketing strategies, for example, with regard to market segmentation, product positioning, and the marketing mix (Assael 2004:222). In the academic world, marketing scholars have taken a variety of approaches to studying attitudes with the aim of gaining a more complete understanding of consumer behaviour (Peter & Olson 2005:135). A total of 471 academic papers dealing with various facets of attitude were published in the *Journal of Consumer Research* alone between 1990 and 2005 (Cohen & Reed 2006:12).

Tourism researchers have been urged to study tourist behaviour from the perspective of social psychology. It is thus critical to include attitude when

developing a model for tourist behaviour (Gnoth 1997:284; Hsu, Cai & Li 2010:285). The TPB model – "integrating the long tradition of attitude research and measurement" (Pearce 2011a:15) – has been and remains fundamental in understanding tourist behaviour, particularly the destination choice behaviour. The primary purpose of the present study was to test the efficiency of an extended TPB model with five predictor variables (including attitude) for predicting the intentions of Chinese tourists visiting South Africa.

4.3   DEFINITIONS AND PROPERTIES OF ATTITUDES

Given its rich history, it is not surprising to find numerous definitions of attitude in the literature (Albarracín, Johnson, Zanna & Kumkale 2005:4). Although definitions have varied somewhat over time and situation, three essential elements, namely, evaluation, tendency, and object, seem to play a prominent role in defining attitudes. Eagly and Chaiken (1993:1), two prominent attitude theorists, provide an inclusive definition of attitude by taking all three elements into account: "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor".

Evaluation embraces the evaluative aspects of beliefs and thoughts, feelings and emotions, intentions and overt behaviour. The use of the word '*tendency*', rather than 'state' or 'disposition', implies that attitudes can be both short-term and long-term. This stance departs from that of earlier theorists (e.g. Allport 1935:798-844), who viewed attitudes as either fleeting or enduring. An *object* (entity) is any discriminable stimulus – whether abstract or concrete, individual or collective – within one's environment (Eagly & Chaiken 2007:583-585). In the field of consumer research, the word 'object' is interpreted broadly to encompass specific, consumption- or marketing-related concepts (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:238), such as product, service, brand, experience, advertisement, price, people, and behaviour. The current research attempted

to evaluate Chinese tourists' tendencies with regard to holidaying in South Africa – a specific destination choice behaviour.

Attitudes are characterised by several properties – confidence, persistence, resistance, accessibility, and ambivalence. *Attitude confidence* (also known as attitude strength) refers to how strongly consumers hold an attitude; *attitude persistence* indicates how long the attitude can last; and *attitude resistance* denotes how difficult it is to change the attitude. It can be argued that when tourists hold an attitude towards a tourism offering very strongly and with a great deal of confidence, this attitude tends to be stable over time and is difficult to change (Hoyer & MacInnis 2010:122). The fourth property is *attitude accessibility* in memory, which can be influenced by factors such as salience and frequency of prior activation (Peter & Olson 2005:136). Finally, *attitude ambivalence* describes a situation in which consumers hold mixed (positive and negative) beliefs and/or feelings about an object. For example, a traveller with an ambivalent attitude towards a tourism offering would say that "sometimes I like it, but other times I dislike it". Businesses should prevent ambivalent attitudes by providing consumers with consistent messages and experiences across time (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh 2010:399).

4.4   THE FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDES

Given the fact that two people can each hold an attitude towards some object for very different reasons, it can be helpful for a marketer to understand why an attitude is held before trying to change it (Solomon 2004:224). The attempt to understand the reasons people hold attitudes is referred to as the functional approach to the study of attitudes (Katz 1960:170).

The most prominent models of attitude functions date back to the 1950s and 1960s. Smith, Bruner, and White (1956:39-41) proposed that attitudes may

serve three psychological functions: object-appraisal, social-adjustment, and externalisation. *Object-appraisal* refers to the ability of attitudes to sum up the positive and negative attributes of objects in one's environment. For example, attitudes enable tourists to appraise tourism offerings in terms of their needs and concerns and to differentiate between offerings they should approach and those they should avoid. *Social-adjustment* is fulfilled by attitudes that help individuals identify with people they like and dissociate from people they dislike. For example, tourists are likely to visit a destination endorsed by a celebrity, provided that they like the celebrity. *Externalisation* is served by attitudes that defend an individual's self-image against internal conflict. For example, bad golfers tend to develop a dislike for golf tourism because their poor performance would threaten their self-esteem in front of travel companions (Maio & Haddock 2009:38; Olson & Maio 2003:306).

Following Smith et al (1956:39-41), Katz (1960:163-204) also posited several attitude functions: knowledge, utility, ego-defense, and value-expression. The *knowledge* function represents the ability of attitudes to give understanding and meaning to objects by organising information, while the *utilitarian* function exists in attitudes that maximise rewards and minimise punishments obtained from objects. These two functions are similar to Smith et al's object-appraisal function. The *ego-defensive* function of attitudes helps people cope with inner conflict and protect self-esteem. This function overlaps with Smith et al's externalisation function. Finally, the *value-expressive* function of attitudes aids people's expression of their central values and self-concept. An example of this function is that some travellers choose to stay in environmentally friendly hotels because this decision allows their expression of social responsibility – a value central to their self-concept (Franzoi 2003:167-168).

4.5 THE STRUCTURE OF ATTITUDES

In addition to considering the functions of attitudes, another important issue concerns how attitudes are structured (i.e. the component parts of an attitude and the relationship between those parts). Uncovering attitude structure can facilitate a marketer's understanding of how consumer attitudes are formed, reinforced, and changed. Two approaches have dominated research on the internal structure of attitudes, namely, the tripartite model and the expectancy-value model (Olson & Maio 2003:300).

4.5.1 The tripartite model of attitudes

The basic tenet of the tripartite model is that attitudes are overall evaluations of objects that are derived from three sources of psychological information: cognitive, affective, and behavioural (Haddock & Huskinson 2004:36). In line with the views of Assael (2004:216), Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010:392), Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:241), and Solomon (2004:227), it is argued that an attitude has three components: cognition, affect, and behaviour.

- The *cognitive* component refers to a consumer's beliefs about an object. For example, tourists may believe that their needs for self-development can be met by visiting cultural attractions within a destination area.

- The *affective* component refers to a consumer's feelings or emotions towards an object. For example, tourists may indicate that visiting cultural attractions makes them feel happy and excited.

- The *behavioural* component refers to a consumer's past behaviour associated with an object. For example, tourists might hold a positive attitude towards visiting cultural attractions if they had a positive past experience (Haddock & Huskinson 2004:36).

There is general agreement that all three components of an attitude tend to be consistent. This means that a change in one component may cause related changes in the other components (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh 2010:398). Despite their synergism, the relative impact of these components on shaping attitudes may vary depending on the nature of the attitude object. The concept of *a hierarchy of effects* has been developed specifically to explain the relative impact of these components (Solomon 2004:227). As shown in Figure 4.1, each hierarchy specifies a fixed sequence of steps in the formation of an attitude.

- In the *high-involvement hierarchy*, consumers first form beliefs about a product through the process of extensive information search. Then they evaluate these beliefs and derive feelings about the product. Lastly, they engage in relevant behaviour, such as buying or advocating the product. This hierarchy is in line with the extensive consumer decision making process and is applicable when buying once-off expensive products and services such as cars and outbound holidays.

- In the *low-involvement hierarchy*, consumers first use limited knowledge to form beliefs about a product because it is not worth the time and effort to undertake an extensive information search. They then act based on these beliefs and their feelings follow the behaviour (action). This hierarchy is in line with the habitual consumer decision making process and is applicable when buying frequently purchased daily consumables such as milk and bread.

- In the *experiential hierarchy*, consumers behave on the basis of their emotional reactions to a product. Beliefs about the product are formed after the behaviour. This argument holds that affective responses do not always require prior cognition and that affect is the core of attitude. This hierarchy is likely to occur when a product or service is perceived to provide primarily hedonic rather than utilitarian benefits (Assael 2004:218-219; Solomon 2004:227-230; Wright 2006:259-260).

FIGURE 4.1: THREE HIERARCHIES OF THE TRIPARTITE MODEL OF ATTITUDES
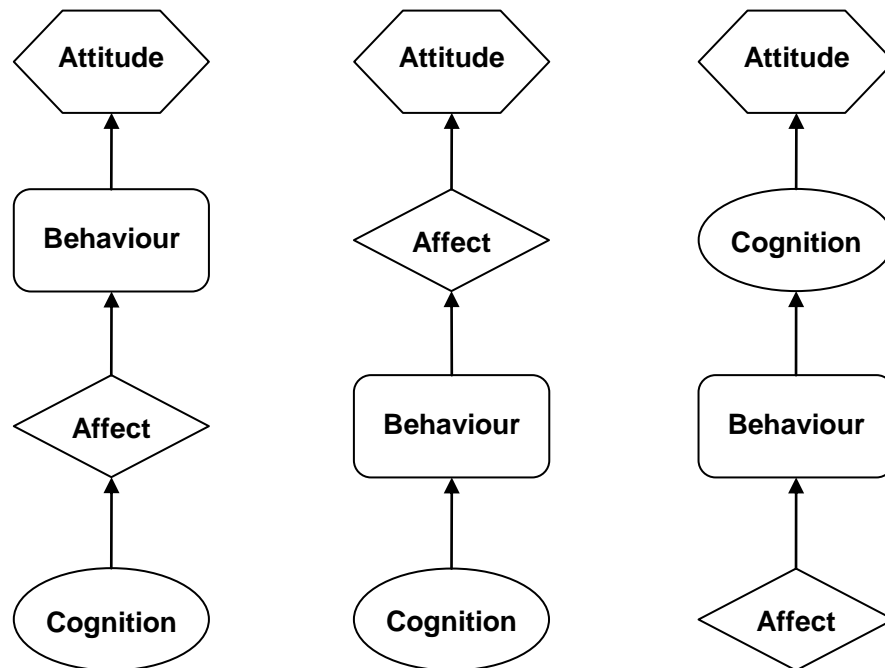
High-involvement hierarchy   Low-involvement hierarchy   Experiential hierarchy

Source: Adapted from Solomon (2004:227)

It seems reasonable to assume that tourism offerings tend to fall into the high-involvement, extensive decision making category, owing to the relatively high monetary and non-monetary costs involved in these purchase decisions. For example, planning a pleasure trip to an overseas tourism destination such as South Africa, involves a relatively high perceived risk of making a bad decision, investing a considerable amount of time in searching for information and weighing alternatives, and a significant monetary outlay (Sirakaya & Woodside 2005:817). It has been suggested that attitudes formed under high-involvement conditions are more powerful, accessible, persistent, and resistant to change compared with those formed under low-involvement conditions (Malhotra 2005:477).

Although the hierarchical tripartite model is helpful for researchers to develop an understanding of the internal structure of attitudes, there is little consistent empirical evidence to support this model. McGuire (1986:110), for example, observes that measures of each of the three attitude components tend to be poor in terms of discriminant validity. Maio and Haddock (2009:31-32) argue that only a small number of studies have investigated all three attitude components, while most studies have focused on cognitive and affective components. Following from the above discussion, it is evident that more research into the tripartite model is needed.

4.5.2 The expectancy-value model of attitudes

In contrast to the tripartite model that regards cognition, affect, and behaviour as the composition of an attitude, the expectancy-value model (often termed the belief-based model) assumes that emotional reactions and past behaviour are simply different types of beliefs about an attitude object. For example, while the tripartite model suggests that travellers may form a positive attitude towards a tourism offering that makes them *feel* happy, the expectancy-value model can account for this process by suggesting that travellers *believe* that the offering makes them happy and *value* their own happiness (Olson & Maio 2003:302). The expectancy-value model is the most popular conceptualisation to express the relationship between beliefs and attitudes (Kruglanski & Stroebe 2005:328): it claims that an attitude is a function of an individual's beliefs. These beliefs are a product of expectancy and value for each perceived attribute of the attitude object. "The expectancy is the perceived likelihood that the attribute will occur, and the value represents one's evaluation of the attribute" (Olson & Kendrick 2008:113). A major advantage of the expectancy-value model is its substantial diagnostic power. Marketers need to understand not only *what* attitudes consumers hold, but also *why* consumers hold these attitudes and *how* these attitudes can be

changed. Such a comprehensive understanding requires determining what consumers believe about a product's attributes and the importance of these attributes (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2006:405-406; Hoyer & MacInnis 2010:129). As illustrated in Figure 4.2, the expectancy-value model is typically based on either Rosenberg's (1956:367-372) or Fishbein's (1963:233-240) theory, although the two theories show considerable structural similarities.

FIGURE 4.2: TWO THEORIES OF THE EXPECTANCY-VALUE MODEL OF ATTITUDES
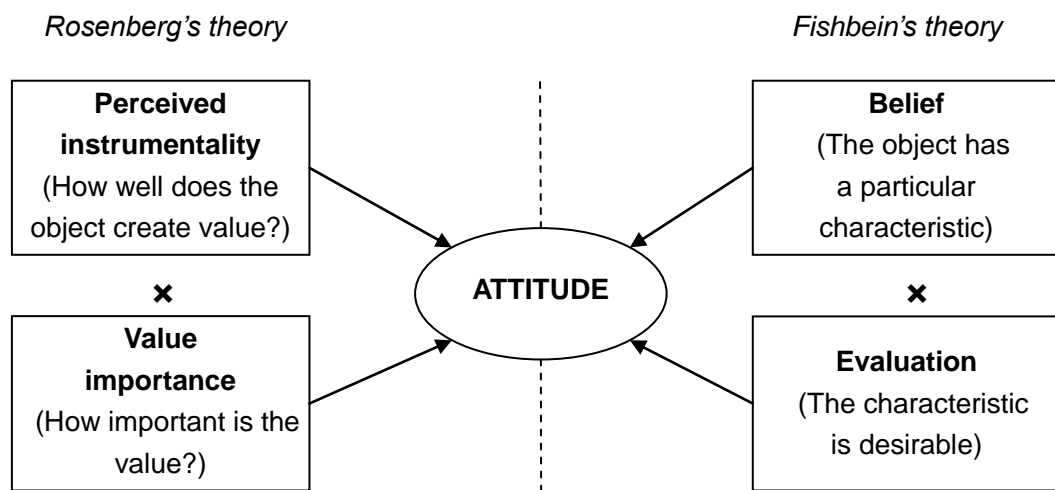
Source: Adapted from Blythe (2008:144)

Rosenberg (1956:367-372) is thought to have been the first to introduce an explicit expectancy-value theory into the field of attitude research. His theory was developed from a functional perspective which holds that attitudes are crucial because they allow individuals to achieve certain goals or value states. Rosenberg's theory is expressed algebraically as follows:

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_i V_i$$

where A_o is the attitude towards the object o; I_i is the perceived instrumentality, which is the probability that the object o would facilitate or hinder the attainment of the value i; V_i is the value importance, which is the degree of

(dis)satisfaction a person would experience if he/she obtained the value i; and n is the number of values mediated by the object o. In general, one's attitude towards some object will be more positive if one perceives the object as being more instrumental to obtaining positively valued goals and blocking negatively valued goals (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975:31-32; Kruglanski & Stroebe 2005:329-330).

Fishbein (1963:233-240) later developed his expectancy-value theory from a behavioural perspective with a special focus on the individual rather than on the object. Unlike Rosenberg (1956:367-372), Fishbein's theory does *not* limit the attributes of the attitude object (to goals), or the relationship between the object and its attributes (to instrumentality). This more general theory is expressed algebraically as follows:

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i e_i$$

where A_o is the attitude towards the object o; b_i is the belief, which is the probability that the object o has the attribute i; e_i is the evaluation, which is the desirability of the attribute i; and n is the number of salient attributes associated with the object o (Blythe 2008:144; Fishbein & Ajzen 1975:31-32; Kruglanski & Stroebe 2005:329-330). While people may hold many different beliefs about an object, only salient beliefs (i.e. beliefs about the object that come readily to mind) serve as the prevailing determinants of their attitudes. Salient beliefs can be activated spontaneously without much cognitive effort – even below conscious awareness – in the actual or symbolic presence of the attitude object (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:98). In general, the more positive the salient beliefs, and the more strongly they are held, the more favourable should be the attitude (Ajzen 2008:531). The attitude construct in the TPB model is based on Fishbein's formulation. This is further discussed later on in this chapter.

Sections 4.2 to 4.5 dealt with the concept of attitude only, concentrating on its research history, definitions, properties, functions, and structure. In the next section, the link between attitude and behaviour is examined.

4.6   THE ATTITUDE-BEHAVIOUR RELATIONSHIP

Marketers are not only interested in understanding the general approaches to attitude formation and change, but also in knowing *whether*, *when,* and *how* attitudes will predict behaviour. It is therefore not surprising that a great deal of research has focused on the relationship between attitude and behaviour (Hoyer & MacInnis 2010:143; Peter & Olson 2005:150).

In the early stages of attitude research, most social psychologists took for granted that human behaviour is guided by social attitudes (Ajzen & Fishbein 2005:174). However, there was a crisis of confidence with regard to the attitude-behaviour relationship in the late 1960s and early 1970s, triggered primarily by Wicker's (1969:41-78) argument that attitudes do not predict behaviour and hence the attitude concept should be abandoned. Yet, despite these criticisms, the attitude concept has not been abandoned; and in fact, research on the attitude-behaviour relationship has flourished since that time (Manstead 2001:909). Scholars (e.g. Hawkins & Mothersbaugh 2010:399-400; Lake 2009:106-107; Maio & Haddock 2009:62-64) have identified a variety of factors that may cause an inconsistency between attitude and behaviour, including lack of need, lack of ability, relative attitudes, attitude ambivalence, weak beliefs and emotions, personality variables, interpersonal influence, situation factors, and measurement issues.

From a measurement angle, Ajzen and Fishbein (1977:888-918) introduced the principle of compatibility in an attempt to clarify the relationship between attitude and behaviour. The foundation of this principle is to distinguish

between general and specific attitudes. General attitudes are attitudes towards some object and represent the favourability of the *class* of behaviour related to an object. In contrast, specific attitudes are attitudes towards behaviour and represent the favourability of a *particular* behaviour related to an object (Olson & Maio 2003:315). According to this principle, a strong causal relationship between attitude and behaviour can be expected to the extent that measures of attitude and behaviour involve exactly the same *action* (e.g. going on a vacation), *target* (e.g. to South Africa), *context* (e.g. travellers from China), and *time* elements (e.g. within the next five years). As a central aspect of the TPB (Ajzen & Gilbert-Cote 2008:299-300), the principle of compatibility is further discussed in Section 4.7.1.

In addition to contemplating *when* attitudes guide behaviour, social psychologists have also devoted themselves to developing a number of process models to elucidate *how* attitudes guide behaviour (Maio & Haddock 2009:67). Compared with other models, Fazio's (1990:75-109) Motivation and Opportunity as DEterminations (MODE) model (see Figure 4.3) provides the foundation for a more comprehensive understanding of attitude-behaviour processes (Conner & Armitage 1998:1450).

As shown in Figure 4.3, the MODE model can be described as a dual-process model positing that attitudes can be activated in either a deliberative or spontaneous fashion. When consumers have both sufficient motivation and opportunity, they tend to base their behaviour on a *deliberative* consideration of their attitudes and other available information. Characterised by considerable cognition work, deliberative processing can be viewed as a *data-driven* mode. However, when either motivation or opportunity is lacking, consumers' attitudes become available only if they are automatically activated. The likelihood of such activation is determined by pre-existing attitudes and their retrievability from memory. This *spontaneous* information processing can

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be recognised as a *theory-driven* mode (Ajzen 2005:59-60; Fazio 1990:78-96; Fazio & Towles-Schwen 1999:97-102; Maio & Haddock 2009:77-81).

FIGURE 4.3: THE MODE MODEL
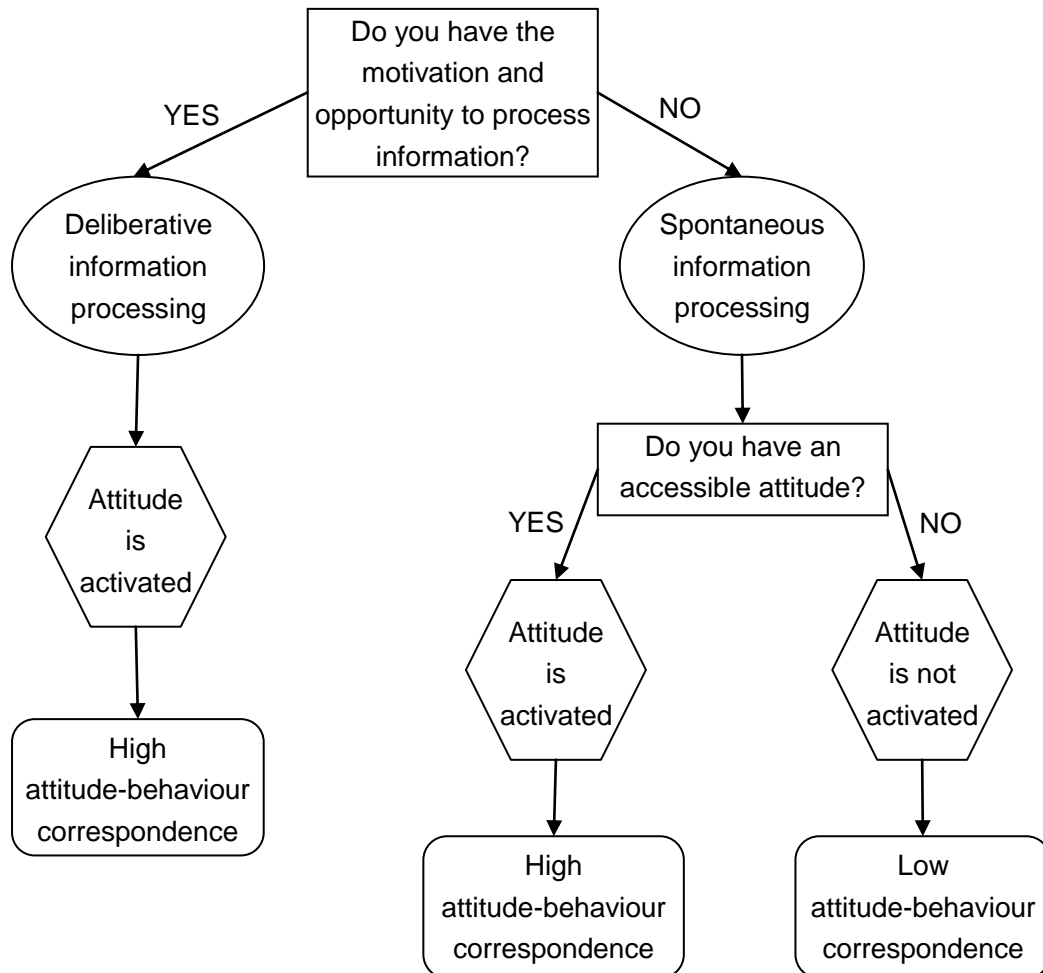
Source: Adapted from Maio & Haddock (2009:78)

Unlike the sophisticated MODE model, the TPB model was formulated based on *deliberative* information processing and is unquestionably the most popular model of this sort (Fazio & Towles-Schwen 1999:99). It is reasonable to believe that visiting an overseas tourism destination such as South Africa, is a deliberate (rather than a spontaneous) behaviour, subject to a conscious (rather than an automatic) processing of activated attitudes and other

available information. The specific attributes of the destination and the potential consequences of visiting the destination may be considered and weighed by potential tourists (Chinese tourists in the context of the current research). Such reflection forms the basis for deciding on their intentions to visit and, ultimately, actually visiting. The current research therefore employed the TPB model as a basic theoretical framework to predict potential Chinese travellers' intentions to visit South Africa. The following section elaborates on the TPB model.

4.7   THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

Tourists may have a very positive attitude towards a tourism destination, but may be unlikely to visit it because of factors such as disapproval of others and high price. In this or other similar cases, attitudes do not lead to behaviour. In an attempt to account for this discrepancy, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:1-18) developed the TRA based on Fishbein's (1963:233-240) expectancy-value formulation (discussed in Section 4.5.2). Departing from its predecessor, the TRA suggests that to predict behaviour more precisely, it is more effective to determine consumers' attitudes towards the behaviour itself (e.g. holidaying in South Africa) than towards the object of the behaviour (e.g. South Africa) (Assael 2004:226). In addition, the TRA contains two important modifications to its predecessor. First, behaviour can be affected by more than attitude alone. Among others, the impact of subjective norms (also known as social norms), which refer to the socially prescribed patterns of behaving in a situation, is acknowledged (Hewstone et al 2005:367). Second, the immediate determinant of behaviour is not attitude or subjective norms, but rather behavioural intention, which refers to the conscious decision to perform a particular behaviour (Franzoi 2003:172). The assumption is that "people do what they intend to do and do not do what they do not intend" (Sheeran 2002:1). In general, the TRA specifies that attitude and subjective norms

influence behaviour through their influence on intention. This relationship is illustrated in the top graph of Figure 4.4. The bottom graph of Figure 4.4 is explained in the next paragraph.

FIGURE 4.4: THE THEORIES OF REASONED ACTION AND PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

The theory of reasoned action
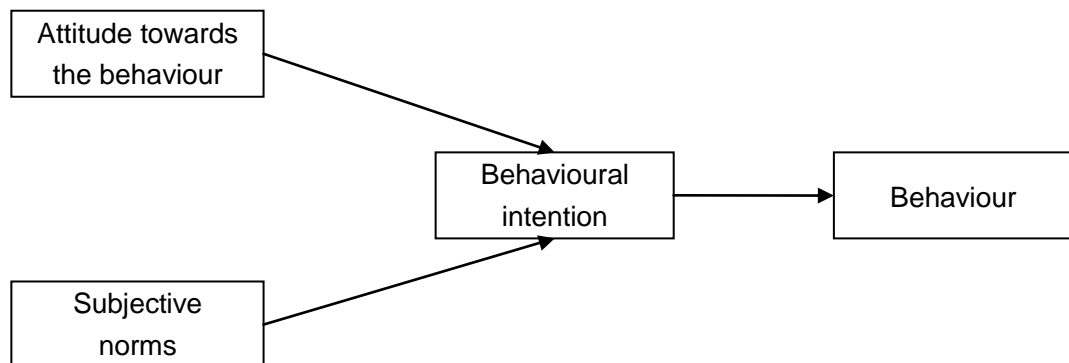
The theory of planned behaviour
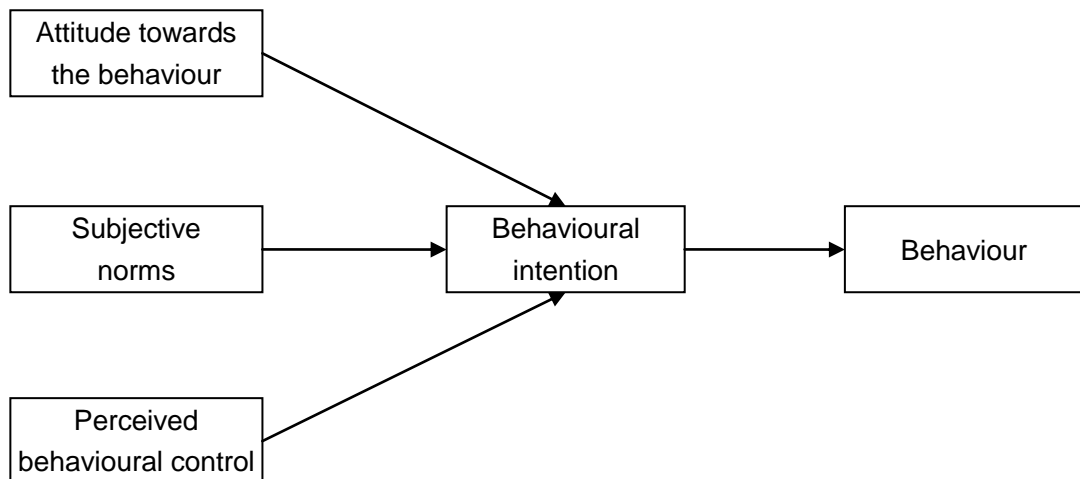
Source: Adapted from Maio & Haddock (2009:68-69)

Inevitably, the application scope of the TRA is restricted to volitional behaviour. The assumption of the model is that consumers' decision making processes are motivation-based and thus their actions are under complete volitional

control. However, in some situations a person's behaviour can be determined by non-volitional factors, such as skills, resources, and the cooperation of other people (Manstead 2001:911). In response to the TRA's limitation in dealing with behaviour over which consumers have incomplete volitional control, Ajzen (1991:179-211) incorporated perceived behavioural control into the TPB as an additional predictor of intention and behaviour distinct from attitude and subjective norms (see the bottom graph of Figure 4.4). The TPB posits that consumers also take account of the ease or difficulty of performing a given behaviour, in other words, of the degree of control they have over the behaviour (Blythe 2008:147).

Overall, the TPB can be expressed in the following algebraic equation:

$$B \approx BI = (A_{act})W_1 + (SN)W_2 + (PBC)W_3$$

where B is behaviour; BI is behavioural intention; A_{act} is attitude towards the behaviour; SN is subjective norm; PBC is perceived behavioural control; and W_1, W_2, and W_3 are empirical weights showing the relative importance of the three predictors in the model. The approximate sign '$\approx$' between B and BI denotes that measuring behavioural intention can predict actual behaviour "only when the intention does not change from the predictors of intention" (Phillips & Jang 2012:316).

For the sake of simplicity, several important relationships were omitted from the preceding equation and from the bottom graph of Figure 4.4. First, the three predictors, albeit conceptually independent, can correlate with one another because they may have resulted from the same information. Second, the three predictors' relative importance can vary from the behaviour and the population under investigation. Third, unlike the other two predictor variables, perceived control is deemed as having two types of influence on behaviour, one indirect through intention and the other direct. The latter is based on the notion that, to the extent that perceived control is accurate, it can serve as a

proxy for actual control and be used to predict behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein 2005:194-195; Manstead 2011:369).

It has been shown that for most human behaviour likely to be of interest to social scientists, the TPB outperforms the TRA in predicting intention and behaviour (Manstead 2001:912). The remainder of this section elaborates on the TPB's five basic variables (i.e. behaviour, intention, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) and their interrelationships. The role of background factors in influencing intention and behaviour is also discussed.

4.7.1 The intention-behaviour relationship

The intention construct is central to the TPB because it is the most immediate and important determinant of actual behaviour (Sheeran 2002:1). Intentions are assumed to capture the motivational aspects underlying a particular behaviour and indicate how hard individuals are willing to try, or how much effort they would put into performing the behaviour. As a general rule, "the stronger the intention to engage in a behavior, the more likely should be its performance" (Ajzen 1991:181).

By conducting a meta-analysis of meta-analyses for the intention-behaviour relationship, Sheeran (2002:3) found that on average 28% of the variance in behaviour can be explained by intention, which is deemed good in the light of Cohen's (1992:155-159) guideline for interpreting correlations and R^2. From a measurement perspective, the attenuation of intention-behaviour correlations may be attributable to factors such as dichotomisation, measurement error, mismatched marginal distributions, and lack of scale compatibility (Sheeran 2002:5). According to the principle of compatibility (discussed in Section 4.6), a high correlation between intention and behaviour can be expected only when these two variables are measured at the same level of generality or

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specificity, in other words, when measures of intention and behaviour involve exactly the same action, target, context, and time elements (Ajzen, Czasch & Flood 2009:1368). In fact, each of the TPB model variables should be operationalised in accordance with the principle of compatibility (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:155). This principle was applied in the current research to guide the measurement of all study variables, namely, visit intention, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints.

4.7.2   Conceptualising behavioural intention

Given the nature of its target population (i.e. *potential* tourists), the present study aimed to measure only behavioural intention and not the behaviour itself. Besides social psychologists (e.g. Sheeran 2002:1-36), scholars in marketing, consumer behaviour, and tourism have also shown a great deal of interest in conceptualising behavioural intention.

Oliver (1999:33-44), a professor of marketing known for his work on customer satisfaction and loyalty, conceptualises behavioural intention as one of the four sequential stages of customer loyalty development. Customers typically first show information-driven *cognitive loyalty*, which later develops into *affective loyalty* associated with positive feelings about the offering or the provider. *Conative loyalty*, the third stage, reflects customers' behavioural intentions and culminates in *action loyalty*. The first three stages are related to attitudinal loyalty, while the last stage is linked to behavioural loyalty. In practice it is difficult to observe action loyalty and therefore most studies (e.g. Grewal, Monroe & Krishnan 1998:46-59) measure behavioural intention (i.e. conative loyalty) in an attempt to predict action loyalty.

From a broad consumer behaviour perspective, Blackwell et al (2006:411) identify six types of behavioural intention, that is, *spending* (how much money

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consumers plan to spend), *purchase* (what they intend to buy), *repurchase* (whether they anticipate buying the same offering again), *shopping* (where they plan on making their purchases), *search* (their decisions to conduct external search), and *consumption* (their decisions to become involved in a particular consumption activity).

In the field of tourism, according to Li and Cai (2012:476), researchers are mostly interested in two categories of tourists' behavioural intention, namely, post-purchase behavioural intention (e.g. Kozak 2002:221-232; Petrick 2004:29-38) and destination choice intention (e.g. Lam & Hsu 2006:589-599; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494). The focus of the current research is the latter, more specifically, potential Chinese tourists' intentions of choosing South Africa as a leisure travel destination within the next five years.

4.7.3   The determinants of behavioural intention

Having reviewed several meta-analyses for the TPB (e.g. Armitage & Conner 2001:471-499; Hagger, Chatzisarantis & Biddle 2002:3-32), Ajzen (2008:539) summarised that the mean correlations of attitude with intention range from 0.45 to 0.60. For predicting intention from subjective norms, the mean correlations range from 0.34 to 0.42, and for predicting intention from perceived control, the range is 0.35 to 0.46. The mean multiple correlations for predicting intention from attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control were found to range from 0.63 to 0.71. These findings provide evidence that for a wide variety of behavioural domains, intention can be predicted with reasonable accuracy from the constructs of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control, which are discussed in detail below.

(a)   Attitude towards the behaviour

The first immediate determinant of behavioural intention is *attitude towards the behaviour*, which refers to "the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question" (Ajzen 1991:188). In line with Fishbein's (1963:233-240) expectancy-value theory, attitude towards the behaviour is conceptualised as a function of behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations. Behavioural beliefs describe an individual's perceptions of the important consequences of performing the behaviour, while outcome evaluations are the assessment of the consequences (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:75-128).

The attitude construct can be algebraically expressed as follows:

$$A_{act} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} BB_i OE_i$$

where A_{act} is attitude towards the behaviour; BB_i is the belief that performing the behaviour leads to important consequence i; OE_i is the evaluation of consequence i; and n is the number of important consequences from performing the behaviour (Ajzen 1991:191, 2012:12; Han et al 2010:327; Han & Kim 2010:661).

In general, the more favourable one's attitude towards a given behaviour, the stronger should be the intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen 2012:18). This positive causation from attitude to intention has been documented in a few destination choice studies (e.g. Lam & Hsu 2004:463-482; Lee et al 2012:69-86). Thus, it was expected that Chinese tourists' attitudes would positively influence their intentions to go on holiday to South Africa. This led to the formulation of the first relationship hypothesis in the current research:

        H1: Attitude has a *positive* influence on visit intention.

(b)   Subjective norms

The second direct predictor of behavioural intention is *subjective norms*, which are defined as "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (Ajzen 1991:188). This construct is represented as a function of normative beliefs and motivation to comply. Normative beliefs pertain to an individual's perceptions of the expectations of important referents (e.g. family, relatives, friends, neighbours, and co-workers) regarding whether the behaviour should be engaged in, while motivation to comply is the tendency to conform to the expectations (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:129-152).

The construct of subjective norms holds the following algebraic equation:

$$SN = \sum_{j=1}^{m} NB_j MC_j$$

where *SN* is subjective norm; NB_j is the belief that important referent *j* thinks he/she should/should not conduct the behaviour; MC_j is the motivation to comply with referent *j*; and *m* is the number of important referents associated with the behaviour (Ajzen 1991:195, 2012:16; Han et al 2010:327; Han & Kim 2010:661).

As a rule, consumers are more likely to engage in a particular behaviour if they perceive greater social pressure from important others to perform the behaviour (Lam & Hsu 2004:466). This positive causal link from subjective norms to intention has been observed by some scholars in destination choice (e.g. Lam & Hsu 2006:589-599; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494). Hence, it was anticipated that Chinese travellers' subjective norms would positively influence their intentions to holiday in South Africa. This resulted in the development of the second relationship hypothesis in the current research:

H2: Subjective norms have a *positive* influence on visit intention.

(c)   Perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control as a non-volitional variable is also regarded as a direct predictor of behavioural intention. This construct is defined as "the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior" (Ajzen 1991:188) and is determined by a function of control beliefs and perceived power. Control beliefs are an individual's perceptions of the availability of important resources required to perform the behaviour, while perceived power is concerned with the assessment of the resources (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:153-178).

The construct of perceived behavioural control can be expressed using the following equation:

$$PBC = \sum_{k=1}^{l} CB_k PP_k$$

where *PBC* is perceived behavioural control; CB_k is the belief that important resource *k* required to engage in the behaviour is present/absent; PP_k is the evaluation of resource *k*; and *l* is the number of important resources that are necessary for engaging in the behaviour (Ajzen 1991:197, 2012:18; Han et al 2010:327; Han & Kim 2010:661).

In general, a high level of perceived control over a specific behaviour would strengthen a person's intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen 2002:667). Some previous studies into destination choice behaviour (e.g. Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494) demonstrated that travellers' intentions are positively influenced by their self-confidence in their ability to perform the behaviour. When tourists feel that they have little control over taking a trip to a particular destination due to the lack of required resources (e.g. skills, time, and money), their intentions to travel will diminish despite positive attitudes and supporting subjective norms regarding visiting the destination (Han et al 2010:327). Thus, it was proposed that Chinese tourists'

perceptions of behavioural control would positively influence their intentions to visit South Africa. This resulted in the formation of the third relationship hypothesis in the current research:

H3: Perceived behavioural control has a *positive* influence on visit intention.

In summary, an individual's intention to engage in a particular behaviour is determined by his/her attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. These are referred to as *direct* predictors. Behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs underlie attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control, respectively, and are referred to as *indirect* predictors (McEachan, Conner, Taylor & Lawton 2011:98). In the present study, the direct (rather than indirect) predictors of behavioural intention were considered, and hence only the direct measures of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control were developed and used for the online panel survey.

4.7.4   The role of background factors

Literature (e.g. Ajzen & Fishbein 2005:197) reveals that background factors such as demographic characteristics and personality traits, may indirectly influence intention and behaviour through their influence on behavioural, normative, and control beliefs, and through these beliefs have an influence on attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control (see Figure 4.5). However, it is important to recognise that there is *no* necessary connection between background factors and beliefs, and that whether a given belief is affected by a particular background factor is an empirical question (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:25).

FIGURE 4.5: THE ROLE OF BACKGROUND FACTORS
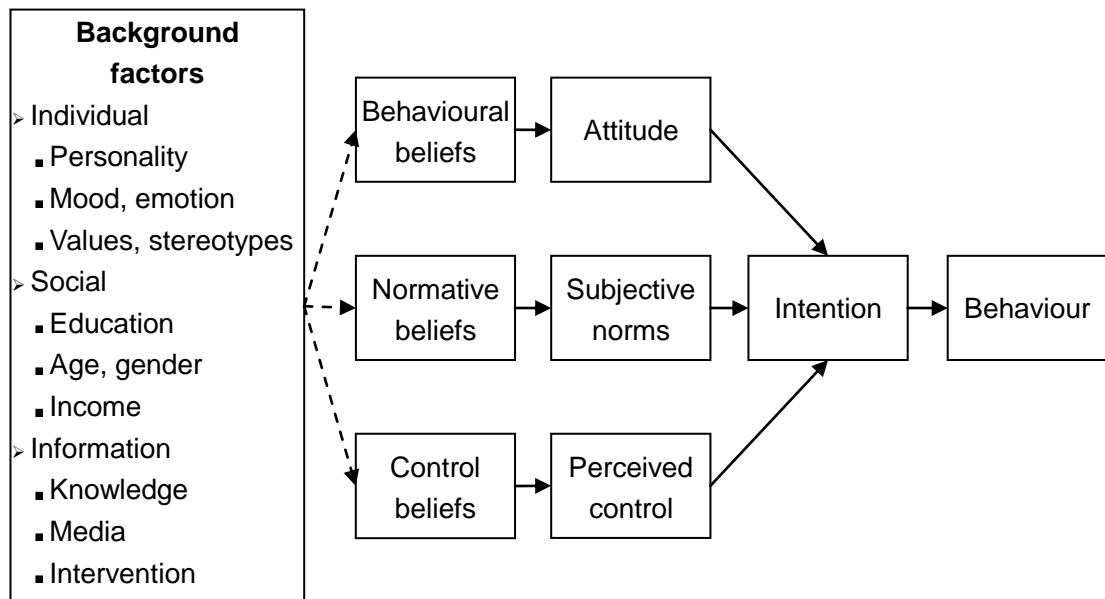
Source: Adapted from Fishbein & Ajzen (2010:22)

Most TPB-based tourism studies have gathered information regarding the demographic and travel-related characteristics of the target population, such as gender, age, income, and travel frequency. In some of these studies (e.g. Lee & Gould 2012:828-836), the information was used to simply *describe* the sample profile. In other studies (e.g. Liang & Lim 2011:855-865) it was also used to segment the population to *compare* subgroups that might differ in behaviour in terms of attitudes, subjective norms, perceptions of control, and intentions (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:234). For instance, MacKay and Campbell (2004:443-452) found that gender and place of residence are related to level of intention to support hunting as a tourism product. For the present research, potential Chinese travellers' demographic and travel-related information was collected using the so-called classification questions (discussed in Section 2.4.1 of Chapter 2) for both descriptive and comparison purposes.

The following section provides a thematic review of TPB-based studies in the tourism context in an attempt to better understand the problem under study and formulate the conceptual framework for the current research.

4.8 A REVIEW OF TPB-BASED TOURISM STUDIES

By searching electronic academic databases (e.g. Emerald, ScienceDirect, and Taylor & Francis Online), the researcher identified 28 articles (published between 2004 and 2014) that applied the TPB to tourism-related contexts (see Table 4.1). These articles were mainly published in three leading tourism and hospitality journals: *Tourism Management* (eight counts), *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (six counts), and *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* (five counts). The target behaviour in these articles mainly included travel destination choice (nine counts), hotel selection (three counts), special interest tourism (three counts), support for tourism development (two counts), and technology acceptance (two counts). Among the nine studies on destination choice behaviour, none adopted South Africa as a tourism destination, implying the existence of a research void.

Methodologically, all identified TPB-based tourism studies utilised the survey strategy to collect data. Surveys were conducted across 11 countries/regions, mainly involving China (seven counts), the United States (six counts), South Korea (four counts), and Taiwan (four counts). To distribute questionnaires to prospective participants, 18 studies adopted the field (i.e. face-to-face) survey mode; seven studies adopted the online survey mode; and only a few studies adopted the mail and telephone survey modes. The sample size of these studies ranged from 149 (Chen & Raab 2012:270-294) to 1,514 (Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417). Either structural equation modelling or MRA was used to analyse the collected data and develop TPB-based models with the former technique being more popular.

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TABLE 4.1: A REVIEW OF TPB-BASED STUDIES IN THE TOURISM LITERATURE

NO.	STUDY	JOURNAL	BEHAVIOUR TYPE	SURVEY LOCATION	SURVEY MODE	SAMPLE SIZE	TOOL	MAIN FINDINGS		
								ATT → INT	SN → INT	PBC → INT
1	Han, Hwang & Woods (2014)	APJTR	Virtual leisure activity participation	South Korea	Online and field	258 screen-golf participants	SEM	P	✕	P
2	Teng, Wu & Liu (2013)	JHTR	Green hotel choice	Taiwan	Field	258 potential customers	SEM	P	P	P
3	Chen & Raab (2012)	JHMM	Support for community tourism	United States	Mail	149 residents in Connecticut	SEM	P	N	-
4	Chien, Yen & Hoang (2012)	APJTR	Choice of destination (Vietnam)	Vietnam	Field	327 international tourists	MRA	P	P	✕
5	Chou, Chen & Wang (2012)	IJHM	Adoption of green practices	Taiwan	Field	245 restaurant personnel	SEM	P	✕	P
6	Hsu (2012)	JHLSTE	Internship and career planning	Taiwan	Field	231 hospitality management students	SEM	P	N	P
7	Hsu & Huang (2012)	JHTR	Choice of destination (Hong Kong)	China	Field	1,514 residents of Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou	SEM	P	P	P
8	Jalilvand & Samiei (2012)	Internet Research	Choice of destination (Iran)	Iran	Field	296 inbound tourists	SEM	P	P	P

(Continued)

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NO.	STUDY	JOURNAL	BEHAVIOUR TYPE	SURVEY LOCATION	SURVEY MODE	SAMPLE SIZE	TOOL	MAIN FINDINGS		
								ATT → INT	SN → INT	PBC → INT
9	Lee & Gould (2012)	IJHM	Congregate meal programme participation	United States	Field	238 community-dwelling older adults in Kansas	SEM	P	P	P
10	Lee, Han & Lockyer (2012)	JTTM	Medical tourism	South Korea	Field	237 Japanese tourists	SEM	P	P	P
11	Phillips & Jang (2012)	JHTR	Casino gambling	United States	Online	681 seniors	SEM	P	P	P
12	Wang & Ritchie (2012)	Tourism Management	Crisis planning	Australia	Online	386 accommodation managers	SEM	P	P	×
13	Cheng & Cho (2011)	JHTR	Technology adoption	Hong Kong	Field	171 employees from travel agencies	SEM	P	P	P
14	Han, Lee & Lee (2011)	Tourism Geographies	Choice of destination (South Korea)	China	Field	437 potential travellers from Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and Qingdao	SEM	P	P	P
15	Liang & Lim (2011)	IJHM	Online specialty food-buying	Taiwan	Field	569 undergraduate students	SEM	P	P	P
16	Casaló, Flavián & Guinalíu (2010)	Tourism Management	Firm-hosted online travel community participation	Spain	Online	456 members of selected firm-hosted online travel communities	SEM	P	N	P

NO.	STUDY	JOURNAL	BEHAVIOUR TYPE	SURVEY LOCATION	SURVEY MODE	SAMPLE SIZE	TOOL	MAIN FINDINGS		
								ATT → INT	SN → INT	PBC → INT
17	Han, Hsu & Sheu (2010)	Tourism Management	Green hotel choice	United States	Online	428 hotel customers	SEM	P	P	P
18	Han & Kim (2010)	IJHM	Green hotel choice	United States	Online	434 hotel customers	SEM	P	P	P
19	Quintal, Lee & Soutar (2010)	Tourism Management	Choice of destination (Australia)	South Korea, China, and Japan	Online	168 South Koreans, 308 Chinese, and 288 Japanese	SEM	K:× C:× J:P	P P P	P P P
20	Ryu & Han (2010)	JTTM	Culinary tourism	United States	Field	294 tourists in New Orleans	SEM	P	×	-
21	Huang & Hsu (2009)	JTR	Choice of destination (Hong Kong)	China	Telephone	501 Beijing residents who visited Hong Kong	SEM	P	-	-
22	Huh, Kim & Law (2009)	IJHM	Hotel information system acceptance	South Korea	Field	319 employees from selected hotels in Jeju	SEM	P	P	P
23	Sparks & Pan (2009)	Tourism Management	Choice of destination (Australia)	China	Field	520 potential travellers from Shanghai	MRA	×	P	P
24	Sparks (2007)	Tourism Management	Wine tourism	Australia	Mail	1,089 people who visited a wine region	SEM	×	P	P

(Continued)

NO.	STUDY	JOURNAL	BEHAVIOUR TYPE	SURVEY LOCATION	SURVEY MODE	SAMPLE SIZE	TOOL	MAIN FINDINGS		
								ATT → INT	SN → INT	PBC → INT
25	Lam & Hsu (2006)	Tourism Management	Choice of destination (Hong Kong)	Hong Kong	Field	299 Taiwanese travellers who passed through but did not enter Hong Kong on their way back to Taiwan	SEM	×	P	P
26	Cheng, Lam & Hsu (2005)	IJHM	Customer dissatisfaction response	China	Field	426 Shanghai residents who had dissatisfactory experiences in restaurants	MRA	P	P	P
27	Lam & Hsu (2004)	JHTR	Choice of destination (Hong Kong)	China	Field	328 potential travellers from Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou	SEM	P	×	N
28	MacKay & Campbell (2004)	Tourism Management	Support for hunting tourism	Canada	Mail	1,367 residents in Manitoba	MRA	P	P	-

Note: 1. Abbreviations for journals: APJTR=Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research; JHTR=Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research; JHMM=Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management; IJHM=International Journal of Hospitality Management; JHLSTE=Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education; JTTM=Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing; JTR=Journal of Travel Research.

2. Abbreviations for analytical tools: SEM=Structural Equation Modelling; MRA=Multiple Regression Analysis.

3. Abbreviations for variables: ATT=ATTitude; SN=Subjective Norm; PBC=Perceived Behavioural Control; INT=INTention.

4. Abbreviations for relationships: 'P'=significant Positive; 'N'=significant Negative; '×'=not significant; '-'=irrelevant.

Source: Own construction

As shown in Table 4.1, all of these TPB-based tourism studies investigated the relationship between attitude and intention: 25 (89%) found that attitude has a significant positive influence on intention, and the remainder reported that the influence of attitude on intention is non-significant. With one exception, these TPB-based tourism studies also assessed the relationship between subjective norms and intention: 20 (74%) observed that subjective norms have a significant positive effect on intention; three found a significant negative effect; and four reported that the effect is non-significant. Twenty-four studies tested the relationship between perceived control and intention: 21 (88%) found that perceived control has a significant positive impact on intention; one discovered a significant negative impact; and two claimed that the impact is non-significant. Therefore, these findings from previous TPB studies in the tourism context further justified the formulation of the first three relationship hypotheses in the current research (i.e. H1, H2, and H3).

In addition, some TPB-based tourism studies examined the interdependence of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. Seven studies (e.g. Han & Kim 2010:659-668; Ryu & Han 2010:491-506) found that subjective norms have a significant positive influence on attitude; one study (i.e. Quintal et al 2010:797-805) found that subjective norms also have a significant positive influence on perceived control. The interdependence among predictors was *not* the focus of the current research.

Finally, to improve the predictive power on intention, 17 of the 28 identified studies (e.g. Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417; Lee & Gould 2012:828-836) extended the TPB model by adding one or more additional predictors (e.g. past behaviour). The issues concerning the extension of the TPB model are elaborated on in Chapter 5.

4.9   SUMMARY

This chapter contains a literature review regarding the attitude concept and the TPB model. Evaluation, tendency, and object are three essential elements that define attitudes. Confidence, persistence, resistance, accessibility, and ambivalence are main properties of attitudes. There are several psychological functions that attitudes may serve: object-appraisal (knowledge and utility), social-adjustment, externalisation (ego-defense), and value-expression. The internal structure of attitudes can be investigated by using the tripartite model or the expectancy-value model. The attitude construct of the TPB is based on the latter. Many factors may account for the inconsistency between attitude and behaviour; and from a measurement angle, the principle of compatibility should be followed to improve the attitude-behaviour correlation.

The TPB model has five components: behaviour, intention, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. Intention is the most immediate and important determinant of behaviour. Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control are three direct predictor variables of intention. As a general rule, consumers' intentions to perform a particular behaviour should be strong when their attitudes and subjective norms support the behaviour and their perceptions of control over the performance of the behaviour are high. Additional predictors can be added to the TPB model to improve its predictive power on intention (discussed in detail in Chapter 5).

CHAPTER 5 OVERVIEW

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                        │  (Orientation)   │
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                        │   Chapter 2      │
                        │  (Methodology)   │
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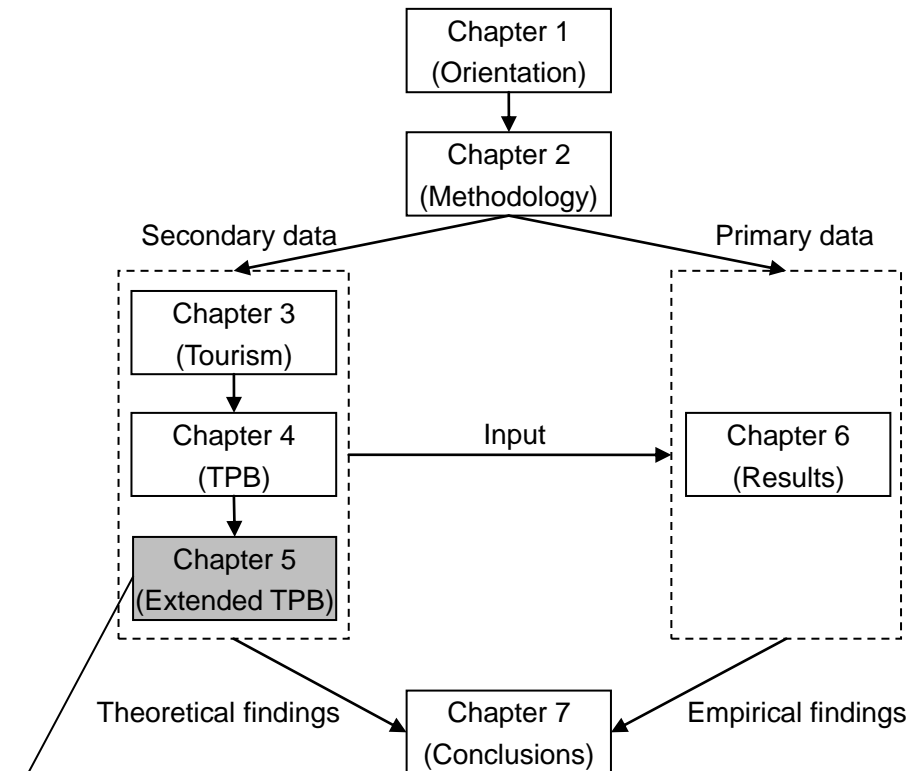
┌──┐
│ ➢ The sufficiency of the theory of planned behaviour   │
│ ➢ Travel motivation   │
│   ▪ The nature of motivation   │
│   ▪ General theories of human motivation   │
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│   ▪ The development of leisure constraints research   │
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│   ▪ The nature of tourism constraints   │
│   ▪ Constraints research regarding Chinese outbound tourists│
│   ▪ Effect of travel constraints on visit intention   │
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CHAPTER 5

EXTENDING THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

5.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 discussed the basic constructs of the TPB model. This chapter, the third of three theoretical chapters in this study, addresses the third research objective indicated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, namely, to review the literature concerning the constructs of travel motivation and travel constraints that were proposed as additional predictors of visit intention. The chapter commences with a description of the sufficiency of the TPB model.

5.2   THE SUFFICIENCY OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

The TPB is a parsimonious model (Sparks 2007:1183), in which intention and behaviour can be predicted with reasonable accuracy from the constructs of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. However, the TPB is open to the inclusion of additional predictors if there is evidence that they may explain a significant share of the variance in intention and behaviour after the basic predictors have been taken into account (Ajzen 1991:199). In fact, the TPB was developed by adding the predictor construct of perceived control to the TRA (discussed in Section 4.7 of Chapter 4). For the sake of parsimony, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010:282) admonish that possible additions to the TPB must meet five requirements, namely, that the proposed variable should be:

- behaviour-specific, conforming to the principle of compatibility;
- conceived as a causal factor determining intention and behaviour;
- conceptually independent of the theory's existing constructs;
- applicable to a wide range of human social behaviour; and
- able to improve the prediction of intention and behaviour.

The sufficiency of the TPB to predict tourism-related intentions and behaviour has been questioned and efforts have been made to extend the model (Hsu & Huang 2012:393). The researcher identified 17 such studies (published between 2004 and 2014) by searching electronic academic databases (e.g. Emerald, ScienceDirect, and Taylor & Francis Online). Identification criteria were studies that used the TPB as a basis for tourism and related topics research and suggested one or more additional variables that improved the model's predictive power. As illustrated in Table 5.1, tourism scholars have successfully added a few new predictors (e.g. past behaviour/experience and expectation of visa exemption) to the TPB for predicting a range of intentions and behaviour (e.g. hotel selection and special interest tourism).

For the current context, two additional predictors – travel motivation and travel constraints – were proposed in an attempt to enhance the efficacy of the TPB in predicting potential Chinese travellers' intentions to visit South Africa. Both motivation and constraints play an important role in explaining tourists' destination choice decision making processes. Motivation is more influential at the early stage of decision making in determining whether a *potential* destination is selected as an acceptable alternative, while constraints are more influential at a later stage in determining whether the alternative is selected as a *final* destination (Huang & Hsu 2005:195; Um & Crompton 1992:18-25). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, to date *no* research has taken the five variables of motivation, constraints, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control into account simultaneously in explaining the tourist's decision making process leading to destination choice. This implies the existence of a research void.

TABLE 5.1: ADDITIONAL PREDICTORS OF INTENTION

NO.	STUDY	BEHAVIOUR TYPE	ADDITIONAL PREDICTOR
1	Han, Hwang & Woods (2014)	Virtual leisure activity participation	Past behaviour
2	Teng, Wu & Liu (2013)	Green hotel choice	Altruism
3	Chien, Yen & Hoang (2012)	Travel destination choice	Past behaviour and travel motivation
4	Hsu & Huang (2012)	Travel destination choice	Tourist motivation
5	Jalilvand & Samiei (2012)	Travel destination choice	Electronic word of mouth
6	Lee & Gould (2012)	Congregate meal programme participation	Past behaviour
7	Phillips & Jang (2012)	Casino gambling	Casino gaming motivation
8	Wang & Ritchie (2012)	Accommodation managers' crisis planning	Past experience
9	Han, Lee & Lee (2011)	Travel destination choice	Expectation of tourist visa exemption
10	Casaló, Flavián & Guinalíu (2010)	Firm-hosted online travel community participation	Identification and perceived usefulness
11	Han & Kim (2010)	Green hotel choice	Service quality, customer satisfaction, overall image, and past behaviour
12	Ryu & Han (2010)	Culinary tourism	Past behaviour
13	Huang & Hsu (2009)	Travel destination choice	Past experience, perceived constraints, and travel motivation
14	Sparks (2007)	Wine tourism	Food and wine involvement and past experience
15	Lam & Hsu (2006)	Travel destination choice	Past behaviour
16	Cheng, Lam & Hsu (2005)	Restaurant diners' dissatisfaction response	Past behaviour
17	Lam & Hsu (2004)	Travel destination choice	Past behaviour

Source: Own construction

Although there is strong evidence for the critical role played by past behaviour in predicting intention and behaviour (Han, Hwang & Woods 2014:433), the present study excluded the possibility of adding this construct equivalently to other predictor variables of visit intention because the current research used *potential* Chinese travellers to South Africa as samples.

In Sections 5.3 and 5.4 below, the literature related to the constructs of travel motivation and travel constraints is reviewed, and further evidence supporting the inclusion of these two constructs into the TPB model is offered. The terms 'tourism' and 'travel', and the terms 'tourist', 'traveller', and 'visitor', are used interchangeably in the discussion, as was explained in Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 of Chapter 3.

5.3   TRAVEL MOTIVATION

Travel motivation deals with a subset of the wider range of human motivation (Pearce 2011b:40). Travel motivation studies attempt to address the question of "why people travel" or "why people visit a particular destination" because it is believed that motivation is an important driving force behind tourist behaviour (Hsu & Huang 2008:25). Therefore, understanding what motivates people to travel has clear implications for destination marketers: not only to interpret tourist behaviour and identify the target market segment, but also to predict future travel patterns and enable successful product development and marketing (Hua & Yoo 2011:359; Josiam, Huang, Bahulkar, Spears & Kennon 2012:81; Lu 2011:346; Smith & Costello 2009:45).

5.3.1   The nature of motivation

Motivation is defined from different perspectives. According to psychologists, motivation refers to "the concept we use when we describe the forces acting

on or within an organism to initiate and direct behavior" (Petri & Govern 2004:16). Reeve (2005:6) agrees, declaring that the subject matter of motivation concerns "those processes that give behavior its energy and direction". Obviously, these two definitions rest on the premise that human behaviour is a consequence of motivation (Hollyforde & Whiddett 2002:2).

From a marketing perspective, motivation can be described as "the basic process that involves needs (internal or external), which set drives in motion to accomplish goals to satisfy these needs" (Wright 2006:493). This definition highlights the fact that motivation links consumers' needs (Cant, Brink & Brijball 2006:130). Consumers generally recognise a need when a gap exists between their current and desired states. This gap may produce tension and activate motivation (Assael 2004:33). Motivated consumers are ready to engage in goal-relevant activities, which include decision making and acting (Hoyer & MacInnis 2010:45).

Tourist motivation is considered a critical explanatory factor in understanding tourists' vacation decision making processes and behaviour (Jiang, Scott, Ding & Zou 2012:361). Several tourism scholars have defined tourists' motivation to travel. According to Dann (1981:205), for example, tourist motivation is "a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision". Crompton and McKay (1997:427) offer a slightly more specific definition of tourist motivation as "a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals". As travel motivation is a dynamic concept, it may vary depending on the market and the destination (Kozak 2002:222). The current research investigated the travel motivation of potential Chinese tourists (i.e. market) to South Africa (i.e. destination).

5.3.2   General theories of human motivation

Human motivation is an extensively researched and reported subject (Hollyforde & Whiddett 2002:7). This section introduces two popular human motivation theories that can enhance the understanding of *general* patterns of human behaviour, namely, Maslow's (1954:35-58) hierarchy of needs and McGuire's (1974:167-196) psychological motives.

(a)   Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow (1954:35-58) proposed a theory of human motivation which became widely accepted. The theory's premise is that human motivation should be studied by observing human rather than animal behaviour, viewing the individual holistically, and seeking to understand the ultimate rather than the superficial behaviour goals (Petri & Govern 2004:348). According to Maslow's theory (see Figure 5.1), human motivation is based on a number of needs, which can be arranged in a five-level hierarchy in order of importance, namely, *physiological* (e.g. the need for food and water), *safety and security* (e.g. the need for protection and stability), *belongingness and love* (e.g. the need for affection and friendship), *esteem* (e.g. the need for prestige and status), and *self-actualisation* (e.g. the need for self-fulfilment and enriching experiences). As a general rule, higher-level needs can be activated only after lower-level needs are satisfied (Hoyer & MacInnis 2010:50).

Although Maslow's theory was originally developed for clinical psychology, it is applicable to other research domains, including marketing and tourism (Hsu & Huang 2008:15). The application of Maslow's theory to tourism is explained in Section 5.3.3. A major problem with the application of Maslow's theory is that the need hierarchy is somewhat *simplistic*, particularly when the product or service can satisfy a number of different needs (Solomon 2004:122).

FIGURE 5.1: MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS
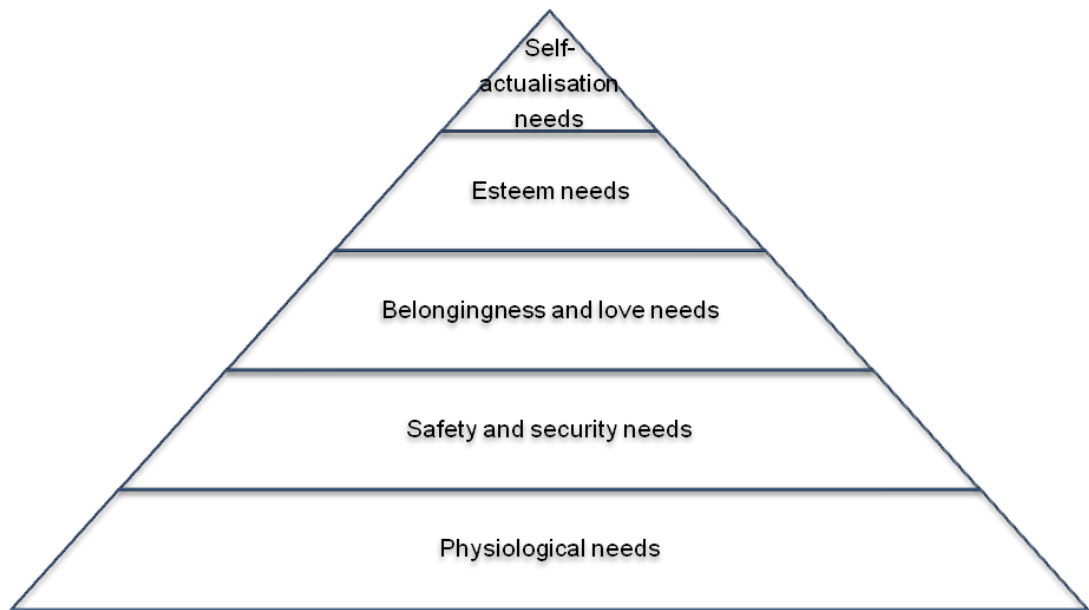
Source: Adapted from Reeve (2005:412)

(b)   McGuire's psychological motives

McGuire (1974:167-196) later conceives a motive classification system that is more specific than Maslow's (Cant et al 2006:136). According to McGuire's framework (see Table 5.2), human motives are first divided into four major categories based on two *primary* dichotomies – cognitive versus affective and preservation versus growth motives. These four major categories are further subdivided by two *secondary* dichotomies – active versus passive and internal versus external motives. Altogether, these four dichotomies lead to a matrix of 16 motives (McGuire 1976:315). These dichotomies and motives are subsequently discussed.

TABLE 5.2: MCGUIRE'S PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVES

		ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
		INTERNAL	EXTERNAL	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
COGNITIVE	PRESER-VATION	Consistency	Attribution	Categorisation	Objectification
COGNITIVE	GROWTH	Autonomy	Stimulation	Teleology	Utility
AFFECTIVE	PRESER-VATION	Tension-reduction	Expression	Ego-defense	Reinforcement
AFFECTIVE	GROWTH	Assertion	Affiliation	Identification	Modelling

Source: Adapted from McGuire (1974:172)

Cognitive preservation motives

- *Consistency* (active, internal) – the need to have all aspects of oneself consistent with each other, for example, attitudes and actions.
- *Attribution* (active, external) – the need to find out who or what causes the things that happen to one.
- *Categorisation* (passive, internal) – the need to categorise and organise large quantities of information in a meaningful, manageable way.
- *Objectification* (passive, external) – the need for observable cues that help people infer what they feel and know.

Cognitive growth motives

- *Autonomy* (active, internal) – the need for self-governance and individuality.

- *Stimulation* (active, external) – the need to seek variety and novelty.

- *Teleology* (passive, internal) – the need to make purchases that match people's view of how the world should work.

- *Utility* (passive, external) – the need to analyse and solve problems.

Affective preservation motives

- *Tension-reduction* (active, internal) – the need to release tension and relieve stress effectively.

- *Expression* (active, external) – the need to convey one's identity to others.

- *Ego-defense* (passive, internal) – the need to protect one's identity when it is threatened.

- *Reinforcement* (passive, external) – the need to be rewarded for behaving in certain ways that brought rewards in similar situations in the past.

Affective growth motives

- *Assertion* (active, internal) – the need to pursue success, admiration, and dominance in any competitive environment.

- *Affiliation* (active, external) – the need to develop and maintain mutually beneficial and satisfying relationships with others.

- *Identification* (passive, internal) – the need to gain pleasure from adding new roles and by strengthening the roles already played.

- *Modelling* (passive, external) – the need to base behaviour on that of others (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh 2010:363-366; Lovett 2011:34-35).

From a marketing angle, McGuire's (1974:167-196) classification system may help marketers isolate motives likely to be involved in various consumption situations with the aim of tailoring marketing strategy to address specific motives (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh 2010:362; Lovett 2011:33).

5.3.3 Specific tourist motivation theories

As a special form of human motivation, tourist motivation has been theorised to explain tourist behaviour. Surprisingly, tourism scholars have not perceived different tourist motivation theories as competitive entities but rather that they all contribute to the understanding of tourist behaviour in different ways (Hung & Petrick 2011:387). This section highlights three main theories related to tourist motivation, namely, the travel career approach (Pearce & Caltabiano 1983:16-20; Pearce & Lee 2005:226-237), the escaping and seeking theory (Iso-Ahola 1982:256-262), and the push and pull theory (Dann 1977:184-194).

(a) Travel career approach

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983:16-20) posit the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) approach to understanding tourist motivation (see Figure 5.2) based on both Maslow's (1954:35-58) hierarchy of needs and Hughes' (1937:404-413) career concept. Following Maslow's theory, travellers' needs can be organised into a hierarchy or ladder with *relaxation* needs being at the lowest level, followed by *safety and security* needs, *relationship* needs, *self-esteem and development* needs, and finally, at the highest level, *fulfilment* needs. In line with Hughes' notion, people may be said to have a "travel career"; that is, people progress upwards through the ladder of needs according to their lifespan and/or accumulated travel experiences (Pearce 2005:52-54).

FIGURE 5.2: TRAVEL CAREER LADDER
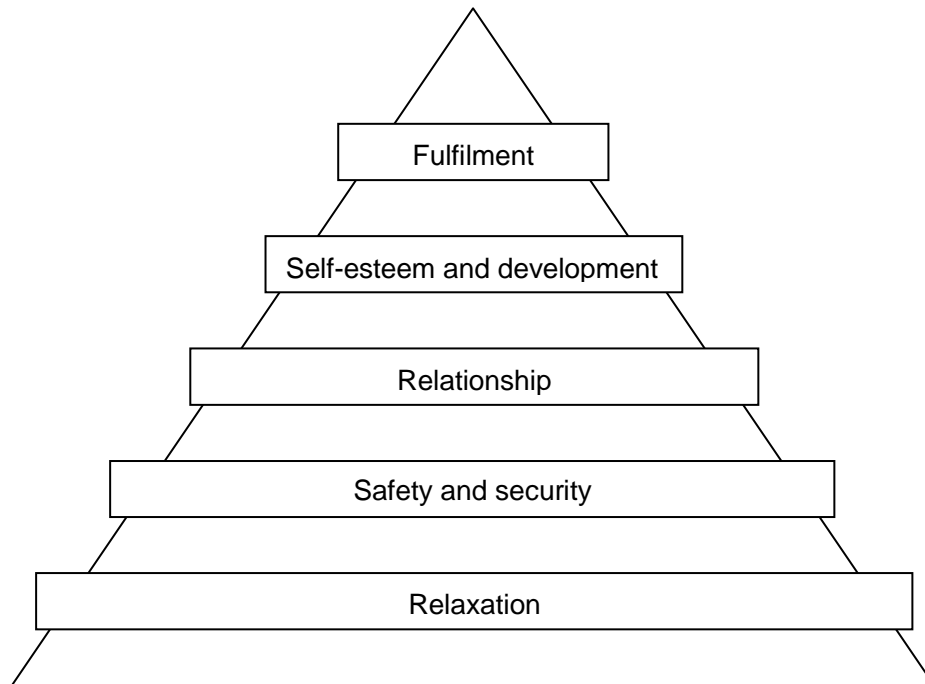
Source: Adapted from Hsu & Huang (2008:17)

The TCL is subject to a number of criticisms: (1) the TCL cannot be claimed as a predictive theory since it does not address the question of why tourists move backwards and forwards along their career ladders; (2) it cannot explain why some tourists pursue higher-level needs although they have not yet met lower-level needs; (3) the number of items employed to assess the ladder levels is inadequate, which affects the validity of the approach; and (4) it fails to appreciate the importance of socialisation while on vacation (Jiang et al 2012:363; Ryan 1998:936-957). In response to these criticisms, Pearce and Lee (2005:226-237) later modified the TCL, making it a more comprehensive travel motivation theory termed the Travel Career Pattern (TCP). Compared with the TCL, the TCP places more emphasis on changing patterns of motives and less on the strict hierarchy of needs, thereby revealing more meaningful information on tourist motivation. However, the TCP is still under development and more rigorous research is needed to verify its validity (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012:205; Hsu & Huang 2008:18; Pearce 2005:55).

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(b)   Escaping and seeking theory

Iso-Ahola (1982:256-262) posits a typology for explaining leisure motivation in general and tourism motivation in particular. According to this typology, tourist behaviour is simultaneously influenced by two motivational forces – the desire to leave the everyday environment and the desire to obtain intrinsic rewards. Both forces have a personal and an interpersonal component. Thus, a tourist may seek to escape the personal world (e.g. personal troubles and problems) and/or the interpersonal world (e.g. family members and co-workers). The tourist may also seek personal rewards (e.g. feeling of mastery and learning about other cultures) and/or interpersonal rewards (e.g. interaction with local residents and with old friends in a new place). Overall, this typology suggests that tourism motivation be categorised into four dimensions: *personal escape*, *personal seeking*, *interpersonal escape*, and *interpersonal seeking* (Mannell & Iso-Ahola 1987:314-331). Figure 5.3 presents the interaction between these dimensions.

FIGURE 5.3: ESCAPING AND SEEKING DIMENSIONS
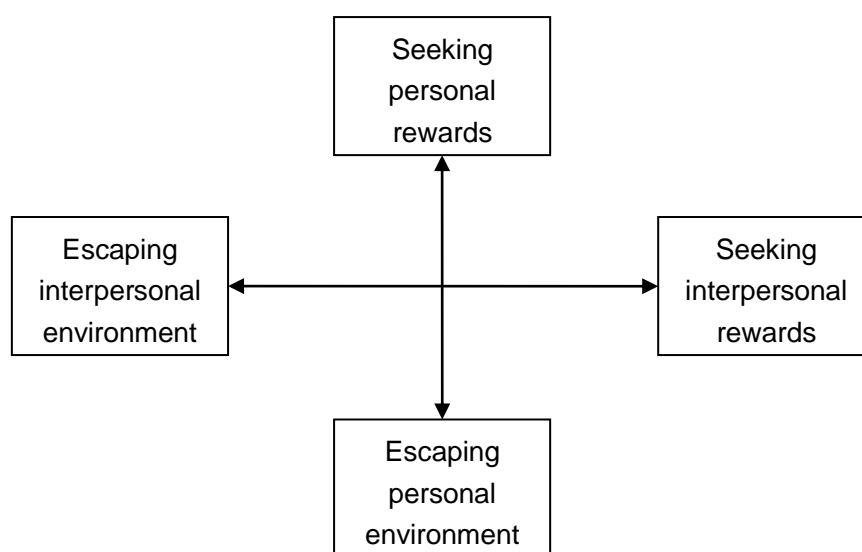
Source: Adapted from Mannell & Iso-Ahola (1987:323)

Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006:140-149) operationalised and empirically tested Iso-Ahola's (1982:256-262) motivation theory within the tourism context. By using a competing models approach, these researchers found that the model, in which each of the four dimensions was weighted equally, provided the most straightforward explanation of motivation structure. This implies that personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal seeking, and interpersonal escape all operate as salient reasons for tourist behaviour. However, Iso-Ahola's theory has been criticised for its inability to explain *why* people want to escape from their routine environment (Jamal & Lee 2003:49).

(c)   Push and pull theory

Among the theories underlying travel motivation, the push-pull framework seems to have attracted the most attention from researchers studying tourist behaviour (Kao et al 2008:18). This framework was originally proposed by Dann (1977:184-194), who distinguished between motivational approaches that emphasise individual-generated push forces and destination-generated pull forces (Pearce 2011b:44). *Push factors* refer to "internally generated drives that cause the tourist to search for signs in objects, situations, and events that contain the promise of reducing prevalent drives" (Jiang et al 2012:362). Push factors are associated with travellers' inner needs, such as rest and relaxation, social interaction, and the desire for escape (Klenosky 2002:385). The aforementioned TCL, TCP, and escaping and seeking models can all be viewed as push-style motivational frameworks.

On the other hand, *pull factors* refer to "the specific attractions that induce tourists to visit a particular destination rather than another once the decision to undertake a trip has been made" (Jiang et al 2012:362). Pull factors are characterised in terms of the attributes of the destination itself, such as culture, beaches, and recreation facilities (Klenosky 2002:385). Overall, the push-pull

theory suggests that people travel because they are pushed by internal forces and pulled by external forces (Li et al 2013:787), as shown diagrammatically in Figure 5.4.

FIGURE 5.4: THE PUSH-PULL FRAMEWORK
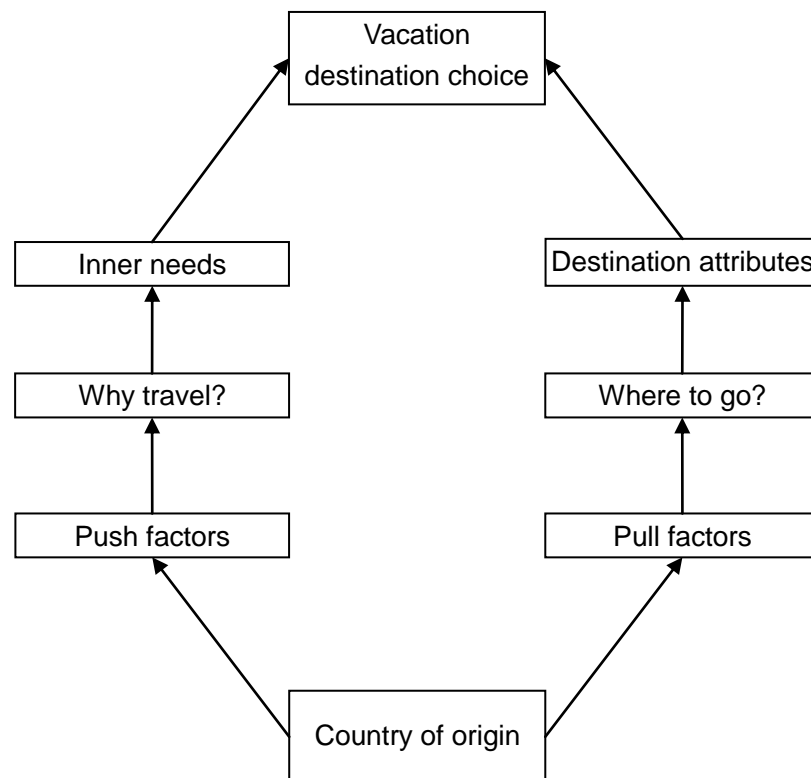
Source: Adapted from You, O'Leary, Morrison & Hong (2000:10)

Crompton (1979:408-424) agrees with Dann's (1977:184-194) idea of push and pull factors and was among the first researchers to identify *both* push and pull factors in one single study (You, O'Leary, Morrison & Hong 2000:8). Based on a content analysis of 39 unstructured interviews, Crompton found two clusters of motives for pleasure vacation behaviour: socio-psychological and cultural motives. The former cluster is composed of *seven* motives, that is, escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction. The cultural cluster comprises *two*

motives – novelty and education. Crompton classified the socio-psychological motives as push factors for a vacation, and the cultural motives as pull factors. Although there is doubt regarding the novelty motive as a pull factor, Crompton's work on identification and assortment of the travel motives is insightful and an important benchmark for travel motivation research (Hsu & Huang 2008:19).

An ongoing debate around the push-pull concept is the relationship between push and pull factors, that is, whether there is a causal or correlational relationship between the two factors (Jiang et al 2012:362-363). Traditionally, push and pull factors were viewed as relating to two separate decisions made by the traveller at two separate points in time, one focusing on *whether* to go, the other on *where* to go (Hua & Yoo 2011:360). As remarked by Dann (1981:207), once the tourist's initial decision to take a vacation has been made, the destination-related questions "where to go", "what to see", and "what to do" can be addressed. Therefore, analytically push factors precede pull factors. Nevertheless, some tourism scholars have debated whether push and pull factors should be treated as operating entirely independently of one another (Klenosky 2002:385-386). For example, Dann (1981:191) claims that pull factors both respond to and reinforce push factors. Similarly, Crompton (1979:412) maintains that push factors may be helpful not only in explaining the tourist's desire to go on a vacation, but may also have the potential to direct the tourist towards a particular destination. Finally, Uysal and Jurowski (1994:844-846) and Kim and Lee (2002:257-260), using factor and regression analyses, empirically confirmed a reciprocal relationship between push and pull factors, suggesting *simultaneous* examination of inner motivation and destination attributes.

In summary, there seems no universally agreed conceptualisation of tourist motivation in the literature. The current research adopted the two-tiered model

of push and pull factors to explain Chinese tourists' motivation for taking a vacation in South Africa, by developing both push and pull measurement items and then factoring them together. Considering the main purpose of the present study, the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors was *not* addressed.

5.3.4   Motivation research regarding Chinese outbound tourists

The vast majority of extant conceptual and empirical frameworks of tourist motivation have been developed and tested with samples from developed societies and Western cultures. Limited attempts were made to apply these frameworks in non-Western developed societies, such as Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan. Investigation into Chinese outbound tourists' motivation has been a very recent phenomenon (Hsu & Huang 2012:393). China is a non-Western developing country with huge social, cultural, and geographical diversity, which increases the complexity of determining Chinese outbound tourists' motivation (Lu 2011:347). A *brief* review of travel motivation literature revealed that between 1999 and 2012, only 18 studies have investigated Chinese outbound travellers' motivation. Table 5.3 summarises these studies.

As shown in Table 5.3, some studies (e.g. Li 2007:95-98; Ma 2009:150-156; Zhang 2009:127-135) examined why Chinese tourists travelled abroad without regard to the destinations involved. Others sought to determine what motivated Chinese tourists to visit a particular destination, such as Hong Kong (Hsu & Lam 2003:60-67) and New Zealand (Ryan & Mo 2001:13-27). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there has been no research investigating potential Chinese tourists' motivation to visit South Africa in the mainstream literature.

TABLE 5.3: PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS'
TRAVEL MOTIVATION

NO.	STUDY	DESTINATION	DIMENSIONS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION
1	Li, Meng, Uysal & Mihalik (2013)	Unspecified	Push factor (11 items) and pull factor (11 items).
2	Hsu & Huang (2012)	Hong Kong	Knowledge (7 items); relaxation (5 items); novelty (5 items); and shopping (3 items).
3	Li & Cai (2012)	Unspecified	Novelty and knowledge (5 items); prestigious and luxury experience (5 items); self-development (5 items); exciting experience (3 items); and escape and relationship (5 items).
4	Zhang, Ma & Qu (2012)	Unspecified	Basic conditions (4 items); tourism resources (3 items); economic conditions (2 items); promotion (4 items); macroeconomic condition (2 items); and time and money constraints (2 items).
5	Hua & Yoo (2011)	United States	Ego enhancement (5 items); international exposure (5 items); communication opportunities (3 items); financial incentives (3 items); and destination stimuli (4 items).
6	Li, Wen & Leung (2011)	Hong Kong	Knowledge and prestige (4 items); enhancement of social relationships (4 items); rest and relaxation (2 items); adventure and excitement (2 items); modern image (5 items); natural environment and attractions (3 items); safety and cleanliness (2 items); ease of tour arrangement (3 items); and shopping (2 items).
7	Lu (2011)	Canada	Prestige (4 items); family ties (2 items); exploration (4 items); escape and leisure (2 items); high quality of Canadian life (5 items); shopping activities (4 items); unique attractions (3 items); and sports (1 item).
8	Yun & Joppe (2011)	Seven long-haul destinations	Outdoor recreational sports activities (4 items); experiencing culture (7 items); nature-based activities (4 items); luxury and entertainment (3 items); and touring type (3 items).
9	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)	Hong Kong	Knowledge (7 items); relaxation (5 items); novelty (4 items); and shopping (3 items).
10	Huang & Hsu (2009)	Hong Kong	Knowledge (4 items); relaxation (4 items); novelty (4 items); and shopping (3 items).

(Continued)

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NO.	STUDY	DESTINATION	DIMENSIONS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION
11	Ma (2009)	Unspecified	Self-utilitarian and social motivation (16 items); relax and stimulation (5 items); and different natural and cultural appeal (6 items).
12	Zhang (2009)	Unspecified	Entertainment and activities (6 items); facilities, weather, and value for money (5 items); knowledge seeking (4 items); natural, cultural, and historical environment (5 items); exploration and adventure (5 items); relationship enhancement (3 items); relaxation (4 items); and language and safety (3 items).
13	Johanson (2007)	United States	Relaxing and peaceful surroundings (6 items); perceived quality, excitement, and variety that is available to visitors (5 items); great family environment and superior value for the traveller (5 items); and unique culture and history and unspoiled romantic beauty (4 items).
14	Li (2007)	Unspecified	Novelty and knowledge (5 items); prestigious and luxury experience (8 items); self-development (7 items); exciting experience (3 items); escape and relax (4 items); and relationship strengthening (3 items).
15	Kau & Lim (2005)	Singapore	Prestige and knowledge (8 items); escape and relax (5 items); adventure and excitement (4 items); exploration (4 items); pleasure seeking and sightseeing (4 items); and enhancement of family and social relationships (3 items).
16	Hsu & Lam (2003)	Hong Kong	Push factor (8 items) and pull factor (5 items).
17	Ryan & Mo (2001)	New Zealand	Social investigative reasons (7 items); New Zealand-specific reasons (5 items); generalised holiday reasons (3 items); and to go to places where I have not been (1 item).
18	Zhang & Lam (1999)	Hong Kong	Knowledge (5 items); prestige (4 items); enhancement of human relationship (5 items); relaxation (4 items); novelty (2 items); Hi-tech image (4 items); expenditure (3 items); accessibility (4 items); service attitude and quality (4 items); sightseeing variety (3 items); and cultural links (3 items).

Note: With one exception, all the above studies used factor analysis to identify the underlying dimensions of travel motivation.

Source: Own construction

Zhang and Lam (1999:587-594) employed the push and pull theory as a conceptual framework to understand what motivated Chinese travellers to visit Hong Kong – the largest recipient of Chinese outbound tourists. They identified *five* underlying push factors (knowledge, prestige, enhancement of human relationship, relaxation, and novelty) and *six* underlying pull factors (Hi-tech image, expenditure, accessibility, service attitude and quality, sightseeing variety, and cultural links). They also confirmed a significant relationship between motivational factors and socio-demographic variables (gender, age, income, and travel frequency). Subsequent studies on Chinese tourists' motivation for travelling not only to Hong Kong but also to other overseas destinations often cite the work by Zhang and Lam because it is deemed "the first article on the motivation of the Chinese outbounders" (Cai, Li & Knutson 2007:16).

Ryan and Mo (2001:13-27) approached the examination of motivation as a means to segment Chinese tourists who visited New Zealand. They first identified *four* travel motives, namely, social investigative reasons, New Zealand-specific reasons, generalised holiday reasons, and a simple wish to visit a place not previously seen. Based on these travel motives, they found that Chinese visitors to New Zealand could be segmented into *five* clusters – sightseers in new places, investment seekers, package holidaymakers, low scorers, and New Zealand enthusiasts. Later, Kau and Lim (2005:231-248) conducted a similar study in the context of Chinese travellers to Singapore. *Six* travel motives were found using factor analysis, namely, prestige and knowledge, escape and relaxation, adventure and excitement, exploration, pleasure seeking and sightseeing, and enhancement of family and social relationships. Cluster analysis based on these motivation factors revealed *four* segments of Chinese tourists to Singapore – family and relaxation seekers, novelty seekers, adventure and pleasure seekers, and prestige and knowledge seekers. In summary, the above two studies provided support for

the notion that travel motivation is a viable market segmentation base in studies of Chinese outbound tourists.

In addition to New Zealand, motivation research on long-haul destinations for Chinese travellers includes Canada (Lu 2011:345-354) and the United States (Hua & Yoo 2011:355-376; Johanson 2007:41-59). By applying the push-pull framework, Lu (2011:345-354) found that Chinese tourists are attracted or pulled to Canada by *four* factors: Canada's unique attractions, the high quality of Canadian life, shopping activities, and outdoor sports. *Four* inner drivers or push factors were prestige, family ties, exploration, and escape and leisure.

Using Hawaii as a case study, Johanson (2007:41-59) explored the future travel motivation of Chinese tourists to the United States. *Four* motivation factors were disclosed: relaxing and peaceful surroundings; perceived quality, excitement, and variety; great family environment and superior value; and unique culture and history and unspoiled romantic beauty. Subsequently, Hua and Yoo (2011:355-376) examined potential Chinese travellers' motivation to visit the United States. Their study identified *five* motivation factors – ego enhancement, international exposure, communication opportunities, financial incentives, and destination stimuli. In addition, significant differences in travel motivation among potential Chinese tourists with different socio-demographic backgrounds were also observed.

In view of the findings of the above studies, it is argued that the motivation of Chinese outbound travellers is a multidimensional concept with various push and pull components, affected by their socio-demographics, and a feasible base for market segmentation. Hence, an examination of the argument was an important part of the current research.

Considering the widely accepted notion that people from the same country but travelling to different destinations may have very different motives (Kozak 2002:231), the present study attempted to develop a scale for measuring Chinese travellers' motivation to visit South Africa. Churchill's (1979:64-73) suggested scale development process was followed.

5.3.5   Effect of travel motivation on visit intention

In conceptualising the TPB, Ajzen (1991:181) argues that intentions capture the motivation factors that influence a given behaviour and indicate how hard people are willing to try, or how much effort they would exert to perform the behaviour. This implies that motivation has an impact on behavioural intention.

In the tourism literature, only a few studies examined the relationship between motivation and intention. For example, in the context of North American cruise tourism, Hung and Petrick (2011:386-393) found four cruising motivation dimensions each having a positive influence on cruising intention. These dimensions were self-esteem and social recognition; escape and relaxation; learning, discovery, and thrill; and bonding.

Huang and Hsu (2009:29-44) discovered four factors that motivate Chinese tourists to revisit Hong Kong, namely, novelty, knowledge, relaxation, and shopping. However, only the shopping factor had a significant (positive) effect on revisit intention. In a similar vein, Li and Cai (2012:473-487) uncovered five general motivation dimensions of Chinese tourists without regard to their outbound destinations, that is, novelty and knowledge, prestigious and luxury experience, self-development, exciting experience, and escape and relationship. However, only the novelty and knowledge dimension had a significant (positive) effect on behavioural intention.

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Based on the above review, it could be anticipated that Chinese tourists' travel motivation would positively influence their intentions to visit South Africa. This led to the formulation of the fourth relationship hypothesis in the current research:

H4: Travel motivation has a *positive* influence on visit intention.

5.4 TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

Whereas motivation may facilitate behavioural intention and actual behaviour, constraints are likely to inhibit them (Funk 2008:191). In a study of the roles played by motivation and constraints in destination choice, Um and Crompton (1992:18-25) found that motives are more influential in determining whether a *potential* destination is selected as an acceptable alternative, while constraints are more influential in determining whether the alternative is selected as a *final* destination. Thus, perceived constraints seem to be more important in the final stage of the travel decision making process (Huang & Hsu 2005:195).

Since the concept of travel constraints is grounded in the leisure constraints literature (Hung & Petrick 2012:857), the latter is firstly reviewed below. The terms 'constraint' and 'barrier' are used interchangeably in this review due to their similarities.

5.4.1 The development of leisure constraints research

According to Jackson (2000:62), the origins of leisure constraints research can be traced back at least a century, but it is only since the 1980s that social science scholars have conducted systematic research that has explicitly examined the constraints which people encounter in their pursuit of leisure wellness – an optimal leisure lifestyle. At least ten general categories of

barriers to leisure wellness have been identified, namely, attitudinal, communicative, consumptive, economic, experiential, health, leisure awareness, physical resource, social cultural, and temporal barriers (Edginton, Hanson, Edginton & Hudson 1998:439).

Earlier on, leisure constraints were simply viewed as barriers to participating in leisure in general, or in a specific leisure activity (Funk, Alexandris & Ping 2009:43). Much research has been conducted under the premise that there is a positive relationship between constraints and nonparticipation (Hung & Petrick 2010:208), and that identifying constraints and nonparticipants may improve leisure management (Jackson 1988:205). For example, based on two studies undertaken in the eastern United States, Godbey (1985:1-12) developed a model of nonparticipation in public leisure services, in which nonparticipants are first divided into three groups: those who are aware that the service exists, those who are unaware that the service exists, and those who are uncertain of its existence. Those who are aware of the service may be further sub-divided into four groups: those who do not wish to participate but could, those who are not eligible to participate, those whose participation is deemed inappropriate, and those who wish to participate but do not. Figure 5.5 provides more information on Godbey's model. He concluded that lack of awareness is the most prevalent constraint among nonparticipants in public leisure services.

FIGURE 5.5: A MODEL OF NONPARTICIPATION IN PUBLIC LEISURE SERVICES

Source: Adapted from Godbey (1985:4)
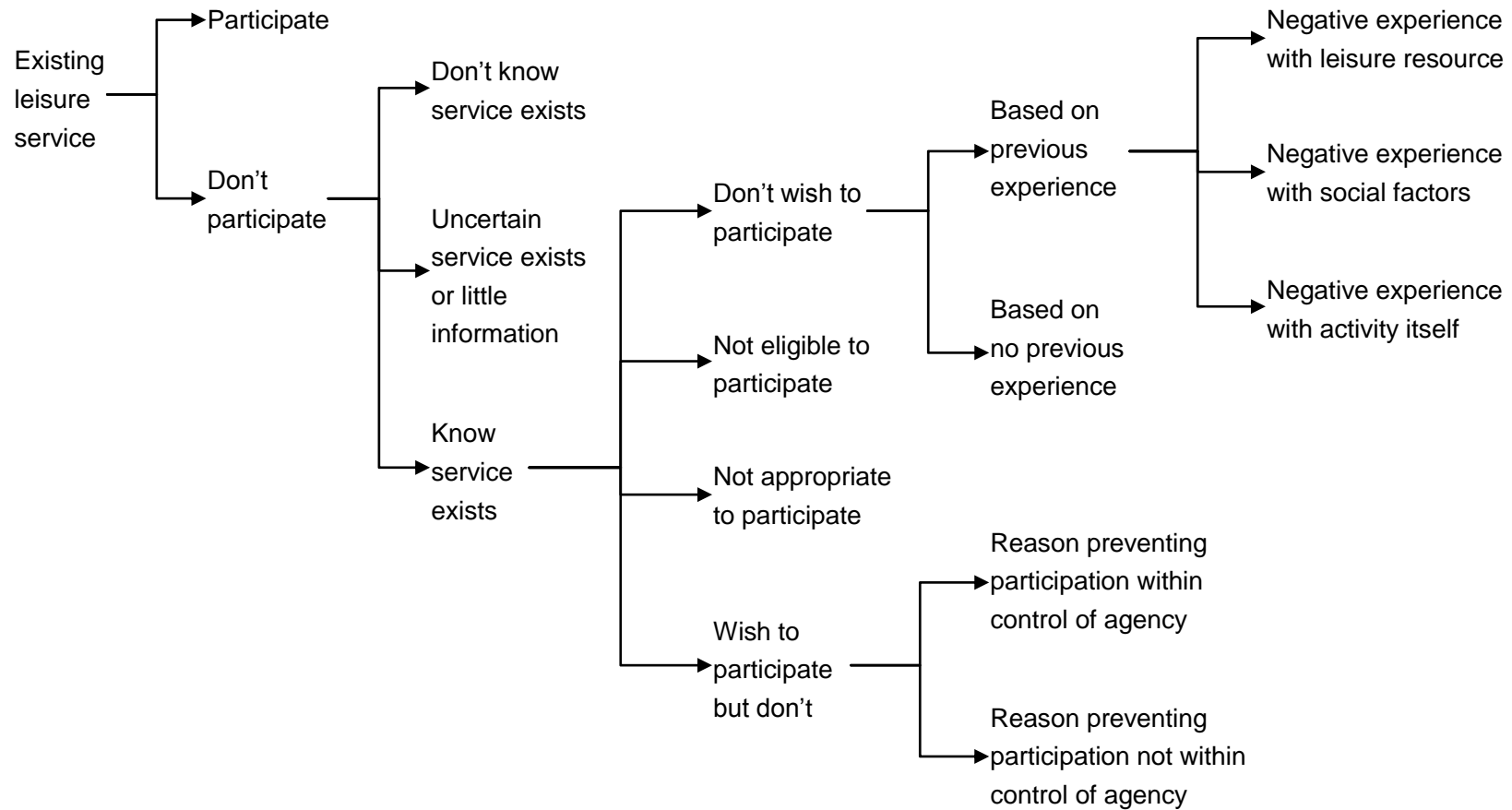
Another noteworthy study concerning barriers to participation was conducted by Searle and Jackson (1985:23-35) in Alberta, Canada. By asking those respondents desiring a new recreational activity to rate 15 predetermined barriers, the authors found that work commitment was the most important barrier, followed by the overcrowding of recreational facilities, the difficulty in finding others to recreate with, the lack of an opportunity to participate near home, and family commitment. The authors also observed the influence of seven socio-demographic variables (i.e. sex, age, education, income, type of household, size of household, and length of residence in Alberta) on the respondents' perception of barriers.

As leisure constraints research has progressed, more constraint outcomes (except absolute nonparticipation) have been identified. In their overview of existing literature, Jackson and Scott (1999:299-321) classified constraint outcomes into four groups: inability to maintain participation at, or increase it to, desired levels; ceasing participation in former activities; non-use of public leisure services; and insufficient enjoyment of current activities. Based on this classification reflecting accumulated understanding of leisure constraints over the years (Hung & Petrick 2010:209), a more thorough definition of leisure constraints was offered by Nadirova and Jackson (2000:398). Hung and Petrick (2012:857) recently adapted this definition to the tourism context and hold that travel constraints are "those factors that inhibit continued traveling, cause inability to travel, result in the inability to maintain or increase frequency of travel, and/or lead to negative impacts on the quality of the travel experience". The present study specifically focused on one of these aspects, namely, on investigating perceived factors that might cause potential Chinese tourists' inability to travel to South Africa for a holiday. The following section reviews a number of major theoretical frameworks on leisure constraints.

5.4.2 The hierarchical leisure constraints model

Three seminal articles on leisure constraints emerged in the late 1980s and early 1990s which made (and continue to make) a significant contribution to knowledge about leisure behaviour (Godbey, Crawford & Shen 2010:111). The first was written by Crawford and Godbey (1987:119-127), who placed the construct of leisure barriers (constraints) in the context of the leisure preference-participation relationship. The authors suggest that leisure barriers be conceptualised as "affecting the relationship between leisure preferences and participation in three principal ways" (see Figure 5.6); that is, leisure barriers can be classified into three categories – intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural.

FIGURE 5.6: THREE TYPES OF LEISURE BARRIERS

(a) Intrapersonal barriers

| Barrier(s) | ◄──────► | Preference | ◄──────► | Participation |

(b) Interpersonal barriers

Barrier(s)
Preference ◄──────► Participation

(c) Structural barriers

| Preference | ◄──────► | Barrier(s) | ◄──────► | Participation |
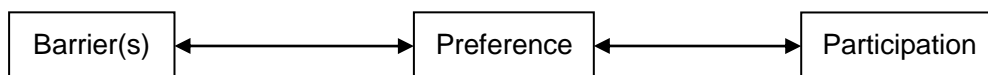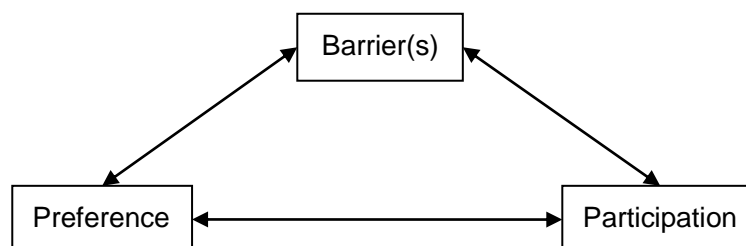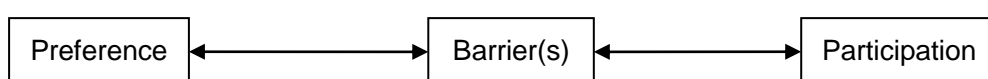
Source: Adapted from Crawford & Godbey (1987:123-124)

Intrapersonal barriers refer to a person's psychological states and attributes that limit his/her preference for an activity. Documented intrapersonal barriers include stress, depression, anxiety, laziness, insufficient skills, health/fitness limitations, and lack of interest. *Interpersonal barriers* result from interactions between individuals that not only limit one's preference for an activity, but also block participation in the activity for which he/she has a preference. Examples of interpersonal barriers include disapproval from family members or friends, and lack of suitable activity partners. *Structural barriers* are external factors in the environment that prevent participation among people who have a preference for an activity. Empirical examples include lack of time, money, information or equipment, bad weather, and inconvenient transportation (Crawford & Godbey 1987:122-124; Palen, Patrick, Gleeson, Caldwell, Smith, Wegner & Flisher 2010:436).

A second important contribution to leisure constraints research was made by Crawford et al (1991:309-320), who proposed a hierarchical model (see Figure 5.7) that links intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. The authors posit that people encounter constraints hierarchically – first at the intrapersonal level, second at the interpersonal level, and last at the structural level, and add that this sequential ordering reflects a hierarchy of importance (from proximal to distal).

FIGURE 5.7: A HIERARCHICAL MODEL OF LEISURE CONSTRAINTS
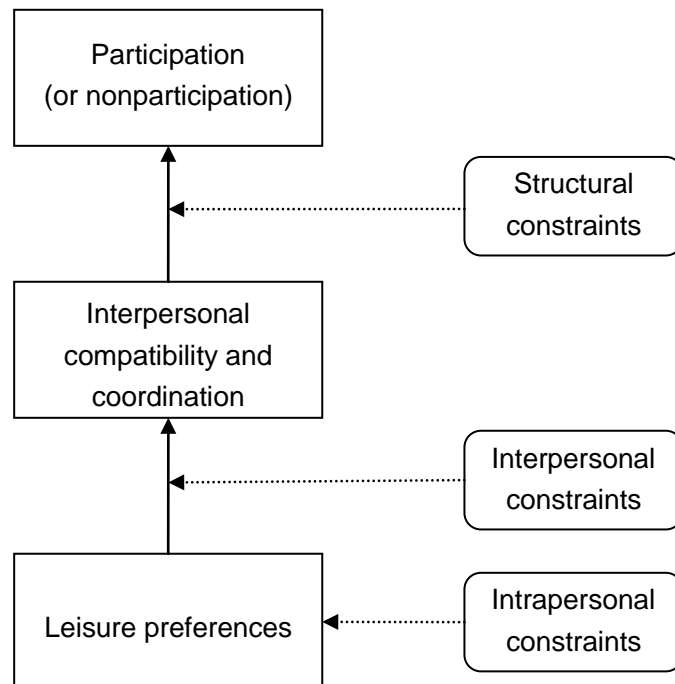
Source: Adapted from Crawford, Jackson & Godbey (1991:313)

Significant refinements to the hierarchical model were presented in the third seminal work by Jackson et al (1993:1-11). These authors introduce the concept of constraints negotiation by arguing that constraints are negotiable rather than insurmountable, and are more likely to result in modified participation than absolute nonparticipation.

In summary, the original 1987 model introduced the theoretical constructs of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints; the 1991 hierarchical model linked these three constructs hierarchically; and the 1993 negotiable model advised that eventual leisure behaviour is dependent on the successful negotiation of all three constraint levels in a sequential fashion (Godbey et al 2010:112). The current research, however, focused on the dimensionality (rather than hierarchy and negotiation) of perceived constraints.

Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, and Von Eye (1993:99-113) were among the first to empirically test the three-dimensional structure of leisure constraints using data collected from Canadian high school students. They confirmed that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints are three distinct categories of constraints on leisure. However, Chick and Dong (2003:338-344) call for cross-cultural research to determine whether the structure of leisure constraints initially uncovered in North America is applicable to other societies such as China. Applying the three-dimensional constraints model in a new context is therefore one of the contributions of the current research.

5.4.3 The nature of tourism constraints

As already mentioned, the study of constraints to participation has traditionally been carried out in a leisure context. However, more recently there has been increased research of this issue in the tourism domain (e.g. Fendt & Wilson 2012:4-18; Gilbert & Hudson 2000:906-925; Hudson 2000:363-368; Hung & Petrick 2010:206-228; Nyaupane & Andereck 2008:433-439; Thapa 2012:74-83). Travel (or tourism) constraints studies have incorporated the theory of leisure constraints as a basis from which to systematically examine travel constraints (Hung & Petrick 2010:211). Some noteworthy studies on travel constraints are briefly discussed, compared, and contrasted below.

Hudson (2000:363-368) tested the impact of gender on non-skiers' perceived constraints to skiing – a male-dominated tourism activity. The results revealed that women perceive significantly higher levels of intrapersonal constraints than men and that no significant differences exist between men and women in terms of interpersonal and structural constraints. In comparing the constraints perceived by skiers and non-skiers, Gilbert and Hudson (2000:906-925) found that non-skiers' perceptions of all three constraint dimensions are significantly higher than those of skiers.

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Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter's (2002:416-423) study of pleasure travellers' perceived constraints to nature-based tourism provided support for the three types of constraints although their research found that structural constraints were the most important. The authors also investigated whether respondents differ in their perceptions of constraints due to different socio-demographic backgrounds. They concluded that perceptions of structural constraints are different based on age and family life cycle. Nyaupane, Morais, and Graefe's (2004:540-555) research, also concerned with nature-based tourism, was restricted to three specific activities – rafting, canoeing, and horseback riding. The results only partially supported the three-dimensional constraints model because the model could not incorporate certain of the items into the three dimensions. In addition, the research found that the importance of constraint dimensions varies across the three activities.

More recently, Nyaupane and Andereck (2008:433-439) investigated travel constraints among people interested in travelling in Arizona, and found evidence for the three-dimensional constraints model. However, the authors suggest that the structural constraints dimension be further divided into – lack of time, lack of money, and place attributes.

Hung and Petrick's (2010:206-228) study on developing a measurement scale for constraints to cruising, identified a fourth dimension – not-an-option constraints. The authors argue that the structure of travel constraints may differ from that of leisure constraints: even in the travel domain the structure may not be identical across different markets and activities.

Taking into account the above research findings, the present study attempted to develop a multidimensional scale for measuring Chinese tourists' perceived constraints to holidaying in South Africa, based on the three-dimensional constraints model. Churchill's (1979:64-73) suggested procedure for scale

development was followed. Earlier research on the constraints perceived by Chinese outbound tourists is considered in the next section.

5.4.4   Constraints research regarding Chinese outbound tourists

A review of the literature revealed that constraints research focused on Chinese subjects has been conducted in different settings, including general leisure (e.g. Dong & Chick 2012:417-435; Liang & Walker 2011:211-225), domestic tourism (e.g. Zhang, Zhang, Cheng, Lu & Shi 2012:1398-1407), and inbound tourism (e.g. Funk et al 2009:41-53). To date, only a handful of studies have investigated Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints, either at the *item* level (e.g. Hsu & Lam 2003:60-67; Huang & Hsu 2005:191-205; Johanson 2007:41-59; Zhou, King & Turner 1998:109-119), or at the *factor* level (e.g. Huang & Hsu 2009:29-44; Lai et al 2013:136-146; Li, Zhang et al 2011:629-643; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494; Zhang 2009:159-161). The key findings from these two types of studies are highlighted below. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there has been no research investigating potential Chinese tourists' perceived constraints to visiting South Africa published in the mainstream literature.

At the item level, according to Zhou et al's (1998:109-119) evaluation of the key constraints of the Chinese outbound tourism market, the difficulty of obtaining entry visas to other countries is the major constraint to market growth. The authors thus suggested that destination countries wishing to tap into the Chinese market should simplify their visa application procedures. Two studies, one by Hsu and Lam (2003:60-67) and one by Huang and Hsu (2005:191-205), identified potential Chinese visitors' barriers of visiting Hong Kong. The former study was quantitative in nature, while the latter was based on focus group interviews. These studies found that lack of time, lack of money, the complexity of obtaining travel documents, language, and improper

provision of accommodation are salient barriers. Using Hawaii as a case study, Johanson (2007:41-59) identified the key barriers to Chinese tourists' travelling to the United States (a long-haul destination), as a desire to visit other destinations, language, and travel cost.

More recently, constraints studies with regard to Chinese outbound tourists have been undertaken at the factor level (see Table 5.4 for a summary of this sort of study). Sparks and Pan (2009:483-494) assessed potential Chinese tourists' perceived constraints to visiting Australia (a long-haul destination). Two underlying dimensions were discovered – external factors (e.g. exchange rate and flight time) and safety factors (e.g. risk). Li, Zhang et al (2011:629-643) segmented Chinese visitors to Australia by four identified constraint factors: structural, cultural, information, and knowledge. The resulting four segments were labelled as structurally constrained, culturally constrained, absence of sufficient information, and knowledge constrained.

TABLE 5.4: PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS' PERCEIVED TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

NO.	STUDY	DESTINATION	DIMENSIONS OF TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS
1	Lai, Li & Harrill (2013)	United States	Intrapersonal constraints (3 items) and structural constraints (6 items).
2	Li, Zhang, Mao & Deng (2011)	Australia	Structural constraints (5 items); cultural constraints (4 items); information constraints (3 items); and knowledge constraints (2 items).
3	Huang & Hsu (2009)	Hong Kong	Structural constraints (6 items); interpersonal constrains (2 items); and disinterest (2 items).
4	Sparks & Pan (2009)	Australia	External factors (8 items) and safety factors (2 items).
5	Zhang (2009)	Unspecified	Auxiliary factors (8 items) and primary factors (4 items).

Note: With one exception, all the above studies used factor analysis to identify the underlying dimensions of travel constraints.

Source: Own construction

Huang and Hsu (2009:29-44) and Zhang (2009:159-161) adapted the three-dimensional constraints model to investigate Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints. The former study (within the context of Chinese tourists bound for Hong Kong) *partially* confirmed the constraints model by identifying three dimensions – structural, interpersonal, and disinterest. The latter study, without specifying a travel destination, observed two completely different dimensions (auxiliary factors and primary factors) and hence did *not* confirm the model.

Using content analysis rather than factor analysis, Lai et al (2013:136-146) indicate that intrapersonal and structural constraints are of particular importance for Chinese outbound tourists when the United States is viewed as the destination, *partially* supporting the constraints model.

Based on the discussion in this section as well as in the previous section, it is argued that the constraints perceived by Chinese outbound travellers are a multidimensional (rather than unidimensional) concept, affected by their socio-demographics, and a feasible base for market segmentation. Hence, an examination of the argument was an important part of the current research.

5.4.5   Effect of travel constraints on visit intention

Leisure constraints scholars (e.g. Godbey et al 2010:124; Jackson 1988:204; Samdahl & Jekubovich 1997:431) generally agree that the ultimate goal of the leisure constraints model is to predict leisure behaviour. In the tourism (travel) domain, previous studies (e.g. Funk et al 2009:41; Huang & Hsu 2009:41; Hung & Petrick 2012:863; Kim & Chalip 2004:702) provided empirical evidence that should travellers perceive high levels of constraints to visiting a destination, they may reduce their intentions to visit that destination. In other words, the higher the level of a tourist's perceived constraints to visiting a

destination, the less likely the tourist would be to visit the destination. Thus, it could be expected that Chinese tourists' perceived travel constraints would negatively influence their intentions to visit South Africa. This resulted in the development of the fifth relationship hypothesis in the current research:

H5: Travel constraints have a *negative* influence on visit intention.

5.5   SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the sufficiency of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control as predictor variables of intention and behaviour. The TPB is parsimonious but open to the inclusion of additional predictors provided that five conditions are satisfied, namely, that the proposed predictor should be behaviour-specific, conforming to the principle of compatibility; conceived as a causal factor determining intention and behaviour; conceptually independent of the theory's existing constructs; applicable to a wide range of human social behaviour; and able to improve the prediction of intention and behaviour.

To improve the efficacy of the TPB in predicting Chinese travellers' intentions to visit South Africa, two additional predictors – travel motivation and travel constraints – were proposed. The former is more influential at the early stage of decision making in determining whether a *potential* destination is selected as an acceptable alternative, while the latter is more influential at a later stage in determining whether the alternative is selected as a *final* destination.

Major motivation frameworks in the tourism literature include the travel career approach, the escaping and seeking theory, and the push and pull theory. The push-pull framework presumes that people travel because they are pushed by internal forces (i.e. inner needs) and pulled by external forces (i.e. destination attributes): this framework was used as a basis for developing the travel motivation measurement scale in the current research.

The concept of travel constraints is rooted in the leisure constraints literature. Major leisure constraints frameworks include the 1987 dimensional model, the 1991 hierarchical model, and the 1993 negotiable model. The present study focused on the dimensionality (rather than hierarchy and negotiation) of travel constraints. Therefore, the dimensional model, which posits that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints are three distinct categories of leisure constraints, was used as a basis for developing the travel constraints measurement scale in the present study.

Chapter 6 presents the empirical findings from the online panel survey. The major statistical procedures used to analyse the data are also reported.

CHAPTER 6 OVERVIEW

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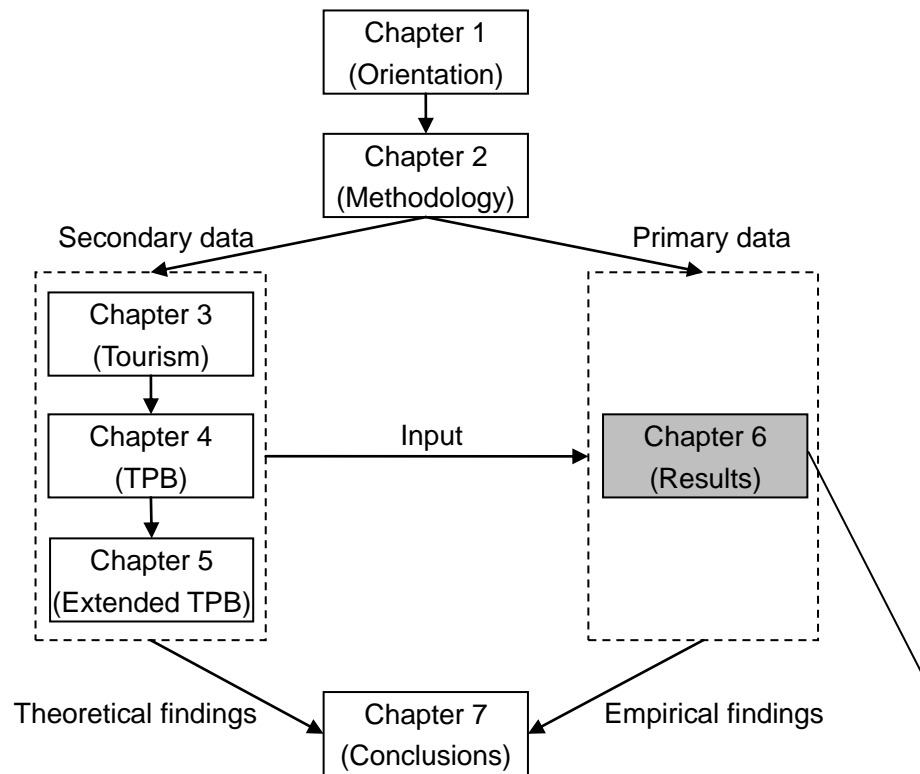
┌──┐
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CHAPTER 6

EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 discussed the necessity for extending the TPB and the concepts of travel motivation and travel constraints that were treated as predictors of visit intention in addition to attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. This chapter reports the main findings of the empirical study so as to address the fourth to eighth research objectives indicated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, namely, to:

- identify the underlying dimensions of both travel motivation and travel constraints;

- examine the influence of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints on visit intention;

- compare three competing models (TRA, TPB, and the proposed extended TPB) in terms of their predictive power on visit intention;

- explore the impact of background factors (demographic and travel-related characteristics) on attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, travel constraints, and visit intention; and

- segment the market of potential Chinese tourists to South Africa based on travel motivation and travel constraints.

6.2   RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

Following a quota sampling procedure, the online panel survey collected 210 *usable* questionnaires in *each* of the three specified cities – Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. In addition to the city of residence, the survey questionnaire included seven demographic and travel-related questions, that is, gender, age,

education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, and travel mode. Table 6.1 summarises the profile of the respondents.

As shown in Table 6.1, the female respondents slightly outnumbered the male respondents (52.5% vs. 47.5%). Almost half (47.2%) of the respondents were between 25 and 34 years, followed by 35-44 years (27.9%), 18-24 years (17.3%), and finally, 45 years or older (7.6%). The respondents were mostly well educated (78.1% held a bachelor's degree or higher). Nearly half (48.1%) of the respondents were married with dependent children, followed by single (31.7%), married without children (13.7%), and married with grown-up children (6.5%). Household income was measured in Chinese Yuan (1 Yuan was approximately equivalent to 1.5 Rand at the time of the survey). The proportion of the respondents was fairly evenly spread among all income groups except those earning 5,000 Yuan or less per month (representing only 7.3%). With regard to income level, Arlt (2006:98) comments that receiving bonuses and other irregular payments in addition to a salary are common to Chinese employees, particularly those working in state-owned companies. This might explain why people with relatively low incomes can afford to travel abroad (Huang & Hsu 2009:34).

Regarding the travel history of the respondents, over four-fifths (81.6%) had taken one or more holidays abroad over the past five years. The respondents were also asked about their preferred mode of travel for an outbound holiday. The majority (78.7%) indicated that they prefer package tours (either fully or partially packaged) rather than independent tours, which is consistent with the findings of Hua and Yoo's (2011:365) research on Chinese tourists travelling to the United States, and Sparks and Pan's (2009:488) findings on Chinese tourists visiting Australia. Similar to South Africa, these two countries are long-haul travel destinations for Chinese tourists. Lo and Lam (2004:162-163) define package tours as offers comprising two or more elements of transport,

TABLE 6.1: THE PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Gender		
Male	299	47.5
Female	331	52.5
Total	*630*	*100*
Age		
18-24	109	17.3
25-34	297	47.2
35-44	176	27.9
≥45	48	7.6
Total	*630*	*100*
Education level		
Secondary school	26	4.1
Diploma	112	17.8
Bachelor's degree	428	67.9
Master's or doctoral degree	64	10.2
Total	*630*	*100*
Household structure		
Single	200	31.7
Married, no children	86	13.7
Married, dependent children	303	48.1
Married, grown-up children	41	6.5
Total	*630*	*100*
Monthly household income (in Chinese currency)		
≤¥5,000	46	7.3
¥5,001 – ¥10,000	162	25.7
¥10,001 – ¥15,000	162	25.7
¥15,001 – ¥20,000	132	21.0
≥¥20,001	128	20.3
Total	*630*	*100*
Number of outbound holidays over the past five years		
None	116	18.4
One or two	277	44.0
Three or four	144	22.8
Five or more	93	14.8
Total	*630*	*100*
Preferred mode of travel for an outbound holiday		
Full-package tour	266	42.2
Semi-package tour	230	36.5
Independent tour	134	21.3
Total	*630*	*100*

accommodation, food, destination attractions, other facilities and services that are sold to consumers at an all-inclusive price.

In addition to profiling the whole sample, demographic and travel-related measures in the questionnaire were used as categorical independent variables in the ANOVA with the aim of determining whether there were significant differences in visit intention, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints among the subsamples (discussed in Section 6.6). Furthermore, demographic and travel-related measures were used in the cross-tabulation analysis to profile each market segment resulting from the cluster analysis (discussed in Section 6.7).

6.3   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MEASUREMENT ITEMS

The questionnaire used in this study included *six* sets of five-point Likert-type scales, namely, the travel-motivation scale (20 items), the travel-constraint scale (22 items), the attitude scale (six items), the subjective-norm scale (three items), the perceived-control scale (three items), and the visit-intention scale (five items). A descriptive analysis was carried out for each of these scales, using the complete sample set (n=630). According to Hung and Petrick (2010:222), the statistical analysis tools at the higher aggregation level (e.g. factor analysis and cluster analysis) are not substitutes for those at the lower level of aggregation (e.g. item-by-item analysis and total score analysis); rather, these tools should be complementarily used to discover useful information in the data. Table 6.2 shows the main results of the descriptive analysis (the frequency distribution for each measurement item is displayed in Annexure D). Yang (2010:16-17) emphasises that when studying a single variable, one should analyse and report statistics of both its centre (e.g. mean) and its spread (e.g. standard deviation).

TABLE 6.2: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MEASUREMENT ITEMS

ITEM	MEAN	SD	RANK	ALPHA
Travel Motivation (TM)	*4.16*	*0.40*		*0.881*
TM5: Broaden my personal horizon	4.46	0.62	1	
TM16: View beautiful natural scenery	4.42	0.60	2	
TM3: See something different	4.41	0.62	3	
TM1: Experience a different culture	4.35	0.61	4	
TM14: Go sightseeing	4.33	0.58	5	
TM12: Rest and relax	4.33	0.64	5	
TM18: Get closer to nature	4.32	0.68	7	
TM17: Observe wildlife in their natural habitats	4.28	0.69	8	
TM8: Visit local historical and cultural attractions	4.27	0.67	9	
TM6: Fulfil my curiosity about the African continent	4.27	0.75	9	
TM4: Increase my knowledge	4.24	0.66	11	
TM20: Enjoy happy times with relatives/friends who travel together	4.22	0.64	12	
TM9: Taste local cuisine	4.21	0.74	13	
TM19: Appreciate clean air and an unpolluted environment	4.17	0.73	14	
TM2: Experience a different lifestyle	4.08	0.68	15	
TM15: View beautiful beaches	4.07	0.84	16	
TM7: Fulfil my dream of having been to the Cape of Good Hope (the southern tip of Africa)	3.93	0.86	17	
TM13: Find thrills, excitement, and adventure	3.89	0.86	18	
TM11: Escape from work or study pressure	3.52	0.95	19	
TM10: Escape from the routine of my daily life	3.34	0.95	20	

(Continued)

ITEM	MEAN	SD	RANK	ALPHA
Travel Constraint (TC)	*3.18*	*0.53*		*0.893*
TC18: The language is a problem for me	3.53	1.01	1	
TC3: South Africa has high crime rates	3.52	0.88	2	
TC9: The people around me do not have enough time to travel with me	3.46	0.96	3	
TC4: South Africa has high HIV/AIDS infection rates	3.42	0.88	4	
TC17: There is a lack of reliable information about tourism in South Africa that keeps me from travelling	3.42	0.97	4	
TC20: I have limited knowledge about South Africa	3.38	0.87	6	
TC11: I do not have enough time to travel	3.36	1.03	7	
TC1: Travelling to South Africa may risk my personal safety	3.32	0.90	8	
TC16: Travelling to South Africa for a holiday is too expensive	3.30	1.04	9	
TC12: I have too many other obligations that keep me from travelling	3.27	0.99	10	
TC5: There are warnings about South Africa in the local media that keep me from travelling	3.26	0.89	11	
TC22: I prefer to visit other countries first	3.25	0.87	12	
TC7: It is difficult to find travel companions to visit South Africa	3.25	0.99	12	
TC15: South Africa is very far away from China	3.18	1.02	14	
TC10: The people around me do not have enough money to travel with me	3.15	1.06	15	
TC13: Organising a trip to such a destination is too complicated and troublesome	3.09	1.02	16	
TC6: Relatives/friends do not approve of my visiting South Africa	2.98	0.93	17	
TC2: Travelling to South Africa may risk my personal health	2.94	0.96	18	
TC8: The people around me have no interest in visiting South Africa	2.94	1.05	18	
TC14: It is difficult to obtain a tourist visa for South Africa	2.93	0.89	20	
TC19: Physical circumstances deter me from travelling	2.77	1.01	21	
TC21: I am not interested in visiting South Africa	2.23	0.82	22	

(Continued)

ITEM	MEAN	SD	RANK	ALPHA
ATTitude (ATT)	*4.11*	*0.48*		*0.838*
ATT6: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be memorable	4.33	0.62	1	
ATT3: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be desirable	4.11	0.73	2	
ATT1: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be interesting	4.10	0.57	3	
ATT4: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be pleasant	4.07	0.62	4	
ATT2: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be valuable	4.06	0.62	5	
ATT5: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be enjoyable	3.97	0.68	6	
Subjective Norm (SN)	*3.26*	*0.71*		*0.802*
SN2: The people whose opinions I value would approve of my visiting South Africa within the next five years	3.37	0.83	1	
SN3: The people I respect and admire are likely to visit South Africa within the next five years	3.28	0.84	2	
SN1: Most people who are important to me think that I should visit South Africa within the next five years	3.14	0.84	3	
Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)	*3.75*	*0.72*		*0.805*
PBC1: Whether I visit South Africa within the next five years is entirely up to me	3.85	0.86	1	
PBC3: I have complete control over visiting South Africa within the next five years if I want to	3.73	0.82	2	
PBC2: I am confident that I can easily visit South Africa within the next five years if I want to	3.66	0.85	3	
Visit Intention (VI)	*3.60*	*0.67*		*0.880*
VI2: I probably will visit South Africa within the next five years	3.78	0.72	1	
VI4: I will make an effort to visit South Africa within the next five years	3.77	0.81	2	
VI1: I would like to visit South Africa within the next five years	3.74	0.76	3	
VI3: I plan to visit South Africa within the next five years	3.58	0.86	4	
VI5: I definitely will visit South Africa within the next five years	3.12	0.93	5	

Note: Five-point Likert-type scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree.

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All of the 20 travel-motivation items had a mean score above the midpoint of the scale (i.e. three) that represented a transition between disagreement and agreement (Liang & Walker 2011:217). This indicates that the respondents generally agreed with these motivation statements. In accordance with the mean rankings, "broaden my personal horizon", "view beautiful natural scenery", and "see something different" were the top motives for visiting South Africa. This result is in line with that of Li (2009:231), who found that Chinese people usually use learning as a justification for travelling, and engage in appreciation of natural beauty that may contribute to inner peace, harmony, tranquillity, and an understanding of the meaning of life.

Sixteen (73%) of the 22 travel-constraint items had a mean score above the midpoint, indicating that the respondents generally agreed that these items would constrain their travel to South Africa. According to the mean rankings, language was deemed the biggest barrier to travelling to South Africa. This finding resembles Li, Zhang et al's (2011:634) research on Chinese tourists' perceived constraints to visiting Australia – also an English-speaking country. However, the standard deviation of this top-ranked constraint item was exceeding one, suggesting the existence of a significant subsample who held different opinions regarding this item. Fear of crime was perceived as the second biggest barrier to visiting South Africa. This finding is in line with those of Arlt (2006:198) and SAT (2010a:66): these previous studies indicated that security is the primary reason for Chinese tourists not wanting to take a holiday in South Africa.

All of the attitude, subjective-norm, perceived-control, and visit-intention items had mean scores greater than the midpoint, suggesting that the respondents generally agreed with these statements and rated them positively. In other words, the respondents commonly held a favourable attitude towards visiting South Africa, felt greater social pressure from important others to visit South

Africa, held higher perceived control over visiting South Africa, and had a positive intention to visit South Africa. Finally, Cronbach's (1951:297-334) alpha was calculated for each scale to evaluate its internal consistency reliability. The alphas for the six scales ranged from 0.802 to 0.893, all exceeding the acceptable lower limit of 0.7 (Hair et al 2010:125). This implies that all of these scales were reliable.

6.4   EXPLORATORY AND CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSES

To investigate the dimensionality of each of the constructs in the proposed extended TPB model (i.e. travel motivation, travel constraints, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention), the whole sample (n=630) was randomly split into two *equal* halves – one as the calibration sample and the other as the validation sample. For each of these constructs, an EFA was first performed on the calibration sample to identify its underlying factor structure; then a CFA was conducted using the validation sample to verify the EFA results with modifications being made where necessary. To determine the internal consistency reliability of the resulting factors, Cronbach's alphas were calculated at the EFA stage, while the Composite Reliability (CR) coefficients were computed at the CFA stage. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) coefficients were also estimated during the CFA to determine the convergent validity of the resulting factors.

6.4.1   Measurement of travel motivation

An EFA was performed with the calibration sample to identify the underlying dimensions of the travel-motivation construct using principal components extraction and oblique (Direct Oblimin) rotation. Both Kaiser's (1960:141-151) eigenvalue rule (i.e. retention of factors with eigenvalues greater than one) and Cattell's (1966:245-276) screeplot rule (i.e. retention of factors above the

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elbow) were employed to determine the appropriate number of factors. Items exhibiting low factor loadings (<0.40), or high cross-loadings (>0.40) were removed one at a time (Hair et al 2010:118).This process continued until no more items were to be deleted. The results of the EFA – a three-factor solution – are shown in Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3: FACTOR ANALYSES OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION ITEMS

FACTOR AND ITEM	EFA			CFA		
	FL	A	AIID	SFL	CR	AVE
Factor one: Learning		*0.845*			*0.800*	*0.367*
TM1: Experience a different culture	0.778		0.823	0.659		
TM8: Visit local historical and cultural attractions	0.725		0.824	0.537		
TM9: Taste local cuisine	0.707		0.828	0.505		
TM3: See something different	0.700		0.822	0.718		
TM6: Fulfil my curiosity about the African continent	0.677		0.825	-		
TM2: Experience a different lifestyle	0.615		0.840	0.544		
TM5: Broaden my personal horizon	0.577		0.821	0.677		
TM4: Increase my knowledge	0.468		0.827	0.568		
Factor two: Escape		*0.829*			*0.863*	*0.761*
TM11: Escape from work or study pressure	0.904		-	0.962		
TM10: Escape from the routine of my daily life	0.899		-	0.772		
Factor three: Aesthetics & appreciation		*0.762*			*0.748*	*0.375*
TM15: View beautiful beaches	0.829		0.749	0.540		
TM19: Appreciate clean air and an unpolluted environment	0.735		0.707	0.588		
TM16: View beautiful natural scenery	0.672		0.701	0.726		
TM18: Get closer to nature	0.515		0.705	0.639		
TM17: Observe wildlife in their natural habitats	0.443		0.735	0.550		

Note: FL=Factor Loading; A=Alpha; AIID=Alpha If Item Deleted; SFL=Standardised Factor Loading; CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted.

In the three-factor solution of travel motivation, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.845, which is within the 'meritorious' range of 0.8-0.9 (Kaiser 1974:31-36). Bartlett's (1954:296-298) test of sphericity was significant (chi-square=1776.683; df=105; p<0.001). Both statistical measures confirmed the factorability of the data. Of the 20 motivation items, 15 were retained to constitute the three-factor solution

explaining 55.96% of the total variance. The researcher and the panel of experts scrutinised each of the three factors for content validity and then labelled these factors based on the factor loadings and item descriptions. The first factor consisted of eight items, accounting for 36.41% of the total variance. Its Cronbach's alpha was 0.845, exceeding the recommended cut-off point of 0.7 to reflect satisfactory internal consistency reliability (Hair et al 2010:125). Since these loaded items were related to the expansion of experience, horizon, and knowledge, this factor was named *learning*. The second factor elucidated 11.46% of the total variance and grouped together two items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.829. Given that these two items were concerned with desire to get away from routine environment and stress, this factor was labelled *escape*. The third factor interpreted 8.09% of the total variance and comprised five items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.762. Since these loaded items focused on appreciation of the natural and man-made beauty of the destination, this factor was termed *aesthetics and appreciation*.

To verify the underlying dimensions of travel motivation derived from the EFA, the researcher conducted a CFA on the validation sample using the maximum likelihood estimation technique. Given the sensitivity of the chi-square statistic to sample size and model complexity (Hair et al 2010:666), other common goodness-of-fit measures were also used to assess the measurement model of travel motivation. These include normed chi-square (i.e. ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). Generally, one should consider retention of the model if the chi-square statistic is insignificant ($p>0.05$); normed chi-square is three or less; RMSEA is 0.08 or below; and GFI, CFI, and TLI are 0.90 or above (Brown 2006:81-87; Byrne 2010:75-80; Hair et al 2010:667-668). The initial measurement model did not fit the data well, as evidenced by the fact that all six fit measures ($p<0.001$; $\chi^2/df=3.075$; GFI=0.892; RMSEA=0.081;

CFI=0.882; TLI=0.858) were below their respective common tolerance levels (see Table 6.4). Thus, the initial model required modification.

TABLE 6.4: FIT INDICES FOR THE TRAVEL MOTIVATION MEASUREMENT MODEL

FIT INDEX	RECOMMENDED VALUE	INITIAL MODEL	MODIFIED MODEL
Chi-square (χ^2)	-	267.567	167.151
Degrees of freedom (df)	-	87	72
P-value	>0.05	0.000	0.000
Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	≤3	3.075	2.322
GFI	≥0.90	0.892	0.926
RMSEA	≤0.08	0.081	0.065
CFI	≥0.90	0.882	0.934
TLI	≥0.90	0.858	0.917

Note: GFI=Goodness-of-Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation;
     CFI=Comparative Fit Index; TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index.

The modification of a specified model with the purpose of improving fit can be termed a specification search. It is very useful for "improving a model that is not fundamentally mis[-]specified but is incorrect only to the extent that it has some missing paths or some of its parameters are involved in unnecessarily restrictive constraints" (Raykov & Marcoulides 2006:49-50). By reviewing the standardised factor loadings (see Table 6.3), one item (i.e. TM6) was deleted from the model because its loading (0.424) on the *learning* factor was below the lower limit of 0.5 (Hair et al 2010:709). In addition, the AMOS Modification Indices (MI) revealed that the model fit would be substantially improved if two pairs of error terms were allowed to correlate. One pair (MI=27.840) existed between TM4 ("increase my knowledge") and TM5 ("broaden my personal horizon"), while the other pair (MI=15.940) existed between TM18 ("get closer to nature") and TM19 ("appreciate clean air and an unpolluted environment"). The correlated error terms suggested that there was systematic (rather than random) measurement error in the data due to the nature of the items and/or the respondents (Byrne 2010:110). Although the correlation was theoretically

and practically sound, further investigation is needed to determine if this is a context-specific phenomenon. The modified measurement model showed a satisfactory fit to the data. Except for the chi-square statistic, all fit indices (χ^2/df=2.322; GFI=0.926; RMSEA=0.065; CFI=0.934; TLI=0.917) were above their respective common tolerance levels.

Subsequently, the CR and AVE coefficients were calculated for each of the dimensions in the modified model to evaluate its internal consistency reliability and convergent validity. As shown in Table 6.3, the CR values were 0.800 for *learning* (seven items), 0.863 for *escape* (two items), and 0.748 for *aesthetics and appreciation* (five items), all surpassing the recommended threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al 2010:710). This indicates that all these dimensions were reliable. The AVE value for *escape* (0.761) was above the threshold of 0.5, while the AVE values for *learning* (0.367) and *aesthetics and appreciation* (0.375) were lower than the threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al 2010:709). This implies that the convergent validity of both *learning* and *aesthetics and appreciation* was not adequately demonstrated given that "the variance due to measurement error [was] larger than the variance captured by the construct" (Fornell & Larcker 1981:46). Future research is thus needed to develop additional indicators that are true representatives of these two dimensions.

To summarise, the three underlying dimensions (*learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*) of travel motivation identified by the EFA on the calibration sample were generally verified through the CFA on the validation sample. The internal consistency reliability of these three dimensions was established by calculating Cronbach's alphas and the CR values. As evidenced by the values of AVE, only the *escape* dimension had adequate convergent validity.

6.4.2   Measurement of travel constraints

The aforementioned EFA and CFA procedures were duplicated to determine the underlying dimensions of the travel-constraint construct (see Table 6.5). In the EFA, the factorability of the data was proved because the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.869 and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached the level of significance (chi-square=1982.615; df=136; p<0.001). Among the 22 constraint items, 17 were retained to constitute a three-factor solution, which accounted for 54.66% of the total variance. The researcher and the panel of experts scrutinised each of the three factors for content validity and then labelled these factors according to the factor loadings and item descriptions. The first factor accounted for 33.26% of the total variance and consisted of eight items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.835. It was named *operational constraints* because the loaded items were related to the tourists' perceived barriers to the practicalities of visiting the destination. The second factor interpreted 12.84% of the total variance and grouped together five items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.808. Given that the loaded items were concerned with the tourists' perceived awareness of risk and fear of crime and disease, this factor was termed *risk and fear constraints*. The third factor explained 8.56% of the total variance and assembled four items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.770. Since the loaded items reflected the barriers resulting from the tourists' interaction with others, this factor was labelled *social constraints*.

TABLE 6.5: FACTOR ANALYSES OF TRAVEL CONSTRAINT ITEMS

FACTOR AND ITEM	EFA			CFA		
	FL	A	AIID	SFL	CR	AVE
Factor one: Operational constraints		*0.835*			*0.828*	*0.378*
TC15: South Africa is very far away from China	0.769		0.813	0.505		
TC20: I have limited knowledge about South Africa	0.708		0.819	0.721		
TC16: Travelling to South Africa for a holiday is too expensive	0.694		0.813	0.554		
TC14: It is difficult to obtain a tourist visa for South Africa	0.681		0.812	0.616		
TC13: Organising a trip to such a destination is too complicated and troublesome	0.665		0.808	0.665		
TC17: There is a lack of reliable information about tourism in South Africa that keeps me from travelling	0.655		0.816	0.691		
TC19: Physical circumstances deter me from travelling	0.563		0.817	0.596		
TC18: The language is a problem for me	0.531		0.829	0.538		
Factor two: Risk & fear constraints		*0.808*			*0.814*	*0.471*
TC3: South Africa has high crime rates	0.843		0.747	0.673		
TC4: South Africa has high HIV/AIDS infection rates	0.781		0.766	0.588		
TC1: Travelling to South Africa may risk my personal safety	0.750		0.748	0.830		
TC2: Travelling to South Africa may risk my personal health	0.685		0.775	0.739		
TC5: There are warnings about South Africa in the local media that keep me from travelling	0.568		0.816	0.568		
Factor three: Social constraints		*0.770*			*0.780*	*0.543*
TC7: It is difficult to find travel companions to visit South Africa	0.840		0.652	0.776		
TC8: The people around me have no interest in visiting South Africa	0.801		0.665	0.775		
TC9: The people around me do not have enough time to travel with me	0.651		0.779	-		
TC6: Relatives/friends do not approve of my visiting South Africa	0.538		0.747	0.652		

Note: FL=Factor Loading; A=Alpha; AIID=Alpha If Item Deleted; SFL=Standardised Factor Loading;
CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted.

In the CFA, the initial measurement model of travel constraints did not exhibit a good fit to the data: four of six fit measures (p<0.001; GFI=0.888; CFI=0.882; TLI=0.861) were out of the acceptable ranges (see Table 6.6). To improve model fit, one item (i.e. TC9) was removed due to its low loading (0.439) on the dimension of *social constraints*. In addition, two pairs of error terms were permitted to correlate. One pair (MI=34.346) existed between TC3 ("South Africa has high crime rates") and TC4 ("South Africa has high HIV/AIDS

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infection rates"), while the other pair (MI=25.155) existed between TC15 ("South Africa is very far away from China") and TC16 ("Travelling to South Africa for a holiday is too expensive"). Although the correlation was theoretically and practically sound, further investigation is needed to see if this is a context-specific phenomenon. The modified measurement model had a satisfactory fit to the data. Except for the chi-square statistic, all fit indices (χ^2/df=2.322; GFI=0.926; RMSEA=0.065; CFI=0.934; TLI=0.917) were within the acceptable ranges. The values of CR and AVE were 0.828 and 0.378 for *operational constraints* (eight items), 0.814 and 0.471 for *risk and fear constraints* (five items), and 0.780 and 0.543 for *social constraints* (three items), respectively. Future research is thus also needed to develop additional indicators that are true representatives of the two dimensions of *operational constraints* and *risk and fear constraints*.

TABLE 6.6: FIT INDICES FOR THE TRAVEL CONSTRAINT MEASUREMENT MODEL

FIT INDEX	RECOMMENDED VALUE	INITIAL MODEL	MODIFIED MODEL
Chi-square (χ^2)	-	333.724	230.631
Degrees of freedom (df)	-	116	99
P-value	>0.05	0.000	0.000
Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	≤3	2.877	2.330
GFI	≥0.90	0.888	0.917
RMSEA	≤0.08	0.077	0.065
CFI	≥0.90	0.882	0.926
TLI	≥0.90	0.861	0.910

Note: GFI=Goodness-of-Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation;
       CFI=Comparative Fit Index; TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index.

In summary, the researcher identified three underlying dimensions of travel constraints by running the EFA on the calibration sample. The factor structure was generally verified through conducting the CFA on the validation sample. These dimensions were *operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*. Their internal consistency reliability was recognised based

on Cronbach's alphas and the CR values. According to the AVE values, only the dimension of *social constraints* had adequate convergent validity.

6.4.3 Measurements of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control and visit intention

The same EFA and CFA procedures were applied to determine the underlying structure of the attitude, subjective-norm, perceived-control, and visit-intention constructs. Table 6.7 presents the results of factor analyses for *attitude*. At the EFA stage, the data were deemed factorable because the KMO measure of sampling adequacy equalled 0.847 and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached the level of significance (chi-square=586.339; df=15; p<0.001). Both Kaiser's eigenvalue rule and Cattell's screeplot rule advised a one-factor solution, which accounted for 53.52% of the total variance. All six measurement items were retained given their significant factor loadings and yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.824. At the CFA stage, the attitude measurement model had a satisfactory fit with the data. All fit measures (χ^2/df=2.204; RMSEA=0.062; GFI=0.980; CFI=0.984; TLI=0.974) fell into the acceptable ranges, except for the chi-square statistic (p=0.019). The standardised factor loadings of the items ranged from 0.601 to 0.825, yielding a CR value of 0.851 and an AVE value of 0.491 (close to the lower limit of 0.5).

TABLE 6.7: FACTOR ANALYSES OF ATTITUDE ITEMS

FACTOR AND ITEM	EFA			CFA		
	FL	A	AIID	SFL	CR	AVE
Factor: Attitude		*0.824*			*0.851*	*0.491*
ATT4: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be pleasant	0.771		0.786	0.825		
ATT3: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be desirable	0.757		0.791	0.696		
ATT5: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be enjoyable	0.746		0.794	0.723		
ATT2: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be valuable	0.726		0.797	0.619		
ATT1: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be interesting	0.713		0.800	0.717		
ATT6: I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be memorable	0.672		0.808	0.601		

Note: FL=Factor Loading; A=Alpha; AIID=Alpha If Item Deleted; SFL=Standardised Factor Loading; CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted.

Table 6.8 shows the results of factor analyses for *subjective norms*. In the EFA, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.699, close to the 'middling' threshold of 0.7 (Kaiser 1974:31-36); Bartlett's test of sphericity reached the significant level (chi-square=308.592; df=3; p<0.001). The factorability of the data was therefore justified. Both Kaiser's eigenvalue rule and Cattell's screeplot rule suggested a one-factor solution, which interpreted 71.89% of the total variance. All three measurement items were retained because of their significant factor loadings and yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.804. In the CFA, the measurement model of subjective norms was saturated (i.e. df=0), representing a perfect fit to the data (Raykov & Marcoulides 2006:36). The standardised factor loadings of the items ranged from 0.669 to 0.818, yielding a CR value of 0.803 and an AVE value of 0.578.

FACTOR AND ITEM	EFA			CFA		
	FL	A	AIID	SFL	CR	AVE
Factor: Subjective norms		*0.804*			*0.803*	*0.578*
SN2: The people whose opinions I value would approve of my visiting South Africa within the next five years	0.875		0.685	0.818		
SN1: Most people who are important to me think that I should visit South Africa within the next five years	0.854		0.723	0.785		
SN3: The people I respect and admire are likely to visit South Africa within the next five years	0.813		0.784	0.669		

Note: FL=Factor Loading; A=Alpha; AIID=Alpha If Item Deleted; SFL=Standardised Factor Loading; CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted.

Table 6.9 presents the results of factor analyses for *perceived control*. For the EFA part, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.650, that is, within the 'mediocre' range of 0.6-0.7 (Kaiser 1974:31-36). Bartlett's test of sphericity reached the level of significance (chi-square=377.743; df=3; $p < 0.001$). These estimates provided evidence for the suitability of the data for factor analysis. Both Kaiser's eigenvalue rule and Cattell's screeplot rule recommended a one-factor solution, which accounted for 72.47% of the total variance. All three measurement items were retained because their factor loadings were all significant, resulting in a Cronbach's alpha of 0.805. For the CFA part, the measurement model of perceived control was saturated (i.e. df=0), implying a perfect fit to the data. The standardised factor loadings of the items ranged from 0.611 to 0.843, leading to a CR value of 0.814 and an AVE value of 0.598.

TABLE 6.9: FACTOR ANALYSES OF PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL ITEMS

FACTOR AND ITEM	EFA			CFA		
	FL	A	AIID	SFL	CR	AVE
Factor: Perceived behavioural control		*0.805*			*0.814*	*0.598*
PBC2: I am confident that I can easily visit South Africa within the next five years if I want to	0.906		0.638	0.842		
PBC3: I have complete control over visiting South Africa within the next five years if I want to	0.892		0.673	0.843		
PBC1: Whether I visit South Africa within the next five years is entirely up to me	0.747		0.868	0.611		

Note: FL=Factor Loading; A=Alpha; AIID=Alpha If Item Deleted; SFL=Standardised Factor Loading; CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted.

Table 6.10 shows the results of factor analyses for *visit intention*. For the EFA part, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.875 and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached the significant level (chi-square=799.454; df=10; p<0.001), justifying the factorability of the data. Both Kaiser's eigenvalue rule and Cattell's screeplot rule suggested a one-factor solution, which interpreted 68.38% of the total variance. All five measurement items were retained since their factor loadings were all significant, resulting in a Cronbach's alpha of 0.883. For the CFA part, the measurement model of visit intention fitted the data very well, as evidenced by the fact that all six fit indices (p=0.445; χ^2/df=0.954; RMSEA=0.000; GFI=0.994; CFI=1.000; TLI=1.001) fell into the acceptable ranges. The standardised factor loadings of the items ranged from 0.710 to 0.881, leading to a CR value of 0.880 and an AVE value of 0.596.

TABLE 6.10: FACTOR ANALYSES OF VISIT INTENTION ITEMS

FACTOR AND ITEM	EFA			CFA		
	FL	A	AIID	SFL	CR	AVE
Factor: Visit intention		*0.883*			*0.880*	*0.596*
VI3: I plan to visit South Africa within the next five years	0.864		0.845	0.881		
VI1: I would like to visit South Africa within the next five years	0.842		0.854	0.725		
VI5: I definitely will visit South Africa within the next five years	0.831		0.858	0.789		
VI4: I will make an effort to visit South Africa within the next five years	0.827		0.858	0.744		
VI2: I probably will visit South Africa within the next five years	0.767		0.874	0.710		

Note: FL=Factor Loading; A=Alpha; AIID=Alpha If Item Deleted; SFL=Standardised Factor Loading; CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted.

In summary, the measurement scales of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were subjected to separate EFA procedures on the calibration sample. Results showed that these scales were all unidimensional. The EFA findings were then verified by separate CFA procedures using the validation sample. The standardised factor loadings did not vary much from the EFA loadings. The internal consistency reliability and convergent validity of these scales were confirmed by computing Cronbach's alphas and the coefficients of CR and AVE.

6.5   HIERARCHICAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A three-step hierarchical MRA was used to achieve two specific research objectives, namely, comparing the TRA, TPB, and proposed extended TPB models for their explanatory power on visit intention, and examining the unique effects of three basic constructs (*attitude*, *subjective norms*, and *perceived control*), three motivation dimensions (*learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*), and three constraint dimensions (*operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*) on visit intention.

It is important to note that the regression analysis was performed on the entire sample (n=630) using the average scores of these independent (i.e. predictor) and dependent (i.e. outcome) variables.

6.5.1   Checking the assumptions

While MRA is a powerful statistical technique to assess the impact of several independent variables on a single dependent variable, there are a range of assumptions behind it that limit its applicability (Argyrous 2011:270). These assumptions mainly include absence of multicollinearity; normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals; independence of errors; and absence of outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007:124-128).

First, multiple regression is sensitive to multicollinearity, which occurs when there is a strong correlation between two or more independent variables. This phenomenon can be detected by scanning the correlation matrix, and more formally, by computing the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) (Kutner, Nachtsheim & Neter 2004:406-410). As demonstrated in Tables 6.11 and 6.12, the highest correlation among the *independent* variables was 0.612, below the threshold of 0.8 for a high correlation; the VIF value for each independent variable in all regression models was less than two, far below the recommended maximum value of 10 (Field 2009:224). Thus, there was no evidence of multicollinearity.

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Visit intention	--									
2 Attitude	0.578	--								
3 Subjective norms	0.671	0.495	--							
4 Perceived control	0.537	0.325	0.457	--						
5 Learning	0.343	0.423	0.256	0.221	--					
6 Escape	0.232	0.213	0.271	0.151	0.227	--				
7 Aesthetics & appreciation	0.247	0.377	0.226	0.218	0.612	0.202	--			
8 Operational constraints	-0.372	-0.262	-0.311	-0.333	-0.104	0.033	-0.077	--		
9 Risk & fear constraints	-0.225	-0.177	-0.212	-0.110	-0.095	-0.027	-0.062	0.360	--	
10 Social constraints	-0.397	-0.293	-0.379	-0.302	-0.099	-0.016	-0.050	0.499	0.366	--
Mean	*3.60*	*4.11*	*3.26*	*3.75*	*4.29*	*3.43*	*4.25*	*3.20*	*3.29*	*3.06*
Standard deviation	*0.67*	*0.48*	*0.71*	*0.72*	*0.45*	*0.88*	*0.51*	*0.66*	*0.68*	*0.82*

Second, the assumptions regarding normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals were assessed by using graphical methods, more specifically, the normal probability plot and the residuals scatterplot (see Annexure E). In general, the data points all fell very close to the 'ideal' diagonal line from bottom left to top right in the normal probability plot, and the data points were roughly rectangularly distributed with most concentrated in the centre in the residuals scatterplot. The two plots' patterns suggest that the assumptions have *not* been violated (Pallant 2007:156).

Third, independence of errors refers to a lack of autocorrelation of the error terms for any two observations. This assumption can be examined using Durbin and Watson's (1951:159-177) statistic, which can vary from zero to four with the mid-value (i.e. two) indicating that the error terms are absolutely independent. As a general rule, there is no cause for alarm if the statistic is between one and three (Field 2009:220-221). In the current investigation, the statistic was 1.895, suggesting that the assumption had been met.

Fourth, multiple regression is sensitive to outliers, which are described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007:128) as having standardised residual values above 3.3 or below -3.3 when the sample size is less than 1,000. It is thus expected that only 1% of cases would lie outside the range of ±3.3 in a normally distributed sample. For the current research, six cases (0.95%) with standardised residuals outside the range of ±3.3 were identified by inspecting the Casewise Diagnostics table in the SPSS output (see Annexure F). The highest value of Cook's (1977:15-18) distance was 0.121, far below the cut-off point of one (Pallant 2007:158). This implies that none of the cases had an undue influence on any regression model and needed to be deleted.

6.5.2   Comparison of models

Table 6.12 shows a summary of the results of the hierarchical MRA. When attitude and subjective norms were entered into the regression equation in the *first step*, the coefficient of determination (R^2) was found to be 0.530 ($F(2,627)=353.552$; $p<0.001$), indicating that 53% of the variance in visit intention was explained by these TRA constructs. This predictive power was deemed satisfactory for three reasons. First of all, the literature suggests that survey data generally produce R^2 in the range of 0.3 to 0.5, although a larger R^2 is always preferred (Lehmann 2006:259). Secondly, according to Cohen's (1992:155-159) recommendation for interpreting R^2 in the behavioural sciences, R^2 values of 0.01, 0.09, and 0.25 could be considered as lower limits of small, medium, and large effect size, respectively. Lastly, based on a meta-analytical review of 185 independent studies, Armitage and Conner (2001:481) argue that the TRA model accounted for 33% of the variance in human behavioural intention.

VARIABLE	B	SE	BETA	T	R^2	F	$\triangle R^2$	$\triangle F$	VIF
Model 1: TRA					0.530	353.552***			
(Constant)	0.123	0.160		0.768					
Attitude	0.460	0.045	0.325	10.326***					1.325
Subjective norms	0.486	0.030	0.510	16.181***					1.325
Model 2: TPB					0.581	289.015***	0.051	75.699***	
(Constant)	-0.269	0.158		-1.704					
Attitude	0.413	0.042	0.292	9.723***					1.347
Subjective norms	0.391	0.030	0.410	12.837***					1.522
Perceived control	0.239	0.028	0.255	8.701***					1.284
Model 3: Extended TPB					0.601	103.571***	0.020	5.129***	
(Constant)	0.232	0.253		0.917					
Attitude	0.355	0.045	0.251	7.827***					1.595
Subjective norms	0.353	0.031	0.370	11.267***					1.676
Perceived control	0.212	0.028	0.226	7.582***					1.381
Learning	0.160	0.050	0.107	3.204***					1.738
Escape	0.026	0.021	0.034	1.239					1.143
Aesthetics & appreciation	-0.083	0.043	-0.062	-1.905					1.664
Operational constraints	-0.073	0.032	-0.072	-2.305*					1.504
Risk & fear constraints	-0.021	0.028	-0.021	-0.745					1.228
Social constraints	-0.052	0.026	-0.063	-2.013*					1.536

Note: 1. SE=Standard Error; VIF=Variance Inflation Factor.

2. *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

After entry of perceived control in *step two*, the R^2 value increased to 0.581 (F(3,626)=289.015; p<0.001), which implies that the TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) interpreted 58.1% of the variance in visit intention. Perceived control, in particular, explained an additional 5.1% of the variance in visit intention after controlling for attitude and subjective norms (R^2_{change}=0.051; F_{change}(1,626)=75.699; p<0.001). This is close to Armitage and Conner's (2001:481) meta-analysis finding that the inclusion of perceived control increased R^2 by 0.06. The results of this step revealed that the TPB model had higher predictive power for visit intention than the TRA model.

When motivation and constraint dimensions were simultaneously entered in the *third step* of the hierarchical MRA, the R^2 value increased to 0.601 ($F(9,620)=103.571$; $p<0.001$). This suggests that the extended TPB model accounted for 60.1% of the variance in visit intention. The six dimensions of motivation and constraints explained an additional 2% of the variance in visit intention after controlling for attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control ($R^2_{change}=0.020$; $F_{change}(6,620)=5.129$; $p<0.001$). Clearly, the results of this step showed that the extended TPB model had higher predictive power for visit intention than the TRA and TPB models. However, from a practical rather than statistical perspective, it should be admitted that the inclusion of motivation and constraint dimensions did not substantially improve the prediction of visit intention. This is congruent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010:283) notion that when the TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) are carefully measured, additional predictor variables might not contribute unique variance in behavioural intention.

6.5.3   Testing of the hypotheses

The extended TPB model was used to test the hypotheses. Field (2009:239) distinguishes between regression (b) coefficients and standardised (beta) coefficients. The latter are easier to interpret because they are measured in standard deviation units. As a rule, the sign of the beta coefficient denotes whether a positive or negative relationship exists between the predictor and the outcome; the value of the beta coefficient indicates the relative importance (i.e. contribution) of the predictor to the outcome; and the associated t-test shows whether the predictor makes a statistically significant contribution to the outcome. Regarding the TPB constructs, beta coefficients revealed that *attitude* ($\beta=0.251$; $t=7.827$; $p<0.001$), *subjective norms* ($\beta=0.370$; $t=11.267$; $p<0.001$), and *perceived control* ($\beta=0.226$; $t=7.582$; $p<0.001$) had a significant positive influence on visit intention, which supports Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3.

The results imply that an increase in favourable attitude, perceived social pressure from important referents, and perceived control over travel barriers will lead to an increase in the likelihood of taking a holiday at the destination. In addition, judging from the beta values, *subjective norms* were found to exert the greatest impact on visit intention among the TPB constructs. This finding is congruent with those of two previous studies on Chinese outbound tourists (Hsu & Huang 2012:390-417; Sparks & Pan 2009:483-494), travelling to Hong Kong and Australia, respectively.

With regard to the three motivation dimensions, beta coefficients showed that only *learning* (β=0.107; t=3.204; p=0.001) had a significant positive effect on visit intention, while *escape* (β=0.034; t=1.239; p>0.05) and *aesthetics and appreciation* (β=-0.062; t=-1.905; p>0.05) did not significantly affect visit intention. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 ("travel motivation has a positive influence on visit intention") was partially supported. This result is consistent with those of Hsu and Huang (2012:390-417) and Li and Cai (2012:473-487), who found that not all the motivation dimensions identified in the context of Chinese outbound travel have a significant relationship with behavioural intention.

Finally, in terms of the three constraint dimensions, beta coefficients indicated that *operational constraints* (β=-0.072; t=-2.305; p<0.05) and *social constraints* (β=-0.063; t=-2.013; p<0.05) had a significant negative effect on visit intention, while the effect of *risk and fear constraints* (β=-0.021; t=-0.745; p>0.05) on visit intention was insignificant. Hypothesis 5 ("travel constraints have a negative influence on visit intention") was therefore partially supported. This finding is similar to Huang and Hsu's (2009:29-44) that not all the constraint dimensions identified in the context of Chinese outbound travel have a significant relationship with behavioural intention.

To summarise, *subjective norms* had the greatest effect on visit intention in the extended TPB model; the TPB constructs had more impact on visit intention than any other predictor variable in the model; and *learning, operational constraints*, and *social constraints* were significant predictors of visit intention.

6.6   ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

One-way between-groups ANOVA was performed to examine the influence of the respondents' demographic and travel-related characteristics on their responses to the measures of the constructs in the extended TPB model. Four basic constructs (*intention*, *attitude*, *subjective norms*, and *perceived control*), three motivation dimensions (*learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*), and three constraint dimensions (*operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*) were incorporated into the analysis as continuous dependent variables. The categorical independent variable was each of the eight demographic and travel-related measures: gender (two groups), age (four groups), education (four groups), household structure (four groups), household income (five groups), travel frequency (four groups), travel mode (three groups), and city of residence (three groups).

Once significant differences between groups were detected by checking the normal F-statistic, or Brown and Forsythe's (1974:129-132) F-statistic (when the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated), the Scheffé post hoc test was conducted to determine which specific groups were different. Among numerous post hoc procedures (e.g. Bonferroni and Tukey), Scheffé is most conservative because it "is the least likely to find a significant difference" (Argyrous 2011:376). In addition, eta-squared (η^2) was estimated to determine the effect size (i.e. magnitude) of the differences between groups. It is equal to the sum of squares for between-groups divided by the total sum

of squares, and can be thought of as an analog to R^2 reflecting the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variable (Dong & Chick 2012:429; Pallant 2007:247). To interpret the eta-squared values, the following guidelines from Cohen (1988:283-287) were used: 0.01=small effect, 0.06=medium effect, and 0.14=large effect.

6.6.1   Effect of gender

The ANOVA results showed that there were significant differences between male and female respondents for four of the ten dependent variables – *attitude* (F=6.549; p<0.05), *subjective norms* (F=7.967; p<0.01), *perceived control* (F=7.473; p<0.01), and *operational constraints* (F=5.878; p<0.05). For these four constructs, despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. Gender accounted for only 1% of the variance in *attitude*, 1.3% in *subjective norms*, 1.2% in *perceived control*, and 0.9% in *operational constraints*. In general, male respondents had slightly higher mean scores on *attitude*, *subjective norms*, and *perceived control* than female respondents, whereas female respondents had slightly higher mean scores on *operational constraints* than male respondents (see Table 6.13).

TABLE 6.13: ANOVA – GENDER

VARIABLE	MALE (n=299)	FEMALE (n=331)	F	η^2
Visit intention	3.65 (0.66)	3.55 (0.68)	3.508	0.006
Attitude	4.16 (0.47)	4.06 (0.47)	6.549*	0.010
Subjective norms	3.35 (0.74)	3.19 (0.67)	7.967**	0.013
Perceived control	3.83 (0.66)	3.67 (0.76)	7.473**	0.012
Learning	4.26 (0.47)	4.32 (0.44)	3.230	0.005
Escape	3.39 (0.90)	3.46 (0.86)	1.062	0.002
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.26 (0.49)	4.24 (0.52)	0.179	0.000
Operational constraints	3.13 (0.65)	3.26 (0.67)	5.878*	0.009
Risk & fear constraints	3.30 (0.69)	3.28 (0.68)	0.155	0.000
Social constraints	3.03 (0.79)	3.08 (0.85)	0.522	0.001

Note: *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

6.6.2   Effect of age

The ANOVA results indicated that there were significant differences among the four age groups (i.e. 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, and ≥45) with respect to nine dependent variables (except for *risk and fear constraints*). These constructs with significant differences between the groups included (in descending order of the F-statistic) *social constraints* (F=14.399; p<0.001), *operational constraints* (F=12.892; p<0.001), *perceived control* (F=12.415; p<0.001), *visit intention* (F=10.858; p<0.001), *subjective norms* (F=6.554; p<0.001), *attitude* (F=5.791; p=0.001), *aesthetics and appreciation* (F=5.145; p<0.01), *learning* (F=4.905; p<0.01), and *escape* (F=3.109; p<0.05). The eta-squared values of these nine constructs ranged from 0.015 to 0.058, reflecting small to medium effect sizes. In descending order of magnitude, age accounted for 5.8% of the variance in *social constraints*, 5.6% in *perceived control*, 5.1% in *operational constraints*, 5.0% in *visit intention*, 3.1% in *subjective norms*, 2.7% in *attitude*, 2.4% in *aesthetics and appreciation*, 2.3% in *learning*, and 1.5% in *escape*. The results of the Scheffé post hoc test identifying the source of the differences across the age groups are shown in the last column of Table 6.14.

In general, respondents in the youngest age group (18-24) had lower mean scores on *visit intention*, *attitude*, *subjective norms*, *perceived control*, *learning*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*, and higher mean scores on *operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*, compared with those in the other age groups.

TABLE 6.14: ANOVA – AGE

VARIABLE	GROUP A: 18-24 (n=109)	GROUP B: 25-34 (n=297)	GROUP C: 35-44 (n=176)	GROUP D: ≥45 (n=48)	F	η²	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.28 (0.64)	3.67 (0.67)	3.69 (0.66)	3.53 (0.63)	10.858***	0.050	A/B; A/C
Attitude	3.97 (0.46)	4.16 (0.46)	4.14 (0.48)	3.98 (0.50)	5.791***	0.027	A/B; A/C
Subjective norms	2.99 (0.66)	3.32 (0.71)	3.32 (0.73)	3.28 (0.59)	6.554***	0.031	A/B; A/C
Perceived control	3.39 (0.75)	3.79 (0.71)	3.88 (0.67)	3.81 (0.63)	12.415***	0.056	A/B; A/C; A/D
Learning	4.16 (0.60)	4.35 (0.39)	4.27 (0.43)	4.26 (0.40)	4.905**	0.023	A/B
Escape	3.49 (0.89)	3.50 (0.89)	3.34 (0.82)	3.15 (0.99)	3.109*	0.015	-
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.11 (0.62)	4.28 (0.48)	4.24 (0.44)	4.41 (0.54)	5.145**	0.024	A/B; A/D
Operational constraints	3.52 (0.46)	3.15 (0.70)	3.09 (0.66)	3.23 (0.62)	12.892***	0.051	A/B; A/C
Risk & fear constraints	3.39 (0.52)	3.24 (0.72)	3.33 (0.69)	3.28 (0.74)	1.755	0.008	-
Social constraints	3.48 (0.66)	2.97 (0.85)	2.94 (0.81)	3.09 (0.73)	14.399***	0.058	A/B; A/C; A/D

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

6.6.3 Effect of education

By running the ANOVA, significant differences were found among the four levels of education (i.e. school, diploma, bachelor, and postgraduate) for six dependent variables (in descending order of the F-statistic) – *operational constraints* (F=10.669; p<0.001), *subjective norms* (F=9.183; p<0.001), *visit intention* (F=8.947; p<0.001), *attitude* (F=5.264; p<0.01), *social constraints* (F=5.164; p<0.01), and *risk and fear constraints* (F=3.642; p<0.05). These constructs had small to medium effect sizes, as evidenced by the eta-squared values of 0.017 to 0.049. In descending order of magnitude, education explained 4.9% of the variance in *operational constraints*, 4.2% in *subjective norms*, 4.1% in *visit intention*, 3.3% in *attitude*, 2.4% in *social constraints*, and

1.7% in *risk and fear constraints*. The Scheffé post hoc test was conducted to determine exactly where the differences across the levels of education occur (see the last column of Table 6.15). Overall, the mean scores of *visit intention*, *attitude*, and *subjective norms* increased with education levels, whereas the mean scores of *operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints* decreased with education levels.

TABLE 6.15: ANOVA – EDUCATION

VARIABLE	GROUP A: School (n=26)	GROUP B: Diploma (n=112)	GROUP C: Bachelor (n=428)	GROUP D: Postgraduate (n=64)	F	η^2	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.19 (0.74)	3.39 (0.72)	3.66 (0.65)	3.70 (0.61)	8.947***	0.041	A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Attitude	3.87 (0.70)	3.97 (0.48)	4.15 (0.46)	4.18 (0.42)	5.264**	0.033	A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Subjective norms	2.90 (0.64)	3.01 (0.73)	3.33 (0.69)	3.38 (0.63)	9.183***	0.042	A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Perceived control	3.62 (0.95)	3.60 (0.70)	3.80 (0.70)	3.73 (0.70)	2.540	0.012	-
Learning	4.25 (0.35)	4.25 (0.54)	4.30 (0.44)	4.29 (0.44)	0.372	0.002	-
Escape	3.58 (1.15)	3.28 (0.84)	3.44 (0.87)	3.55 (0.89)	1.741	0.008	-
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.43 (0.53)	4.24 (0.53)	4.23 (0.50)	4.30 (0.48)	1.430	0.007	-
Operational constraints	3.54 (0.64)	3.45 (0.60)	3.15 (0.66)	3.01 (0.69)	10.669***	0.049	A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Risk & fear constraints	3.65 (0.57)	3.32 (0.69)	3.29 (0.67)	3.14 (0.74)	3.642*	0.017	A/D
Social constraints	3.40 (0.85)	3.25 (0.82)	3.02 (0.82)	2.86 (0.73)	5.164**	0.024	A/D; B/D

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

6.6.4   Effect of household structure

In addition to age, household structure is another life cycle-related factor. The ANOVA results revealed that there were significant differences among the four categories of household structure (i.e. single; married, no children; married, dependent children; and married, grown-up children) for seven dependent variables (in descending order of the F-statistic), that is, *perceived control* (F=14.694; p<0.001), *operational constraints* (F=13.341; p<0.001), *social constraints* (F=13.261; p<0.001), *visit intention* (F=12.469; p<0.001), *subjective norms* (F=12.127; p<0.001), *attitude* (F=3.333; p<0.05), and *aesthetics and appreciation* (F=3.303; p<0.05). These constructs' eta-squared

values ranged from 0.016 to 0.065, representing small to medium effect sizes. In descending order of magnitude, household structure accounted for 6.5% of the variance in *perceived control*, 6.2% in *operational constraints*, 6.0% in *social constraints*, 5.6% in *visit intention*, 5.5% in *subjective norms*, 1.6% in *attitude*, and 1.6% in *aesthetics and appreciation*. The Scheffé post hoc test discovered the source of the differences across the categories of household structure, which is displayed in the last column of Table 6.16. Among all the sample groups, single respondents had the lowest mean scores on *visit intention*, *attitude*, *subjective norms*, *perceived control*, *learning*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*, and the highest mean scores on *operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*. This finding is consistent with that reported in Section 6.6.2. One possible explanation is that there was a high overlap between respondents aged 18-24 and single respondents.

TABLE 6.16: ANOVA – HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE

VARIABLE	GROUP A: Single (n=200)	GROUP B: Married, no children (n=86)	GROUP C: Married, dependent children (n=303)	GROUP D: Married, grown-up children (n=41)	F	η^2	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.37 (0.63)	3.66 (0.58)	3.72 (0.70)	3.68 (0.64)	12.469***	0.056	A/B; A/C
Attitude	4.03 (0.47)	4.11 (0.44)	4.16 (0.49)	4.09 (0.47)	3.333*	0.016	A/C
Subjective norms	3.03 (0.65)	3.32 (0.64)	3.40 (0.73)	3.29 (0.68)	12.127***	0.055	A/B; A/C
Perceived control	3.50 (0.76)	3.72 (0.74)	3.91 (0.65)	3.86 (0.60)	14.694***	0.065	A/C; A/D
Learning	4.24 (0.53)	4.28 (0.39)	4.32 (0.42)	4.28 (0.39)	1.361	0.007	-
Escape	3.45 (0.90)	3.56 (0.90)	3.42 (0.85)	3.13 (1.01)	2.209	0.011	-
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.16 (0.58)	4.29 (0.45)	4.28 (0.46)	4.36 (0.50)	3.303*	0.016	-
Operational constraints	3.44 (0.51)	3.08 (0.74)	3.09 (0.69)	3.09 (0.63)	13.341***	0.062	A/B; A/C; A/D
Risk & fear constraints	3.33 (0.57)	3.26 (0.75)	3.29 (0.71)	3.20 (0.86)	0.378	0.002	-
Social constraints	3.35 (0.73)	2.86 (0.86)	2.93 (0.82)	2.98 (0.83)	13.261***	0.060	A/B; A/C

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

6.6.5   Effect of household income

By conducting the ANOVA, significant differences were detected among the five groups of monthly household income (i.e. ≤¥5,000; ¥5,001–¥10,000; ¥10,001–¥15,000; ¥15,001–¥20,000; and ≥¥20,001) in seven outcome variables (in descending order of the F-statistic), namely, *visit intention* (F=19.936; p<0.001), *operational constraints* (F=17.600; p<0.001), *perceived control* (F=14.329; p<0.001), *subjective norms* (F=13.182; p<0.001), *attitude* (F=7.856; p<0.001), *social constraints* (F=7.639; p<0.001), and *learning* (F=5.025; p=0.001). The constructs of *visit intention*, *subjective norms*, *perceived control*, and *operational constraints* had medium to large effect sizes, as evidenced by the eta-squared values ranging from 0.078 to 0.113; the eta-squared values for the constructs of *attitude*, *learning*, and *social constraints* were 0.048, 0.031, and 0.045, respectively, indicating small to medium effect sizes. In descending order of magnitude, household income explained 11.3% of the variance in *visit intention*, 9.8% in *operational constraints*, 8.2% in *perceived control*, 7.8% in *subjective norms*, 4.8% in *attitude*, 4.5% in *social constraints*, and 3.1% in *learning*. The Scheffé post hoc test was executed to ascertain exactly where the differences between the groups of household income occur (see the last column of Table 6.17). On the whole, respondents with a monthly household income of ¥10,000 or less had lower mean scores on *visit intention*, *attitude*, *subjective norms*, *perceived control*, *learning*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*, and higher mean scores on *operational constraints* and *social constraints*, in comparison with those with a monthly household income of more than ¥10,000.

VARIABLE	GROUP A: ≤¥5,000 (n=46)	GROUP B: ¥5,001 – ¥10,000 (n=162)	GROUP C: ¥10,001 – ¥15,000 (n=162)	GROUP D: ¥15,001 – ¥20,000 (n=132)	GROUP E: ≥¥20,001 (n=128)	F	η^2	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.09 (0.67)	3.35 (0.69)	3.69 (0.63)	3.79 (0.58)	3.79 (0.61)	19.936***	0.113	A/C; A/D; A/E; B/C; B/D; B/E
Attitude	3.87 (0.51)	3.99 (0.52)	4.16 (0.45)	4.17 (0.47)	4.20 (0.39)	7.856***	0.048	A/C; A/D; A/E; B/C; B/D; B/E
Subjective norms	2.89 (0.66)	3.01 (0.67)	3.40 (0.66)	3.43 (0.68)	3.36 (0.73)	13.182***	0.078	A/C; A/D; A/E; B/C; B/D; B/E
Perceived control	3.28 (0.67)	3.53 (0.78)	3.83 (0.65)	3.91 (0.63)	3.93 (0.68)	14.329***	0.082	A/C; A/D; A/E; B/C; B/D; B/E
Learning	4.03 (0.76)	4.27 (0.46)	4.33 (0.42)	4.29 (0.37)	4.36 (0.39)	5.025***	0.031	A/B; A/C; A/D; A/E
Escape	3.29 (0.88)	3.40 (0.88)	3.50 (0.82)	3.38 (0.93)	3.48 (0.92)	0.753	0.005	-
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.07 (0.81)	4.23 (0.49)	4.27 (0.46)	4.27 (0.48)	4.30 (0.46)	1.569	0.013	-
Operational constraints	3.55 (0.56)	3.45 (0.53)	3.18 (0.71)	3.08 (0.62)	2.92 (0.69)	17.600***	0.098	A/C; A/D; A/E; B/C; B/D; B/E; C/E
Risk & fear constraints	3.42 (0.63)	3.32 (0.65)	3.22 (0.69)	3.26 (0.71)	3.33 (0.71)	1.042	0.007	-
Social constraints	3.46 (0.66)	3.24 (0.73)	2.98 (0.79)	2.91 (0.87)	2.93 (0.90)	7.639***	0.045	A/C; A/D; A/E; B/D; B/E

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

6.6.6   Effect of travel frequency

The independent variable of travel frequency (i.e. the number of outbound holidays over the past five years) was measured in the following four intervals: none, one or two, three or four, and five or more times. The ANOVA results indicated that there were significant differences among the intervals for all ten dependent variables (in descending order of the F-statistic) – *visit intention* (F=47.668; p<0.001), *operational constraints* (F=32.920; p<0.001), *subjective norms* (F=22.644; p<0.001), *perceived control* (F=21.858; p<0.001), *attitude* (F=16.640; p<0.001), *social constraints* (F=11.635; p<0.001), *learning*

(F=5.690; p=0.001), *escape* (F=4.386; p<0.01), *risk and fear constraints* (F=3.327; p<0.05), and *aesthetics and appreciation* (F=2.852; p<0.05). The eta-squared value of *visit intention* was 0.186, which could be considered a large effect size; *attitude*, *subjective norms*, *perceived control*, and *operational constraints* demonstrated medium to large effect sizes given their eta-squared values of 0.074 to 0.139; and *learning, escape, aesthetics and appreciation*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints* had small to medium effect sizes considering their eta-squared values of 0.014 to 0.054. In descending order of magnitude, travel frequency accounted for 18.6% of the variance in *visit intention*, 13.9% in *operational constraints*, 10.6% in *subjective norms*, 9.7% in *perceived control*, 7.4% in *attitude*, 5.4% in *social constraints*, 2.7% in *learning*, 2.1% in *escape*, 1.6% in *risk and fear constraints*, and 1.4% in *aesthetics and appreciation*. The Scheffé post hoc test was performed to determine which specific groups were different (displayed in the last column of Table 6.18). Overall, respondents falling in the first two groups of travel frequency (none and one or two) had lower mean scores on *visit intention*, *attitude*, *subjective norms*, *perceived control*, *learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*, and higher mean scores on *operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*, compared with those in the other two groups of travel frequency (three or four and five or more).

VARIABLE	GROUP A: None (n=116)	GROUP B: One or two (n=277)	GROUP C: Three or four (n=144)	GROUP D: Five or more (n=93)	F	η^2	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.07 (0.63)	3.57 (0.61)	3.89 (0.56)	3.89 (0.66)	47.668***	0.186	A/B; A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Attitude	3.89 (0.51)	4.08 (0.44)	4.24 (0.41)	4.26 (0.50)	16.640***	0.074	A/B; A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Subjective norms	2.84 (0.63)	3.25 (0.62)	3.51 (0.68)	3.45 (0.81)	22.644***	0.106	A/B; A/C; A/D; B/C
Perceived control	3.37 (0.80)	3.70 (0.66)	3.93 (0.66)	4.08 (0.63)	21.858***	0.097	A/B; A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Learning	4.15 (0.59)	4.29 (0.43)	4.36 (0.38)	4.35 (0.39)	5.690***	0.027	A/B; A/C; A/D
Escape	3.21 (0.94)	3.41 (0.86)	3.59 (0.86)	3.51 (0.85)	4.386**	0.021	A/C
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.13 (0.64)	4.26 (0.49)	4.31 (0.41)	4.28 (0.51)	2.852*	0.014	A/C
Operational constraints	3.58 (0.48)	3.28 (0.60)	2.97 (0.67)	2.84 (0.71)	32.920***	0.139	A/B; A/C; A/D; B/C; B/D
Risk & fear constraints	3.43 (0.57)	3.32 (0.66)	3.18 (0.74)	3.22 (0.76)	3.327*	0.016	A/C
Social constraints	3.39 (0.70)	3.08 (0.79)	2.90 (0.84)	2.81 (0.88)	11.635***	0.054	A/B; A/C; A/D; B/D

Note: *$p \le 0.05$; **$p \le 0.01$; ***$p \le 0.001$.

6.6.7   Effect of travel mode

As shown in Table 6.19, research subjects were also divided into three groups according to their preferred mode of outbound tourism, namely, full-package, semi-package, and independent. There was a significant difference in the mean scores of *subjective norms* across the three groups (F=4.909; p<0.01). Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in the scores between the groups was small. Only 1.5% of the variance in *subjective norms* was explained by travel mode. The Scheffé post hoc test indicated that the mean score of *subjective norms* for the full-package group (M=3.21; SD=0.71) was significantly different from the semi-package group (M=3.38; SD=0.66). The latter group differed significantly from the independent group (M=3.16; SD=0.75).

TABLE 6.19: ANOVA – TRAVEL MODE

VARIABLE	GROUP A: Full-package (n=266)	GROUP B: Semi-package (n=230)	GROUP C: Independent (n=134)	F	η^2	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.60 (0.71)	3.65 (0.62)	3.51 (0.67)	1.652	0.005	-
Attitude	4.12 (0.48)	4.13 (0.45)	4.05 (0.51)	1.280	0.004	-
Subjective norms	3.21 (0.71)	3.38 (0.66)	3.16 (0.75)	4.909**	0.015	A/B; B/C
Perceived control	3.76 (0.70)	3.79 (0.71)	3.67 (0.77)	1.137	0.004	-
Learning	4.25 (0.51)	4.32 (0.41)	4.32 (0.40)	1.805	0.006	-
Escape	3.37 (0.88)	3.44 (0.87)	3.53 (0.92)	1.453	0.005	-
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.25 (0.55)	4.22 (0.48)	4.29 (0.47)	0.883	0.003	-
Operational constraints	3.24 (0.65)	3.17 (0.65)	3.18 (0.71)	0.746	0.002	-
Risk & fear constraints	3.34 (0.69)	3.25 (0.66)	3.26 (0.71)	1.331	0.004	-
Social constraints	3.01 (0.84)	3.06 (0.83)	3.14 (0.78)	1.114	0.004	-

Note: *$p \le 0.05$; **$p \le 0.01$; ***$p \le 0.001$.

6.6.8 Effect of city of residence

Using the respondent's city of residence as the grouping variable (i.e. Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou), the ANOVA results revealed that only *operational constraints* had a significant difference in mean scores (F=4.592; p=0.01). Although statistically significant, the actual difference in the scores over the geographic areas was small. Only 1.4% of the variance in *operational constraints* was explained by city of residence. The Scheffé post hoc test was conducted to identify the source of the difference (see the last column of Table 6.20). The mean score of *operational constraints* for respondents from Shanghai (M=3.12; SD=0.66) was significantly lower than for respondents from Guangzhou (M=3.31; SD=0.64). This implies that Shanghai residents perceived fewer barriers in the practicalities of visiting the destination than Guangzhou residents.

VARIABLE	GROUP A: Beijing (n=210)	GROUP B: Shanghai (n=210)	GROUP C: Guangzhou (n=210)	F	η^2	SIG. DIFF. BETWEEN GROUPS
Visit intention	3.61 (0.62)	3.64 (0.68)	3.55 (0.72)	1.042	0.003	-
Attitude	4.09 (0.47)	4.11 (0.45)	4.12 (0.51)	0.194	0.001	-
Subjective norms	3.29 (0.73)	3.25 (0.67)	3.25 (0.72)	0.221	0.001	-
Perceived control	3.74 (0.66)	3.81 (0.72)	3.70 (0.77)	1.326	0.004	-
Learning	4.27 (0.39)	4.30 (0.42)	4.29 (0.53)	0.213	0.001	-
Escape	3.34 (0.93)	3.49 (0.83)	3.46 (0.88)	1.754	0.006	-
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.26 (0.46)	4.28 (0.46)	4.21 (0.59)	0.965	0.003	-
Operational constraints	3.18 (0.68)	3.12 (0.66)	3.31 (0.64)	4.592**	0.014	B/C
Risk & fear constraints	3.29 (0.69)	3.30 (0.69)	3.28 (0.68)	0.037	0.000	-
Social constraints	3.06 (0.80)	2.97 (0.85)	3.14 (0.81)	2.046	0.007	-

Note: *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

To summarise, Sections 6.6.1 to 6.6.8 provided evidence for the impact of background factors (demographic and travel-related characteristics) on the antecedents of the destination choice behaviour, including attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, travel constraints, and visit intention. The findings are in line with Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010:273) argument that "background factors can influence behavior via their effects on the behavior's proximal determinants".

6.7   MARKET SEGMENTATION

To address the research objective of segmenting potential Chinese tourists to South Africa based on travel motivation and travel constraints, a hierarchical cluster analysis, a non-hierarchical cluster analysis, a discriminant analysis, a cross-tabulation analysis, and an ANOVA were carried out successively. More specifically, the hierarchical clustering procedure was employed to determine the appropriate number of clusters (segments or groups); the non-hierarchical clustering procedure was used to categorise the entire sample into mutually exclusive groups; the discriminant procedure was followed to evaluate the

clustering results; and the cross-tabulation and ANOVA procedures were used to produce a profile for each resulting cluster. The clustering variables comprised three motivation dimensions (*learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*) and three constraint dimensions (*operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*).

6.7.1   Deriving clusters

Taking into account the recommendation of several scholars (e.g. Burns & Burns 2008:557; Hair et al 2010:536; Li, Zhang et al 2011:637; Liang & Lim 2011:861; Lo, Law & Cheung 2011:832; Radder & Han 2011:133; Weaver, McCleary, Han & Blosser 2009:575), the present study adopted a combination approach using a hierarchical approach followed by a non-hierarchical approach to derive clusters. First of all, Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis using the squared Euclidean distance as a measure of similarity was performed to establish the optimal number of clusters by reviewing the agglomeration schedule. Several clustering solutions ranging from two to ten were given special attention. As shown in Table 6.21, the largest change in coefficient was from a three-cluster to a two-cluster solution (261.617 or 21.22%), suggesting that the two-cluster solution would be an ideal option.

TABLE 6.21: AGGLOMERATION SCHEDULE

NUMBER OF CLUSTERS	COEFFICIENT	CHANGE IN COEFFICIENT	CHANGE RATE
1	1778.567	284.004	19.00%
2	1494.563	261.617	21.22%
3	1232.946	102.526	9.07%
4	1130.420	86.818	8.32%
5	1043.602	64.618	6.60%
6	978.984	63.473	6.93%
7	915.511	37.670	4.29%
8	877.841	37.505	4.46%
9	840.336	35.004	4.35%
10	805.332	33.658	4.36%
11	771.674	-	-

Then, the k-means non-hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted with two clusters specified (categorising subjects into two groups). The analysis results revealed that all the clustering variables, except for *escape*, contributed to differentiating the two clusters ($p < 0.001$). The clustering variable of *escape* was retained for further investigation considering that its p-value (0.081) was within the range of marginal statistical significance ($0.05 < p \leq 0.10$) (Hair et al 2010:160). According to the mean score characteristics with regard to the clustering variables (see Table 6.22), the first cluster (n=256 or 40.6% of the entire sample) was termed 'High-Motivation/Low-Constraint (HMLC) tourists', while the second cluster (n=374 or 59.4% of the entire sample) was termed 'Low-Motivation/High-Constraint (LMHC) tourists'.

VARIABLE	CLUSTER Ⅰ HMLC (n=256)	CLUSTER Ⅱ LMHC (n=374)	F
Learning	4.42 (0.38)	4.20 (0.48)	36.067***
Escape	3.50 (0.87)	3.38 (0.89)	3.053
Aesthetics & appreciation	4.35 (0.45)	4.18 (0.54)	16.616***
Operational constraints	2.78 (0.63)	3.49 (0.52)	237.861***
Risk & fear constraints	2.91 (0.70)	3.55 (0.54)	166.221***
Social constraints	2.31 (0.55)	3.57 (0.54)	814.083***

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

6.7.2   Evaluating clusters

To evaluate the accuracy and stability of the cluster classification, a two-group discriminant analysis was performed in which the continuous independent variables were the clustering variables used in the cluster analysis, while the categorical dependent variable was the cluster membership variable resulting from the cluster analysis. It was assumed that the two groups had equal prior probabilities – "each group is assumed to have an equal chance of occurring even if the group sizes in the sample are unequal" (Hair et al 2010:362). The Box's M test was 97.993 (F=4.617; p<0.001), suggesting that the assumption of equality of covariance matrices was violated. However, given the large sample size, this violation was *not* deemed serious (Burns & Burns 2008:604). A canonical discriminant function (model) resulted with an eigenvalue of 1.793 and a canonical correlation of 0.801. The model explained 64.16% of the variance in the dependent variable and reached statistical significance (Wilks' Lambda=0.358; chi-square=641.868; p<0.001).

The resulting discriminant function could be interpreted based on discriminant (b) coefficients, standardised (beta) coefficients, and structure correlations (discriminant loadings). According to Hair et al (2010:389), in contrast to b and

beta coefficients, discriminant loadings are less influenced by multicollinearity and therefore more appropriate for interpretative purposes. Burns and Burns (2008:600) consider a loading of ±0.3 as "the cut-off between important and less important variables". As shown in the last column of Table 6.23, it is clear that *social constraints* was the most important predictor in discriminating between the groups, followed by *operational constraints* and *risk and fear constraints*, while *learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation* were all poor predictors.

TABLE 6.23: INTERPRETATION OF THE DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION

VARIABLE	DISCRIMINANT COEFFICIENT	STANDARDISED COEFFICIENT	STRUCTURE CORRELATION
(Constant)	-4.791		
Learning	-0.537	-0.236	-0.179
Escape	-0.065	-0.057	-0.052
Aesthetics & appreciation	-0.129	-0.065	-0.121
Operational constraints	0.469	0.266	0.460
Risk & fear constraints	0.518	0.316	0.384
Social constraints	1.524	0.827	0.850

A further way of interpreting the discriminant function is to characterise each group in terms of its centroid – "the mean values for the discriminant scores for a particular group" (Malhotra & Birks 2007:620). In the current context, the HMLC group had a centroid of -1.62, while the LMHC group had a centroid of 1.11. Cases with discriminant scores close to a centroid were thus predicted as belonging to that group. The distribution of discriminant scores for the two groups is demonstrated graphically in Annexure G.

Finally, and most importantly, the discriminant analysis offered a classification matrix (see Annexure H), which could be used to assess the results of cluster analysis, and more specifically, evaluate accuracy and stability in predicting membership of the HMLC and LMHC clusters. According to the classification

matrix, 96.3% of the original grouped cases were correctly classified, reflecting a very high level of accuracy; 95.9% of the cross-validated grouped cases were correctly classified, reflecting a very high level of stability. These estimates consequently enhanced the researcher's confidence in the clustering results reported in Section 6.7.1.

6.7.3 Profiling clusters

A cross-tabulation analysis with a chi-square test for independence was used to determine the demographic and travel-related characteristics of each of the two clusters. The analysis involved eight demographic and travel-related variables, namely, gender, age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, travel mode, and city of residence. For the gender variable, Yates' (1934:217-235) chi-square value was reported, while for each of the remaining variables, Pearson's (1900:157-175) chi-square value was reported. Yates' formula is a corrected version of Pearson's formula to compensate for the latter's overestimate in a 2×2 contingency table. The assumption of the chi-square test concerning the minimum expected cell frequency, which should be greater than five, has *not* been violated (Field 2009:691-692; Pallant 2007:216). As displayed in the last column of Table 6.24, six out of eight demographic and travel-related variables (except gender and travel mode) were found to differ significantly between the two clusters. Hence, the demographic and travel-related characteristics of each cluster are discussed based on these significant variables.

TABLE 6.24: CLUSTER PROFILE – DEMOGRAPHIC AND TRAVEL-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS

VARIABLE	CLUSTER Ⅰ (n=256) HMLC		CLUSTER Ⅱ (n=374) LMHC		CHI-SQUARE
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Gender					0.423
Male	126	49.2	173	46.3	
Female	130	50.8	201	53.7	
Age					32.844***
18-24	19	7.4	90	24.1	
25-34	141	55.1	156	41.7	
35-44	80	31.3	96	25.7	
≥45	16	6.2	32	8.5	
Education					15.699***
Secondary school	6	2.3	20	5.3	
Diploma	31	12.1	81	21.7	
Bachelor's degree	186	72.7	242	64.7	
Master's or doctoral degree	33	12.9	31	8.3	
Household structure					26.858***
Single	52	20.3	148	39.6	
Married, no children	43	16.8	43	11.5	
Married, dependent children	144	56.3	159	42.5	
Married, grown-up children	17	6.6	24	6.4	
Household income					28.571***
≤¥5,000	7	2.7	39	10.5	
¥5,001 – ¥10,000	49	19.2	113	30.2	
¥10,001 – ¥15,000	72	28.1	90	24.1	
¥15,001 – ¥20,000	66	25.8	66	17.6	
≥¥20,001	62	24.2	66	17.6	
Travel frequency					49.820***
None	16	6.2	100	26.7	
One or two	115	44.9	162	43.3	
Three or four	79	30.9	65	17.4	
Five or more	46	18.0	47	12.6	
Travel mode					1.706
Full-package tour	113	44.1	153	40.9	
Semi-package tour	95	37.1	135	36.1	
Independent tour	48	18.8	86	23.0	
City of residence					10.910**
Beijing	83	32.4	127	34.0	
Shanghai	103	40.2	107	28.6	
Guangzhou	70	27.4	140	37.4	

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

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In terms of age and education, the HMLC cluster had a comparatively larger proportion of people who were between 25 and 44 years old (86.4% vs. 67.4%) and held a four-year bachelor's degree or higher (85.6% vs. 73.0%), whereas the LMHC cluster had a comparatively larger proportion of people who were in either the youngest age group of 18-24 (24.1% vs. 7.4%), or the oldest age group of 45 and above (8.5% vs. 6.2%) and held a three-year diploma or lower (27.0% vs. 14.4%). With reference to household structure and income, the respondents in the HMLC cluster were relatively more likely to be married (79.7% vs. 60.4%) and have a monthly household income of more than ¥10,000 (78.1% vs. 59.3%), while those in the LMHC cluster were relatively more likely to be single (39.6% vs. 20.3%) and have a monthly household income of ¥10,000 or less (40.7% vs. 21.9%). In addition, the HMLC cluster contained relatively more respondents who had taken one or more holidays abroad over the past five years (93.8% vs. 73.3%), whereas the LMHC cluster contained relatively more respondents who had not gone on holiday abroad in the previous five years (26.7% vs. 6.2%). Finally, the HMLC cluster had a comparatively higher percentage of Shanghai people (40.2% vs. 28.6%), while the LMHC cluster had a comparatively higher percentage of Beijing (34% vs. 32.4%) and Guangzhou people (37.4% vs. 27.4%).

In addition to the demographic and travel-related characteristics, the profile of each cluster was enhanced by investigating the cluster members' assessment of the TPB constructs (intention, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control). Given that these constructs were interval variables in nature, the researcher adopted the ANOVA procedure to explore the differences between the two clusters. As demonstrated in Table 6.25, the results of ANOVA indicated that mean scores for attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were all significantly different between the two clusters ($p<0.001$). The members in the HMLC cluster had higher mean scores for all these variables than those in the LMHC cluster. According to the calculated

eta-squared values, the magnitude of the differences between the two clusters was medium to large for attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control, and large for visit intention.

TABLE 6.25: CLUSTER PROFILE – ASSESSMENT OF THE TPB CONSTRUCTS

VARIABLE	CLUSTER Ⅰ (n=256) HMLC	CLUSTER Ⅱ (n=374) LMHC	F	η^2
Attitude	4.30 (0.41)	3.98 (0.47)	76.291***	0.108
Subjective norms	3.57 (0.61)	3.05 (0.69)	94.846***	0.131
Perceived control	4.00 (0.63)	3.58 (0.73)	60.420***	0.084
Visit intention	3.92 (0.58)	3.38 (0.65)	112.354***	0.152

Note: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

In summary, a two-step cluster analysis was first performed to split the entire sample into segments using six motivation and constraint factor scores. The resulting two-segment solution was validated by conducting the discriminant analysis. The cross-tabulation procedure revealed that there were significant differences between the two segments in terms of age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, and city of residence. The ANOVA procedure showed that the two segments had significantly different attitudes, subjective norms, perceptions of control, and visit intentions.

6.8   SUMMARY

This chapter reported the main findings of the online panel survey. To disclose useful information in the data, the following statistical techniques were used – descriptive analysis, EFA, CFA, MRA, ANOVA, cluster analysis, discriminant analysis, and cross-tabulation analysis. In particular, the results of EFA and CFA revealed that travel motivation had three latent dimensions – *learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*; travel constraints also had three latent dimensions – *operational constraints*, *risk and fear constraints*, and

social constraints; and attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were all found to be unidimensional.

The results of MRA demonstrated that the extended TPB model had higher predictive power for visit intention than the TRA and TPB models; Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were fully supported; and Hypotheses 4 and 5 were partially supported. Visit intention, attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints were all found to differ to some extent according to demographic and travel-related characteristics, suggesting the existence of significant relationships between background factors and the destination choice behaviour. Two market segments were identified by cluster analysis and then verified by discriminant analysis, that is, 'HMLC tourists' and 'LMHC tourists'. There were significant differences between the two segments with regard to six demographic and travel-related variables (i.e. age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, and city of residence) and four TPB constructs (i.e. intention, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control).

Chapter 7 provides a research synopsis of the study, draws conclusions about the study, and makes recommendations for destination marketers. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also covered.

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Theoretical findings ┌─────────────────────┐ Empirical findings
                      │   Chapter 7   │
                      │   (Conclusions)   │
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│ ➢ Synopsis of the study   │
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│   ▪ Travel motivation   │
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CHAPTER 7

SYNOPSIS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 reported the empirical findings resulting from the statistical analysis of the online panel survey data that were gathered. This chapter addresses the last research objective stated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, namely, to draw conclusions based on theoretical and empirical findings and provide recommendations to destination marketers. The chapter commences with a synopsis highlighting the structure of each of the previous chapters.

7.2   SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 served as an introduction to the current research project. First, the main purpose and specific objectives of the research were clearly delineated. Following a brief literature review, a conceptual model with five hypothesised relationships was demonstrated. Thereafter, the delimitations of the research were discussed, followed by a definition of important concepts.

Chapter 2 elucidated the research design and methodology relevant to the present study. The nature of the study was examined in terms of its outcome, logic, process, and purpose. The difference between primary and secondary data was highlighted, followed by a detailed description of the questionnaire development process. Thereafter, four important stages in the sampling design process were revealed – target population, sampling frame, sampling method, and sample size. Finally, three prominent issues in the statistical analysis procedure were explored – data preparation, scale reliability and validity assessment, and statistical methods and techniques.

Chapter 3, the first theoretical chapter of the current research, reviewed the literature on the nature of international tourism and expounded the history, status quo, and development trends in China's outbound tourism and South Africa's inbound tourism. The chapter commenced by drawing a distinction among a set of similar concepts, namely, leisure, recreation, tourism, and travel. The official definition and the classification of tourism were highlighted, followed by a discussion of nine different approaches to studying tourism, that is, an institutional, product, historical, managerial, economic, sociological, geographical, interdisciplinary, and systems approach. Next the chapter introduced the notion of tourism demand, and elaborated on the crucial factors influencing Chinese travellers' demand for outbound tourism. Lastly, the chapter explored the environmental, socio-cultural, and economic impacts that tourism could have on a destination and stressed the role of marketing in destination management.

Chapter 4, the second theoretical chapter of the present study, contained a literature review regarding the attitude concept and the TPB model. A brief history of attitude research was presented, followed by a description of the three essential elements in defining attitudes – evaluation, tendency, and object. The concept of attitude was examined in terms of its properties (confidence/strength, persistence, resistance, accessibility, and ambivalence), psychological functions (object-evaluation, social-adjustment, externalisation, and value-expression), and internal structure (cognitive, affective, and behavioural). Thereafter, the factors influencing attitude and behaviour consistency were laid out and the principle of compatibility was highlighted. Finally, the TPB's five basic components (behaviour, intention, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control) and their interrelationships were expounded.

Chapter 5, the third theoretical chapter of the current research, contained a literature review covering the concepts of travel motivation and travel constraints that were proposed as additional predictors of visit intention. The chapter commenced with a discussion of the necessity for extending the TPB and the conditions for including new predictors. A definition of motivation and its importance were emphasised and five major human/tourist motivation theoretical frameworks were highlighted, namely, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGuire's psychological motives, the travel career approach, the escaping and seeking theory, and the push and pull theory. Previous studies focusing on Chinese outbound tourists' travel motivation were also reviewed. The development of leisure constraints research was introduced and three major leisure constraints theoretical frameworks were outlined, that is, the dimensional model, the hierarchical model, and the negotiable model. In addition, previous studies investigating Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints were acknowledged.

Chapter 6 presented and briefly discussed the major findings from the online panel survey. First, the profile of the sample and the mean and standard deviation for each measurement item were demonstrated. Then the results of both EFA and CFA for determining the dimensionality of each study variable were reported. Thirdly, the results of MRA for comparing competing models and testing hypothesised relationships were shown. Fourthly, the effect of various background factors (gender, age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, travel mode, and city of residence) on each study variable was assessed using the ANOVA. Finally, the sequential statistical procedures for segmenting the sample based on travel motivation and travel constraints were discussed, including cluster analysis, discriminant analysis, and cross-tabulation analysis.

7.3   CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Zikmund and Babin (2007:632) define conclusions as "opinions based on the results" and recommendations as "suggestions for action". In this particular study, conclusions are drawn based on a comprehensive interpretation of theoretical (Chapters 3-5) and empirical findings (Chapter 6). Based on these findings and conclusions, recommendations are made to South Africa's destination marketers. Five pairs of conclusions and recommendations are presented in this section, dealing respectively with travel motivation, travel constraints, the extended TPB model, the role of background factors, and market segmentation.

7.3.1   Travel motivation

The study of travel motivation is the starting point for any effort to understand tourist behaviour (Hsu et al 2010:293). An important objective of the current research was to examine potential Chinese travellers' motivation to visit South Africa. To achieve this objective, both secondary and primary data were collected and analysed.

The study of secondary data showed that travel motivation as a subset of the wider range of human motivation is an important driving force behind tourist behaviour. Travel motivation research attempts to address the question "why people travel", or more specifically "why people visit a particular destination". It is generally agreed that travel motivation is multidimensional because tourists seek to simultaneously satisfy multiple needs. Among the theories underlying travel motivation, the push-pull framework seems to have attracted the most attention from scholars. The postulation of this framework is that people travel because they are pushed by internal forces and pulled by external forces.

Only a limited number of studies have examined Chinese outbound tourists' motivation, either destination-specific or non-destination-specific. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there has been *no* research systematically probing into the forces driving Chinese tourists to visit South Africa in the mainstream tourism literature. Therefore, a key theoretical contribution of the current research lies in its status as one of the first attempts to investigate potential Chinese travellers' motivation to visit South Africa.

The study of primary data involved constructing a context-specific motivation scale by adopting Churchill's (1979:64-73) recommended measurement scale development procedure. The final questionnaire included a 20-item motivation scale. Descriptive analysis revealed that potential Chinese travellers generally agreed about these motivational statements. Broadening personal horizons, viewing beautiful natural scenery, and seeing something different were the top motives for visiting South Africa. Factor analysis reduced the original 20 items to 14. Three dimensions emerged as underlying factors motivating potential Chinese travellers to visit South Africa – *learning* (seven items), *escape* (two items), and *aesthetics and appreciation* (five items). Since these dimensions of motivation showed adequate internal consistency, the final 14-item scale was deemed to be reliable.

The *learning* dimension suggests that the opportunity to expand experience, horizons, and knowledge may motivate potential Chinese tourists to visit South Africa. This dimension was also found in travel motivation studies on Chinese tourists to other overseas destinations such as the United States (Hua & Yoo 2011:368), Canada (Lu 2011:351), Singapore (Kau & Lim 2005:238), and Hong Kong (Hsu et al 2010:288; Zhang & Lam 1999:590), although it was termed differently (e.g. exploration, knowledge, novelty, prestige, ego enhancement, and international exposure). Influenced by Confucian thinking, China is a highly long-term oriented society in which

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people believe that spare time should not be spent leisurely, but devoted to self-improvement. This explains why Chinese people frequently use learning as a justification for engaging in leisure activities (Li 2009:231), including outbound tourism.

The *escape* dimension reflects potential Chinese tourists' desires to get away from their routine environment and from stress. This dimension has some similarities to the "relaxation" factor identified by Hsu et al (2010:288), Hsu and Huang (2012:402), Zhang (2009:132), and Zhang and Lam (1999:590); the "escape and relaxation" factor identified by Kau and Lim (2005:238) and Li (2007:97); and the "escape and relationship" factor identified by Li and Cai (2012:479). In exploring the differences in motivation to travel to South Korea among four national tourist groups (American, Australian, Japanese, and Chinese), Kim and Prideaux (2005:352-353) observed that Chinese tourists are more likely to be motivated by *escape* than are the other three groups. The findings of the current research support the claim by Pearce (2005:79) and other researchers as mentioned, that escape is one of the most common and important factors in travel motivation.

Differing from the above two push-oriented travel motivation dimensions, the *aesthetics and appreciation* dimension resulting from the current research is deemed to be pull-oriented, capturing potential Chinese tourists' enthusiasm and appreciation for the natural and man-made beauty of South Africa. This dimension is somewhat similar to the "nature-based activities" factor identified by Yun and Joppe (2011:459-489), who argued that Chinese tourists consider experiencing nature-based activities as one of the most important motives for taking a long-haul holiday trip. From the perspective of culture, Chinese people tend to be restrained rather than indulgent, which makes them expect quiet, passive activities (e.g. viewing scenery) rather than strenuous physical exertion (e.g. outdoor sports). It is believed that Chinese people can

experience true inner peace, harmony, and tranquillity and develop a better understanding of the meaning of life by appreciating nature's beauty (Li 2009:231).

In summary, the current research sheds light on understanding what factors may motivate potential Chinese tourists to visit South Africa. These factors include *learning*, *escape*, and *aesthetics and appreciation*. An important practical implication of this study is that destination marketers should take these motivational factors into account when developing tourism offerings and formulating marketing strategies for the Chinese outbound tourism market. For instance, to attract more Chinese tourists to South Africa, destination marketers may consider launching advertising campaigns via marketing distribution channels or public media sources, emphasising the benefits of increasing knowledge, relieving stress, and enjoying the high environmental quality of South Africa.

7.3.2 Travel constraints

While travel motivation is more influential at the early stage of the destination choice decision making process, travel constraints are more influential at the later stage of the process. Thus, a second important objective of the present study was to investigate potential Chinese tourists' perceived constraints to visiting South Africa. Both secondary and primary research was conducted to address this objective.

The secondary research found that the concept of travel constraints is rooted in the leisure constraints literature. The outcomes of leisure constraints can be classified into four groups: inability to maintain participation at, or increase it to, desired levels; ceasing participation in former activities; non-use of public leisure services; and insufficient enjoyment of current activities. Major leisure

constraints theoretical frameworks include the 1987 dimensional model, the 1991 hierarchical model, and the 1993 negotiable model. The dimensional model, in particular, postulates that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints are three distinct categories of leisure constraints.

A limited number of studies have examined Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints, either destination-specific or non-destination-specific. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there has been *no* research that systematically probes into the factors preventing Chinese tourists from visiting South Africa published in the mainstream tourism literature. Thus, the current research contributes to the extant literature by becoming one of the first attempts to investigate potential Chinese travellers' perceived constraints to visiting South Africa.

The primary research involved constructing a context-specific constraint scale by following the procedure for measurement scale development suggested by Churchill (1979:64-73). The final questionnaire contained a 22-item constraint scale. According to descriptive analysis, potential Chinese travellers generally agreed that most of these items would constrain their travel to South Africa. Language, fear of crime, and lack of travel companions were the top barriers to visiting South Africa. Factor analysis reduced the original 22 items to 16. Three dimensions emerged as underlying factors preventing potential Chinese travellers from visiting South Africa, that is, *operational constraints* (eight items), *risk and fear constraints* (five items), and *social constraints* (three items). Since these constraint dimensions showed adequate internal consistency, the final 16-item scale was deemed to be reliable.

The dimension of *operational constraints* embodies potential Chinese tourists' perceived barriers associated with the practicalities of visiting South Africa. These mainly involve distance, time, money, language, information, and travel

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documents. First of all, travelling to South Africa as a long-haul destination often means a substantial commitment in terms of time and money on the part of Chinese tourists. Thus, a high-quality trip worth the time and money spent would be expected (Hua & Yoo 2011:372). Secondly, since Chinese tourists are generally inexperienced in outbound tourism, they lack confidence in travelling to a destination where Chinese is not a widely spoken language. Many people feel insecure during their stay at the destination because of the communication barrier, which may further affect their destination experience (Li, Zhang et al 2011:640). Thirdly, there seems to be a lack of confidence in the truthfulness of information from official media and from commercial sources in the Chinese society – both are simply seen as "propaganda". Chinese tourists rely heavily on information from social sources (e.g. relatives, friends, and opinion leaders) when choosing a destination (Arlt 2006:120-121). Given the fact that outbound travel to South Africa is only a recent phenomenon in China, information from social sources is not readily available. Finally, in terms of travel documents, while the passport restriction policy has been relaxed since the end of the 1990s (Yun & Joppe 2011:460), obtaining a tourism visa to an overseas destination (except for some neighbouring countries/regions) still remains difficult. Destination countries/regions are cautious in issuing tourism visas to Chinese nationals mainly because of the concern about illegal stay for employment (Li, Zhang et al 2011:640).

Risk and fear constraints reflect potential Chinese tourists' perceived risk and fear of travelling to South Africa in terms of crime and health risks. In recent years, South Africa has gained a reputation as a dangerous place to visit due to high levels of crime, particularly violent crime (e.g. murder, attempted murder, serious assault, and rape). This has led to the country being labelled the crime capital of the world (George 2008:48). South Africa has also been plagued by various public health problems, particularly HIV/AIDS. According to the World Health Organisation (2013:1), throughout 2011, South Africa's

HIV prevalence rate per 100,000 of the population was 11,087 – more than four times that of the regional average (2,725) and more than 22 times that of the global average (499). Nieman, Visser, and Van Wyk (2008:293) maintain that "perceptions of HIV/AIDS and the lack of safety and security in South Africa could have a negative influence on tourism in South Africa". The present study confirms SAT's (2010a:66) indications that health and safety concerns are among the primary reasons for keeping Chinese tourists from visiting South Africa.

The dimension of *social constraints* characterises potential Chinese tourists' perceived barriers in their interaction with others (e.g. relatives and friends) about visiting South Africa. Chinese culture is built on the basis of collectivism. Typically, Chinese tourists are "we" oriented, emphasise belongingness and relationships, value others' opinions, and prefer group travel patterns (Meng 2010:344). However, recent research by Liang and Walker (2011:221) suggests that *younger* Chinese tourists may have become less collectivistic, since 1985 with the implementation of nine-year compulsory education, and the influence of Western culture as a result of reform and an open policy since 1979. Sparks and Pan (2009:493) point out that there is a trend for China's younger generation to look for more autonomy during their travel, that is, wanting more free time to explore the destination rather than travelling with a well-defined itinerary.

The current research sheds light on understanding what factors may constrain potential Chinese travellers from visiting South Africa. These factors include *operational constraints, risk and fear constraints*, and *social constraints*. This finding has several practical implications for destination marketers. First, there is no doubt that travelling to South Africa for a holiday is an expensive activity for most Chinese tourists. Destination marketers are able to influence travel propensity (see Section 3.3.1 of Chapter 3 for a definition) "by increasing the

perceived value of the destination, or by reducing the influence of price" (Li, Zhang et al 2011:641). Price promotion seems particularly feasible: research has found that Chinese tourists are always looking for price cuts even when their purchasing power is sufficient (Yu & Weiler 2001:87).

Second, Chinese-English bilingual tour guides should be hired to assist Chinese travellers during their visits to South Africa to cope with the language barrier. Since tour guides play the role of temporary authority, high demands are made regarding their knowledge and problem-solving skills (Arlt 2006:105). Thus, destination marketers should emphasise the availability of professional tour guides when marketing to Chinese tourists.

Third, destination marketers should bear in mind that a major reason for the concentration of China's outbound tourism on a limited number of destinations is the lack of reliable information sources. Recommendations by relatives and friends based on past travel experience are found to be the most influential source of information for the choice of destination (Arlt 2006:121). Therefore, destination marketers should find ways to encourage positive word-of-mouth (e.g. delivering a memorable destination experience) and discourage negative word-of-mouth (e.g. improving customer complaints handling processes).

Last, although South Africa's tourism industry cannot be held responsible for the occurrence of crime, George (2010:814) insists that "management should continue to prepare itself for the occurrence of such incidents through crisis planning, and collaboration between stakeholders, citizens and visitors". For destination marketers, safety assurance is recommended when marketing to Chinese travellers. Given the fact that China's media tends to focus on the bad news from a foreign country and ignore the good news that may enhance this country's image, destination marketers may consider launching a media

relations campaign in China. Marketers should ensure that the facts about South Africa are communicated without distortion.

7.3.3   The extended TPB model

Since understanding travellers' destination choice decisions requires an understanding of both facilitating and inhibiting factors impacting these decisions, the current research extended the original TPB model by incorporating the constructs of travel motivation and travel constraints to explicitly predict potential Chinese tourists' intentions to visit South Africa. The extended model was empirically evaluated for its predictive power and for the relative contribution of each predictor variable.

The theoretical study revealed that as an extension of the TRA, the TPB has five basic components – behaviour, intention, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. Intention is the most immediate and important determinant of behaviour. In general, the stronger the intention to engage in a particular behaviour, the more likely should be its performance. Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control are three direct predictors of intention, and their relative importance in predicting intention varies depending on the behaviour or the population under investigation. As a general rule, consumers' intentions to engage in a particular behaviour should be strong when their attitudes and subjective norms support the behaviour and their perceptions of control over the performance of the behaviour are high. The TPB is a parsimonious model but open to the inclusion of additional predictors if there is evidence that they may explain a significant share of the variance in intention and behaviour after the basic predictors have been taken into account.

The theoretical study also found that only a few studies have used the TPB as a theoretical framework to investigate the decision making process leading to

the choice of a travel destination. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, *no* research has taken the five predictor variables of motivation, constraints, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control into account simultaneously when predicting tourists' intentions to visit a travel destination. Thus, by filling this research gap, the present study makes a significant contribution to both theory and practice.

In the empirical study, unlike those of travel motivation and travel constraints, the scales for measuring attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention were adapted from previous studies. The final questionnaire included a 6-item attitude scale, 3-item subjective-norm scale, 3-item perceived-control scale, and 5-item visit-intention scale. Descriptive analysis suggested that potential Chinese tourists commonly held a favourable attitude towards visiting South Africa; felt greater social pressure from important others to visit South Africa; held higher perceived control over visiting South Africa; and had a positive intention to visit South Africa. Regression analysis was used to compare three competing models – the TRA, TPB, and proposed extended TPB. Results showed that although both TRA and TPB models were useful for predicting Chinese tourists' intentions, the extended TPB model represented a significant improvement over the former ones. Thus, it can be concluded that the extended TPB model advanced the understanding of potential Chinese tourists' decision making processes when choosing South Africa as a leisure travel destination. Figure 7.1 summarises the parameters of the extended TPB model (also referred to as the empirical model of this study).
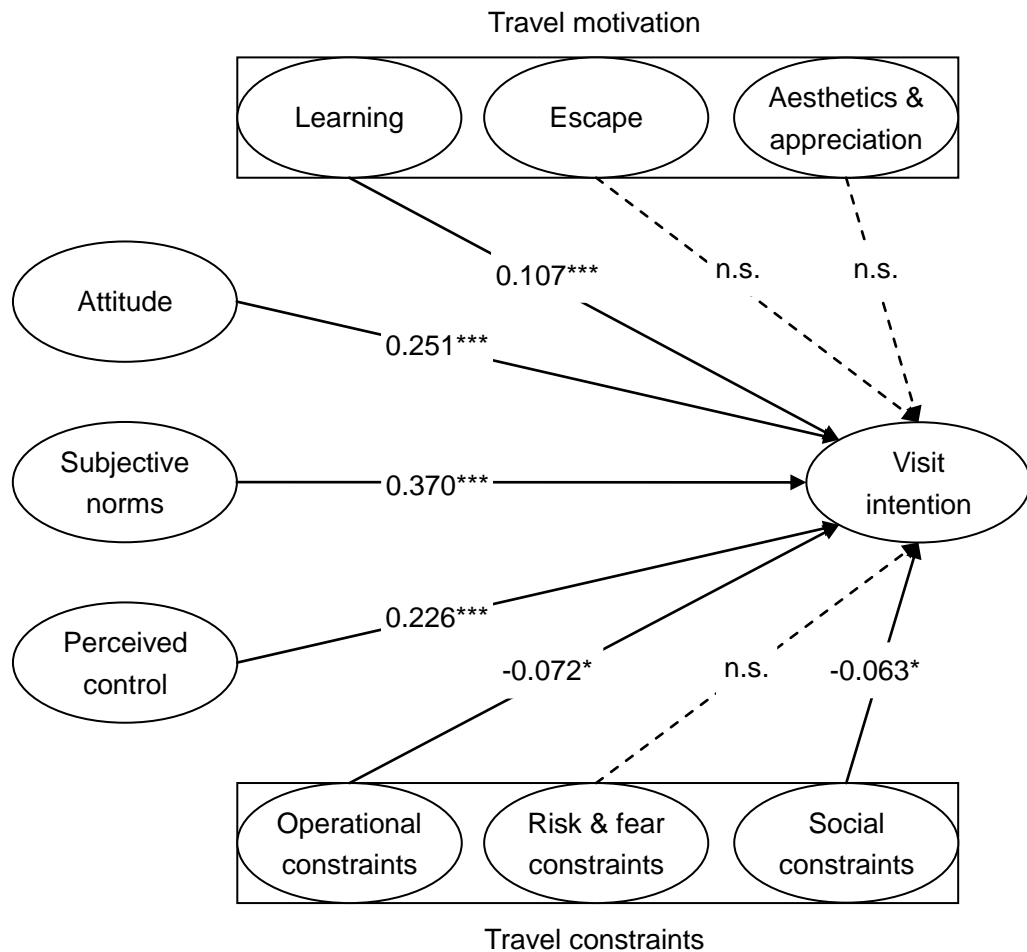
Travel motivation

Note: n.s.=not significant; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Source: Own construction

The empirical study also involved testing hypothesised relationships between the predictor variables (i.e. attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints) and the outcome variable (i.e. visit intention) that constituted the extended TPB model. Table 7.1 provides a summary of the outcomes of these hypotheses. The three basic predictors, namely, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control, *all* had a significant positive influence on visit intention. This result is consistent with those of two previous studies on Chinese outbound travellers (Han et al 2011:45-74; Hsu &

Huang 2012:390-417) visiting South Korea and Hong Kong, respectively. Subjective norms were found to have the greatest influence on visit intention, not only among the basic predictors but among all the predictors. Hsu and Huang (2012:409) argue that the critical contribution of subjective norms to explaining visit intention could be attributed to the Chinese culture of collectivism. People in a collectivistic culture tend to be more subject to social norm influences than those in an individualistic culture.

TABLE 7.1: SUMMARY OF THE OUTCOMES OF HYPOTHESES

HYPOTHESIS	OUTCOME
H1: Attitude has a positive influence on visit intention	Supported
H2: Subjective norms have a positive influence on visit intention	Supported
H3: Perceived control has a positive influence on visit intention	Supported
H4: Travel motivation has a positive influence on visit intention	Partially supported
H5: Travel constraints have a negative influence on visit intention	Partially supported

Source: Own construction

In terms of travel motivation, only one of its three dimensions – *learning* – had a significant (positive) influence on visit intention, while the effects of *escape* and *aesthetics and appreciation* were not significant. This finding is in line with those of Huang and Hsu (2009:29-44) and Li and Cai (2012:473-487). The former study identifies four factors that motivate Chinese tourists to revisit Hong Kong – novelty, knowledge, relaxation, and shopping. However, only the shopping factor had a significant (positive) impact on revisit intention. The latter study recognises five non-destination-specific motivation dimensions associated with Chinese outbound tourists – novelty and knowledge, prestigious and luxury experience, self-development, exciting experience, and escape and relationship. However, only the novelty and knowledge dimension had a significant (positive) impact on behavioural intention. In conclusion, the current research suggests that potential Chinese tourists motivated by the desire to learn are likely to visit South Africa. It reaffirms previous findings that

not all of the motivation dimensions acknowledged in the context of Chinese outbound travel have a significant relationship with behavioural intention.

Concerning the travel constraint dimensions, both *operational constraints* and *social constraints* had a significant (negative) influence on visit intention, while the effect of *risk and fear constraints* was not significant. This result is in line with that of Huang and Hsu (2009:29-44), who identify three constraint factors in the context of Chinese tourists revisiting Hong Kong – structural constraints, interpersonal constraints, and disinterest. However, only the disinterest factor had a significant (negative) impact on revisit intention. Huang and Hsu adopt the concept of constraints negotiation (discussed in Section 5.4.2 of Chapter 5) to interpret their findings, arguing that since the informants had visited Hong Kong before, the structural and interpersonal constraints "should have been well negotiated during the decision-making process of the previous visits". This concept may also be used to elucidate the findings of the present study. Potential Chinese tourists could negotiate *risk and fear constraints* in a variety of ways, such as enhancing self-protection awareness and reducing the length of stay in South Africa. Thus, although this type of constraint could still be perceived during the decision making process, its effect on visit intention becomes non-significant. In conclusion, the current research advises that potential Chinese tourists perceiving considerable operational or social constraints are unlikely to visit South Africa. It reinforces previous findings that not all of the constraint dimensions recognised in the context of Chinese outbound tourism have a significant relationship with behavioural intention.

The extended TPB model provides several important practical implications for destination marketers. Since potential Chinese travellers' intentions to visit South Africa are highly influenced by their reference groups, marketers should develop advertising and promotional strategies that associate tourism offerings with relevant reference groups, particularly the aspirational

reference group (a group whom people admire and desire to be like) (Hoyer & MacInnis 2010:393). In addition, Chinese opinion leaders, celebrities, and photographers could be invited to visit South Africa and then disseminate their travel stories and photos via various media.

Secondly, attracting Chinese residents who have not yet visited South Africa requires improving their perceptions of South Africa as a tourism destination. George (2008:416) emphasises that "changing consumers' perceptions of a destination is a long journey for the brand". This could be achieved through various marketing activities, such as advertising. By advertising the benefits of touring South Africa, destination marketers would improve potential Chinese travellers' perceptions of destination image and subsequently improve their attitudes towards visiting the country. SAT (2014:¶1-¶10), for instance, cites ten key reasons (benefits) for visiting South Africa – affordability, natural beauty, world-class facilities, adventure, good weather, rainbow nation, diverse experiences, wildlife, freedom struggle, and responsible tourism.

Thirdly, destination marketers should develop specially tailored package tours for the Chinese market to help potential tourists. Previous research has documented that most Chinese tourists prefer weeklong or shorter package tours due to the unique annual leave and public holiday policy in China (Sparks & Pan 2009:493). Therefore, creating tourism experiences that can be taken in a week or shorter might entice Chinese residents to visit South Africa. In addition, marketing communication directed at potential Chinese tourists should stress that visiting South Africa is easy (e.g. there are already non-stop flights between Johannesburg and Beijing), 'hassle'-free (e.g. all-inclusive package tours are available to purchase), and within their own control (e.g. package tours are cost-effective and affordable).

Lastly, in addition to developing and implementing marketing campaigns, destination marketers need to make an effort to convince other destination stakeholders (e.g. government and businesses) to take action to attract and retain Chinese tourists. George (2008:403) maintains that tourists would have a much more satisfying holiday experience if they feel welcomed by local residents and receive good service. Hence, local government should prepare the public to be good hosts by educating them about Chinese culture and tourist characteristics, and tourism businesses should invest in training their employees to improve the quality of service.

7.3.4   The role of background factors

While the most important contribution of this study is probably the development and testing of the extended TPB model specifically for the prediction of potential Chinese tourists' intentions to visit South Africa, this study also examined the effects of background factors (demographic and travel-related characteristics) on each variable in the model.

The literature review revealed that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control are functions of underlying behavioural, normative, and control beliefs, respectively. These beliefs can vary as a function of numerous background factors. In other words, background factors may indirectly influence intention and behaviour through their influence on behavioural, normative, and control beliefs, and through these beliefs have an influence on attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control (see Figure 4.5 of Chapter 4 for a diagrammatic explanation). However, it is important to recognise that there is no necessary connection between background factors and beliefs and that whether a given belief is affected by a particular background factor is an empirical question.

During the empirical investigation, each variable in the extended TPB model was examined in relation to the background factors of gender, age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, travel mode, and city of residence. Table 7.2 provides a summary of the ANOVA results. This study found significant differences in the variable of:

- *visit intention* among potential Chinese tourists of different ages, education levels, household structures, household incomes, and travel frequencies;

- *attitude* among potential Chinese tourists of different genders, ages, education levels, household structures, household incomes, and travel frequencies;

- *subjective norms* among potential Chinese tourists of different genders, ages, education levels, household structures, household incomes, travel frequencies, and travel modes;

- *perceived control* among potential Chinese tourists of different genders, ages, household structures, household incomes, and travel frequencies;

- *learning* among potential Chinese tourists of different ages, household incomes, and travel frequencies;

- *escape* among potential Chinese tourists of different ages and travel frequencies;

- *aesthetics and appreciation* among potential Chinese tourists of different ages, household structures, and travel frequencies;

- *operational constraints* among potential Chinese tourists of different genders, ages, education levels, household structures, household incomes, travel frequencies, and cities of residence;

- *risk and fear constraints* among potential Chinese tourists of different education levels and travel frequencies; and

- *social constraints* among potential Chinese tourists of different ages, education levels, household structures, household incomes, and travel frequencies.

TABLE 7.2: SUMMARY OF THE EFFECTS OF BACKGROUND FACTORS ON RESEARCH VARIABLES

VARIABLE	GENDER	AGE	EDUCATION	HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE	HOUSEHOLD INCOME	TRAVEL FREQUENCY	TRAVEL MODE	CITY OF RESIDENCE
Visit intention	n.s.	***	***	***	***	***	n.s.	n.s.
Attitude	*	***	**	*	***	***	n.s.	n.s.
Subjective norms	**	***	***	***	***	***	**	n.s.
Perceived control	**	***	n.s.	***	***	***	n.s.	n.s.
Learning	n.s.	**	n.s.	n.s.	***	***	n.s.	n.s.
Escape	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	**	n.s.	n.s.
Aesthetics & appreciation	n.s.	**	n.s.	*	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.
Operational constraints	*	***	***	***	***	***	n.s.	**
Risk & fear constraints	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.
Social constraints	n.s.	***	**	***	***	***	n.s.	n.s.

Note: n.s.=not significant; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Source: Own construction

The background factor of *travel frequency* (the number of outbound holidays over the past five years) exerted the most influence over the model, with all ten variables differing significantly among four frequency intervals (none, one or two, three or four, and five or more times). In the current context, it was inappropriate to add the variable of *past behaviour* (the number of visits to South Africa over the past five years) to the model as a possible predictor of visit intention, in light of the nature of the sample (i.e. *potential* tourists) and the principle of compatibility (discussed in Section 4.6 of Chapter 4). However, to some extent travel frequency could be considered as a synonym for past behaviour, since they share the notion that "people tend to maintain behavioral persistency and value consistency" (Lam & Hsu 2006:592). Therefore, the findings from the current research suggest that past behaviour be incorporated into the TPB model when predicting the *revisit* intentions of Chinese residents who have visited South Africa.

Age as another background factor exerted the second-most influence over the model; nine out of ten variables (except for *risk and fear constraints*) differed significantly among four age groups (18-24, 25-34, 35-44, and ≥45). Between 2003 and 2008, two-thirds of Chinese tourists visiting South Africa were 25-44 years old (SAT 2010a:44). Three-quarters of participants in the current survey belonged to this age range. Chinese travellers aged 25-44 made up 65% of the Chinese outbound travel market in 2012, showing a substantial increase since 2007 when this age range accounted for around half of the market (European Travel Commission & World Tourism Organisation 2013:xiii). Contrary to most Western countries in which wealth is concentrated among those aged 45-54, China's wealthiest consumers are typically 25-44 years old (Hsu & Huang 2012:411; Li 2007:2). This is largely due to the fact that higher-paying positions in China's job market often require a higher level of education and training than the levels older generations have received (Jian 2011: ¶4). Given these theoretical and empirical findings, the present study calls for more focused market research to help destination marketers better comprehend the characteristics of Chinese outbound tourists in the age range of 25-44 years and communicate with them more effectively.

7.3.5   Market segmentation

With over one-fifth of the world's entire population, China is now recognised as the market with the greatest buying potential in the global tourism industry. However, most previous research has treated this market as a homogeneous one (Li, Zhang et al 2011:641). The significant impact of background factors on research variables (as highlighted in the previous section) indicates that the market of potential Chinese travellers to South Africa cannot be treated homogeneously, and that diversification should be taken into account when developing and marketing tourism offerings to Chinese tourists. Towards this end, the present study conducted market segmentation based on both travel

motivation and travel constraints. As such, this study made an important contribution to the literature as it was among the first to deconstruct a tourist source market by simultaneously considering the factors that drive tourists to and prohibit them from visiting a specific destination.

A review of the literature showed that market segmentation bases could be classified as either general or specific, observable or unobservable. Overall, unobservable specific bases are most effective, while unobservable general bases are least effective. Market segmentation methods could be categorised as either apriori or posteriori. Researchers adopting an apriori approach determine the number of segments in advance based on their prior knowledge of the market, while researchers adopting a posteriori approach rely on an algorithm or model to gain insight into the market structure.

The empirical investigation in the current study involved segmenting potential Chinese tourists to South Africa based on two unobservable specific bases – travel motivation and travel constraints – following the posteriori approach. First, the combination of hierarchical and non-hierarchical cluster analyses enabled the researcher to identify two cluster groups as distinct segments, namely, High-Motivation/Low-Constraint (HMLC) tourists and Low-Motivation/ High-Constraint (LMHC) tourists. Subsequently, a discriminant analysis was performed to evaluate the accuracy and stability of the cluster solution. It was found that 96.3% of the original grouped cases were correctly classified, which represented a very high level of accuracy; 95.9% of the cross-validated grouped cases were correctly classified, which represented a very high level of stability. By using the cross-tabulation analysis and ANOVA, two resulting segments were profiled with six demographic and travel-related variables (i.e. age, education, household structure, household income, travel frequency, and city of residence) and four TPB constructs (i.e. attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, and visit intention), as summarised in Table 7.3.

TABLE 7.3: SUMMARY OF CLUSTER PROFILE

VARIABLE	CLUSTER Ⅰ (n=256) HMLC	CLUSTER Ⅱ (n=374) LMHC
Background factors		
Age		
18-24	Less	More
25-44	More	Less
≥45	Less	More
Education		
Diploma or lower	Less	More
Bachelor's degree or higher	More	Less
Household structure		
Single	Less	More
Married	More	Less
Household income		
≤¥10,000	Less	More
>¥10,000	More	Less
Travel frequency		
None	Less	More
One or more	More	Less
City of residence		
Beijing	Less	More
Shanghai	More	Less
Guangzhou	Less	More
TPB constructs		
Attitude	More favourable	Less favourable
Subjective norms	More favourable	Less favourable
Perceived control	Higher	Lower
Visit intention	Stronger	Weaker

Source: Own construction

The HMLC tourists were *comparatively* more likely to be married and 25-44 years old, have a four-year bachelor's degree or higher, a monthly household income of more than ¥10,000, have taken one or more holidays abroad over the past five years, and reside in the city of Shanghai. This segment was also characterised by *relatively* more favourable attitudes and subjective norms, higher perceived control, and stronger visit intention. On the other hand, the LMHC tourists were *comparatively* more likely to be single and either 18-24 or

45 years and older, have a three-year diploma or lower, a monthly household income of ¥10,000 or less, have not taken holidays abroad over the past five years, and reside in the city of either Beijing or Guangzhou. In addition, this segment was characterised by *relatively* less favourable attitudes and subjective norms, lower perceived control, and weaker visit intention.

Overall, this study demonstrated that potential Chinese visitors to South Africa could be effectively segmented according to both travel motivation and travel constraints. In addition to obtaining an in-depth understanding of the Chinese market and identifying specific target segment(s), the findings from this study can help South Africa's destination marketers develop and promote holiday packages, as discussed below.

Since the HMLC tourists appear to be strongly motivated by the opportunities to learn new things, get away from routine environment and stress, and appreciate the beauty of nature, destination marketers are advised to appeal to this segment by offering holiday packages that incorporate important activities related to cultural tourism (e.g. visiting the Soweto Township and Robben Island Museum), rest and relaxation (e.g. gambling, shopping, and wine tasting), and nature-based tourism (e.g. visiting the Kruger National Park and Table Mountain National Park). Given the demographic and travel-related characteristics, this group of potential tourists could be effectively reached via the Internet, particularly the social media. Marketers should, however, take note that while Facebook and Twitter are the most popular social networking sites in the West and in other Asian countries/regions, there is no access to these sites in Mainland China. Leading Chinese social-media sites include Qzone, Sina Weibo, Tencent Weibo, Renren, and Kaixin (Chiu, Lin & Silverman 2012:3). Marketers should make use of these local sites to promote holiday packages and encourage positive *electronic* word-of-mouth, which is

critical in increasing potential tourists' travel intentions, creating a favourable destination image, and reducing advertising expenditure.

It goes without saying that the LMHC segment is less desirable and saleable than the HMLC segment. Therefore, to attract and serve the LMHC tourists, destination marketers will have to devote more effort to developing and promoting holiday packages. Holiday packages directed at this segment should incorporate two aspects. The first aspect is to highlight the diversity of tourism activities offered, which could include those suggested for the HMLC tourists. The second aspect is to address the concerns of potential tourists about travelling to South Africa (e.g. safety, distance, and language) by offering value-added products/services (e.g. travel insurance, direct flights, and experienced bilingual tour guides). Taking into account the LMHC tourists' demographic and travel-related characteristics, destination marketers could effectively reach this segment by cooperating with local travel agencies. Face-to-face consultations and personalised suggestions from travel agencies will help reduce potential travellers' perceived constraints to visiting South Africa and hence increase their intentions to visit. For first-time outbound travellers and people who are less well-connected, in particular, the recommendations made by travel agents are still a major source of information. Furthermore, for those tourists who are very price-sensitive, travel agents and destination marketers may consider offering monetary incentives in the form of family packages, low-season packages, and referral discounts.

7.4   LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As is expected in all research, the present study has several limitations, which provide opportunities for future investigations. The first limitation is associated with the survey methodology. Since the sampling frame was a hired market

research company's online panel, which is characterised by those who have registered with the company and have Internet connection and computer skills, the sample was not necessarily representative of the target population. Thus, caution should be exercised when generalising the findings from the sample. Future studies may collect primary data via traditional survey methods (e.g. face-to-face, telephone, or mail) to verify whether the findings of this study are consistent across different data collection methods.

Second, this study developed two multidimensional scales for measuring the constructs of travel motivation and travel constraints, which were treated as predictors of visit intention in the extended TPB model. It is possible that potential dimensions were not identified in the final questionnaire and the items included were not exhaustive of the dimensions identified. Thus, future research is needed to explore the potential addition of different dimensions and also different items. Furthermore, the five predictor variables of attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, travel motivation, and travel constraints jointly explained 60.1% of the variance in visit intention, indicating that other variables not included in the model may also contribute to the prediction of visit intention. Therefore, it is recommended that future research examines the effects of the addition of other predictor variables on the model, such as perceived value.

Lastly, the dependent variable used in this study was visit intention rather than actual behaviour itself, notwithstanding that behavioural intention is deemed the most important immediate antecedent of actual behaviour. Since the present study used a five-year time frame (i.e. within the next five years) for measuring research variables including visit intention, a five-year longitudinal study could be conducted to collect information on actual visit behaviour and then assess the predictive power of the extended TPB model with actual behaviour.

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ANNEXURE A:

THE POST-PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE AND COVER LETTER

(ENGLISH VERSION)

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

for tomorrow

Second Avenue Campus
Department of Marketing Management
Tel. +27 (0)41 5043818 Fax. +27 (0)41 5043744

OPINIONS OF POTENTIAL CHINESE TRAVELLERS REGARDING SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Respondent,

Have you considered travelling to South Africa within the next five years for a holiday? If so, you are invited to participate in an online survey. Will you kindly share your opinions with us on South Africa as an outbound leisure travel destination? This research project, conducted by a doctoral student at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU), aims at providing South African destination marketers with specific ideas on attracting and serving potential tourists from China. Your input will be highly valued and much appreciated!

There are four sections in this questionnaire. Please read the instructions carefully before answering. The online survey takes approximate 20-30 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary and anonymous – you may withdraw at any time and your name and address are not required. All your answers will be kept strictly confidential and will only be reflected as part of total figures which will be used only for research purposes. This research project has been approved by the institutional Research Ethics Committee at the NMMU to ensure that your rights as a research subject are fully protected. Any queries about this survey can be directed to either the researcher or the promoter.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Yours sincerely,

Mr. Xiliang Han   Prof. Laetitia Radder
Researcher   Promoter
Email: s20309634@live.nmmu.ac.za   Email: Laetitia.Radder@nmmu.ac.za

I have read the above information and I understand it. I hereby voluntarily consent to participate in this survey.

In this section, a range of possible reasons to visit South Africa are listed. Please think carefully about each statement, and indicate the degree of your agreement/disagreement by circling the appropriate number following the statement. Please use a scale where 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
If I were to visit South Africa within the next five years, I would like to …					
1.1 experience a different culture	1	2	3	4	5
1.2 experience a different lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5
1.3 see something different	1	2	3	4	5
1.4 increase my knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
1.5 broaden my personal horizon	1	2	3	4	5
1.6 fulfil my curiosity about the African continent	1	2	3	4	5
1.7 fulfil my dream of having been to the Cape of Good Hope (the southern tip of Africa)	1	2	3	4	5
1.8 visit local historical and cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
1.9 taste local cuisine	1	2	3	4	5
1.10 escape from the routine of my daily life	1	2	3	4	5
1.11 escape from work or study pressure	1	2	3	4	5
1.12 rest and relax	1	2	3	4	5
1.13 find thrills, excitement, and adventure	1	2	3	4	5
1.14 go sightseeing	1	2	3	4	5
1.15 view beautiful beaches	1	2	3	4	5
1.16 view beautiful natural scenery	1	2	3	4	5
1.17 observe wildlife in their natural habitats	1	2	3	4	5
1.18 get closer to nature	1	2	3	4	5
1.19 appreciate clean air and an unpolluted environment	1	2	3	4	5
1.20 enjoy happy times with relatives/friends who travel together	1	2	3	4	5

In this section, a range of possible barriers to visiting South Africa are listed. Please think carefully about each statement, and indicate the degree of your agreement/disagreement by circling the appropriate number following the statement. Please use a scale where 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I would not visit South Africa within the next five years because …					
2.1 travelling to South Africa may risk my personal safety	1	2	3	4	5
2.2 travelling to South Africa may risk my personal health	1	2	3	4	5
2.3 South Africa has high crime rates	1	2	3	4	5
2.4 South Africa has high HIV/AIDS infection rates	1	2	3	4	5
2.5 there are warnings about South Africa in the local media that keep me from travelling	1	2	3	4	5
2.6 relatives/friends do not approve of my visiting South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2.7 it is difficult to find travel companions to visit South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2.8 the people around me have no interest in visiting South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2.9 the people around me do not have enough time to travel with me	1	2	3	4	5
2.10 the people around me do not have enough money to travel with me	1	2	3	4	5
2.11 I do not have enough time to travel	1	2	3	4	5
2.12 I have too many other obligations that keep me from travelling	1	2	3	4	5
2.13 organising a trip to such a destination is too complicated and troublesome	1	2	3	4	5
2.14 it is difficult to obtain a tourist visa for South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2.15 South Africa is very far away from China	1	2	3	4	5
2.16 travelling to South Africa for a holiday is too expensive	1	2	3	4	5
2.17 there is a lack of reliable information about tourism in South Africa that keeps me from travelling	1	2	3	4	5
2.18 the language is a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5
2.19 physical circumstances deter me from travelling	1	2	3	4	5
2.20 I have limited knowledge about South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2.21 I am not interested in visiting South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2.22 I prefer to visit other countries first	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III

This section asks for your general thoughts about South Africa as a possible destination for a holiday abroad. Please think carefully about each statement, and indicate the degree of your agreement/disagreement by circling the appropriate number following the statement. Please use a scale where 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I feel that visiting South Africa within the next five years would be … *(applicable to statements 3.1-3.6)*					
3.1 interesting	1	2	3	4	5
3.2 valuable	1	2	3	4	5
3.3 desirable	1	2	3	4	5
3.4 pleasant	1	2	3	4	5
3.5 enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5
3.6 memorable	1	2	3	4	5
3.7 Most people who are important to me think that I should visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.8 The people whose opinions I value would approve of my visiting South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.9 The people I respect and admire are likely to visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.10 Whether I visit South Africa within the next five years is entirely up to me.	1	2	3	4	5
3.11 I am confident that I can easily visit South Africa within the next five years if I want to.	1	2	3	4	5
3.12 I have complete control over visiting South Africa within the next five years if I want to.	1	2	3	4	5
3.13 I would like to visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.14 I probably will visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.15 I plan to visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.16 I will make an effort to visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5
3.17 I definitely will visit South Africa within the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION Ⅳ

This section asks for your biographic information, which will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will never be made available to third parties. Please check (√) the box in front of the appropriate answer.

4.1 What is your gender?

☐ Male ☐ Female

4.2 What is your age group?

☐ 18-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45 or older

4.3 Which of the following best describes your highest completed education?

☐ Secondary school ☐ Diploma

☐ Bachelor's degree ☐ Master's or doctoral degree

4.4 Which of the following best describes your current household structure?

☐ Single ☐ Married, no children

☐ Married, dependent children ☐ Married, grown-up children

4.5 What is your monthly household income? (after taxes, in Chinese currency)

☐ ¥5,000 or less ☐ ¥5,001 – ¥10,000 ☐ ¥10,001 – ¥15,000

☐ ¥15,001 – ¥20,000 ☐ ¥20,001 and more

4.6 How many outbound holidays have you taken over the past five years?

☐ None ☐ One or two ☐ Three or four ☐ Five or more

4.7 What is your preferred mode of travel for an outbound holiday?

☐ Full-package tour ☐ Semi-package tour ☐ Independent tour

4.8 Which city do you live in?

☐ Beijing ☐ Shanghai ☐Guangzhou

-The end-

Thank you very much for your participation!

ANNEXURE B:

THE POST-PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE AND COVER LETTER

(CHINESE VERSION)

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

for tomorrow

Second Avenue Campus
Department of Marketing Management
Tel. +27 (0)41 5043818 Fax. +27 (0)41 5043744

关于中国居民赴南非旅游意向的调查

尊敬的受访者：

您考虑过在未来 5 年内前往南非度假么？我们邀请您参与一项网上调查，分享您对南非作为一个出境休闲旅行目的地的看法。本次调查由南非纳尔逊·曼德拉大学的一名博士生负责执行，旨在为南非旅游管理机构提供具体的建议，以便今后更好地吸引和服务中国游客。您的回答我们将高度重视并深表感谢！

本调查问卷由 4 个部分组成，填写需要 20-30 分钟左右，请您仔细阅读填写说明。您的参与完全是自愿的和匿名的 — 您可以在任何时间退出调查，您不需要填写姓名和联系方式等隐秘信息。您的回答我们会严格保密，只用于总体统计分析而不单独使用。本调查问卷经过了大学研究伦理委员会的审查，充分保障了受访者的权利。如果您有任何疑问，请与调查员或博士生导师联系。

非常感谢您的参与！

谨致问候，

Xiliang Han 先生   Laetitia Radder 教授
调查员   博士生导师
电子邮箱：s20309634@live.nmmu.ac.za   电子邮箱：Laetitia.Radder@nmmu.ac.za

声明：我已经阅读并理解了上述信息。我据此自愿同意参与本次调查。

第一部分

这一部分列出了您到南非旅游的各种可能原因。请认真思考每个题目，通过在题目后面适当的数字上画圈，来表明您同意或不同意的程度。1=完全不同意； 2=不同意；3=中立；4=同意；5=完全同意。

题目	完全不同意	不同意	中立	同意	完全同意
如果我在未来 5 年内访问南非， 我主要是想 …					
1.1 体验不同的文化	1	2	3	4	5
1.2 体验不同的生活方式	1	2	3	4	5
1.3 见识不同的事物	1	2	3	4	5
1.4 增长知识	1	2	3	4	5
1.5 开阔视野	1	2	3	4	5
1.6 满足对非洲大陆的好奇心	1	2	3	4	5
1.7 实现访问好望角（非洲最南端）的愿望	1	2	3	4	5
1.8 参观当地的历史文化景点	1	2	3	4	5
1.9 品尝当地的美食	1	2	3	4	5
1.10 摆脱日常生活中的繁琐事务	1	2	3	4	5
1.11 摆脱工作或学习的压力	1	2	3	4	5
1.12 休息和放松	1	2	3	4	5
1.13 寻找刺激，兴奋和冒险	1	2	3	4	5
1.14 游览观光	1	2	3	4	5
1.15 欣赏美丽的海滩	1	2	3	4	5
1.16 欣赏美丽的自然风光	1	2	3	4	5
1.17 观赏生活在自然栖息地的野生动物	1	2	3	4	5
1.18 亲近大自然	1	2	3	4	5
1.19 享受清新的空气和清洁的环境	1	2	3	4	5
1.20 同一起旅行的亲朋好友共享快乐时光	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分

这一部分列出了阻碍您到南非旅游的各种可能因素。请认真思考每个题目，通过在题目后面适当的数字上画圈，来表明您同意或不同意的程度。1=完全不同意； 2=不同意；3=中立；4=同意；5=完全同意。

题目	完全不同意	不同意	中立	同意	完全同意
阻碍我在未来 5 年内访问南非的主要因素是 …					
2.1 前往南非可能威胁到我的人身安全	1	2	3	4	5
2.2 前往南非可能威胁到我的个人健康	1	2	3	4	5
2.3 南非的犯罪率很高	1	2	3	4	5
2.4 南非的艾滋病感染率很高	1	2	3	4	5
2.5 媒体上出现的赴南非旅行警告，让我不敢前往	1	2	3	4	5
2.6 亲朋好友不赞成我去南非旅游	1	2	3	4	5
2.7 很难找到愿同往南非的旅行伙伴	1	2	3	4	5
2.8 身边的人对去南非旅游不感兴趣	1	2	3	4	5
2.9 身边的人没有足够的空闲时间一起旅行	1	2	3	4	5
2.10 身边的人没有足够的经济能力一起旅行	1	2	3	4	5
2.11 因为没有足够的空闲时间，我不能前往	1	2	3	4	5
2.12 因为有太多的事务要处理，我不能前往	1	2	3	4	5
2.13 筹划这样一个旅行过于复杂（怕麻烦）	1	2	3	4	5
2.14 很难获得南非旅游签证	1	2	3	4	5
2.15 南非距离中国太遥远	1	2	3	4	5
2.16 前往南非度假花费太高	1	2	3	4	5
2.17 缺乏可靠的南非旅游信息，让我无法前往	1	2	3	4	5
2.18 语言交流障碍	1	2	3	4	5
2.19 个人体质问题阻止我前往	1	2	3	4	5
2.20 我对南非了解有限	1	2	3	4	5
2.21 我对去南非旅游不感兴趣	1	2	3	4	5
2.22 我更想先去其它国家旅游	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分

这一部分询问了您对南非作为一个可能的出国度假目的地的总体看法。请认真思考每个题目，通过在题目后面适当的数字上画圈，来表明您同意或不同意的程度。1=完全不同意；2=不同意；3=中立；4=同意；5=完全同意。

题目	完全不同意	不同意	中立	同意	完全同意
我觉得在未来 5 年内访问南非将会是 ... *(适用于题目 3.1 至 3.6)*					
3.1 有趣的	1	2	3	4	5
3.2 有价值的	1	2	3	4	5
3.3 令人向往的	1	2	3	4	5
3.4 愉快的	1	2	3	4	5
3.5 享受的	1	2	3	4	5
3.6 令人难忘的	1	2	3	4	5
3.7 身边重要的人认为我应该在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.8 对我有影响的人会赞成我在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.9 令我尊敬和钦佩的人可能在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.10 是否在未来 5 年内访问南非完全取决于我自己。	1	2	3	4	5
3.11 如果我愿意在未来 5 年内访问南非，我可以轻松地完成这个访问。	1	2	3	4	5
3.12 如果我愿意在未来 5 年内访问南非，我完全有能力掌控这个访问。	1	2	3	4	5
3.13 我想要在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.14 我可能会在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.15 我计划在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.16 我会努力在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5
3.17 我肯定会在未来 5 年内访问南非。	1	2	3	4	5

第四部分

这一部分询问了您的一些个人信息,对此我们会严格保密,永远不会泄露给第三方。请您勾选出正确的答案。

4.1 您的性别？
☐ 男 ☐ 女

4.2 您的年龄段？
☐ 18-24 岁 ☐ 25-34 岁 ☐ 35-44 岁 ☐ 45 岁或以上

4.3 您的最高学历？
☐ 中学（初中或高中） ☐ 大专 ☐ 本科 ☐ 研究生（硕士或博士）

4.4 您的家庭结构？
☐ 单身 ☐ 已婚, 没有孩子 ☐ 已婚, 孩子未成年 ☐ 已婚, 孩子已成年

4.5 您的家庭月收入? (税后, 人民币)
☐ 5,000 元或以下 ☐ 5,001-10,000 元 ☐ 10,001-15,000 元
☐ 15,001-20,000 元 ☐ 20,001 元或以上

4.6 在过去的 5 年中，您出境旅游的次数？
☐ 没有 ☐ 1-2 次 ☐ 3-4 次 ☐ 5 次或以上

4.7 您出境旅游的首选旅行方式？
☐ 跟团游 ☐ 半跟团游, 半自助游 ☐ 自助游

4.8 您的居住城市？
☐ 北京 ☐ 上海 ☐ 广州

-问卷结束-
非常感谢您的参与！

ANNEXURE C:

THE ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

f o r   t o m o r r o w

Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee (Human)
Tel: +27 (0)41 504-2235

Ref: [H13-BES-MRK-007/Approval]

RECH Secretariat: Mrs U Spies

30 July 2013

Prof L Radder
Faculty of BES
Department of Marketing Management
2nd Avenue Campus

Dear Prof Radder

CHINESE TOURISTS' INTENTIONS TO VISIT SOUTH AFRICA: AN EXTENDED MODEL OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

PRP: Prof L Radder
PI: Mr X Han

Your above-entitled application for ethics approval served at the Research Ethics Committee (Human).

We take pleasure in informing you that the application was approved by the Committee.

The ethics clearance reference number is **H13-BES-MRK-007**, and is valid for three years. Please inform the REC-H, via your faculty representative, if any changes (particularly in the methodology) occur during this time. An annual affirmation to the effect that the protocols in use are still those for which approval was granted, will be required from you. You will be reminded timeously of this responsibility, and will receive the necessary documentation well in advance of any deadline.

We wish you well with the project. Please inform your co-investigators of the outcome, and convey our best wishes.

Yours sincerely

Prof CB Cilliers
Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee (Human)

cc: Department of Research Capacity Development
         Faculty Officer: BES

ANNEXURE D:

THE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLE

THE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLE

ITEM	FREQUENCY						DISTRIBUTION	
	1	2	3	4	5	Total	Skewness	Kurtosis
TM1	2	2	26	345	255	630	-0.776	2.334
TM2	2	8	84	378	158	630	-0.596	1.269
TM3	2	3	25	303	297	630	-1.007	2.465
TM4	2	5	54	348	221	630	-0.736	1.533
TM5	3	2	18	286	321	630	-1.265	3.851
TM6	2	8	79	269	272	630	-0.853	0.655
TM7	6	29	132	300	163	630	-0.669	0.427
TM8	3	4	48	342	233	630	-0.881	2.198
TM9	4	5	82	300	239	630	-0.856	1.269
TM10	17	109	203	247	54	630	-0.304	-0.425
TM11	11	90	173	273	83	630	-0.399	-0.372
TM12	2	4	36	329	259	630	-0.868	2.011
TM13	4	24	172	267	163	630	-0.402	-0.184
TM14	2	0	23	365	240	630	-0.594	2.325
TM15	4	23	112	280	211	630	-0.744	0.387
TM16	2	1	22	313	292	630	-0.887	2.383
TM17	2	4	62	309	253	630	-0.783	1.073
TM18	2	1	63	290	274	630	-0.780	0.863
TM19	2	7	89	319	213	630	-0.638	0.596
TM20	1	3	61	358	207	630	-0.486	0.692
TC1	16	95	234	243	42	630	-0.323	-0.194
TC2	32	183	232	155	28	630	0.071	-0.534
TC3	8	66	219	262	75	630	-0.290	-0.160
TC4	13	76	228	260	53	630	-0.366	-0.042
TC5	20	92	257	227	34	630	-0.337	-0.050
TC6	28	169	244	166	23	630	-0.019	-0.501
TC7	26	129	176	257	42	630	-0.369	-0.581
TC8	56	172	183	193	26	630	-0.126	-0.832
TC9	13	112	139	303	63	630	-0.500	-0.462
TC10	38	147	186	203	56	630	-0.151	-0.727
TC11	23	134	120	297	56	630	-0.481	-0.660
TC12	22	138	164	261	45	630	-0.333	-0.681
TC13	28	174	179	209	40	630	-0.079	-0.822
TC14	22	181	272	131	24	630	0.171	-0.257
TC15	24	156	181	219	50	630	-0.135	-0.770
TC16	30	117	183	234	66	630	-0.317	-0.554
TC17	18	102	167	281	62	630	-0.469	-0.350
TC18	19	102	119	306	84	630	-0.606	-0.319

| ITEM	FREQUENCY						DISTRIBUTION	
	1	2	3	4	5	Total	Skewness	Kurtosis
TC19	48	238	182	135	27	630	0.277	-0.636
TC20	11	98	190	300	31	630	-0.535	-0.251
TC21	98	337	153	35	7	630	0.655	0.702
TC22	16	93	280	201	40	630	-0.157	-0.040
ATT1	1	5	54	441	129	630	-0.455	2.273
ATT2	0	3	96	393	138	630	-0.158	0.002
ATT3	1	11	96	332	190	630	-0.545	0.317
ATT4	0	2	93	391	144	630	-0.129	-0.111
ATT5	0	9	125	370	126	630	-0.248	-0.009
ATT6	0	2	45	329	254	630	-0.427	-0.225
SN1	19	107	293	191	20	630	-0.245	-0.021
SN2	12	70	256	257	35	630	-0.387	0.154
SN3	16	72	300	203	39	630	-0.199	0.264
PBC1	5	52	100	346	127	630	-0.793	0.540
PBC2	6	53	177	306	88	630	-0.474	0.077
PBC3	6	41	163	328	92	630	-0.574	0.429
VI1	5	25	182	335	83	630	-0.486	0.639
VI2	3	26	150	378	73	630	-0.633	0.977
VI3	6	55	219	266	84	630	-0.264	-0.151
VI4	5	40	143	347	95	630	-0.654	0.596
VI5	26	115	294	149	46	630	0.003	-0.067

Note: 1. Five-point Likert-type scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree.

2. The standard error for skewness was 0.097, while the standard error for kurtosis was 0.194.

ANNEXURE E:
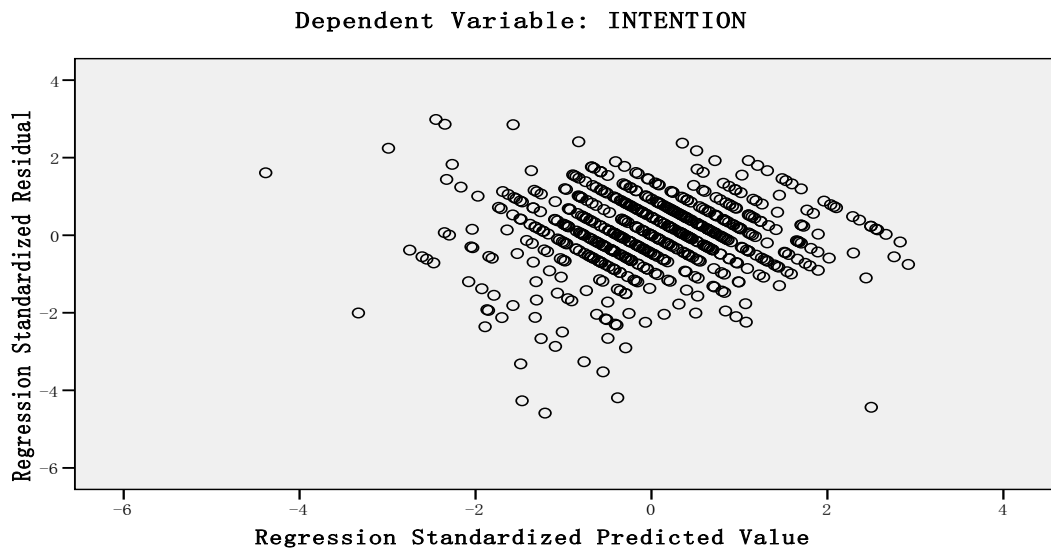
THE NORMAL PROBABILITY AND RESIDUALS PLOTS

THE NORMAL PROBABILITY PLOT

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: INTENTION
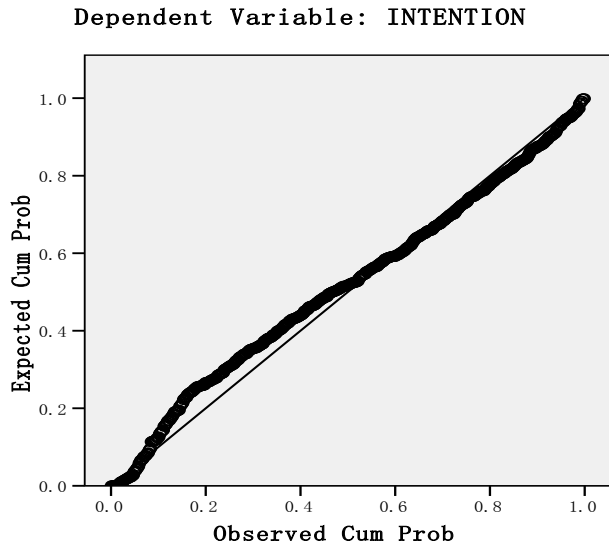
THE RESIDUALS SCATTERPLOT

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: INTENTION

ANNEXURE F:

THE CASEWISE DIAGNOSTICS TABLE

Casewise Diagnostics [a]

| Case	Std. Residual	INTENTION	Predicted Value	Residual
110	-4.588	1.00	2.9672	-1.96722
171	-4.193	1.60	3.3979	-1.79792
192	-4.270	1.00	2.8310	-1.83104
336	-3.318	1.40	2.8228	-1.42284
462	-4.438	3.00	4.9028	-1.90279
493	-3.525	1.80	3.3113	-1.51131

a. Dependent Variable: INTENTION

ANNEXURE G:

THE DISTRIBUTION OF DISCRIMINANT SCORES

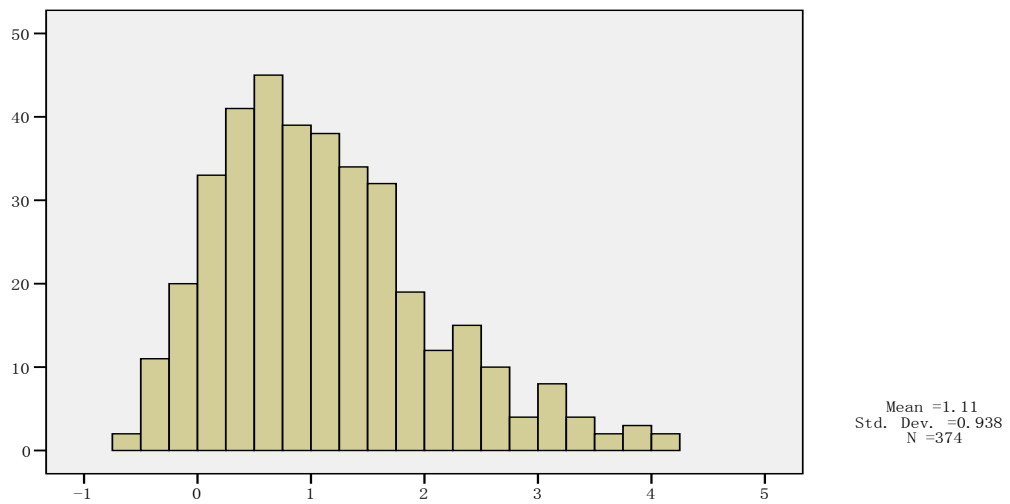HISTOGRAMS SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF DISCRIMINANT SCORES
FOR THE TWO CLUSTERS

Canonical Discriminant Function 1

Cluster Number of Case = HMLC

Mean =−1.62
Std. Dev. =1.084
N =256

Canonical Discriminant Function 1

Cluster Number of Case = LMHC

Mean =1.11
Std. Dev. =0.938
N =374
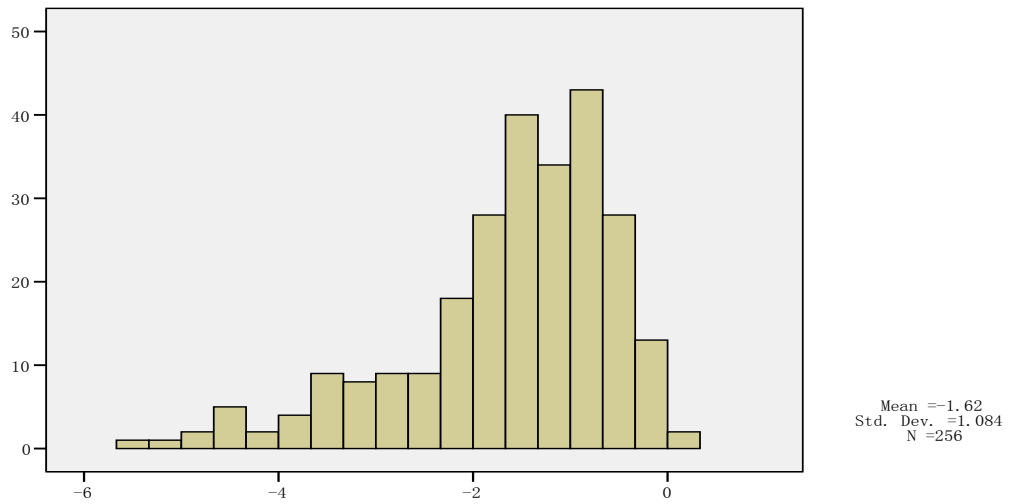
ANNEXURE H:

THE CLASSIFICATION RESULTS TABLE

THE CLASSIFICATION RESULTS TABLE

Classification Results [b,c]

		Cluster Number of Case	Predicted Group Membership		Total
			HMLC	LMHC	
Original	Count	HMLC	246	10	256
		LMHC	13	361	374
	%	HMLC	96.1	3.9	100.0
		LMHC	3.5	96.5	100.0
Cross-validated [a]	Count	HMLC	245	11	256
		LMHC	15	359	374
	%	HMLC	95.7	4.3	100.0
		LMHC	4.0	96.0	100.0

[a.] Cross validation is done only for those cases in the analysis. In cross validation, each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.

[b.] 96.3% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

[c.] 95.9% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified.