PROCEEDINGS OF THE

G20 First East-West Dialogue on Tourism and the Chinese Dream

13 to 15 of November 2014
Crowne Plaza Surfers Paradise, Gold Coast

Organized by:
Griffith Institute for Tourism (GIFT) and the Griffith Tourism Confucius Institute (TCI)
PROCEEDINGS OF THE
G20 FIRST EAST-WEST DIALOGUE ON TOURISM AND
THE CHINESE DREAM

Noel Scott
David Weaver
Susanne Becken
Peiyi Ding
13-15 November 2014
Gold Coast, Australia

ISBN 978-1-922216-64-9

Griffith University, Queensland, Australia

Abstracts were Anonymously Reviewed
### Conference Program Summary

#### Day 1 – Thursday 13 November 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>Registration, Crowne Plaza Surfers Paradise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>Welcome Reception - Poolside</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Day 2 – Friday 14 November 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>08.00</td>
<td>Registration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.00</td>
<td>Conference Opening and Welcome:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- MC Professor Leong Liew - Director Tourism Confucius Institute, Griffith University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Vice Chancellor and Professor Ian O’Connor, Griffith University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Councillor Tom Tate, Mayor City of Gold Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Professor Susanne Becken - Director Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Professor Emeritus Colin Mackerras AO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.35</td>
<td>Academic Keynotes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speaker 1: <strong>Prof Chris Ryan</strong> – University of Waikato, New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speaker 2: <strong>Professor Jun Gao</strong> - Shanghai Normal University, China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>Morning tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.15</td>
<td>Breakout sessions I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.45</td>
<td>Breakout sessions II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>THE PANEL: Leaders from industry and government discuss tourism investment, product development and marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Mr Paul Martyn</strong> - Deputy Director-General Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Mr Darren Scott</strong> - Director Economic Development and Major Projects, Council of City of Gold Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Dr Grace Pan</strong> - International Director China, Hong Kong and Taiwan, Tourism and Events Queensland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Mr John Chan</strong> - Manager International Marketing, Gold Coast Tourism Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Mr Jonathan Fisher</strong> - Chief Executive Officer, Currumbin Wildlife Sanctuary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.45</td>
<td>Pre-dinner drinks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.15</td>
<td>Conference Dinner: With contributions from:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- <strong>Mr Marcio Favilla Lucca de Paula</strong> - Executive Director UNWTO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- <strong>Mr Geoff Turner</strong> - Manager Consumer Insights, Tourism Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Session</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.00 - 09.15</td>
<td><strong>Overview</strong>&lt;br&gt;Summary Day 1 by Professor Rick Perdue - Virginia Tech University, USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.15 - 09.45</td>
<td><strong>Academic Keynote</strong>&lt;br&gt;Speaker 5: <strong>Professor Lingyung Zhang</strong>, Beijing Union University, China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.45 - 11.00</td>
<td>Breakout sessions III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.00 – 11.15</td>
<td><strong>Morning tea</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.15 - 12.30</td>
<td>Breakout sessions IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30 - 12.45</td>
<td><strong>East-West Dialogue Closing</strong>&lt;br&gt;Professor David Weaver - Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University&lt;br&gt;Professor Susanne Becken – Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.45 - 14.00</td>
<td><strong>Lunch</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.00 - 17.30</td>
<td><strong>Field Trip</strong>&lt;br&gt;Mount Tamborine National Park half day tour&lt;br&gt;Cost: $30 per person including transport and tour guide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Table of Contents

Service Quality of Chinese Group Package Tours in Australia  
*Hanyu Chen, Betty Weiler, Martin Young and Yun Lok Lee*  
.................................................................................................................. 7

Tranquillity from mindful travel experiences in Australian destinations  
*I-Ling (Lynn) Chen, Pierre Benckendorff, Noel Scott*  
.................................................................................................................. 11

Although readily eager, is the Australian tourism industry truly prepared to welcome the Chinese visitor?  
*Marcus Curcija, Karen Hughes and Cate Clifford*  
.................................................................................................................. 15

Contemporary and Conventional Motivation of Wine Tourism Travellers in China: An Exploratory Case study of Yunnan Province, China  
*Bob Duan, Charles Arcodia and Emily Ma*  
.................................................................................................................. 19

Carbon management: a new framework of environmental management for tourism destination  
*Jun Gao, Ruihong Sun, Xinliang Ye, Jing Fu, Yaru Zhu*  
.................................................................................................................. 24

Macau and casino capitalism: fulfilling the Chinese dream?  
*Verity Greenwood and Larry Dwyer*  
.................................................................................................................. 25

The effects of a tourist policy in Wanning (Hainan): expropriations vs. territorial identification  
*Christophe Guibert & Benjamin Taunay*  
.................................................................................................................. 30

The relationship of Chinese generation Y’s intercultural sensitivity and travel purchase decisions in international leisure travel  
*Yawan He and Li Wei*  
.................................................................................................................. 35

A critical review on academic views of tourism in China  
*Songshan (Sam) Huang*  
.................................................................................................................. 40

Interpreting Australian landscapes for Chinese visitors  
*Karen Hughes and Isabella Ye*  
.................................................................................................................. 41

What do Chinese tourists to South East Queensland worry about?  
*Xin Jin, Susanne Becken and Wu Lei*  
.................................................................................................................. 44

Generation Y, what are the predictor and outcomes of their career expectation?  
*Prof Haiyan Kong*  
.................................................................................................................. 50

The role of key Chinese culture values in Chinese travellers’ perception on Australian hotel service  
*Xavier Leong, Emily Ma, Anoop Patiar and Lisa Beesley*  
.................................................................................................................. 58

The Chinese outbound tourists’ lodging preferences  
*Hong Li*  
.................................................................................................................. 63

Potential methods for measuring emotion in Chinese tourism advertising  
*Shanshi Li, Noel Scott, Gabby Walters*  
.................................................................................................................. 66

Research on governance system and governance capability in China’s hotel industry  
*Xiang Li, Gu Huimin*  
.................................................................................................................. 72

The ABCD-X mode of Community stress and coping during pro-poor tourism development at the ethnic villages  
*Yan-qin Li*  
.................................................................................................................. 75

Are we prisoners of our own ideology?  
*A dyadic investigation of business to business (B2B) relationships between Chinese and Australian tour operators*  
*David Lindsay*  
.................................................................................................................. 76

Building interpersonal trust in a travel-related virtual community: a case study on a Guangzhou couch-surfing community  
*Qiuju Luo, Jiabei Hu*  
.................................................................................................................. 80

Impact of non-resident on impulse buying based on binary behaviour theory: research on tourists from China to Australia  
*Yong Ma, LI Zhifei, TU Zhengchun*  
.................................................................................................................. 82

Cross-cultural differences in incentive travel  
*Judith Mair and Xin Jin*  
.................................................................................................................. 85

Water town communities and tourism impacts – former residents as employees and cast characters.  
*Chris Ryan, Steve Pan, Nicole Chou and Gu Huimin*  
.................................................................................................................. 89
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regional Tourism Preparedness: Emerging Markets, Culture and Service</td>
<td>Dr Vikki Schaffer</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigating drivers of overall trip satisfaction and expectations:</td>
<td>Kevin Kam Fung So, Char-lee McLennan, Susanne Beeken, Justin Marshall</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an evaluation of Chinese</td>
<td>and Ben Pang</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visitors to Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaching agreement in travel-related decisions: Evidence from Chinese independent travellers</td>
<td>Hanqun Song, Prof. Beverley Sparks, Dr. Ying Wang</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination China: Chinese international students' expectations of attributes needed by graduates of Australian tourism and hospitality degrees</td>
<td>Katrine Sonnenschein, Michelle Barker and Ray Hibbins</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The effect of Western or Chinese Hotel Brand Names on Chinese Customers’ Quality Expectation and Purchasing Intention</td>
<td>Dongmei Sun</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese tourists’ gaze on New Zealand: the effect of otherness in destination image formation</td>
<td>Minghui Sun, Chris Ryan and Steve Pan</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Effectiveness of 72 Hours Transfer Visa-free Policy in Converting Stopover Passengers into Future Stayover Tourists in the Relevant Hub Cities in China — Evidence from Dalian Chuanzhong Tang and Fangfang Shi</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Powerscape’ in Chinese tour packages</td>
<td>Ying Wang, Anna Kwek and David Weaver</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Study of the Application of Flexible Working Arrangements in Chinese Hotel Industry</td>
<td>Yu Wang and Fu Yanyan</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and the Chinese Dream: A Framework for Engagement</td>
<td>David Weaver</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholder dynamics in the formation and development of Chinese historic and cultural precincts as tourism attractions: Evidence from Australia and China* Bixia Xu¹,², Karine Dupré¹, Linlin Dai³</td>
<td>130</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An Eye-tracking Study of Cross-culture Influence on Tourism Advertising: a Comparison of China and Australia</td>
<td>Xueyan Xu, Noel Scott and Jun Gao</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics of Cruise Tourism Consumption in Shanghai</td>
<td>Guodong Yan</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Development Model Analysis of Qunar Jingshu Yao and Liu Ting</td>
<td></td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do multinational hotel companies view the Chinese market — an analysis of Annual Reports from four public companies: 2000-2013</td>
<td>Min Zhan and Yu Qin</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer’s perception of the hotel “soft article” marketing</td>
<td>Man Zhang</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research on the effects of Chinese austerity policy on high-star hotel</td>
<td>Yaxing Zhao and Gu Huimin</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor tourism in China</td>
<td>Prof Zhong Linsheng and Prof Ralf Buckley</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information search behaviour of Chinese international students—an emerging independent travel market</td>
<td>Manli Zhu, Professor Betty Weiler, Dr. Martin Young, Dr. Yun-Lok Lee</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Investigation of “Donkey Friends” Travel Behaviour Case Study On Lvye Website</td>
<td>Sha Zhu, Li Tao, Shan Jiang</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Service Quality of Chinese Group Package Tours in Australia

Hanyu Chen, Betty Weiler, Martin Young and Yun Lok Lee

School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Southern Cross University

Key words: Group Package Tour (GPT), Chinese tourists, Australia

This paper reports the process of developing a measurement for service quality of Chinese GPTs in Australia. Under the Approved Destinations Status (ADS) scheme, Chinese tourists are permitted to undertake leisure travel within a package tour to overseas destinations. In April 1999, Australia became one of the first western countries (along with New Zealand) to obtain ADS from the Chinese government. Since then, Australia has since hosted over 897,000 Chinese tourists undertaking leisure travel in group package tours (GPTs) and China is now Australia’s fastest growing inbound tourism market and largest contributor to international visitor spending in Australia (Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism, 2012). A large proportion of Chinese tourists still visit Australia on GPTs and group tourists is the dominant group compared with independent tourists and business tourists.

In the travel agency industry in China, one widely-used approach to measure GPT service quality is customer comment card. However, there have been criticisms on customer comment card, for example, lack of clarity and precision, low return rate and appearance design (Wang, Hsieh, Chou, & Lin, 2007). In academia, the use of popular measures such as SERVQUAL (e.g. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988) to measure GPTs has also been criticised. For example, Wang et al. (2007) argued that SERVQUAL does not cover all entities of GPTs and the development of SERVQUAL applied mostly to short-term service encounters, in which the interaction is limited between customers and service providers, while GPT is a long and continuous process.

A review of tourism and hospitality literature identifies a number of empirical studies have focused on service quality in the tour operator/travel agency industry. Some researchers measured service quality by replicating or adopting the SERVQUAL model (e.g. Johns, Avci, & Karatepe, 2004; Lam & Zhang, 1999; Martinez Caro & Martinez Garcia, 2008; Ryan & Cliff, 1997). Other researchers developed their own measurement (e.g. Albrecht, 1992; LeBlanc, 1992; Persia & Gitelson, 1993). A review of studies focusing on travel agencies in China published in English and Chinese identified some studies related to GPT service quality conducted in the broad Chinese (including Taiwanese and Cantonese) context. These attempts include Sheng (1999), Wang, Hsieh, and Huan (2000), Liu & Wu (2006), Wang et al., (2007), Chang (2009), Wang, Ma, Hsu, Jao, & Lin, (2013).

Despite different attempts to find the right measure for service quality, there still appears to be no consensus on how evaluations of quality should be operationalized. This study reports some initial findings on the conceptualisation and measurement of service quality in the context of Chinese group package tours in Australia. The development of an appropriate GPT service quality scale for Chinese GPTs in Australia includes four steps: 1) literature review, 2) panel discussion, 3) survey, and 4) data analysis.

Firstly, items were generated from a comprehensive literature review. This literature review includes Chinese-language and English-language studies. To help achieving the aim of a broad study, the following items from the pool of items are reduced: 1) items not within the control of travel agencies, 2) items measuring pre-tour and post tour service, 3) items
included great details such as airplane sitting arrangement and 4) items that could have been covered in travel contract.

Secondly, the researcher consulted three experts on the content validity of the remaining items. Group discussions were also conducted with 3 groups (each group consisting of 8, 9 and 10 participants, respectively). Participants have at least one GPT experience in the past 12 months at the time of discussion. Each group was shown the list from literature review and was asked ‘Based on your past experience, what items are needed to evaluate GPT service quality?’ Based on the results from group discussions, the items were further modified and a list of 24 items was produced.

Thirdly, 24 items were written as questionnaire from the original pool of items. Each items is anchored by “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5) on a five point rating scale. A performance-minus-expectation paradigm was chosen in terms of recommendation by service quality researchers (e.g. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988) and for the purpose to help achieving the research aim of a broad study. To obtain quality data within the research timeframe, an internet panel provider was used to collect data. Experts’ advice on using internet panel providers was used to ensure that only qualified people participate. Data were collected over the period 14 April 2014 to 28 April 2014. A link was sent to all panel members who had outbound experience and GPT experience as recorded in the members’ profile. 1237 responses were received and after eliminating unusable responses (i.e. incomplete responses, responses with short durations), 520 complete responses were retained for further analysis.

Fourthly, exploratory factor analysis was used. The results of the correlation matrix were visually scanned. All values are positive between 0.3 and 0.8. No extremely high or low values have been identified, thus it was decided that all items are retained for further analysis, as Churchill, (1979) suggested. A principle component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 24 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = 0.93 (‘superb’ according to Field, 2009), and all KMO values for individual items were above 0.832, which is well above the acceptable limit of 0.5 (Field, 2009). Bartletts’s test of sphericity the square of x (276) = 3449.292, p < 0.01, indicating that correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data. Four components had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and in combination explained 55.97% of the variance. Given the large sample size, and the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser’s criterion on four components, this is the number of the components that were retained in further analysis. After rotation, the items that cluster on the same components suggest that component 1 represents on tour services, component 2 represents tour leader, component 3 represents attractions and component 4 represents other services.

This study attempted to establish an instrument suitable for evaluations of the service quality of GPTs in Australia. The measurement developed in this study, from its initial stage to the final version, has met rigorous criteria for both validity and reliability. The results have important implications that benefit both practitioners and researchers. However, appropriate adaption of the scale is needed when investigating other types of GPTs or GPTs in other contexts. To extend current research, relationships between GPT quality and other variables such as demographics, satisfaction and behavioural intentions could be explored.

References


Tranquillity from mindful travel experiences in Australian destinations

_I-Ling (Lynn) Chen, Pierre Benckendorff, Noel Scott_

**I-Ling (Lynn) Chen**
The University of Queensland

**Pierre Benckendorff**
The University of Queensland

**Noel Scott**
Griffith University

**Extended Abstract**

China has become a vital inbound source market to Australia in recent years (Weiler & Yu, 2008). An important driver of Chinese tourist’s travel is to escape the pressure of their busy urban lives and visits to natural protected areas in Australia are attractive for this reason (Xu, Cui, Ballantyne, & Packer, 2012). Appreciation, interaction and understanding of such attractions provide opportunities for relaxation and opportunities for exploring new experience (Li, Meng, Uysal, & Mihalik, 2013; Weiler & Yu, 2008). In this way, Chinese travelers are exhibiting behavior noted by commentators in western countries who have argued that postmodern society exhibits characteristics of a work orientation, stress related disorders, and isolation in everyday life (e.g., Giddens, 1991; Mueller & Kaufmann, 2001; Schroevers & Brandsma, 2010). As in China, a trend has developed for the pursuit of fulfilment through travel experiences (Currie, 2005; Filep, 2009; Kottler, 1997).

This trend is encapsulated in a recent advertisement from Tourism Australia targeting Chinese visitors titled “Come Walkabout”. This represents Australian wilderness as a wonderful destination allowing travelers to escape everyday pressures and achieve self-discovery or rejuvenation. This promotes tourist experiences as connecting with a sense of mental ease (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2011). Experience is characterized as sensations or knowledge acquired from interactions of people involved in activities and in a particular context (Gupta & Vajie, 2000). Vacations are associated with positive travel experiences and provide opportunities to detach from work places, and to experience novelty, thereby contributing to health and wellness (Chen & Petrick, 2013) and providing support for academic interest in wellness tourism (Little, 2012; Pearce, Filep, & Ross, 2011). However, few studies have discussed how tourists engage in such tourism settings and how their experiences contribute to specific psychological outcomes, such as peace, calmness or relaxation.

To explain how experiences may lead to mental ease, the Eastern notion of meditative mindfulness, increasingly employed in Western clinical psychological applications, has been adopted. Historically, mindfulness stemmed from ancient Eastern Buddhism spiritual traditions (Nhat Hanh, 1976) and is common applied in meditation (Bishop et al., 2004; Kabat-Zinn, 2002). The term ‘meditative mindfulness’ (Yeganeh, 2006) is described as a psychological construct (Shapiro, Carlson, Astin, & Freedman, 2006) as well as a psychological state (Reid, 2011). It is defined as awareness of and attention to what is, from moment to moment, with acceptance (Bishop et al., 2004; Kabat-Zinn, 2002, 2005). Mindfulness has been found to reduce psychological disturbance and encourage a state of relaxation, stability and well-being (Bishop et al., 2004; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Wallace,
1999). In the tourism literature, meditative mindfulness is found to facilitate positive experiences (Chen, Scott, & Benckendorff, 2014).

While the exploration of tourist meditative mindful experience may provide opportunities for understanding experiential benefits, research remains limited (Chen et al., 2014). Instead, most tourism studies do not examine meditative mindfulness but instead focus on the concept of ‘socio-cognitive mindfulness’ from social psychology. This concept has been used to understand how tourist experiences can be made more engaging through enhancing effective interpretation or communication among tourists, tourism settings and hosts (Benckendorff, Moscardo, & Murphy, 2006; Frauman & Norman, 2004; Kang & Gretzel, 2012; McIntosh, 1999; Moscardo, 1996, 1999; Moscardo & Pearce, 1986; Van Winkle & Backman, 2009). This paper will discuss attributes embodied in tourism settings that facilitate mindful experiences of Chinese backpackers on an Australian journey.

Results indicate aesthetic appreciation of nature contributed to a status of tranquillity, relaxation and stress release and was accompanied by spontaneous feelings of joy. The contextual factors of aesthetic appreciation were classified into three categories: beauty in wonder, beauty in transience, and beauty in authenticity. This suggests that mental ease, derived from a meditative mindful travel experience can be created through experiences including aesthetic appreciation. This may be useful for business operators and destination managers in better understanding how to design experiences leading to tranquillity.

In summary, specific experiences to attract Chinese tourists should include opportunities for aesthetic appreciation in nature-based destinations. This is because as travellers immerse themselves in such an experience, they fall into a state of tranquillity and relaxation. The findings may encourage tourism businesses and policy makers to establish strategic experience design partnerships and hence attract higher worth Chinese travellers travelling to Australia.

Keywords: Travel experience; Meditative mindfulness; Tranquillity; Mental ease; Chinese tourists; Australia

References


(CAUTHE) Annual Conference (pp. 164-175). Brisbane, Australia: The University of Queensland, Australia.


Filep, S. (2009). Tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology. (PhD thesis), James Cook University.


Although readily eager, is the Australian tourism industry truly prepared to welcome the Chinese visitor?

Marcus Curcija, Karen Hughes and Cate Clifford
University of Queensland

Keywords: Australia’s Inbound Chinese Market; Performance Standards, Visitor Expectations, and Visitor Satisfaction

According to Tourism Australia, ‘China is Australia’s most valuable inbound tourism market’ (Tourism Australia, 2014). In 2013, Australia received approximately 709,000 visitors from China, an increase of 14.5% over 2012 figures, making it Australia’s second largest market for inbound visitors. However, China was Australia’s most prolific market in terms of total expenditure and visitor nights, with Chinese visitors accounting for $4.8 billion in total expenditure in 2013, an increase of 16% over 2012 figures (Tourism Australia, 2014). By 2020, the Tourism 2020 Strategy estimates expenditure from China visitation to be worth between $7.4 billion and $9 billion (Tourism Australia, 2014).

As an accompaniment component of the Tourism 2020 Strategy, The China 2020 Strategic Plan was launched in 2011 by Tourism Australia to establish clear objectives specified for the Chinese market (Tourism Australia, 2014). The plan to gain market share in China specifies five key categorisations to underlie the Tourism Australia’s China strategy agenda. The first categorisation, which is also the premise of this paper, is termed by Tourism Australia as ‘Knowing the customer’. Mentioned as a ‘key achievement’ within the 2020 China Strategic Plan Progress Report is the ‘Launch of the “Welcome Chinese Visitors” Strategic Tourism Investment Grant, which provides $600,000 of T-QUAL funding towards a China readiness training program’. As a result of the proliferation of the Chinese market to the Australian economy, along with the importance of ensuring the Chinese visitor is being catered to appropriately within the tourism and hospitality sectors, it is the aim of this paper to highlight the expectations and satisfaction of the Chinese tourist whilst visiting Australia.

From a Chinese tourist standpoint, there has been a lot of research on what Chinese visitors look for when choosing a place to visit during their holiday. The China Market Profile (Tourism Australia, 2013) determined the top five factors taken into consideration by Chinese travellers when selecting a holiday destination are (in descending order): world class beauty and natural environments; a safe and secure destination; good food, wine, local cuisine and produce; friendly and open citizens, which can be classified as local hospitality; and native or cultural heritage and/or activities. Other considerations of Chinese tourists include accommodation options; value for money; direct flights; great shopping and family friendliness; luxury accommodation and facilities; and the romantic allure of the destination.

From a strategic point of view, Australia has successfully promoted itself as a renowned destination for its laid-back lifestyle and beautiful natural environment, which includes beaches, islands, mountains, forests and wildlife. Based off of the success of Australia’s marketing to the Chinese market, in regards to their desired destination attributes, the question is, how well do Chinese visitors think Australia delivered on their marketed features? Therefore, the aim of this study was to measure if Chinese visitors were satisfied with their Australian experience or are there areas in need of improvement?
Chinese consumer research conducted by Tourism Australia (2013) showed that Australia delivered a positive holiday experience that exceeded the expectations of Chinese visitors. Also, China Tourism Academy started the ‘Chinese Citizen Satisfaction of Outbound Travel Experience’ quarterly report at the beginning of 2013. Data used in the reports encompass two sources: a satisfaction survey and online comments. The first quarter report in 2013 showed that Australia ranked first when analysing data from the satisfaction survey. However, when combined with online comments, Australia’s ranking slipped to 13th. Due to this differentiation, it became evident that more research was needed to determine how the Australian tourism industry could improve on the comments and concerns of Chinese visitors. Therefore, due to the Chinese market’s potential, this study was aimed at providing data to establish a better understanding of Chinese visitors’ perception of the current tourism product and acknowledge how it can be altered to enhance their experience.

In the year ending June 2013, the total amount of Chinese visitors to Australia had increased to 643,000, which represented an annual growth rate of 18%. During the same period, Chinese tourists visiting Queensland increased at an annual growth rate of 24% to 294,000 (Tourism and Events Queensland, 2013). Based on Chinese visitation to Queensland growing at a greater rate than the whole of Australia, primary research for this study was to measure the satisfaction of Chinese visitors who spent at least a fraction of their time during their holiday to Australia in Queensland. Therefore, the aim of this research was to explore Chinese visitors’ expectations and perceptions of Australia, and to ascertain the travel experiences and satisfaction of Chinese visitors travelling through Queensland.

**METHOD**

Research data was gathered through face-to-face distribution and online surveys via online Chinese social media. The survey was conducted among mainland Chinese visitors who were currently travelling in or have travelled to Australia. The questionnaires were provided in Mandarin and were administered by Chinese bilingual students to improve access to the Chinese visitor market, which enabled this research to reach a cohort that is typically difficult to measure due to the language barrier. The survey focused on the marketing channels, basic tourism products, and service categories and qualities, especially Chinese services. Mainly based in Queensland, the survey utilised questions emphasised on what is offered or should be offered by the Queensland tourism industry and how its satisfaction or importance are perceived by Chinese visitors.

Distributions of surveys were conducted through field/face-to-face distribution at major tourism spots located throughout Southeast Queensland and online, using SurveyMonkey. The online survey was launched on 19 September, 2013 and closed on 5 October, 2013. The link of the survey was sent directly by the research team to potential respondents known to have visited Queensland recently. It was also posted on Chinese social media such as WeChat, Weibo, Q-zone, Renren via the personal accounts of the bilingual Chinese researchers. Onsite distribution was conducted in multiple locations within and around Brisbane, where Chinese visitors frequent. The final number of valid surveys collected was 256, with 168 from online distribution and 88 from onsite distribution. Among the sample of respondents, 73% of them were first-time visitors to Queensland. In terms of purpose of visit, more than half participants came for holiday purpose (51%), followed by education (29%) and VFR (11%).

Upon the completion of the survey, data was disseminated appropriately into Microsoft Excel 2010. Importance-performance matrices, cross-tab analysis, matrix creations, and Pareto analysis were conducted to assess the data. Analysis revealed that:
Chinese travellers typically reported seeing Queensland as a clean, natural and sunshine destination that offers unique experiences suitable for their holiday preferences. However, the travel arrangement (packaged tour or independent tour) chosen by visitors depends on their experiences and sophistication in outbound travel. Generally speaking, most visitors from second- and third-tier cities are less experienced compared to visitors from first-tier cities. These unsophisticated tourists tend to choose packaged tours and focus on sightseeing with little attempt to explore local culture and lifestyle more in-depth. The fact that language skills create more barriers to this group of visitors also contributes to their preference on packaged tours.

Queensland met Chinese visitor satisfaction in most areas including lifestyle, beach and water activities, island experiences, climate, wildlife, national and theme parks. However, entertainment sections including casinos and bars performed under the Chinese visitor satisfaction level (4 out of 5), with shopping having the lowest score of 3.34.

Four-star hotels were the most popular accommodation for Chinese visitors (accounting for 40%), especially among package tour visitors (taking up 63%). Independent travellers tend to be more interested in serviced apartments due to the convenience, complete facilities and value for money. Adaptors, free bottled water, toiletries and slippers were not commonly available in Queensland hotels and these items were reported as having high value to Chinese visitors.

Generally, Chinese visitors did not see enough Chinese language services while they were travelling in Queensland. Hotel rooms without Chinese language programs or subtitles, menus without pictures, and signage without Chinese translations all set barriers for Chinese visitors to enjoy their stay in Queensland.

Chinese visitors place the highest value on personal safety and the attitude of service people when they are making decisions about travelling destinations, which are also what have been done well in Queensland. The most urgent items to be improved are food and beverage (more Chinese style), Aussie culture (more communications), and shopping convenience (longer opening time, etc).

The presentation will include key recommendations in relation to requirements for Chinese language services, particularly in promotion materials, maps, transportation and visitor information centres. The value of providing indigenous products and suggestions for how these could be delivered will also be given. Implications for designing experiences that extend beyond travel to Australian icons are presented.

REFERENCES


Contemporary and Conventional Motivation of Wine Tourism Travellers in China: An Exploratory Case study of Yunnan Province, China

Bob Duan, Charles Arcodia and Emily Ma
Griffith University

Key words: Wine tourism, Motivation, Chinese Culture Values

Introduction

Wine tourism, linking the tourism industry and the wine industry, has become a new tourism segment (Hall, et al., 2009). With the development of the economy and improvements in the quality of life, mass tourism can no longer satisfy Chinese tourists. Although for the Chinese this is a relatively new form of tourism experience, wine tourism has gained its popularity in China in recent years (Ye et al., 2005). The first wine tourism establishment was developed in 2006 by the Changyu Winery --China’s largest and longest-established wine producer. Today, there are more than 20 wineries in China (Wang et al, 2006). Yunnan Province is the biggest wine region in southern part of China (Zou et al., 2012). Visitors of wineries can join the educational programmes offered to better understand wine and have chance to taste wines from local producers, while enjoying the scenic views.

As a new tourism sector, there is limited research on Chinese wine tourists’ profiles, preferences, motivation and perceptions of wine tourism experiences. Therefore, this study explores the general profile and motivation of Chinese wine tourists, using wine region in Yunnan Province as a starting point. Specifically, this study has three objectives. First, to investigate the general characteristics Chinese wine tourists; second, to understand tourists’ motivations to join wine tourism by exploring and assessing conventional and contemporary motivations; third, to understand tourists’ perception of the experience and overall satisfaction and future intentions, so that recommendations can be made to local wine tourism stakeholders.

Literature Review

Definition of Wine Tourism

From a macroeconomic viewpoint, wine tourism consists of both the wine and tourism industries and benefits both industries (Hall et al, 2009). From a micro perspective, Johnson (1998) defined wine tourism as “visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for the purpose of recreation” (cited in Hall et al, 2009, p.5).

Understanding wine tourists is important, according to Mitchell and Hall (2004) collecting more information about wine tourists can help wineries produce various wine-related products and provide different services. However, there is a lack of in-depth understanding of wine tourism and further research is necessary (Spark, 2007). Bruwer et al. (2002) suggested that different categories of wine tourists have different motivations and display different behaviour when they visit a winery or participate in a wine-related experience or trip. Winery operators could then learn how to make their product or their hospitality facilities more attractive and distinctive through investigating and analysing different visitors’ experiences at the winery.

19
Dodd (2002) finds that different kinds of wine tourists have different interest in wine and the number of times wine tourists visit a winery is related to their interest in wine. According to Sparks (2007), there is a lack of an accurate description of wine tourists, so further research regarding wine tourists is necessary. Weiler and Hall (1992) state that only a few wineries clearly know the categories of their visitors. However, research on wine tourists is lacking (Weiler & Hall, 1992). Charters and Ali-Knight (2002) divide wine tourists into four groups: wine lover, wine connoisseur, wine novice, wine interested.

Despite its popularity, there are few studies about motivation and perceptions of wine tourism experiences in China. There is a need to further understand wine tourists’ profiles and motivations.

**Conventional Motivation of Chinese Wine Tourists**

To identify the motivation of tourists, Marzo-Navarro and Pedraja-Iglesias (2009) suggested that it is first necessary to determine the key attributes of the experience. The winery usually is seen as the most important attribute for wine tourism (Hall et al 2009; Fountain et al, 2008). According to Alonso and Liu (2009), purchasing wine, visiting the local landscape, and social aspects can be the reasons for visiting a winery. The educational purpose is also important because wine tourists generally want to learn more about wine (Ali-Knight, 1999). Moreover, people are pursuing a healthier life choices, consequently the health aspects of wine tourism can be as a significant factor in wine consumption and, possibly, wine tourism (Telfer, 2001). Bruwer (2003) suggested that enjoying good restaurants, appreciating the architecture of ancient wine villages and the romance and culture of wine are also important factors that attract visitors. In addition, there are people who only want to enjoy the process of harvesting the grapes, which can be thought of as a primary motivation. Strydom (2006) noted that reference groups can be important factors for wine tourists’ decision making, particularly in cultures where friends and relatives are considered important. These attributes for wine tourism already been studies in the literature review but did not apply to Chinese wine tourism context. With the fast changing in China, Chinese people’s perspectives about wine are changing.

**Contemporary Motivation of Chinese Wine Tourists**

The xiaozi phenomenon is a contemporary Chinese lifestyle among the younger generations. Xiaozi is defined as a kind of individualism and consumerist lifestyle, consumption plays a significant role in their daily life, mentally, they want to be the centre of attention in their peers as a mean of distinguishing themselves from other people (Henningsen, 2011). Xiaozi is between yuppies and hipsters which are familiar in Western culture, however xiaozi is quite different them as it is influenced by unique Chinese culture values. Drinking wine, to some extent, satisfies the needs of people who believe in and have adopted xiaozi culture and lifestyle. Chinese people often connect elitism with drinking wine. The different customs and presentation of Western wine and Eastern wine makes wine-drinking (Western) an attractive image that is associated with the upper social classes (Marmot & Brunner, 1991). The new Chinese middle classes are fascinated about wine. The health benefits of wines have been well documented (Olsen, Thach and Nowak, 2007). Chinese people have been very health conscious and drinking wine is considered as a way of maintaining health, particularly for the well-educated and wealthy middle-class. Wine is also considered to contain certain chemicals, which are good to skin (Kaldas, Walle & Walle, 2003). As a result, drinking wine can enhance the beauty image of people, which is one of the most important drivers for female drinkers. Wine can also promote relaxation, which has
been used by people to manage pressure. Hall et al. (1997) support this view and agree that relaxation is one common motivation.

**Conceptual Framework**

Based on a review of literature both conventional and contemporary motivations of Chinese wine tourists and how the wineries and related services perform would in turn influence tourists’ satisfaction and future intention. A conceptual framework of this study is proposed and illustrated in Figure 1.

**Methodology**

The proposed study will use a mix-method two-stage methodology. At stage 1, qualitative interviews and focus groups will be performed and at stage 2, quantitative questionnaire surveys will be conducted.

The purpose of qualitative study is to draw a clear picture of Chinese tourists’ wine tourism experience in China and also identify critical factors that would influence their overall assessment of the experience and their loyalty, such as positive word of mouth, repeat visit and purchase of wines. Systematic coding processes will be conducted based on
qualitative data collected and critical factors will be identified after the coding process. These will serve as the basis for measurement development of the questionnaire.

The purpose of quantitative study is to assess the importance of each identified critical factors and their performance levels. It also aims to assess the relationships among these factors and also how they affect Chinese tourists’ attitude and behaviour intentions. A series of quantitative analysis methods, such as Importance-Performance Analysis, Factor Analysis and Regressions will be performed.

References


Carbon management: a new framework of environmental management for tourism
destination

Jun Gao, Ruihong Sun, Xinliang Ye, Jing Fu, Yaru Zhu
Shanghai Normal University (China)

Abstract: Tourist destinations in China face pressure from the target that carbon emissions Per unit GDP dropping 40-45% from 2005 to 2020, as tourist activities almost happen in destinations and the carbon dioxide emissions generated by the tourism industry are mainly in the area of destination. Carbon management is a new framework being built based on the ecosystem carbon cycle and environmental management, and offers a new way to improve present management in destinations. How to introduce carbon management planning into tourist destination management to achieve low-cost carbon emission reduction targets has become a hot topic for research. While emissions are produced in travel to the destination, this study only examines in destination travel and looked destination as an integrated systems to discuss future development by reconciling climate change, environmental management and tourism growth. Firstly, this article reviews past research about carbon management in China and abroad, followed by an analysis the key issues and the basis of carbon management at a tourist destination. Carbon management seeks to manage the carbon cycle system process, and the key problem to be solved is how to keep the carbon cycle in smooth operation, so that the tourism industry and the environment achieve coordinated sustainable development. Analysis of the operation, dynamic mechanism, and restraint mechanisms of carbon management in tourist destination, leads to the conclusion that the basic operating mechanism for carbon management involves carbon sinks. The forces driving change in this area are clean development and carbon trading. Stakeholder collaboration and responsibilities for carbon reduction are the main constraints.

Keywords: carbon management, environmental management, tourism destination
Macau and casino capitalism: fulfilling the Chinese dream?

Verity Greenwood and Larry Dwyer

Verity Greenwood
Macquarie University, Sydney

Larry Dwyer
University of New South Wales, Sydney

Keywords: Macau, Casino Capitalism, gaming, tourism, impacts.

Macau: The Las Vegas of the East

Now a casino-centred economy with a predominantly Chinese population of 566,400, Macau is a small city perched on a peninsula of only 26 square km of land at the mouth of the Pearl River Delta, on the southwestern coast of China. Formerly under the control of the Portuguese, Macau is only an hour ferry ride from Hong Kong and has had the status of a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of the People’s Republic of China since 1999. With its comparative advantage of being the only location in China where gambling is legal, Macau is described as “one country, two systems” (Fong, 2006:15) as it enjoys and maintains a high level of social and economic autonomy. Macau’s rapid growth is a classic example of ‘casino capitalism’ understood here as the strategy of economic growth through the casino industry.

Growth of Macau’s casino turnover is predominantly driven by Chinese gamblers, although recently the Chinese government, worried about the size of gambling losses by corrupt Chinese officials (government, bank, etc), has limited the ease with which visas for Chinese citizens are granted. Described as the ‘Las Vegas of the East’ (Thompson, 2012:84) Macau is seen as the gambling capital of the world. Its casinos now contribute more than seven times the income than that made in Las Vegas (Kaiman, 2014). In 2013, casinos brought in a record AUD $45 billion, up 19% from 2012 (Macau Gaming Inspection and Coordination Bureau, 2014) with direct taxes from gaming being AUD $16.8 billion. Gambling related taxes in the formal economy generate 75% of Macau’s total revenue (Macau Financial Services Bureau, 2014). Now drawing 28 million visitors per annum, increasing numbers of tourists and gamblers from mainland China are now descending on 35 luxury casinos. The casinos are cash-intensive businesses, often operating continuously with a one stop financial services shop to deal with accounts, remittances, foreign exchange and cash issuing.

Macau is benefitting from growth in the Chinese economy with about 17 million tourists from mainland China visiting Macau in 2013, compared with just 800,000 in 1999. About half of these tourists remain in Macau for only 24 hours. Macau has now taken over from Switzerland as the world’s fourth richest territory per person with a GDP per capita at $96,905, a rise of 18% in 2013 (World Bank, 2014).

Macau has reached a ‘tipping point’ in respect of its gaming-tourism link. On the one hand, the gaming industry stimulates economic growth, provides employment, and results in ongoing investment in recreation and leisure facilities enjoyed by residents alongside tourists. On the other hand, the rapid rise of the gaming industry has generated several types of socio-economic and environmental costs which must be addressed if the tourism industry is to develop in a sustainable way. While Macau’s gaming tourism industry is now using the service industry as a conduit for the expansion and development of other sectors, there is
concern that the strategies being put in place do not go far enough in the direction of developing a sustainable tourism industry, meeting both visitor and resident needs. Since sustainable development for Macau seems to be part of “the Chinese dream”, it is appropriate to assess the situation to date, and to identify strategies that could be adopted to fulfil this dream.

This paper has three main aims:

1. To identify some major effects of the gambling industry on Macau tourism
2. To identify the types of strategies that are needed if Macau tourism is to develop in a more sustainable way
3. To identify the responsibilities of the main stakeholders in this process including foreign investors.

Effects of the gaming industry on Macau tourism.

The positive effects are primarily of an economic nature. Casino development is linked with development of hospitality services, hotels, restaurants, rental cars, real estate, construction, communications, financial and personal services. Revenue from the gaming sector accounts for more than 95% of Macau’s tax revenue. The city has enjoyed surplus revenue since the liberalization of casino licensing in 2002, some of which is transferred directly to residents. The personal incomes of Macau residents overall have also increased, particularly for those who are employed in the ‘recreational, gaming and cultural’ sector (Vong, 2008). Casino development has also led to more entertainment and recreation facilities in Macau, enhancing leisure opportunities for the local community. Ongoing projects such as Hong Kong–Zhuhai–Macau Bridge (HZM) will shorten the travelling time and distance between these destinations, yielding significant impacts on these regions and facilitating tourist flows to Macau.

The negative effects are varied. Offsetting the economic effects identified above we find inflation brought about by casino led economic development is increasing the prices of goods and services, in particular property and rental prices. Income inequality has increased with many residents worse off in absolute terms, sparking social protests (Ho and Han, 2008). Excessive dependency on gaming, with its small product range, implies that Macau rests on a very narrow and potentially unstable economic base for future development. There exists a ‘crowding out’ effect, wherein many small and medium-sized businesses have difficulty in competing with the larger casino businesses. Social costs include an increase in resident problem gambling and crime, facilitated mainland money laundering increased the demand for counselling services and public health treatment, dampened the interest of young people in their education with deteriorating community relationships and resident ‘sense of place’ (Lo, 2009). Labour shortages are generating in-migration of workers further affecting Macau’s social fabric. Discrepancies exist between how residents and visitors view the destination and the image that the destination projects locally and internationally. Environmental costs include uncontrolled urban development, cultural degradation, reduction of public leisure and green spaces and heavy traffic congestion.

The paper discusses the positive and negative effects in some detail. It is hypothesised that many of the aforementioned costs are associated with the powerful influence of ‘casino capitalism’. Adopting the lens of ‘growth machine theory’ the development of tourism in Macau is driven by invested and entrenched interests — including business factions and/or ruling elites — rather than from competitive market activity among social and cultural groups.
Conditions of community life are largely a consequence of the social, economic, and political forces embodied in this growth machine. The weaknesses of the politico-administrative state in Macau, including the absence of institutional checks and balances, the frail civil society and the relatively docile mass media, have magnified the negative impacts of casino capitalism on Macau. To the extent that grassroots participation in tourism is excluded, the local community will have little say in the type of tourism that develops within their destination.

Based on the above analysis it is argued that Macau must strike a balance between improving quality of resident life and expanding tourism development.

**Strategies for Developing Macau tourism**

Several strategies are identified and discussed. In summary these include:

**Development of a Master Tourism Plan:** A comprehensive Tourism Master Plan for Macau should adopt a sustainability charter for the destination and establish a range of benchmarks for social, economic and environmental health that can be used to guide and track the performance of the industry. This would include strategies for the proposed World Centre of Tourism and Leisure.

**Balanced Development.** Given the over-reliance on casinos for income growth, industrial diversification has emerged as an increasingly important economic issue facing Macau. Economic diversification by re-investing retained gaming profits in complementary non-gaming business (e.g., entertainment, exhibition, convention etc.) is essential for ensuring the sustainable development of the gaming sector and its long-term contribution to the local economy. Product development strategies should attempt to diversify experience offerings, while maintaining destination distinctiveness to reduce competitive threats. For example, MICE tourism brings in high consumption tourists and enhances the average length of stay, and promotion of the MICE industry will help to strengthen the position of Macau as a major tourism city in the region. Additionally, strategies for development of new industries should be explored. Greater diversification of the tourism product will have substantial implications for Macau’s marketing strategies (internal and external).

**Addressing the adverse Social Impacts.** The Macau government must become more interventionist, to address existing concerns and to enhance social welfare. Support for tourism development by residents is a fundamental precondition for a sustainable industry (van Schalkwyk et al, 2006). Community problems associated with in–migration must also be addressed. A more relaxed and fair policy on imported labour would help to solve some of the problems of labour shortage. Other opportunities and challenges are discussed.

**Stakeholder Collaboration.** Communication and collaboration among service providers are neither well developed nor organised. Strategies to improve community consultation on social and environmental issues will help to reduce the influence of power elites. Strategies need to recognise that the success and sustainability of tourism are heavily reliant on the active support of the local community. Strategies for regional tourism cooperation within the HMZ area should be explored.

**Crime/Corruption.** New measures to combat crime and corruption have been developed but there is concern they do not go far enough. The implications of different strategies must be considered. For example, the corruption crackdown may have repercussions for foreign
(including Australian) investors in Macau’s gaming development and for other gaming destinations (including Australia) targeting Chinese gamblers. Will potential links between Australian investors and ‘tainted’ Chinese entrepreneurs affect business reputations in the Australian marketplace?

**Cultural degradation.** A key issue for Macau is to resolve the tension between greater casino development and preservation of Macau’s unique colonial era culture (du Cros 2009; Wan et al 2007). This requires strategies that address heritage product development and management, in harmony with private sector tourism development and host community concerns about heritage protection and achieving quality tourism. The nature of the overlap between the gaming and cultural tourism markets must receive more attention in future studies.

**Environmental degradation.** Strategies must be developed to address Macau’s deteriorating urban quality, congestion and dislocation of the lived-in spaces of locals. There is an important need for good town planning to ease traffic congestion and pollution with more consultative processes operative in land allocation for development or recreation use.

**Small Business Development.** Strategies to energise this sector based on recognition that small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) play a pivotal role in sustainable tourism development (Horobin & Long, 1996; Kong and Wan 2011).

**Implications for Stakeholders**

Implementation of strategies for sustainable tourism require the co-operation and combined resources of many individuals, agencies and organisations. Government, industry, the community and tourists can each play important and interdependent supportive roles. The concluding section of the paper addresses the responsibilities of the key stakeholders if tourism and gaming in Macau are to progress interactively in a sustainable way. The following stakeholders are identified:

**Role of the Private Sector:** Tourism operators, gaming operators, investors, other businesses

**Role of the Public Sector:** Government officials (Macau and mainland China); Destination Management Organisations

**Role of Community Small Business owners, Casino employees, local community action groups, community agencies and services.**

**Role of Tourists, Gamblers Group tourist packages, family groups, ‘junkets’, ‘high roller ‘and VIP gamblers**

**Conclusion**

The paper concludes with observations on the challenges and opportunities facing the gaming industry and tourism in Macau. Lessons for other destinations are identified together with some caveats associated with the ‘casino capitalism/tourism’ development nexus.

**References** (selected references only)


The effects of a tourist policy in Wanning (Hainan): expropriations vs. territorial identification

Christophe Guibert & Benjamin Taunay
University of Angers (France)

If the Chinese domestic tourism in Hainan has developed quantitatively for the last 20 years, nautical sports events now even accelerate the tourism growth of the island. The surfing in particular is mobilized by the political authorities in charge of the development of the tourism, then by the municipality of Wanning for the purposes of territorial identification. However, the new amenities are not made without clashes, in particular when it is a question of expropriating the local inhabitants, near the best "spotlights" of surfing. Within this communication, we would like to analyse the effects of political imposition on the secular uses of places transformed by tourism and nautical sports events. The case of one of the beaches of Wanning, privileged by the municipality and the organizers of surfing events, constitutes a good example of the problem, in China, of the consideration of the common inhabitants by policies in the definition of sector-based public actions.

Transform Hainan into a "international tourist island"
The tropical island of Hainan, the smallest Chinese province, economically marginal for centuries, is in the heart of the interests of Peking since the end of 1980s and the beginning of 1990s: the island really becomes a province (removed from the Guangdong) and a special economic zone (ZES) in 1988. The political wills of the State aims at promoting this island as a destination "of luxury" large-scale "international". To give an international dimension to the island of Hainan, the provincial authorities, with the support of Peking, suggest organizing international events, such the forum of Boao (since 2002; Vernay: 2011). Peking then invested 8 billion yuans between 2001 and 2004 for the construction of conference centres and other equipments, and encouraged « World beauty queen's competition » to settle down in Sanya since 2003, in spite of an important financial cost (Ibid ).

From "tropical Siberia", Hainan so became "Chinese Hawai" (Sanjuan and Trolliet: 2010), thanks to an important political imposition.

The surfing as a tool of "territorial marketing": the dream of the municipality of Wanning
The coding of Hainan in an international tourist island also passes by the organization of international sports events, in particular surfing's ones with international competitions every year since the end of 2011 (Guibert & Taunay: 2013). The organization of the "Swatch Girl Pro", signed with the ASP (Association of Surfing Professional) for four consecutive years, establishes as a consequence an excellent opportunity to mark the territory, in particular the municipality of Wanning. The mediatization of the surfing in China is however very recent and its impressive character is due to the political wills, from the State to the municipalities of Hainan and to the international sponsors for whom this island constitutes a front door towards a new market which turns out, according to them, consequent. The surfing is indeed envisaged like a "territorial resource" (Giumuchian et Pecqueur: 2004) deserving economic and tourist interests. The communications strategy is moreover ambitious because the reserved slogan is: "Wanning: the resource of surf in world". The municipality commits territorialized political actions as the construction of specific equipment (arrangement of the
beach, the road, the parking lot, the site of competition, a skatepark), but also publish, with the cooperation of the provincial authorities, books on the surfing to Hainan and on the competitions of 2010 then 2011-2012 and 2013. To make of Hainan the "Chinese Hawaiian Islands" supposes, for the municipality of Wanning, a powerful communications strategy and a structuring territorial policy, specially of marketing.

A small competition, but a show like one of the biggest appearances of the ASP.


“A Wanning: the resource of surf in world” (Guibert C., October 2011).

A not negotiated compromise
So, in June, 2011, on the beach where will take place a few months later the international competitions, there were only some fishermen's straw huts. The access was difficult because the end of the road bringing to the site was not tarred. The "straw hut" where lived the first Chinese surfer of the island (A Wen - 26-year-old, he was born in Wanning. He arises from fishermen's family "and now of surfers with my brothers and my cousins" he specifies. Proud, he displays as being "the first surfer here and in Hainan". For him, "the surfing, it is easy. I managed to stand up the first time when I tried surfing. Because us, here, we are fishermen, we are used to negotiating with the sea. I was not afraid of surfing: we have the culture of the sea"). And his family, of which "Mama" her mother, was a kind of farm in front of which a small restaurant had been settled. In this farm, surfboards left over the years by the international surfers of passage, but also those realized by a Japanese surfer - professor of A Wen - had been stored. This equipment constituted a reserve to allow to dispense some courses of surfing to the rare tourists of passage. But all this remained home-made.

The restaurant of "Mama" before the development of the site of competition, in June, 2011 (Guibert C., October 2011).

Four months later, at the time of the competition of October, 2011, the "straw hut" is destroyed and replaced by a vast building(two levels). The ground floor is a restaurant at the end of which boards previously quoted are stored in a glazed room. The first floor includes a bar, an outdoor dance floor completed by offices and private dining rooms covered with suggestive names ("Teahupoo", "Pipeline", "Mentawai Islands", etc. - these names are the most famous "spots" of surfing of the Hawaiian Islands, Tahiti, and Indonesia.). Other building intended for the international surfers were built and of vast parking lots were hastily fitted out for the period of "Swatch Girl Pro". The manager of the ex-"straw hut" was rehoused in a small house nearby for the time of the competition: "The government told me to move here. Now I have this small shop" (interview led in October, 2011), A small grocer's shop. At the end of the interview, she admits - although with difficulty - to benefit from the usufruct of the new building and from the management of the bar and the restaurant. Her son
inherited a small building to develop a club of surfing. If, seemingly, "Mama" gains on the exchange, she has not less sudden the political strategy which wants to make of this beach the Mecca of the surfing in China, to the detriment of the traditional uses of the place (establishment for the Chinese workers, the traditional fishing zone at sea with small wooden boats, etc.). Her son, A Wen, is little talkative too about this restructuring of the site: "the new building belongs to me: I bought it. Hum, the government gave me the building, in fact I gave a little money". He however admits to hope to take advantage of the event and the mediatization of the site "to develop the business and develop the club" created in 2007, of which he is the president. He also plans to propose surfboards in the rent ("that's it what relates most"), give courses to the tourists ("to people of the whole world, not only inhabitants of the province"), to sell T-shirt, etc.

The new functions of a place: imposition of tourism (Guibert C., October 2011).

The effects of a tourist policy in Wanning
The imposition of this tourist policy had several effects on the population of Wanning. The first one was a distant posture from most of the local visitors, as observed in 2011 and 2012, nobody or almost practising the surfing in this locality. On the other hand the inhabitants of the bay of Wanning (riyuebay) were expropriated for the general interest, that of the dream of the municipality, Wishing to position differently from other stations and resorts on the east coast of Hainan. It is a meticulous analysis of the effects of the tourist policy of Wanning that this communication wishes to present, For that purpose, the investigation bases itself on four stays on the ground, from 2011 to 2013 when observations and 20 semi-directive interviews were led, in French, in English or in mandarin according to the mother tongue of people
encountered. The officials of Wanning, the office of the tourism of Wanning and of the island of Hainan, and the dislodged inhabitants constituted our corpus.

More generally, through this case, it is the effects of the tourist imposition that are studied in China, with a comparison of this case with others already studied by the authors somewhere else on the Chinese coast. We will also show that if the political imposition remains strong, new powers begin to get organized with associations which the local governments confronts but gradually need.

**Indicative bibliography**

**Keywords**
Expropriations, tourism, Chinese coast, Hainan, political imposition.
The relationship of Chinese generation Y’s intercultural sensitivity and travel purchase decisions in international leisure travel

Yawan He and Li Wei
Sichuan University

Introduction

Intercultural sensitivity as one of the manifest theoretical works in cross-cultural communication and cultural adaptation has been extensively investigated in the business, oversea study and immigration filed. Tourism, the most common form of face-to-face intercultural contact has yet to be adopted this perspective. (Rasmi et al., 2014). In today’s world, tourists become the majority of exposures to intercultural interaction. Cultural difference one of significant pull factor of tourism destination was extensively discussed by scholars (Madhavan and Rastogi, 2013, Ng et al., 2007, Seddighi et al., 2001). Social-cultural factors influence tourist patterns, motivation and preferences in many aspects. For instance, large cultural distance between tourism destination and target tourism market would be more attractive for the tourist (Aktas et al., 2007). Exploring other places with distinctive cultural differences is a process of novelty, pleasure and learning chance for the tourist, but also a confusing experience. Apart from exotica attractiveness, the unfamiliar culture would cause the uncertainty, anxiety, communication barriers, even could be the constraints of outbound travel (Lepp and Gibson, 2003, Li et al., 2011). It is Novelty or risk? Intercultural sensitivity of individual plays an important role under this content.

Intercultural sensitivity

Intercultural sensitivity is the affective dimension of intercultural communication competence that refers to the emotional desire of an individual to understand, appreciate and accept cultural difference (Chen and Starosta, 1996). “Individual must be interested in other cultures, be sensitive enough to notice cultural differences and also be willing to modify their behavior as an indication of respect for people of other cultures”, this quality is the key of effective interaction cross-culture. (Bailenson et al., 2003) Olson and Kroeger find out that (2001) Individual with foreign language ability and oversea experience tend to have greater intercultural sensitivity.

Based on the study of Chen and Starosta (2000), Intercultural Sensitivity can be effectively measured by a 24 -item intercultural sensitivity scale (ISS). It has been tested in several researches for the reliability and validity in replication of ISS (Peng et al., 2010, Coffey et al., 2013) Five dimensions of ISS are listed below: Interaction Enjoyment, Interaction Engagement, Interaction Confidence, Respect For Cultural Differences And Interaction Attentiveness(Coffey et al., 2013). This scale is adopted in this study to capture the overall pictures of Chinese Generation Y’s intercultural sensitivity and evaluate their intercultural communication competence from affective level.

Chinese tourist and Generation Y

China as one of the fastest-growing outbound travel market in the world, has attracted worldwide attention. In 2012, Chinese, expenditure on travel abroad reached US$ 102 billion, overtaking American and Germans as the world’s major source and top spenders (UNWTO, 2014). Thanks to sustainable prosperity of national economy, rising disposable income,
benefits of appreciation of the RMB and relaxation of restrictions on foreign travel, the Chinese market has enjoyed sustained growth since 2000 by annual average of 22% (UNWTO Tourism 2020 Vision). The Annual Report of China Outbound Tourism Development 2014 from China Tourism Academy (CTA) reveals a noticeable information, 54% outbound tourists are born after 1980 (This group is defined as Chinese Y generation in this study), and the Chinese Generation Y becomes the mainstream of outbound tourist market(CTA, 2014). However, to the author best knowledge, only one English-language study (Jin et al., 2014) focused on this generation. It is therefore important for international tourism destinations to understand the whole picture of Chinese Y generation tourist, especially their intercultural sensitivity, travel pattern, preference of information source as well as their travel preferences of travel activities.

The main feature of Chinese Generation Y

Chinese Generation Y (Gen Y) also be defined as One-child Generation, Chinese Millennials, Ku (Cool) Generation, Post-80 and Post-90 Generation. It is comprised of particularly computer-savvy individual who were born between 1980 and 1996, have grown up in a dramatic changes society. They were born with three significant history events: the reform, opening-up policy and one-child policy. As the eyewitness of stunning speed of China’s economic development, influence of globalization and fast changing society with multi-social culture and diverse value systems, they have several distinctive features compare with anterior generation. Generation Y regard themselves as special because of their only child in the family. They are protected by their family and society, therefore they a disgust the risk and uncertainty. (Moore, 2005). Meanwhile, Gen Y as the best educated and most cultural diverse generation in history, which makes it more tolerant and open-minded towards different value and culture(Benckendorff et al., 2010). Those trails significantly shape Gen Y’s travel pattern, they travel more often; spending more on travel; booking more over the internet; information hungry and experience hungry. Travel as a way of life, they want to range of different experience, and would like interact with local people. (Richards and Confereration, 2007)

In sum, given the significant potential of Chinese Generation Y tourists, the foregoing review suggests that due to culture and socio-economic differences, Chinese travelers may have particular travel consumption behavior that are not yet well understood by international marketers. Only few studies have investigated the Mainland Chinese Generation Y outbound tourists. Therefore, the present study attempts to shed some light on this. Main purpose of this study is to provide an overall picture of Chinese Gen Y’s Intercultural sensitivity and investigate their travel pattern and preference of international leisure travel.

Methodology

This study design employed a survey approach (1) adopted an established scale to measure Chinese Gen Y’s intercultural sensitive; (2) to capture their travel pattern and preference of international leisure travel from age 18 to 35. Data used in this study were obtained from an online panel survey (to balance the geographic difference and avoid sampling bias) of Chinese Gen Y leisure travelers sampling methods: Quota sampling (keeps the balance of 2 sub-group Post-80 and Post-90 and also should consider they in different life cycle stage and occupation. a) 7-pointsLikert-type scale measurement and pilot–test was adopted before the large-scale survey is conducted.

- Key measures:
Based on the generation theory and the tourism consumption system, the key measures include: Chinese Generation Y intercultural sensitivity was tested by the Intercultural sensitivity measurement instrument developed by Chen & Starosta (2000); tourists information preferences(borrowed from: Baloglu, 1996, S. Baloglu, 1999, Li et al., 2013) ; preference travel activities borrowed from comprehensive literature review (A.G. Woodside, 2002, Li et al., 2013) Demographic information (including: age, education, annual household income, occupation). Oversea experiences and foreign language ability information also collected in the survey.

**Result and discussion**

The online survey was conducted from 15th to 22th September 2014. 310 questionnaires received, 292 valid responses were kept in the final analysis. Respondent’s demographic profile shows that 98% of respondents had received collage/university and higher qualification. 42.5% of respondents are having professional career including civil servant, businessperson, teacher, clerk/white-collar worker, blue-collar worker and senior manager and colleague students is the largest proportion (57.5%) Household gross monthly income reported by 61% of respondents was more than 8000 yuan (equivalent to approximate AUD$1333). The reliability of intercultural sensitivity scale is high (Cronbach α =.829) The ISI (Intercultural Sensitivity Index) of the Chinese Gen Y surveyed can, in general, be described as medium (73.4) since it is above the theoretical mean (72). Language capability has positive relationship with IS. 57% of the respondents had oversea experience (for study, travel and business, including Hong Kong and Macao). 20% of candidates have more than 5 oversea travel experiences. For the wiliness of international travel, 77% of sample definitely would travel overseas during next 3 years. The most preference source of information for Chinese Gen Y is online source (destination website, search engines customer review, blog), recommendation from reference group and book/movie/news are following. Only 3.8% would choose fully packaged tour for the international travel. Chinese Gen Y shows distinctive difference from the previous study of Chinese outbound tourist (Sparks and Pan, 2009). They are more confidence when then interaction with people from different culture as well as their communication ability. Fully packaged tour was the most preference travel, but for Chinese Gen Y this type of travel cannot satisfy their needs of diversity, experience oriented and self-controlled. For the preference of travel activities, (see Fig1) Chinese Gen Y show the strong interest on the natural scenery (Beaches for swimming and sunning; Visit countrysides) and cultural related activates( Unique architecture; Attending local festivals; Trying local food). “Shopping for brand product such as watch, cosmetics”, “Nightclubs/dancing” and “Visiting casinos/gambling” are ranked as least favorable travel activates. Low preference of “Nightclubs/dancing” This result shows the distinctive difference compare with the Generation Y tourist in western. These results could be explained by the different level of uncertainty avoidance and social value. Unlike their prior generations Chinese Gen Y might not prefer the luxury, branding shopping, cultural and experience related product are more attractive. Besides the reason of purchase power, this might indicate the young Gen Y is more sophisticated in international traveling and cultural-experience orientated.
Conclusion

Given the importance of Chinese Generation Y tourists, the foregoing review suggests that due to culture and socio-economic differences, Chinese travelers may have particular travel consumption behavior that are not yet well understood by international marketers. This study is to provide an overall picture of Chinese Gen Y’s Intercultural sensitivity and investigate their travel pattern and preference of international leisure travel. Understanding their travel patterns and preference international would also allow practitioners to effectively develop marketing programs tailored to specific generational segments.

References


S. BALOGLU, K. W. M. 1999. A model of destination image formation

Annals of Tourism Research, 26, 868-897.


A critical review on academic views of tourism in China

Songshan (Sam) Huang

School of Management, University of South Australia, Adelaide, Australia

This paper provides a critical review on Chinese indigenous scholars’ epistemological understandings of tourism. It notes that the Chinese way of thinking may be directed by some Chinese cultural traditions but nevertheless the recent introduction of Marxism as the orthodox ideology and some Western thoughts would also exert on Chinese academics’ intellectual works. In the English-speaking tourism academia, attempts to defining tourism are many. Most early articles in this regard seemed to take a positivistic view and position tourism as a field of study in a multidisciplinary framework. Although tourism as a complex human phenomenon would worth philosophical inquiries, for a long time, and it might still be so for the time being, with very few exceptions, tourism has not be studied from philosophic perspectives. Tourism and philosophy are yet to be married in academic inquiries.

Understanding the essence of tourism would naturally prompt an inquirer to probe into philosophic issues. In China, the cultural and linguistic connotations associated to Chinese words of “tourism” should be taken into consideration when understanding the meaning of tourism. The Chinese word “游” denotes a state of being which frees up one’s body, mind and spirit. And such a state of being would be pursued and enjoyed by all social members, irrespective of their social class. Therefore, to Chinese people, tourism may represent a more desired-for life state. Certainly, Chinese people are less concerned with being called “tourists” than those from Western countries.

This paper elaborates on a small number of selected scholars’ views and scholarly works on the essence of tourism. These include: Professor Xie Yanjun’s views and framework of understanding tourism by differentiate tourism world from life world; Professor Zhang Lingyun’s construction of the “unusual environment” concept in questing for the essence of tourism; Professor Cao Shitu’s critiques on Xie and Zhang’s definitions of tourism and his own seemingly more indigenous interpretation of tourism from the cultural meaning of the Chinese word “游”; and Zhang Bin’s view of tourism using Marxist historical materialism as an analytical framework. All these epistemological views of tourism are embodied in scholarly works published in Chinese. However, they seem to be important and influential to further direct tourism research in China and should be made known to the tourism academia outside China.
Interpreting Australian landscapes for Chinese visitors

Karen Hughes and Isabella Ye

University of Queensland

Key Words: Chinese students; perceptions of Australian landscapes; preferences for interpretation

Introduction

Landscapes and their meaning have been studied from a number of disciplinary perspectives including geography, geology, archaeology, psychology and anthropology. The focus of these studies varies considerably, but what binds them together is the assumption that landscapes contribute to our sense of who we are. Because our cultural and personal identities are closely linked to events that occur in the physical environment, landscapes provide a spiritual and spatial ‘anchor’ (Stephenson, 2008).

If landscapes and cultural identity are inextricably entwined, do our perceptions of landscapes and nature differ depending on our cultural backgrounds? Does familiarity lead to appreciation and understanding? Should we be designing different interpretive experiences for different cultural groups, and if so, how do we interpret nature in a way that is meaningful for those with little or no exposure to such environments? Are ‘best practice’ principles of interpretation, which were developed in Western contexts, appropriate for Chinese tourists? These questions form the basis of this paper.

Chinese perceptions and interpretation of landscapes

Domestic tourism in China developed in the Shang dynasty (circa 1600 – 1050BC), when emperors and courtiers began travelling to distant mountains, rivers, lakes and other natural formations to pay respects to ancestral gods and spirits believed to reside there (Sofield and Li, 1998). Confucianism, which venerates landscapes through art, calligraphy and poetry, also inspired Chinese domestic tourism to the areas of scenic beauty depicted in these traditional artistic and literary works. Indeed, Confucius himself advocated that individuals should travel in the natural environment in order to experience and appreciate mountains and rivers (Pearce and Lu, 2011).

Seeking enlightenment and cultural meaning is clearly evident in patterns of domestic tourism, as sites that have inspired famous art and literary works are now visited by millions of Chinese every year. Many travel set routes established over the centuries, ‘ticking off’ important sites in a predetermined sequence and reciting famous literary pieces as they proceed (Li and Sofield, 2008). The idea is to ‘walk in the footsteps of the famous’ and to connect on many levels with the work of art and its creator.

Given the above, it is perhaps not surprising that the Chinese worldview is anthropocentric (placing humans first) and anthropomorphic (assigning animals, plants and natural features human characteristics). While travel to ‘scenic spots’ is popular, such travel is not synonymous with hardship or being in the wilderness per se (Xu, Ding and Packer, 2008) and Chinese tourists have little interest in, or experience of, immersive or ‘hard’ ecotourism (Wen and Ximing, 2008). This aligns with Hughes, Wang and Shu’s (under review) study of the travel behaviour of Chinese students living in Australia. Respondents’ interest in nature-based activities was more ‘look but don’t touch’ than experiential per se, with many citing safety concerns (insects, snakes, getting lost, lack of outdoor living skills) as a major barrier to exploring natural areas.
The rise of Asian tourism heralds the age of developing global approaches to designing meaningful tourist experiences (Winter, 2009). There is an urgent need to identify similarities and differences between Western and Asian visitors in terms of expectations, preferences and perceptions and consider how these could influence our approaches to managing and interpreting landscapes. ‘Best practice’ principles of interpretation evolve from Western discourse (Winter, 2009), but little research has explored whether these are effective for Asian audiences.

Studies exploring interpretation in China suggest that practices are quite different from those commonly found in countries such as Australia. Chinese thinking is often figurative or metaphorical and involves making associations between images and the object being viewed. Thus, landscape formations in China tend to be interpreted with reference to the animate objects that they resemble (Xu, Cui, Ballantyne and Packer, 2013), for example in the Huangshan World Heritage Site there is a rock called “Pig-headed Monk Eating Watermelon”, a tree with spreading branches called “Welcoming Guests Pine”, and two intertwined pines known as “Two Lovers Embracing” (Li and Sofield, 2008). Such labels and descriptions would rarely be found in Western interpretation. Rather, tour guides and signage tends to focus on the scientific reasons underlying the formation of landscapes.

With the anticipated rise in Chinese tourism to Australia, it is timely to explore what implications these differences have for how we present our landscapes to Chinese visitors. Do Chinese also use symbolic and cultural references to interpret Australian landscapes? What are their ‘anchor’ points? What do they ‘see’ and how can we springboard off this to provide meaningful commentary that helps them understand and appreciate what they are looking at? Using photographs, the aim of this study was to explore Chinese perceptions, preferences and information requirements of a range of Australian landscapes.

Method
Twenty photographs of Australian landscapes were selected from Tourism Australia’s Image Gallery. These were shown to ten tourism academics who were asked to select the eight considered to best represent Australia. The following images formed the final picture gallery: The Three Sisters; Daintree Rainforest; Cradle Mountain; Kata tjuta; Mission Beach; Outback Queensland; Murray River and The Twelve Apostles.

One hundred and fifty respondents were recruited from UQ’s undergraduate and postgraduate tourism graduate courses. Respondents were shown the eight photographs one at a time and asked to describe their feelings/thoughts about each scene; whether they would be interested in visiting the place depicted and why/why not; and information Chinese visitors would need to ‘make sense’ of the landscape. They were also asked to indicate which interpretive topics (eg. stories, poetry, scientific information, indigenous history) would be best suited to each landscape.

This data is currently being analysed to identify key themes in relation to Chinese students’ perceptions of the eight Australian landscapes, and the information they think they and Chinese visitors would need to understand and appreciate these sites. Preliminary analysis suggests that Chinese have strong emotional reactions to Australian landscapes, describing it in terms such as purifying, relaxing, surprising and seductive. They wanted to know how features of the landscape were formed and why the places depicted are important to Australians. Many expressed safety concerns (snakes, insects, wild animals).
The second stage will comprise a focus group interview with eight Chinese students selected from the first stage who have travelled extensively. Discussions will be conducted in Chinese and will explore participants’ perceptions and evaluations of the interpretation provided during their travels and its suitability for the Chinese market. Suggestions for tailoring interpretive commentaries and written materials for Chinese visitors will also be obtained. Responses will be analysed using Leximancer.

Implications
The aim of this study is to investigate how Chinese students view the Australian landscape – how do they react to our natural areas and what sorts of information do we need to provide to help them ‘make sense’ of what they encounter? Given that the quality of interpretation has been shown to have a significant impact on tourist satisfaction, this has important long-term implications for the success of Chinese tourism in Australia. Responses will provide an insight into whether we need to adjust our interpretation to allow for a Chinese world view. Thus, this study will not only inform practice but will also enable us to consider whether and how ‘best practice’ principles of interpretation might need to be adjusted for non-Western markets.

References


What do Chinese tourists to South East Queensland worry about?

Xin Jin, Susanne Beeken and Wu Lei

Xin Jin and Susanne Beeken
Griffith University

Wu Lei
Hunan University

Introduction

The growth in Chinese outbound tourism is phenomenal: just under 100 million Chinese are now engaging in international travel. China is the world’s largest spender on international tourism with US$ 128.6 billion in 2013 (United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2014). The rapid expansion of Chinese tourism is attracting increasing attention by government organizations, tourism investors, businesses, and researchers. Academically, relatively little attention has been paid to barriers to travel or challenges that Chinese tourists might face once they are travelling overseas. Tourism can be ‘hard work’ (MacCannell, 1976) and self-planned trips can ‘go wrong’. Obtaining necessary travel documents, booking flights, organizing itineraries, finding accommodation and staying safe at the destination are all necessary elements of a successful holiday. They may also be the cause of worry (Brun, Wolff & Larsen, 2011). Chinese tourists, just like their Western counterparts, are likely to worry about some aspects of their trip, whether they relate to logistical arrangements, personal health and safety, or psychological risks.

To understand if and how Chinese tourists worry about their overseas travel, it is important to develop a robust scale that allows measurement of different levels and aspects of worry (Borkovec et al., 1998). In addition, mechanisms that underlay personal worry in Chinese tourists should be examined to gain insights into why certain types of Chinese tourists might worry more than others, and how they deal with the challenges they worry about. The literature indicates that worry might be related to coping, which is an individual’s ability to deal with adversity and minimize stress, and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person’s belief in their ability to succeed in specific situations.

Several scales already exist to measure tourist worry (Larsen et al., 2009), coping (Endler & Parker, 1990) and self-efficacy (e.g. Schwarzer, 1993). A context-specific tourist self-efficacy scale was developed specifically for this research. Most existing scales have been developed by Western researchers and tested for cultural contexts that differ from the Chinese focus of this present research. As part of the broader research project, the validity of these scales for the population of Chinese outbound tourists will be examined (Wu et al., forthcoming). Preliminary analysis indicates that all scales used in the research are valid. This present paper explores the levels of tourist worry, tourist self-efficacy and coping amongst Chinese tourists to the Gold Coast, and also unveils differences between different market segments, namely first time versus repeat visitors, group versus independent travellers, and Mainland Chinese versus other Chinese.

Methodology

This research involved four stages. First, the scales used to measure the different concepts had to be finalized. For the case of the tourist self-efficacy scale, items were compiled from
the literature to develop a preliminary scale for testing and further refining. The scales and items used in the research are shown in Table 1. The second stage involved translation of items into Chinese. Thirdly, all four scales were tested in a pilot study (N= 106). And fourthly, a tourist survey was undertaken to measure tourists’ worry, coping, and tourist self-efficacy.

**Table 1** Scale items of tourist worry, coping and tourism self-efficacy. All items were measured on a Likert scale, whereby 1 = do not agree and 7 = completely agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Scale items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Tourist worry (9 items)** | 1. When I plan a trip, I stay awake at night and worry.  
2. When I plan a trip, I often think that tourists are more exposed to crime and accidents than the local people are.  
3. When I plan a trip, I worry that hotel reservations, train tickets or other travel documents may contain mistakes.  
4. When I plan a trip, I worry about the possibility of acts of terrorism or war at the destination.  
5. When on a trip, I worry about petty crime (that someone will steal my belongings.)  
6. When on a trip, I constantly worry that something may go wrong.  
7. When on a trip, I worry that I will get lost or lose contact with my travel companions.  
8. When on a trip, I worry about the culture I visit is strange and scary.  
9. When on a trip, I worry about the language. |
| **Tourism self-efficacy (7 items)** | 10. I always feel confident when I recall my former successful tourism performance.  
11. I always feel confident when I visualize other people who had prior experience successfully.  
12. I always feel confident when I was encouraged by my family, friends or work companies to take the trip.  
13. I always feel relaxed.  
14. I always feel anxious or nervous.  
15. I always feel confident that I can get the right information about different booking choices, without the help of an agent.  
16. I always feel confident that I am able to get assistance by a travel agent or other companies. I believe they can help me. |
| **Coping (15 items)**       | 17. Remind myself what my priorities were for this trip.  
18. Work to understand better the different challenging tourism situations during my trip.  
19. Think about the trip and learn from my mistakes.  
20. Analyze what the problems were, before my next trip.  
21. Adjust my priorities before the next trip.  
22. Blame myself for procrastinating in difficult situations during this trip.  
23. Became very tense in difficult situations during this trip.  
24. Blame myself for being too emotional in difficult situations during this trip.  
25. Daydream about a better time or place when encountering difficult situations during this trip.  
26. Fantasize about how things might turn out when faced with a difficult situation during this trip.  
27. Treated myself to a favorite food or snack after this trip.  
28. Want to visit a friend after this trip.  
29. Want to spend time with a special person after this trip.  
30. Go and see a movie after this trip. |

A questionnaire-based survey was administered in two locations, namely Surfer Paradise on the Gold Coast and South Bank in Brisbane. Data were collected during four weekends beginning 31st August and ending 6th October in 2013. No incentives were offered, but response rate was very high (90%), probably because all research assistants involved were of Chinese nationality. A total of 491 questionnaires were returned. Because the opportunity presented itself, additional data were collected at Gold Coast International Airport and through a Chinese tour operator (N= 38; 16th September 2013). The final sample included 529 responses: 220 from the Gold Coast and 309 from Brisbane. Due to some missing data, the final sample included 477 valid responses.
For the purpose of this present paper, data were analysed using descriptive statistics and t-tests to examine statistically significant differences between groups.

Findings

Of particular interest to this research was whether there are systematic differences in tourist worry, tourist self-efficacy and coping amongst different market segments of Chinese outbound visitors to South East Queensland.

Repeat visitors

Repeat visitors worried significantly less on six items from the tourist worry scale (Figure 1). The most pronounced difference related to language – incidentally also the one item that Chinese visitors worried most about. First time visitors scored higher on problem-focused coping items, for example “I think about the trip and learn from my mistakes”. This is plausible, as the ‘learning curve’ might be greater for those who visited Australia for the first time. In terms of tourist self-efficacy, repeat visitors felt significantly more relaxed than first time visitors, and the also felt more confident that I could get the right information about different booking choices, without the help of an agent.

![Figure 1 Significant differences in worry by first time versus repeat visitors.](image)

Tour group versus Free Independent Travellers

Overall, levels of worry were quite low; however FITs worried significantly more about travel arrangements and logistics compared with tour group visitors. In turn, those on a group tour indicated that they stayed awake more often due to worry about their trip. The coping behaviour between the two segments was quite different (Figure 2). Both problem-focused coping (the first four items in Figure 2), and avoidance coping (i.e. having a snack, visiting a
friend, and seeing a special person) were strategies more frequently employed by FITs. Further research is warranted to explore whether this is due to bad experiences or other behavioural characteristics typical of FIT travellers. The differences in tourist self-efficacy between the two segments were mixed.

**Figure 2** Significant differences in coping by tour group versus FIT travellers.

**Mainland Chinese versus other Chinese**

Differences between tourists residing in Mainland Chinese and those from Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan were explored. Interestingly, Mainland Chinese worried significantly less on five items on the worry scale (Figure 3). Mainland Chinese were also less involved in most of the coping strategies and they displayed higher level of tourist self-efficacy. The possible reasons for these differences require further research; for example in relation to previous travel experience, expectations, satisfaction and safety perceptions of Australia.
Conclusion

This research forms part of a project on tourist worry, in which levels of worry amongst Chinese outbound tourists are explored, alongside related concepts of coping and self-efficacy. The findings presented here indicate that Chinese tourists generally do not worry much; however, they are concerned about language difficulties. Repeat visitors appear considerably more confident and worry less than first time visitors. Further, those who travel independently worry more, probably because they are more responsible for their travel arrangements. Finally, Mainland Chinese appear to worry less and feel more confident about their travel to Australia. Partly this could be related to the fact that Mainland Chinese were also more likely to be part of a tour group, than other Chinese tourists who predominantly travelled independently.

References


Generation Y, what are the predictor and outcomes of their career expectation?

Prof Haiyan Kong
Shandong University (Weihai), China

Key words: career expectation, organizational career management, career satisfaction, organizational identity, Generation Y employees.

1. Introduction

Generation Y employees, who were born 1981-2000 (Gursoy, Chi, & Karadag, 2013) have dominated the workforce of the hospitality industry in China (Zhou, 2009). Generation Y employees expect well-paid and good welfare (Ng et al, 2010), as well as an interesting and challenging job (Kong, Cheung, & Zhang, 2010). In China, as most Generation Y employees are from a one-child family, they show the characteristics of being self-focused and having less sense of responsibility (Li, 2007). Different from previous generations, they are concerned more with work-life balance and career development and planning (Kwok, 2012).

One of the important ways to recruit and retain qualified young talents is to meet their career expectation, and support their career development (Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012). Career expectations indicate real, reachable thoughts and career targets that an individual wishes to gain (Armstrong & Crombie, 2000; Metz et al., 2009). Previous studies have explored the influencing factors of career expectation, such as gender, prior achievement, and socio-economic background (Gutman & Schoon, 2012), age, context, and personal career adaptability (Hirschi, 2010), as well as pay and work-life balance (Broadbridge, Maxwell, & Ogden, 2007; Maxwell, Ogden, & Broadbridge, 2010). However, limited research attention has been paid to its predictors from the organizational perspective. This constitutes a significant shortcoming especially in emerging new workforce, where research on Generation Y’s career issues is still at an early stage and firm conclusions on major predictors and outcomes of career expectation are premature. Moreover, it is also important to explore whether career satisfaction and responsibility of young employees may be enhanced once their career expectations are met. This study, therefore, aims to explore the influence of organizational career management on career expectation, as well as the effects of career expectation on career satisfaction and organizational identity.

Figure 1. The proposed framework
2. Literature review

2.1 Relationship between organizational career management and career expectation
Organizational career management, indicates the programs, processes, and assistance that are provided by organizations to support and enhance the career success of their employees (Ng et al., 2005). It has been found that career mentoring and workshops provided by the organization contribute positively to employees’ career expectation (Terri, Scandura, & Williams, 2012). Martin (1998) stated that it is easy to reach psychological contract between employees and their organizations if organizations support employees’ career expectation by providing career training and development. On the other hand, organizational career management activities may not be practiced effectively if the organizations failed to meet the career expectation of their employees (Atkinson, 2002). As an important predictor of career competencies, organizational career management played a decisive role on the career expectation of Generation Y employees (Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012). Based on the foregoing discussion, it is predicted that:

H1: Organizational career management may have a positive effect on career expectation.

2.2 Relationship between career expectation and career satisfaction
Career satisfaction refers the satisfaction that individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). Many factors have been found contributing to career satisfaction, such as perceived organizational support (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012), career competencies (Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012), health status (Armstrong-Stassen & Caneron, 2005), and work-family supportive supervisors (Kong, 2013).

As Generation Y employees consider more on career growth and advancement (Kong, Cheung, & Zhang, 2010), career expectations play an important role in career success and career satisfaction. It has been found that individuals with high career expectation perform active career behaviors, such as developing more career-related skills (Aryee & Debrah, 1993; Brown, Ardent, & Bosselman, 2014), building career-related networks, and involving in career mentoring (Kong et al., 2012). All these career activities may lead to high level of career satisfaction (Kong et al., 2012).

To meet their career expectation, individuals tend to set up career objectives, draw a clear picture of their career future, and involve in career management actively (Vos & Soens, 2008). People with clear career expectation and career objectives are more likely to obtain good career advancement opportunities (Schoon & Parsons, 2002), which in turn help to achieve career satisfaction and success. As a result, the consistency of career expectation and active career behaviors may result in high level of career satisfaction. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H2: Career expectation may have a positive effect on career satisfaction

2.3 Relationship between career expectation and organizational identity
Many definitions of organizational identity have been proposed, from cognitive perspective (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Pratt, 1998), affective-motivational perspective (Kelman, 1961; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986), and social identity theory perspective (Abrams et al., 1998; Benkhoff, 1997). Patchen (1970) proposed the most comprehensive definition of
organizational identity, which indicate (1) feelings of solidarity with the organization; (2) attitudinal and behavioral support for the organization; and (3) perception of shared characteristics with other organizational members” (p.155).

Career expectation is important in career management, work performance and organizational behaviors. With clear career expectations, Generation Y employees hope to meet personal career goals by seeking training and development opportunities (Eisner, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2010), having challenging work (Martin, 2005), and being determined to succeed (Broadbridge et al., 2007). Young employees are likely to reach their full potential and to perform at their best when their abilities are matched with their career expectations (Martin & Tulgan, 2006). The closer the match between career expectations of Generation Y employees may lead to the more positive organizational behaviors, such as collaboration and multi-tasking challenges resolution (Fairhurst, 2008). That is, when young employees realize their organization’s support on their career expectations, they would be likely to act in positive organizational support behaviors, such as high job performance and organizational identity (Karatepe, 2013). The consistency of career expectation and work values results in high work engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008), and high level of organizational identity. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H3: Career expectation may have a positive effect on organizational identity.

2.4 Relationship between organizational career management and career satisfaction
Organizations may enhance employees’ career satisfaction by providing various kinds of career support activities (Kong et al., 2012). It has been found that career management activities, such as training and mentoring contributed positively to career satisfaction (Aryee & Chay, 1994; Burke, 2001; Ghosh & Reio, 2013). When employees perceived the career support of their organizations, they would be likely to perform well in the job and achieve high level of career satisfaction (Kong et al., 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Previous studies have found that perceived career support activities, such as career advancement opportunities, training and education support, as well as the development of new skills were all positively related to career satisfaction (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Stamper & Johlke, 2003). Thus, organizational career management is an important predictor of career satisfaction. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H4: Organizational career management may have a positive effect on career satisfaction.

2.5 Relationship between organizational career management and organizational identity
Perceived organizational career management may lead to career satisfaction as well as positive organizational behaviors (Aryee & Chay, 1994; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). When employees perceived career support from their organizations, they tend to perform well and committed to their organization (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). They feel as a member of their organization and are proud of their organizations’ success. The practice of organizational career management leads to high level of organizational commitment and identity. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H5: Organizational career management may have a positive effect on organizational identity.
2.6 The mediating effect of career expectation

Generation Y employees concerned more on career promotion, training and education opportunities, and job security (Maxwell et al., 2010). Young employees with high career expectations tend to seek career advance opportunities (Eisner, 2005), have challenging work (Martin, 2005), embrace career goals (Eisner, 2005), and show great persistence in pursuing career success (Kerslake, 2005; Broadbridge et al., 2007). Organizations may meet career expectations of young employees by providing effective career support activities, such as prompt performance feedback, career development advice, training, mentoring, and job rotation opportunities (Kong et al, 2010; 2012). The practice of tailor-made career support may meet career expectations of young generation, and encourage them to obtain good career advancement opportunities (Schoon & Parsons, 2002), develop career-related skills, and being determined to succeed (Kerslake, 2005; Broadbridge et al., 2007a), which indicate the achievement of career satisfaction. That is, organizations may enhance employees’ career satisfaction by matching their career expectations. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H6: Career expectation may mediate the relationship between organizational career management and career satisfaction.

Personal career development is particularly important to Generation Y employees (Maxwell et al., 2010). Young employees prefer to have challenging work and strive to make a difference in the company (Eisner, 2005; Martin, 2005). When their abilities are matched with their career expectations, they tend to reach their full potential and to perform at their best (Martin & Tulgan, 2006), such as enabling collaborative, and confronting multi-tasking challenges (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008). That is, when young employees realize their organization’s support on their career expectations, they would be likely to act in positive organizational support behaviors, such as high job performance and service recovery performance (Karatepe, 2013). These reflected that employees care more on customers’ comment on their organizations and would like to do more for their organizations’ success, which indicated a high level of organizational identity. Put more simply, organizational career management activities provide appropriate career support for employees to secure organizational identity by matching their career expectations. This generates the following prediction.

H7: Career expectation may mediate the relationship between organizational career management and organizational identity.

3. Research methodology

3.1 Research design

This study targeted on the young employees working in service industry in China. Participants were asked to answer their perceptions of organizational career management, career expectations, job satisfaction, and organizational identity. All questions were measured by a seven-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly).

3.2 Instrument measurement

Perceived organizational career management was measured using a thirteen-item measure developed by Kong, Cheung, and Song (2011). Career expectation was measured by twenty-one items developed by Wu & Li (2001). Career satisfaction was measured by items developed by Greenhaus et al (1990). Six items developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992) were used to measure organizational identity.
3.3 Data Collection
Data were collected nationwide by convenience sampling method. The survey was conducted in economic and commercial cities and main tourist cities in China, such as Beijing, Shanghai, Hanzhou, Qingdao, and Jinan. A total of 550 questionnaires were distributed, and 476 valid questionnaires were collected, with respondent rate of 86.5%.

3.4 Data analysis method
Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to analyze the data. Procedurally, individual measurement model was examined first, followed by overall measurement model, and finally, the structural was tested.

4. Results
The individual and overall measurement models were all tested to fit the data well. The model fit indices of structural model was as follows: \( \chi^2 =202.69, \text{df}=111, \text{CFI}=0.98, \text{GFI}=0.95, \text{and RMSEA}=0.04 \), which indicated that the model represented a very good fit to the data.

The findings indicated that organizational career management is an important and positive predictor of career expectations of Generation Y employees. Organizational career management also contributes positively to career satisfaction and organizational identity. In addition to the direct positive effect on career satisfaction and organizational identity, career expectation also mediates the relationships between organizational career management and career satisfaction as well as organizational identity.

The results of this study may provide both academic and practical implications. To attract and retain qualified young talents, managers should try to match the career expectations of Generation Y employees by providing them with tailor-made career support activities. Once young employees realize their organization is helping to make their dream of career come true, they will be more likely to perform well and have high level of organizational identity. This will be a win-win situation for both organizations and Generation Y employees.

References


The role of key Chinese culture values in Chinese travellers’ perception on Australian hotel service

Xavier Leong, Emily Ma, Anoop Patiar and Lisa Beesley

Griffith University

Key Words: Chinese Culture Values, Tourists Satisfaction, Hotel Services

Introduction

The tourism industry is a rapidly growing industry making significant contribution to the Australian economy. In Australia, tourism accounts for 2.7% of the total Gross Domestic Product (GDP), making it the eighth largest tourism destination in the world (Tourism Research Australia, 2012). Over the recent years China has become Australia's most valuable inbound tourism market (Tourism Research Australia, 2012) and Chinese visitors arrivals are forecasted to reach 1 million by 2021 (Deloitte, 2012).

Given the growing importance of Chinese travellers to Australia and their unique cultural values, it is crucial for the tourism and hospitality businesses to develop deeper understandings of the needs and expectations of Chinese travellers. Confucian cultural values, such as “face” and “harmony”, have been long embedded in the personality of Chinese people. In the design of tourism and hospitality products and service, it is important to integrate and reflect Chinese cultural values to ensure customers’ perceived experience exceeds their expectations (Lockyer and Tsai, 2004). To date, little research has been undertaken to examine Chinese cultural values in relation to the service experience particularly in the hotel sector (Hoare, Butcher, & O’Brien, 2011; Lockyer & Tsai, 2004). To fill the gap in the literature this study proposes to investigate if Chinese travellers’ needs are being fulfilled and expectations met during their visit to Australia. More specifically, this study aims to first, identify the core culture values of Chinese travellers; second, assess how the performance of hotels reflect these values in influencing Chinese travellers’ (a) attitude and (b) behaviour intentions.

Literature Review

Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction

Service quality is defined as a global evaluation or attitude of overall excellence of services (Parasuraman, et al., 1985). The importance of service quality as an antecedent of customer satisfaction and loyalty has been proved by many these famous numerous studies. Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1985) identified 22 important attributes (the SERVQUAL scale) that would impact service. However, these scales were built on Western contexts. Due to the differences between Eastern and Western cultures, key culture values should be infused with the scale when measuring customers’ service quality perceptions in Eastern cultures.

Key Chinese Culture Values

Reisinger and Turner (1999) identified significant difference in service quality perceptions between Western and Eastern travellers, suggesting that it might be necessary to include cultural specific measures when assessing Chinese travellers’ experience in Australia.
According to Hofstede’s national cultural framework, China is labelled as High Power Distance, Low Individualism and High in Long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1984). In addition, China preserves unique culture values embedded in the Confucianism culture (Fan, 2000), emphasizing harmony and relationships. Key values include “Face”, “Respect for Age, Seniority and Authorities”, “Tolerance of Others”, “Desire for Harmony, Stability and Order in Society” and “Favours”. “Face” refers to the public image obtained through interactions with others (Lin et al., 2013). In China, reverence is always readily given for elders (Mok & Defranco, 2000). Chinese think "being tolerant" is a rigid attitude, especially when it was for the harmony of the family and society. Chinese people would try one’s best to reciprocate a favour (Wang et al., 2005).

Given the importance of Chinese culture values, we propose that hotels’ service performance related to key aspects of Chinese values will significantly influence Chinese travellers’ experience with Australia, particularly in the hotel sector.

**Method**

The research took a quantitative approach. A questionnaire was used to collect data from Chinese group travellers in Brisbane. A total of 260 questionnaires were distributed and 227 completed questionnaires were received and used for data analysis, giving it a response rate of 87%. Measurements of service quality and key Chinese culture values were adapted from previous literature (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1985; Lockyer and Tsai, 2004). A five-point-Likert type scale was used. The questionnaire was translated into Chinese, using the back-translation method as suggested by (Brislin, 1970).

**Findings**

**Profile of Respondents**

Table 1 provides a demographic and travel related profile of the Chinese travellers who participated in this study.

Table 1. Profile of Chinese travellers (N = 229)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Profile of Respondents</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group (years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-33</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34-43</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44-53</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 or older</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59
| Professional (e.g. doctor, tax-counsellor) | 43 | 18.8 |
| White-collar (e.g. government staff) | 29 | 12.7 |
| Pink-collar (service industry) | 40 | 17.5 |
| Blue-collar (e.g. driver) | 3 | 1.3 |
| Unemployed (e.g. student, housewife, retired) | 98 | 42.7 |

The star rating of hotel stayed*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 stars</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 stars</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 stars</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 stars</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-rating</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Travel pattern

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIT</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tours/Groups</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor Analysis

Principle components analysis of the modified service attributes incorporating key Chinese cultural values generated seven factors, namely Tangibility, Competence, Assurance, Empathy, Face, Harmony and Favour. The factors explained a large percentage of the total variances and showed strong reliability (Table 2, will include in the full paper).

Regression Analysis

Two regressions were performed to establish how these factors influence Chinese travellers’ satisfaction and loyalty (See Table 3). The first regression equation examined the effect of seven factors on customers’ overall satisfaction. Six factors jointly explained 52.1% of the total variance in customers’ overall satisfaction. Two cultural values factors (Harmony and Favour) were significant predictor of customer satisfaction, while face was not.

\[
\text{Overall Satisfaction} = -0.255 + 0.204 \times \text{Tangibility} + 0.371 \times \text{Task Competence} + 0.09 \times \text{Assurance} + 0.114 \times \text{Empathy} + 0.181 \times \text{Harmony} + 0.150 \times \text{Favour}
\]

The second regression equation examined how customers’ overall satisfaction impacted on their WOM. Customers’ overall satisfaction explained 34.9% of the total variance in WOM.

\[
\text{WOM} = 1.644 + 0.659 \times \text{Overall Satisfaction}
\]

Table 3 Summary of regression analyses

| Model 1: SERVQUAL and Confucianism → Satisfaction |
| Model 2 Satisfaction → WOM |
### Limitation, Future Research and Conclusion

Several limitations need to be acknowledged. First, the non-probability sampling method limited the generalization of this study. Second, the majority of the participants stayed in luxury hotels that were 4 or 5 star properties, so the findings may not be applicable to lower-star and budget hotels. Future research should collect data from different types of hotels and should consider how certain demographic factors, such as age group/generation and gender, would influence the proposed relationships.

In conclusion, this research found that hotels’ performance on key Chinese cultural values had a significant effect on Chinese customers’ satisfaction and WOM behaviour. This research addressed the literature gap as well as contributed to some novel and empirical implications for the Australian hotel industry.

### References


The Chinese outbound tourists’ lodging preferences

Hong Li
Beijing International Studies University, China

Keyword: Chinese outbound tourists, lodging preferences, hotel, requirements

Abstract:
This paper discusses research about Chinese tourist lodging preference when abroad. China has a prosperous outbound tourism market. Because of rapid economic and social development, the number of Chinese outbound tourists is increasing and more countries seek to attract Chinese tourists. In the past Chinese chose to go abroad in a group where the hotel was arranged by the travel agency, but due to the ability to use the internet, more and more people choose to travel overseas by themselves. This means they must select their hotel and make their own travel plans. In response, many international hotel brands have added more Chinese elements to their service to meet the Chinese consumers’ need. A better understanding of Chinese tourists’ preferences is important for the hospitality industry.

In recent years, China has replaced Japan as Asia’s largest outbound travel market. According to the forecast of the World Tourism Organization, China will produce 100 million overseas tourists by 2020. In fact, the annual China Outbound Tourism Development Report for 2014 notes that in 2013, outbound travel reached 98.19 million people, up 18% from a year earlier. The expenditure during outbound tourism reached $128.7 billion, up 26.8% year-on-year. This report shows that in 2014 China's outbound tourism is expected to continue to maintain the high growth, outbound travel size 114 million, up 16% on the previous year, with spending of $140 billion, up 18% from a year earlier. Chinese outbound tour monitoring report by the Nielsen Company and Pacific Asia Travel Association indicate that Australia has the highest satisfaction of any Western tourist destination.

In Australia, tourism is the largest service export sector, there are 0.929 million people in Australia in occupations related to tourism. The Chinese mainland is Australia's biggest tourism market, with visitor numbers up 14% to 697,000 passengers, spending 5.1 billion yuan. Tourism Australian has announced a pioneering Chinese tourism market new scheme will work together to create an elite network with China Travel Service - a cooperative Australian tourism product to attract high net worth Chinese tourists to Australia. Tourism Australia head John O'Sullivan, said the plan is part of Tourism Australia’s "2020 Tourism Strategy", aimed at encouraging the affluent market to take an Australia vacation, and to FIT tourism. Chinese tourism market lacks large national chain travel agencies, and Tourism Australia hopes to provide more information and resources to the Chinese individual travelers through Chinese travel agencies.

According to these policies, Chinese outbound tourists will gradually replace the grouping traveler. That means consumers have to choose the lodging place by themselves creating a challenge to the hotel industry. Hotels must differentiate themselves to their potential customer. Considering this situation, many notable international hotel brands add more special services for Chinese tourists. Hilton Worldwide on October 23 announced that its new Chinese booking site will integrate with Hilton Worldwide hotel reservation system so that Chinese guests can book "one-stop" with many of the world's Hilton Worldwide Best Hotels. In addition, a specially designed for Chinese tourists traveling abroad - the "Hilton Welcome" program, will provide a comfortable homely stay for Chinese tourists. The program offers a
unique service for Chinese tourists, including the front desk staff fluent in Chinese, Chinese facilities in the room and traditional Chinese breakfast and so on.

Although international hotel brands are trying to improve their service for Chinese tourists, they also have some problem in providing these services. Like some international brand hotels’ Chinese reservation websites do not reflect “Chinese thinking”. A thorough understanding of the Chinese people's consumption habits and information interaction habits take a very long time to develop. In a digital marketing think tank report, a spot check of 17 international hotels indicated they do not support "Alipay", a highly popular Chinese customer payment system. Additionally, most simply translated into Chinese the hotel official website and do not provide for the Chinese version of the page or its international hotel booking process. The information does only introduces the hotel itself, provides insufficient information about the surrounding location, information for specific interest groups is needed; the website lacks interaction; does not connect with social networking sites or online customer service and so on. In addition, some pages automatically jump to the English page, and many website users easily get lost. In addition, the international hotels often overlook some essential elements necessary for Chinese visitors, such as the check-in time, room size, whether "free" Wifi or "free" breakfast is provided and so on. One of the challenges faced by the international brand hotel is how to balance internationalization and localization. In addition, the Chinese market has its own unique social media environment and web apps such as Wechat and Weibo are particularly important. There is a need for research to improve customers design.

Understanding Chinese tourists’ preference in lodging is extremely important to the hotel industry. Researching the preference for accommodation and understanding the tourism market segmentation is a precondition for achieving sustainable development of the tourism and hospitality industry.

Research that studies the lodging consumption preference of Chinese outbound tourists do can offer a reference helping the hotel industry promote their service and product, especially for the tourists who go to Europe, America, Australia and other new long-haul outbound tour. It also can help the Chinese hotel industry to understand how to open the overseas market and enhance their competitiveness.

References:


Potential methods for measuring emotion in Chinese tourism advertising

Shanshi Li¹, Noel Scott², Gabby Walters¹

1. Business School (Tourism Cluster), University of Queensland, Australia
2. Business School, Griffith University, Australia

Theme: research themes, method and agendas in Chinese tourism

Key words: tourist emotion; Chinese tourism advertising; self-report measure; psychophysiological measures of emotion; research methods

Advertising is a critical component in the tourism marketing mix (Morgan & Pritchard, 2013). It is through the advertising process that a destination management organization (DMO) differentiates itself from its competitors (Singh & Hu, 2012), and that potential tourism consumers learn about the DMO’s products and discover their latent needs (Mills, Lee, & Douglas, 2007). As China has been found to waste a large amount of money on ineffective tourism advertising campaigns every year, pursuing the maximum effectiveness of tourism advertising has long been regarded as an important issue for both academia and industry (Cha & Zhang, 2005). Therefore, understanding how tourism advertising affects consumers as well as examining the psychological process through which consumers respond to tourism advertising are particularly crucial processes in formulating more effective advertising strategies. A review of the Chinese tourism literature has found that most scholars still consider tourism consumers as rational decision-makers and that cognition is the sole indicator of tourism advertising effectiveness. Cha and Zhang (2005) focused on residents in Shanghai and revealed that consumers’ perceptions of the information in travel agents’ tourism advertising predict their final purchasing behaviours. Similarly, consumers’ judgements of tourism advertising were found to be important antecedents of final attitude formation (Huang, Tang, & Cheng, 2007; Ma, 2008). However, limited attention has been given to the consumer’s emotional response to tourism advertising as well as its crucial role in predicting advertising effects in the Chinese tourism research context.

In Western advertising studies, emotional response has been demonstrated to be an important component of the process involved in consumers’ response to advertising messages, and at the same level of importance as their conscious rational thoughts in this process (Micu & Plummer, 2010). Indeed, for hedonic or value-expressive products, emotion is found to dominate cognition in determining consumers’ purchasing behaviours (Sirgy, 1991). A large number of studies have established that consumers’ emotional responses generated by ads can influence their attitude towards ad and brand (Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Morris, Woo, Geason, & Kim, 2002), brand familiarity (Pieters, Rosbergen, & Wedel, 1999), brand choice (Stayman & Batra, 1991), attention to the ad (Olney, Holbrook, & Batra, 1991), recall (Englis, 1990; Pieters & de Klerk-Warmerdam, 1996), and purchasing intention (Aaker, Stayman, & Hagerty, 1986; Batra & Ray, 1986; Morris et al., 2002). However, understanding the role of emotion in predicting advertising effectiveness is still an under-researched area for Chinese tourism scholars and practitioners. Clearly, accurate measurement of emotions is an essential premise to better examining the mediating role of emotion in advertising; hence, the key purpose of this study is to provide an overview of available methods to measure emotions in advertising as well as to discuss their advantages and disadvantages. This offers multiple methodological perspectives for future Chinese tourism advertising research that involves emotion measurement.
Self-report measurements of emotion are still dominant in advertising research. Within this method, individuals are asked to express their perceived emotional responses to advertisements through a set of affective items (verbal) or cartoon-like figures (visual). Some studies adopt moment-to-moment rating to consciously record individuals’ emotions in real time. These approaches to measurement register individuals’ conscious emotional responses and are collectively termed ‘self-report’ methods (Poels & Dewitte, 2006).

Self-report measures are simple and low cost methods that can be used to capture individuals’ emotional reactions specifically in the study with a large sample. In particular, self-report measures shed light on individuals’ conscious thinking about ads, and can register their high-order emotions (Micu & Plummer, 2010). However, there are limitations in using self-report measures when measuring individuals’ emotions. Firstly, self-report measurements can distort tourists’ authentic emotional responses as they are often asked to recall their emotional experiences after viewing the ad. This may involve cognitive bias and socially desirable responses (Paulhus, 2002). Secondly, self-report measurements are inadequate in terms of providing a full explication of participants’ emotional experience in real time (Micu & Plummer, 2010). Although some studies have employed moment-to-moment ratings to measure respondents’ high-order emotions, such measurement may still seriously interfere with ‘emotion flow’ (Ravaja, 2004). Lastly, given that most self-reported scales always include a long list of affective adjectives, the rating process can be complex and result in participants’ fatigue.

Given the criticisms of self-report methods, psychophysiological methods have emerged and been used to provide a more authentic and unbiased approach to track individuals’ emotional responses (Morin, 2011; Ravaja, 2004). Psychophysiology is the branch of psychology that examines the variations in the activity of physiological systems evoked by internal psychological changes (Vögele, 1995). Psychophysiological measures can be more objective in reflecting individuals’ emotional responses compared to traditional self-report methods (Ravaja, 2004). As autonomic responses are not under voluntary control, they are able to provide unbiased portrayals of people’s initial emotional reactions to a situation or event (Stewart & Furse, 1982).

Most emotion studies that use psychophysiological instruments regard emotion as a multi-dimensional construct and assess it by valence and arousal dimension. The theoretical basis for this derives from a dimensional approach to the study of emotion in psychology. The dimensional approach attempts to identify a set of common dimensions of affect that can be utilized to differentiate among specific emotions. The two main dimensions used are affective valence (i.e., pleasant or unpleasant) and affective arousal (i.e., activation). Based on the dimensional approach, this study discusses two methods (i.e., skin conductance and facial electromyography) that are widely believed to be credible in measuring individuals’ emotional arousal and valence.

In terms of measuring individuals’ arousal levels, skin conductance (SC) technique has received much attention. SC data are usually collected through placing two standard 9mm diameter Ag/AgCl electrodes on the participant’s distal phalanx of both forefinger and middle finger of their non-writing hand. This technique derives from the scientific facts that physiological arousal leads to activation of the eccrine sweat glands (involved in emotion-evoked sweating), and can be measured by the skin’s resistance or conductance to electric currents (Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007; Klebba, 1985). Further, facial electromyography (EMG) has been demonstrated to be a reliable technique to measure individuals’ emotional valence (i.e., positive or negative) via facial muscle activities. Facial electromyography is
often recorded at the zygomatic and corrugator sites on the left side of the face by using Ag/AgCl miniature electrodes. This is due to the fact that increased activity at the zygomatic area relates to positive (pleasant) emotions, whereas negative (unpleasant) emotion relates to movements of the corrugator muscle (Lang, Greenwald, Bradley, & Hamm, 1993).

An advantage of psychophysiological measures is that emotional responses can be monitored in real time without significant cognitive bias. In addition, autonomic measurements provide valid tools to track spontaneous and unprompted emotions that an individual may not even perceive. Moreover, individuals’ emotional flows are not interrupted, and their emotional peaks when responding to some stimuli can be identified. However, since a single autonomic response can be the result of different aspects of emotion (e.g., arousal or attention), it may be difficult to find a direct correlation between specific aspects related to emotion and a physiological reaction. Hence, the combination of traditional self-report scales with autonomic measures is often used to examine subjects’ emotional variations (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007). Here, traditional self-report scales remain an useful tool to measure high-order or conscious emotions (Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007), while physiological measures of emotion can validate respondents’ self-report of their emotional states (Lambie and Marcel (2002). If the two methods provide different results then self-reporting is generally assumed to be invalid. However, it is necessary to test if data obtained from psychophysiological experiments in laboratory setting is also valid in a natural environment (Ravaja, 2004).

Through this overview of available methods to understand the role of tourists’ emotional responses in predicting advertising effectiveness, several opportunities may be identified that will benefit Chinese tourism advertising research. Firstly, future researchers can employ either self-report or psychophysiological methods to measure emotion and further examine its mediating role in the advertising process. In particular, comparison between individuals’ self-reported emotions and their data collected by psychophysiological techniques can reveal nuances between conscious emotions that involve more cognitive processing and subconscious emotional responses. Secondly, the application of psychophysiological measurement may also provide valid ways for Chinese tourism advertisers to design new destination ads. Thus, if managers want to add more emotion-based stimuli to their ads, they can present potential Chinese tourists with various stimuli and then analyse which of these stimuli elicit high levels of arousal by using EDA. Further, the stimuli that are found to evoke the more positive emotions can also be examined by adopting EMG technique. This would allow authentic and objective data of emotional responses to be gathered. Lastly, the psychophysiological method can track Chinese tourists’ emotions continuously, their ‘emotional peaks’ during exposure to a destination ad can be identified. The scenes or attractions that provoke these emotional peaks may offer valuable insights into destination positioning and the determination of destination image.

This study briefly discusses the major methods used to measure consumers’ emotional responses to advertising, which provides insights for both Chinese tourism researchers and industry managers who are seeking to enhance the effectiveness of tourism ad. However, it is important to note that there is no ‘gold standard’ measure of emotional response (Mauss & Robinson, 2009). Only by employing multiple methods from different disciplines and staying at the international frontier of the advertising research can Chinese tourism studies take its first steps in the area of consumers’ emotional responses to advertising.

References


Research on governance system and governance capability in China's hotel industry

Xiang Li¹, Gu Huimin²

Beijing International Studies University

The general purpose of deepening its all-round reform that is laid down at the Third Plenary Session of the 18th CPC Central Committee is to develop socialism with Chinese characteristics, to advance modernization in the State governance system and governance capability. This provides a strong support in the guiding ideology and policy orientation for further deepening of China's reform. After the reform and opening up, China's hotel industry on the road to modernization has experienced rapid development. The statistics of the third quarter in 2013 shows that the number of star hotels reached 13,685 [1]. Hotel industry as one of the earliest open industry experienced four stages: preliminary development, rapid growth, tortuous development and overall development (Ma & Li, 2009). The quantity of hotel, industry structure, brand and modern management system compared to the beginning of reform and opening up have greatly improved (Zhang, 2014).

As one of common competitive areas, China's hotel industry began to develop after the reform and opening up, with less impact of the planned economic system. Now it has high degree of market, and market economy rules have led the industry (Zhang, Qin, Li, 2000). But in the context of Chinese social mechanism the government is an important factor that always cannot be ignored. Our management model for the tourism industry had been a direct government administration for a long time (Zhang, 2000). This model is effective and necessary in the early development of tourism (Zhao, 2003). Hotel industry as a pillar industry of the tourism industry, government-led strategy has played a significant role in the development of the hotel industry, but the errors in execution caused a dilemma to the development of the hotel industry (Zhang, 1998). Excessive intervention, local protectionism, lack of fairness and service issues such as lack of long-term plan of the hotel industry caused by Performance-driven administration is very negative to hotel industry. And after entering 21st century, with China's accession to WTO, the maturating of the tourism market and government's transformation, the government's management model began to change (Zhang, 2002). The role of government has gradually changed from "the regulator" to the "coordinator" and "commonweal man" (Wang, 2010). The government in the new historical period proposed transformation of government functions, decided to build service-oriented government. For the reform of the system of government and function transformation, the new leadership put forward a more thorough aim: the modernization of national governance systems and governance capabilities. National governance systems and governance capacity is actually a requirement of scientification, institutionalization, systematization and standardization for government which is a national power system designed to make mechanisms, laws, regulations and policy. This provides a new way of thinking about the core issue in our reform and opening up - the relationship between government and market. "The market played a decisive role in the allocation of resources" [2], this formulation is the key guidance for the modernization of governance systems and governance capacity. In practice, modern governance systems and governance capacity can be attributed to government orientation, changes in administrative system, procedure establishment and

---

¹ Li Xiang, graduate student, school of hospitality management, Beijing International Studies University. E-mail: leekyo@foxmail.com. Tel: 8618511753938

² Gu Huimin, professor, school of hospitality management, Beijing International Studies University.
function transformation, etc. There are two core issues: first, the boundary between government and the market. It means what the government should do and what they should not do; second, the government governance for the market, that is, how to do. For the hotel industry, the modernization of governance system and governance capability can promote the healthy development of the industry and provide strong support for local enterprises in the international competition.

This paper will be based on the research of three aspects: first, policy transition in the development of China's hotel industry; second, the study of the relationship between the government and the hotel industry such as government regulation, macro control (Zhang Rungang, 2000), the role of government (Hanqin QiuZhang King Chong and John Ap, 1999), stakeholders analysis (Xiong Wei, Wu Bihu, 2007), etc.; third, transformation of government functions, such as service-oriented government and so on. Based on this summary, this paper will assess the government's ability to govern, and then put forward proposals about how to build a modern government to improve governance systems and governance capability in the development of the hotel industry. This paper evaluates the ability of governance systems and governance capability and makes recommendations mainly on the following four points: First, the role of the government. Mainly criticize the government's administrative thinking; second, the system construction. Present reasonable proposals on the defect of impeding fairness, efficiency in the administrative system; third, examine the improper behavior of some government from the perspective of legal procedures and make recommendations; fourth is on the transformation of government functions. It is to study the changes of the main functions of the government and how to perform its functions better.

*Keywords:* hotel industry governance system governance capability function transformation

*Reference:*


The ABCD-X mode of Community stress and coping during pro-poor tourism development at the ethnic villages

Yan-qin Li
Minzu University of China

Abstract: Tourism has brought economic development opportunities for ethnic villages, but the huge changes of social ecology also make these villages face many stresses and conflicts which threaten regional stability. Therefore we need to explore ways of resolving and get theory support. According to the trend of the development of the concept of stress, this paper puts forward six propositions about community stress-conflict theory based on the biological theory of stress by Hans Selye, then developed the ABCD-X model of community stress and coping. This community stress framework maybe stated as follows: A (stressor event or situation) - interacting with B (the community’s resources or strengths) - interacting with C (stress coping process) - through D (stress response) produces X (capable community or pathology community). B-C is the "inheritance" dimension, and A-D is the "reform" dimension. The model is applied to the Sino Russian border Shiwei village and shows a good frame structured role and mechanism explanation ability. It finds that weak "inheritance" dimension is hard to balance strong "reform" dimension, and this is the cause of the conflict. Combined with practical experience, ABCD-X model helps to identify the seven common misconceptions during the process of pro-poor tourism development at ethnic villages: (1) tourism development should be as soon as possible; (2) the pro-poor tourism is an opportunity rather than a stressor; (3) the pro-poor tourism is the increase of resident income; (4) tourism is the only "life-saving straw"; (5) external investment is conducive to village tourism development; (6) the pro-poor tourism process must avoid conflicts; (7) Tourism Association is not essential. Overcoming these misconceptions have important value for the related areas to cope with stresses, manage conflicts and promote sustainable tourism development. Local governments should recognize the objective existence of stress and conflict, to comply with the rules. The social culture resources and community empowerment can increase community flexibility to cope better with stress.

Keywords: Russia Shiwei ethnic village; community stress-conflict theory; ABCD-X model; conflict management; sustainable tourism
Are we prisoners of our own ideology? A dyadic investigation of business to business (B2B) relationships between Chinese and Australian tour operators

David Lindsay
PhD candidate
University of Canberra

Extended abstract:

Keywords: guanxi (networking), xinren (trust), relationship marketing, cultural intelligence (CQ), Industrial marketing and purchasing (IMP) network

The purpose of this study is to develop a greater understanding of business to business (B2B) relationships in a tourism services domain. It will focus on successful Australian based tour operators who deal with mainland China. The services sector of our economy accounts for nearly 80% of our workforce (ABS 2011). The tourism industry is seen as a servicer exemplar - being a major employer and exporter with 1.2 million Chinese tourists expected to arrive in Australia in 2022-33 (Austrade 2014). Even though China is a significant contributor to Australia’s balance of payments and our major trading partner, there has been little empirical investigation in this service driven export industry. Additionally there has been a call for research to further understand how to build important elements like trust and to explore the boundaries of connections and relationships in a Chinese-Western business setting (Kriz and Keating 2010). This study is an important step in filling this gap.

Parallels have been drawn between the Western concept of relationship marketing and that of the Chinese notion of guanxi which literally means going through the gate or in a broader sense, the ability to connect or network (Geddie et al. 2005, Lo 2012, Shaalan et al. 2013). While the West has been heavily influenced by Platonic philosophy and Judeo-Christian religion, China has been profoundly affected by their indigenous philosophies. Confucianism and Taoism emphasise familial and societal norms where relationships are the central tenants of Chinese business (Ambler and Witzel 2004). Using these two extant philosophical approaches to investigate the modus operandi of business negotiation – value and trust will be a pivotal part of the research. These notions are critically important in business transactions where there needs to be a reduction in uncertainty and vulnerability (Cai et al. 2010). Furthermore there is strong evidence to suggest that Western multi-nationals are experiencing difficulties when dealing with the Chinese (Rochfort 2006, Chu 2013, CNBC 2013, Shirouzu 2013).

A bridging theoretical framework of cultural intelligence (CQ) is seen as important for uncovering the area of investigation. CQ is defined as a person’s capability to deal effectively in situations characterised by cultural diversity (Earley and Ang 2003). An analysis of a four factor model of CQ - meta-cognition (thinking), cognition (knowing), motivation (feeling) and behaviour (doing) from a practitioner’s perception provides the background on which to address the exploratory research i.e. How can Westerners maximise their commercial opportunities with the Chinese? The CQ model has been refined to incorporate an expanded cultural intelligence scale (E-CQS) using multiple sub dimensions (Van Dyne et al. 2012). This research will measure the E-CQS against a set of questions addressed to Australian service industry practitioners and their Chinese counterparts in the tourism industry. A semi-structured interview technique will be used with a case study design framework. Given that
the concept of CQ is relatively new, there are only a limited number of empirical studies that have examined this type of phenomenon (Tarique and Takeuchi 2008). Furthermore many of the studies have been quantitative in nature. This research takes a qualitative approach. The research findings will contribute not only to existing theoretical literature but also assist in pragmatic ways to assist Western and Chinese B2B negotiators.

The industrial marketing and purchasing (IMP) paradigm uses interactions, relationships and networks (combinations of relationships) as a basic unit of analysis for research purposes. It differs significantly from the 4P based marketing theory because it focuses on a network approach to marketing where interconnectedness of relationships is considered to be a key focus (Kriz and Fang 2012). It comprises of three substance layers – actor bonds, activity links and resource ties (AAR model) within the B2B environment which provide different but related perspectives (Purchase and Ward 2003). An adjusted model demonstrates a new level of awareness of relationship orientated networks where a person’s position, experience and value system are key drivers to inter cultural business success (Collins and Kriz 2013).

This paper will therefore explore how business to business (B2B) relationships are conducted in a major export orientated Western/Chinese service industry setting. A case study analysis of Australian/Chinese tour operators will be used for the investigation. Van Dynne et al (2012) expanded cultural intelligence scale will assist in describing linkages between attributes, consequences and core values for these inbound tour operators (ITO’s) with their Chinese counterparts. It will be used to examine those operators who successfully conduct business in the Chinese market; how they established themselves; what lessons they have learned in the process; what it is that they do right that others don’t; things they would not do again, if given the opportunity and the identification of common themes for their ongoing success.

Relationships and connections are embedded in Confucian philosophy (Wong et al. 1998). Otherwise known as guanxi, the practice dominates business activity throughout. These informal relationships constitute social capital of great importance (Cain et al. 2010). People are committed to one another by societal norms of reciprocity and trust. There is an expectation that a trusted connection can be relied upon to fulfil obligations and behave in a predictable manner and this serves as a governance mechanism where government by man rather than government by law prevails (Cai et al. 2010). This ideological positioning potentially has an important impact on any Westerner negotiating with their Chinese counterparts. China is often referred to as a paradox (Kriz 2010). This in part is attributable to Taoist philosophy where the emphasis is on both/and rather than either/or. What appears to be contradictory to a Westerner may not be the case for Chinese. Hence the IMP paradigm of depicting markets as a network where value is created within a dyad through an actor-activity-resource (AAR) model is relevant (Hakansson and Snehota 1995). The emphasis is relationships with people as you cannot have a relationship with a firm. Collins and Kriz put forward a proposition that business relationships in China are interpersonal first and inter-firm later, however this needs empirical exploration.

The interconnectedness of direct and indirect relationships becomes the key to understanding network dynamics because networks evolve over time and are emergent in nature (Harrison 2014). In other words relationships not firms or business units per se is the key dynamic to B2B conduct.
This study will shed light on the intricate nature of business relationships in China. Particularly it examines how some Australian tour operators have defied the odds to build strong sustainable businesses in this difficult market context.

References:


Building interpersonal trust in a travel-related virtual community: a case study on a Guangzhou couch-surfing community

Qiuju Luo, Jiabei Hu

School of Tourism Management, SunYat-sen University, Guangzhou, China

Abstract — Based on the theory of interpersonal relationship, this paper aims to explore the process of interpersonal trust-building in virtual community. It analyses three aspects of interpersonal trust between couch hosts and couch surfers during their online-offline interaction, including the initial interpersonal trust, its changes in three phases and the factors influencing those changes. The research subjects are members of a Guangzhou group from Couchsurfing.org, a representative virtual travel-related community, and questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews are both conducted in this study. This research indicates that the interpersonal trust among research subjects, who initially have a high level of interpersonal trust, is built up by the interaction of ten contributing factors in three phases: early, middle and late. Meanwhile, the connotation of interpersonal trust develops continually, from courtesy phase, to tool phase and then to emotion phase. Besides, influenced by different factors under each phase, trust changes from Probable Anticipation to Mundane Routine Trust and then to Ideological Trust. In this case, this paper proposes a model to illustrate the process of how factors influence the development of both interpersonal trust-building and the trust connotation. The model is composed of trust development phase (scene), trust contributors (input) and trust connotation (output) in the vertical direction, as well as the development of trust connotation in the horizontal direction. This study contributes this research field both academically and practically, because it establishes a comprehensive value chain of interpersonal trust between couch hosts and surfers rather than focusing on one single aspect.

Keywords — Travel-related Virtual Community, Couch Surfing; Interpersonal Trust, Interpersonal Relationship, Constructive Process

References:

Chung J.Y., Buhalıs D. Virtual Travel Community: Bridging Travellers and Locals [J]. Tourism Informatics, 2009, (8)
Sutcliffe A. Trust: From cognition to conceptual models and design [J]. In advanced information systems engineering, 2006, 3-17.
Tran L.D. Trust in an online hospitality network: An interpretive study of The Couch Surfing Project [D]. Thesis published by Oslo and Akershus University College, 2009
Impact of non-resident on impulse buying based on binary behaviour theory: research on tourists from China to Australia

Yong Ma¹, LI Zhifei², TU Zhengchun³

Yong Ma
Tourism Development Planning Institute of Hubei University

LI Zhifei
Tourism Development Planning Institute of Hubei University.

TU Zhengchun
Central-South Architectural Design Institute Co., Ltd.

Abstract

China is the fastest growing inbound tourism market. One reason is that in 1999 Australia was the first developed country that was approved as an outbound tourism destination for Chinese citizens. According to the Australian Tourism Forecasting Council, the number of the Chinese tourists visiting Australia will reach 1.13 million in 2014.

¹ MA Yong, Professor, Vice-Director of the Tourism Management Education Steering Committee of Ministry Education, China’s National-level Excellent Teacher Award, Dean of The Tourism Development Planning Institute of Hubei University, E-mail: mytcn@163.com

² LI Zhifei, Associate Professor, Tourism Development Planning Institute of Hubei University.

³ TU Zhengchun, Professor, Central-South Architectural Design Institute Co., Ltd.
A review of previous literature concerning outbound tourist purchasing behaviour in a country indicates that most studies have examined American and British tourists to Australia, or Japanese tourists to South Korea. There is no research that investigates the purchasing behaviour of the Chinese outbound tourists.

This paper examines the impulse purchasing behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists while in Australia. It is based on the long-distance impulsive purchase behaviour model put forward by Dr Li Zhifei. This model was developed in a study of domestic Chinese tourists and focuses on four dimensions of impulse purchase behaviour: cultural differences (CD), time pressure (TP), repurchase cost (RC) and purchase stress (PS). Data was collected by questionnaire and in-depth interviews. The result of a LISREL path analysis shows that tourists perception of cultural differences, repurchase cost and purchase stress have significant correlation with impulsive purchase intention (IPI). Purchase stress has the strongest impact followed by cultural differences, while repurchase cost which has the least impact. Time pressure has a U-shaped influence. That is to say, the shorter the time, the more impulsive purchase intention until it reaches minimum at a critical point after which impulse purchase intention grows over time (figure 1). This model is based on. From the impulsive purchase intention influence coefficient, the result of the statistical test of Chinese tourist to Australia is discrepant.

![Impulsive purchase behaviour model](image)

**Figure 1: Impulsive purchase behaviour model**

In geographic terms, there are three destinations for Chinese outbound tourist in Australia, which are New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. Moreover, the Chinese outbound tourists spend 90 percent of their total tour length in Australia in these three states. Furthermore, 80 percent of their tour length is spent in the capital of the three states: Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane respectively. Generally, Chinese tourists lack knowledge about the rest of Australia: mid-south, north, west, and Tasmania. However, the above regions are rich of aboriginal culture and wine culture resources, which has a significant influence on tourist perceptual cultural-differences and repurchase cost. Over time, the business travel market transforms to the leisure market, which will result in the change of tourism destination as the length of stay increases. Almost 40 percent of the Chinese tourists prefer to use a travel agency as the result of the traditional Chinese ideology – refuse to challenge. This unique characteristic leads to strong positive effects on impulse purchasing behaviour.

Due to Chinese culture, 40% Chinese tourists prefer to join the travel agent’s group tour, which has a positive effect on impulsive purchase intention. Besides, Overseas Study and cultural exchange programmes have occupied an important aspect of Australia tourism market, and this will continue to grow with the increasing of the China’s open strategy,
promotion of education and cultural exchange activities. Last but not least, Chinese people prefer to purchase souvenir to maintain relationship with family members and career friends, it also positively relate to impulsive purchase intention.

In summary, this paper has reviewed the existing literature and statistical data on Chinese tourists’ impulsive purchase behaviour in Australia, and in particular the impulsive purchase model, existing outbound tourism consumer behaviour research, international tourism figures released by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Australia forecasting committee forecast in each years’ documents - <international tourist survey - China >, issued by the Tourism Research Australian. This paper includes in this model Australia’s particular tourism destination features, top develop an influence coefficient of four dimensions of impulse purchase behaviour which can be used to analyse the specific situation of impulsive purchase behaviour in Australia tourism market. This research will create a positive contribution to China and Australia Tourism development and cooperation.
Cross-cultural differences in incentive travel

Judit Mair and Xin Jin

Judith Mair
University of Queensland

Xin Jin
Griffith University

Introduction

Business events are of enormous importance to the economies of many destinations worldwide (Jago, Mair, Deery, & Bergin-Seers, 2008). The business events sector includes meetings, conventions, incentives and exhibitions. Of these, the convention sector is probably the best understood, and certainly the most researched (Mair 2014). Incentive travel has been defined as “a type of pleasure travel that has been financed for business reasons” (Mill & Morrison 1985, p115) and also as “offering the reward of a visit to a highly desirable destination in return for meeting clearly defined and attainable objectives within a fixed programme period” (Witt & Gammon 1994 p 19). A more conceptual definition is that offered by the Society of Travel Executives: “a concept whereby company employees, distributors and sales teams are motivated to achieve uncommon business goals by the prospect of an extraordinary travel experience as a reward for attaining the goals” (SITE 2013). It can be considered as an important element of the business events market, since although the travel is not always primarily for business purposes, a great deal of incentive travel includes a conference or business meeting.

However, the incentive sector remains notoriously under-researched (Mair, 2010). It is very difficult to find global figures for the value of the incentive travel sector. However, in the United States, there were approximately 66,000 incentive meetings in 2011 (Sanders 2011). This gives some indication of the value of the sector. Whilst recent figures for the value of incentive travel in Australia are hard to come by, international incentive visitors spent $210 million while in Australia and domestic incentive visitors spent $175 million during the first quarter of 2008 (Tourism Australia 2008). Australia is a sought-after destination for many incentive travellers, and the Chinese outbound market is of particular importance to the Australian incentive industry, yet little academic research has attempted to understand or characterise the incentive travel market. This paper considers some of the similarities and differences in how incentive travel is used and perceived in Australia and China.

Method

This paper reports on exploratory qualitative research, using in-depth interviews with incentive travel organisers. Eight in-depth interviews (between 30 and 60 minutes) were carried out with incentive travel organisers, of which four were located in Australia, and four were located in Hong Kong and China. The Chinese interviews were carried out by one of the researchers fluent in Mandarin Chinese. The remaining interviews were carried out in English. Interviewees were asked to give some demographic background on their incentive business, as well as about their views on how ‘incentive’ and ‘incentive travel’ are defined. They were also asked to give information on how their incentive programs were structured and how they built up relationships both with their incentive clients and with local suppliers of their incentive trips. The interviews were recorded with permission, transcribed and analysed using open coding. Open coding involves the researcher breaking down the data into
its parts and looking for similarities and differences (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). All data were coded according to themes derived from the emergent data.

**Findings**

*How do you define ‘incentive travel’?*

There were some clear similarities between the Chinese and Australian planners, with both noting the importance of the reward aspect of incentive travel. It was also pointed out that incentive travel may be in place before targets are met, in order to act as motivation for employees, or may only be announced to reward those employees who had already met their targets.

*What does an incentive travel program look like?*

For both groups, incentive travel had an important leisure component. Both nationalities also stressed the importance of promoting the company’s image, with the suggestion that incentive travel opportunities are seen as one of the perks of working in a company. Australian planners suggested that incentive travel was an opportunity for an organisation to promote, and to ‘live’ its brand values. This seems to be more important in the Australian context than it was in the Chinese context. Further, the Australian planners related that in their experience, organisations used incentive travel as a networking opportunity, both among those on the trip, but also with staff from other departments or company locations which were included as site visits on the incentive trip. However, in Australia, planners were keen to point out that incentives are not particularly related to loyalty, with one planner noting “if someone is meeting or exceeding targets, then they are loyal already”.

For the Chinese planners, the incentive trip, whilst still seen as a reward, was considered to be an extension to the workplace. Many of the incentive trips organised by Chinese firms were seen to be a benefit, or form of welfare provided to employees, and thus, activities such as company meetings, group activities and educational tours become an essential part of the itinerary. Australian planners on the other hand noted that while there were often business-related aspects of an incentive trip, such as a half day meeting, or site inspection, these were included primarily to satisfy the tax implications (the Australian tax system requires a certain percentage of business activity on a business trip and if this criteria is not met, then there are substantial taxes to be paid).

Chinese incentive travel planners often incorporate an interactive program in the itinerary to enhance company culture and collegiality, with a range of activities for all participants. These activities are often of entertaining, physically exciting and emotionally uplifting characteristics. On the other hand, the Australian planners suggested that while programs vary depending on the needs of the clients, in many cases, there was ample space in the incentive travel program for participants to relax and ‘do their own thing’.

*What does an incentive planner look like?*

There were some clear differences in how the incentive travel and incentive planning industry is structured between China and Australia. In Mainland China, usually one department of a large travel company is named as ‘meeting and incentive department’ and is dedicated to work on the group business travel sector. They work together with other departments in the planning and operation of the trips. There are very few small operators in the sector. Some
planners have organised trips for up to 4,000 people. Competition among operators is somewhat intense and they usually go through a process similar to bidding to get the business.

However, in Australia, incentive planners may be small or large, but are not usually associated with travel companies (although some can be). Incentive planners are often involved in marketing the incentive trip, as well as dealing with registration and all aspects of the planning and operation of the trip. There are many small operators in the sector who plan anything from one trip per year upwards, and these are often small groups, of 15 – 20 people.

**What are the characteristics of an incentive trip?**

Some key concepts were shared by both groups of planners. Incentive travel should be customized for each client, and should provide a memorable and unique experience. The travel program should include good food and wine, and high quality accommodation. As one planner put it, “incentive travel should take you out of the ordinary”.

However, there were some noticeable differences in how planners viewed some of the characteristics of incentive travel programs. In the interviews with Australian planners, the key words that cropped up were ‘luxury’, ‘aspirational’, and ‘back-stage access’ (referring to the ability of incentive planners to pull strings with their contacts and provide access to opportunities and experiences not usually available to the public. Australian planners also suggested that their clients were often looking for experiences of a better standard than their employees would normally be able to afford. However, with the Chinese planners, some of the key words were ‘interactive’, ‘high profile’, “authentic experiences’ and ‘quality tour guide’, which suggest that luxury or aspirational aspects were not as important in their context and that perhaps high costs need not be a key part of a Chinese incentive travel program, as long as the experiences were high quality and high profile.

**Conclusions**

This exploratory research has shown that while there are certainly similarities in how incentive travel is defined, perceived and organized in both Australian and China, there are also significant differences in key aspects of incentive travel in both countries. It is important for those marketing and managing destinations to understand these differences, as they require different marketing strategies.

In Australia, incentive travel is viewed as a highly sought after reward, involving luxury travel to an exotic destination, something which the individual could not normally afford. It rarely includes meetings, and if it does, they are kept to a minimum. For most Australian destinations, this is the usual view of incentive travel, and indeed the top destinations for incentive travel in Australia (according to respondents in this research) are Port Douglas, the Great Ocean Road, and Uluru. Each of these destinations conforms to the luxury and potentially exotic or unique perception of incentive travel.

However, in Mainland China, an incentive trip is usually not regarded as a reward for the top-performing employees but as a reward or welfare/benefit to all full-time employees within a company. It is customized leisure travel in groups being paid by the company. In order to ‘legitimise’ the spending, a business meeting or a business-related visit to a relevant site becomes a compulsory element in the itinerary. Interestingly, this research suggests that incentive destinations for the Chinese market need not be luxurious or high-end. While the
most popular destinations in Australia (according to this sample of interviewees) are Sydney, the Gold Coast and the Great Barrier Reef, there seems to be ample opportunity for other destinations to market themselves as incentive travel destinations for the Chinese incentive travel market.

References


Water town communities and tourism impacts – former residents as employees and cast characters.

Chris Ryan, Steve Pan, Nicole Chou and Gu Huimin

Chris Ryan
The University of Waikato Management School, Hamilton, New Zealand.

Steve Pan
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Kowloon, Hong Kong

Department of Tourism Management, Zhejiang International Studies University, Hangzhou, China

Gu Huimin
School of Hospitality Management, Beijing International Studies University, Beijing.

Abstract

This short paper reviews the means by which Chinese local authorities permit the involvement of local rural communities in the development of tourism. After outlining the ways in which this is done the second half of the paper presents the short case study indicating how one Chinese corporation has sought to sustain local community involvement within a managed setting that equally aims to provide a high quality experience for the visitors. The case study is of West Wuzhen Scenic Area Water Town.

In the western academic tourism literature community involvement in tourism has been a well-established topic of study and the concept has been adopted by many difference societies. However the pleas made by some Chinese academics for greater community benefit from tourism contrasts with the complexities of Chinese policies. These administrative realities display a greater range of tourism-community relationships than those envisaged by many of the early western commentators on community and tourism. For example, it can be stated that China is bedeviled by a history that impacts on rights of ownership not always being individually based, or where ownership is for part of an owned asset (e.g. a home), but not other parts (e.g. the land on which a home is located). Equally administrative responsibilities may be divided between a series of differing ministries or local administrative departments leading to differential policies ‘on the ground’. Drawing on the personal experiences of the authors, one can identify a number of possible forms of Chinese tourism-community relationships, and the following provides an illustrative listing:

a) Exploitation. In this model the local authority initiates a compulsory purchase of a community’s land, and then subsequently sells it at a much higher price to a developer. This denies the local community of ownership of the land, and in rural areas that also means a loss of revenue from farming. The community is thus dependent upon the developer of the land for any future employment. That developer is often a corporation based in Beijing, Shanghai or other major Chinese cities, and has little identification with the local community. Few job opportunities are created for local people, who often join a migration to the major cities, thereby impeding further local development as only the very young are left in the care of grandparents.
Sometimes the developer may engage in deceit and thus the promised forms of development do not occur.

b) **Community disruption and dissipated local control.** In this model the remnants of the old village communes may have survived and develop a strong sense of village cohesion. Under a local community leadership opportunities for tourism may be identified and acted upon with local village entrepreneurship occurring. However such village development may be complicated by patterns of land ownership which may be communal rather than family based, and the attitudes of a local political elite (and its professionalism) as to how growth is to be permitted. In a number of cases where a village is designated as a cultural heritage site the local administration may not permit modifications to be made to buildings to retain authentic architectural styles. As tourism grows and members of the local community become wealthier, they tend to purchase or build modern homes away from the tourist zone. Their original habitat thus becomes over time a place for work, local school populations decline, and a sense of community becomes disrupted in the face of a local non-residence and the growing preeminence of a work life oriented to business as distinct from being part of a locally based community. This can be identified as taking place at Hungcun and elsewhere.

Another issue that has emerged is where members of a local community initiate and manage tourism, but benefits flow to community member based on the initial amount of capital they may have invested. Consequently income differentials within the community become greater over time, and this greater disparity may also threaten past social cohesion, or replaces past patterns of social cohesion with those based on disparities of wealth.

c) **Continuance of local community management and control with resulting sustainable social cohesion.** In this model the local community may call upon an extended network of family relationships to generate financial resources and social capital resources to initiate a tourism development. The community will create a framework driven by a strong sense of common ownership and equitable divisions of revenues obtained from tourism with a view to benefit the community as an unit, rather than seeking to differentially benefit individuals within the community.

d) **Patronage with permitted local involvement in a competitive framework.** In this model the local administration will permit an external corporation to ‘own’ a tourism resource. In some instances the corporate will be a state owned enterprise – that is the provincial or municipal authority will establish a management company to run a tourism asset as a private venture, thereby removing it at arm’s length from the local administration and providing a means by which the company can be more flexible in its response to changing patterns of demand, and indeed may even be able to access non-state sources of funding for future development. Alternatively it will be in a position to invest profits generated by its operations into new infrastructure at the destination.

A not uncommon model is where the company will develop a major resort model, or some core tourism attraction, often on land acquired through a compulsory purchase process as in example (a) above. However, a requirement under the purchase order is that in the subsequent stages of development some ‘planning gain’ is to be obtained. Such planning gain is through the development of better housing for members of the
local community who can therefore retain their social cohesion. In addition economic opportunities are then created for the local community in terms of their being able to open shops and restaurants along a core tourist pedestrian thoroughfare.

The above classification is not meant to be definitive, but rather simply a description of some of the different modes of management that have emerged in China in the early part of the twenty-first century. The major part of the paper will describe a case study that represents yet another form of location planning whereby the management company sought to not simply own, manage and develop a site, but also provide benefit for the former residents of the village, permit them to retain a social cohesion and at the same time seek to generate a quality experience for the tourists visiting the site. The paper will therefore describe developments at West Scenic Area Wuzhen Water Town, Zhejiang, since it passed into the management of Wuzhen Tourism Company, a joint venture company with both private and public sector ownership. Wuzhen has become a successful tourist location attracting over 6 million visitors per annum, has restored a heritage architectural style that dates back over 1,000 years to the Song Dynasty and has generated economic value for past residents who are now employed within the village although now housed elsewhere. As an added nuance in the interpretation of what is occurring Wuzhen has been the location for more than 20 films, and it may be noted that former residents play a role in creating a tourist experience wherein tourists are as an audience within theatre set. The case study thus adds to the ways in which Chinese authorities provide benefit to previously marginalized rural areas through tourism.
Regional Tourism Preparedness: Emerging Markets, Culture and Service

Dr Vikki Schaffer

University of the Sunshine Coast, Australia

Keywords preparedness; service quality provision; culture; emerging markets.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism Australia aims to increase Chinese visitor revenues, urging operators to take advantage of, and do more, to cater to this market (Tourism Australia, 2012). For a destination to gain potential advantages and create memorable experiences, market familiarisation is essential. Operators should consider the Chinese visitors’ desire for genuine respect, cultural understanding, high levels of enthusiasm, positive attitudes and Mandarin-speaking staff (Tourism Research Australia, 2013). Those providing services must also know themselves and recognise their unique qualities in order to preserve and present them.

Rapid adoption and poorly planned approaches to tourism can lead to negative impacts such as leakage, over-development, xenophobia and artificial reconstruction (Besculides, Lee and McCormick, 2002), affecting not only industry but community. Increasing visitation can provide positive (e.g. employment and increased revenues) and negative (e.g. leakage) economic and socio-cultural impacts within, throughout and beyond tourism. Presenting one’s culture to tourists may preserve it but also dilute, even destroy it (Besculides et al., 2002). The Japanese tourist wave of the 1980s/1990s resulted in extensive, visitor preferred products, services and signage (Breakey, Ding and Lee, 2008). Dramatic increases in visitation generated impacts throughout Australia that were amplified in popular destinations such as the Gold Coast and Cairns (Breakey et al., 2008). “Societies cannot be engineered or places manufactured for tourist consumption without a loss of authenticity” (Henderson, 2000:215), soul and spirit (Holcomb, 1999) which may in turn, repel the focal and other markets.

National, State and regional tourism organisations are directing marketing efforts at outbound Chinese tourists. Asia ready workshops and support materials have been developed. The Sunshine Coast regional tourism organisation “has identified China as an emerging market” for the region (SCDL, 2014). The traditional tourist markets for the Sunshine Coast region have originated from New Zealand, United Kingdom, the United States and Germany.

Various studies have viewed tourism impacts from a community perspective (Ross, 1992; Besculides et al., 2002; Dyer, Gursoy, Sharma and Carter, 2007). These can be exacerbated when regions are ill-prepared for new tourist markets. This paper focuses on regional tourism industry preparedness and asks how prepared is regional tourism for the anticipated surge of Chinese tourists?

 METHODOLOGY

Within a case study approach, in-depth telephone interviews employing semi-structured questionnaires were used. Qualitative and quantitative questions explored what quality service means, the preparedness of tourism-related stakeholders within the Sunshine Coast, Queensland (including local government representatives, managers, owner operators, industry organisation representatives) to the emerging Chinese market, and the host region and visitors’ culture.
RESULTS

Eighteen in-depth interviews were completed. On average, participants had worked in the tourism industry for 20.6 years, averaging 6.5 years in their current position. Several emerging markets were identified including China, South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong and India. Although participants considered China an emerging market, it was “only in the early stages”. It was repeatedly stated that knowing each market, their appropriate needs, languages and food preferences, and catering to these, was challenging. Another barrier was bureaucratic red tape and the lack of regional infrastructure which inhibit access throughout the region, product development and delivery.

Overall, the region and participant businesses were considered ill-prepared regarding the provision of service to the emerging Chinese market (av. 2.2; stdev 1.2 and av. 2.3; stdev 1.0 respectively, 5pt scale – 1=very ill-prepared). Participants identified a broad range of activities to increase awareness including undertaking a familiarisation tour, workshop attendance (43%), drawing on personal experiences (38%) and online research (76%). Open-ended comments suggest preparedness varied. Available resources were potentially influencing actions e.g. to address language issues larger businesses were recruiting Mandarin speaking staff while smaller operators were investigating interpretative technologies.

Although all participants stated the need to consider the Australian (av. 4.06; stdev 0.56, 5pt scale – 5=very important) and Chinese culture (av. 3.89; stdev 0.76) in service design and delivery, this need was considered slightly more important for the Australian culture. Participants agreed to the statement services should reflect the Australian culture rather than that preferred by the emerging market (Chinese) (av. 3.94; stdev 0.94, 5pt scale – 5=strongly agree). Participants expressed a desire to “keep what makes the region unique”, “not to end up like other mass tourism destinations”, and as “people want to come here to see Australia, not a version of their own culture we need to present ourselves as we are”. Participants described the Australian culture as friendly, open, honest, welcoming, accepting, happy, passionate, free and laid back.

Twenty-eight percent (5) of participants were unsure of the services preferred by the Chinese market. While recognising the Chinese market was diverse, participants suggested operators needed to speak and provide information in the visitors’ language (5; 28% respectively), offer preferred menu options (3; 17%) and provide personal, respectful and genuine service (3; 17%). Most participants disagreed or strongly disagreed that tourism-related service providers should only speak English (av. 2.06; stdev 1.00, 5pt scale – 1=strongly disagree) and that all tourism-related service providers should speak the visitors’ language (av. 2.5; stdev 1.0). When asked if signage around the businesses and region should be in the visitors’ language, participants indicated the variety of Chinese dialects would make this difficult. Participants suggested signage around the host region should not be in the visitors’ language (av. 2.7; stdev 1.2) but reiterated the importance of multi-lingual safety signage.

To improve quality service, all participants identified the necessity for training and education. Responses highlighted some participants were not planning to change their service offerings due to perceived product uniqueness or the desire to present an Australian experience. Others were offering local foods but in a manner palatable to Chinese tourists.

CONCLUSION
It is estimated by 2020, Chinese visitors will introduce approximately AU$9 billion per year to the Australian economy (Tourism Australia, 2012b). Breakey et al., (2008) argue Australia’s tourism industry is well placed to respond to current, and predicted, levels of Chinese visitation. Significant societal and tourism developments include multi-cultural communities, changing inbound tourism patterns and sources, increased tourism research, development and planning (Breakey et al., 2008), and a coming of age for Australia on the global political stage. However, at this stage regional areas such as the one in this study may be ill-prepared for the Chinese market.

Preparedness should not only include generating products and services in the format and style desired by the tourist. Stakeholder co-operation, planning and preparation, cultural consideration and greater appreciation of the current and desired service provisions will enhance the overall experience for visitors, regional businesses and communities.

There were contradictory attitudes to service provision. Participants disagreed that tourism-related service providers should only speak English, but also that not all providers should speak the visitors’ language. The diversity of potential languages makes this difficult and costly to address. Larger operators are recruiting Mandarin speaking staff while smaller operators are investigating interpretative technologies.

Knowing the extent service should be altered to meet emerging market preferences is important. Participants expressed a desire to attract the Chinese market, address their service requirements but not at the expense of the Australian culture. Regional destinations have limited resources which influence the ability to address the needs of emerging markets, particularly when these markets are so dissimilar to current markets. Furthermore, staff retention and training costs were identified challenges. The transient nature of tourism staff mean repetitious training cycles are required to ensure consistent service delivery. Not all participants had an understanding of the services preferred by the Chinese market, further inhibiting staff training and service delivery. Resource allocation to address new market needs may not be a high priority, impacting preparedness and destination attractiveness.

To assist tourism service providers to prepare, identifying both similarities and differences can direct resource allocation. Knowing who you are (as a business and a destination) and what existing resources can be employed to enrich the overall tourist experience may reduce cultural and resource impacts, while also increasing financial opportunities.

REFERENCE LIST


Political Economy of Travel and Tourism (pp. 207-218). Sunderland: The Centre for Travel & Tourism.


Investigating drivers of overall trip satisfaction and expectations: an evaluation of Chinese visitors to Australia

Kevin Kam Fung So, Char-lee McLennan, Susanne Becken, Justin Marshall and Ben Pang

Kevin Kam Fung So
School of Hotel, Restaurant and Tourism Management, University of South Carolina

Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University

Susanne Becken
Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University

Justin Marshall
Tourism Research Australia

Ben Pang
Tourism Research Australia

Keywords: satisfaction, expectations, trip attributes, Chinese visitors, Australia

Background

Tourism is a significant driver of Australia’s economy, worth AUD$42 billion to the country in 2012/2013 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). A key source of recent growth in international visitation to Australia has been China, which is now Australia’s number one international tourist market in terms of visitor expenditure (Tourism Research Australia, 2014). Given the importance of the Chinese tourist market to Australia, an enhanced understanding of the relationship between their trip attributes, expectations and satisfaction while in Australia is essential.

Some researchers argue that the Chinese market is maturing, becoming more experienced, better-educated, and increasingly likely to be ‘experience seekers and self-challengers’ (Arlt, 2013; Pearce et al., 2013). Yet much of the recent growth in Chinese visitation to Australia has been from first time and group tour travellers, which represent 55% and 41% of the market, respectively (Tourism Research Australia, 2014). The market is clearly diverse and given that first time and group tour visitors often have very different travel experiences from repeat and non-group tour travellers (Lau & Mckercher, 2004), it is probable that there will be different trip attributes that predict their satisfaction.

The literature indicates that satisfaction leads to critical consumer outcomes, such as reducing complaints and increasing destination loyalty and expenditure. Yet there is limited research into how trip attributes, expectations, satisfaction and consumer outcomes are related, particularly in the context of Australia’s Chinese visitors (Mao & Zhang, 2014). Such an understanding would not only enhance our knowledge of what drives Chinese visitors’ satisfaction and loyalty, but would inform the development of government policy and decision-making within the industry thereby facilitating sustained growth from the market.

Recognising this gap, Tourism Research Australia administered the Chinese Satisfaction Survey in 2013. The survey sampled 3,606 Chinese visitors aged 15 years and over in the
departure lounges of the Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane and Gold Coast international airports. Respondents were asked to rate their overall trip satisfaction, whether their trip expectations were met (expectations evaluation), their satisfaction with key trip attributes, and their likelihood to recommend Australia as a holiday destination. Drawing on these data and the extant literature, this study seeks to test the significance of various trip attributes in predicting overall trip satisfaction and expectations evaluation, which in turn contribute to likelihood to recommend the destination. Specifically we seek to determine: 1) the factors determining Chinese visitors’ overall trip satisfaction and expectations evaluation, 2) the influence of overall trip satisfaction and expectations evaluation on recommendation, and 3) whether there are differences in the effects of the predictors determining overall trip satisfaction by group tour versus non-group tour travellers and first time versus repeat travellers.

Method and Results

The data was cleansed to remove cases that were not asked questions relevant to this study due to questionnaire filters. This resulted in a final sample of 3,025 respondents for subsequent analysis via Partial Least Squares (PLS). The PLS approach to Structural Equation Models (SEM) is an alternative, soft modelling approach that does not require strong assumptions such as data normality, and is oriented to optimizing predictions (Vinzi, Trinchera, & Amato, 2010). These strengths are important for this study.

Discriminant validity of the measured factors was checked using the method of Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994). The R²s for expectations evaluation, overall trip satisfaction, and likelihood to recommend were .226, .265, and .231, respectively. The average variance accounted for (AVA) by the overall model was .241 (essentially a mean R² of the structural model), which exceeds the cut-off of .10 (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). This means, the model is successfully able to approximate observed values and therefore is a reliable predictor of future outcomes or hypotheses testing.

Table 1 shows the path coefficients and critical ratios from the PLS analysis on the valid sample data (n=3025). Seven of the eight predictors of expectations evaluation were significant, with the most important predictor being attractions, followed by shopping and value for money. Five of the nine predictors for overall trip satisfaction were significant, with expectations evaluation being the strongest predictor, followed by attractions, shopping and value for money. Finally, both expectations evaluation and overall trip satisfaction significantly explained the likelihood to recommend the destination. Figure 2 presents the graphical depiction of the path model results.

To test the moderating effects of the group tour and the first time traveller variables, we performed a permutation-based multi-group PLS analysis. The results indicate that the relationship between attractions and expectations evaluation was significantly stronger for first-time visitors compared with repeat visitors, while the path between value for money and overall trip satisfaction was significant for the first-time visitors but insignificant for repeat visitors. Furthermore, two paths (attractions to expectations evaluation and shopping to overall trip satisfaction) were significantly stronger for the group visitors than the non-group tour visitors, while one path was found to be stronger for the non-group tour visitors (friendliness to expectations evaluation).

Conclusion

This study provides insight into the trip attributes that influence expectations evaluation and overall trip satisfaction of Chinese visitors to Australia. In this context, this study confirms
that there is a relationship between trip attributes, expectations, satisfaction and likelihood to recommend the destination to others. We also found that attractions, shopping and value for money were the key trip attributes determining Chinese visitors’ satisfaction and that first time and group tour travellers have different trip attributes determining their expectations evaluation and satisfaction to that of repeat and non-group tour visitors. This has important implications for government and practitioners when developing policies or strategies to satisfy the increasingly diverse Chinese market, suggesting that there is a need to differentiate strategic approaches to the different segments.
Table 1. Results of Partial Least Squares Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paths</th>
<th>Overall Sample (n = 3025)</th>
<th>First Time (n = 2302)</th>
<th>Repeat (n = 723)</th>
<th>Group Difference</th>
<th>Non-Group (n = 906)</th>
<th>Group Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>CR</td>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>CR</td>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>CR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F &amp; B → Exp.</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>5.28*</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>4.57*</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>2.81*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction → Exp.</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>12.58*</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>13.08*</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>4.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping → Exp.</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>6.70*</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>6.14*</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>3.87*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendliness → Exp.</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>4.32*</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>3.67*</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>2.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety → Exp.</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>3.65*</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>3.41*</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1.73*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AvalChinese → Exp.</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1.28*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value → Exp.</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>6.43*</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>6.29*</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>2.40*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa → Exp.</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>2.07*</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F &amp; B → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>4.11*</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>3.56*</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attract → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>7.31*</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>6.66*</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>3.25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>7.21*</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>6.50*</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>4.56*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendliness → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AvalChinese → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>6.30*</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>6.68*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. → Overall Sat.</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>14.55*</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>13.79*</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>6.59*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. → Recommend</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>9.85*</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>7.59*</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>5.77*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Sat. → Recommend</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>18.07*</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>22.01*</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>6.36*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Exp. = Expectations evaluation; AvalChinese = availability of Chinese language and signs; F & B = food and beverage; Overall Sat. = overall trip satisfaction, Recommend = likelihood to recommend the destination; Coeff. = bootstrap standardized regression coefficients; CR = critical ratio. * p < .05
Figure 1. Graphical Depiction of the Path Model
References


Reaching agreement in travel-related decisions: Evidence from Chinese independent travellers

Hanqun Song, Prof. Beverley Sparks, Dr. Ying Wang

Department of Tourism, Sport and Hotel Management & Griffith Institute for Tourism
Griffith University, Australia

BACKGROUND

China’s tourism industry has been developing at a phenomenal pace and an increasing number of Chinese travellers are now preferring independent travel over package tours (IPK International, 2011). Independent travel accounts for approximately 40% of China’s domestic and outbound tourism market, with 53% of travellers aged below 35 years old (Trivett, 2013). Compared to package tourists who rely highly on the travel itinerary provided by travel agencies, independent travellers make their own travel decisions, and may benefit from the freedom of following their own schedule, with greater control over what they do, eat and see (Tourism Queensland, 2012). Independent travel does not equate to an individual travelling alone, often it is undertaken by a small group of people, such as friends, colleagues, and relatives. As a result, associated travel decisions may not be made by an individual but by the group travelling together. As multiple decision makers with different opinions are involved in the process of making the decision, it may take a longer time to reach an agreement (Fay, Garrod, & Carletta, 2000).

Despite the significance of the young Chinese independent tourism market and the importance of understanding group travel decision-making, little research has been found on this significant topic. To fill the gap, this study examines how groups of young Chinese independent travellers reach agreement in travel-related decisions. Specifically, the research question is whether young Chinese independent travellers experience any disagreement in the group travel decision-making process, if so, how do they address such disagreement.

METHODOLOGY

In-depth interviews were undertaken with 25 young Chinese independent travellers aged between 20 and 35. Interviewees had participated in travel-related group decision-making with their friends within the previous three months. Interview questions focused on the process of reaching agreement in travel decision-making. Additional questions, such as interviewees’ most recent leisure holiday, group companions, demographics, and trip characteristics, were also asked. Due to the exploratory nature of this topic, an inductive approach was implemented to analyse the interview materials, using qualitative analysis software, NVivo 10.

RESULTS

The results showed that a minority of interviewees did not perceive any disagreement or did not voice their disagreement in the group travel decision-making process. Chinese cultural values, respect for authority, and conformity, were found to influence interviewees’ perceptions. Respect for authority refers to the respect for the role of leaders. Leaders were found to largely influence the group travel decision-making process, and some leaders sometimes choose the destination and plan the trip for the group. Some interviewees did not involve much in the travel decision-making: therefore perceived no disagreement. Conformity
refers to a close friendship and a positive travel experience for the group. Interviewees controlled their real feelings and thoughts to not express their disagreement in order to avoid any possible conflicts that could ruin their friendship or the enjoyable travel vacation.

The majority of interviewees described that the decision-making process was characterised by periods of disagreement, and they experienced the process of resolving disagreement. Chinese cultural values, respect for authority, and conformity, were found to influence the way that interviewees resolve disagreement. In this section, respect for authority emphasises a unilateral gain for one party, and conformity focuses on mutual benefits to the whole group. In terms of respect for authority, a small number of interviewees either manipulate their power to force others to agree with them (e.g., forcing) or voluntarily concede with others (e.g., accommodating) in the decision-making process. In terms of conformity, the majority of interviewees focused on the mutual benefits to the group when resolving disagreement. Three common approaches were problem-solving, compromising, and avoiding. Table 1 provides examples of Chinese cultural values in the process to resolve disagreement.

Table 1: Chinese cultural values and the process to resolve disagreement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese cultural value</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Example quote</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respect for authority</td>
<td>Forcing</td>
<td>We went to the Ocean Park in Shanghai… but a guy didn’t like to go. Because he was alone, so we forced him to go with us… you know, otherwise he would be bored at the hotel… We had the same problem at the China Dinosaur Park in Changzhou, Jiangsu Province… since he was already at the travel destination, then he should visit some places with us. (No 15, Nie, 26, male, a small business owner, Wuxi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accommodating</td>
<td>We can depart from either Shanghai Airport or Wuxi Airport to Hong Kong… I planned to depart from Shanghai Airport, because there were a lot of duty free shops, I can buy a lot of products … but one of my friends liked Wuxi Airport, because it was convenient for us and close to our home… finally I agreed with him, because I had to travel with him. (No 8, Shen, female, 25, a receptionist, Wuxi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>Every one speaks their own opinions, and we put all opinions together, and we are trying to maximize different people’s needs, and that’s the best choice…(No 9, Li, female, a college student, Nanjing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compromising</td>
<td>If you like this restaurant, and he likes that one, it’s very easy, we go to this restaurant for lunch, and go to that one for dinner. (No 20, Zhu, female, 24, a human resource officer, Shanghai)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Avoiding</td>
<td>After dinner, some people want to stay at the hotel and have a rest because we have travelled for a whole day. On the other hand, some like to go sightseeing… finally, some people stayed at the hotel, and others went sightseeing … (No 23, Wu, male, 23, a real estate agent, Taizhou)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION

With a focus on the disagreement issue and the way to address disagreement, this study found Chinese cultural values to influence the group travel decision-making process of interviewees. For those interviewees who did not perceive any disagreement or did not voice their disagreement in the group travel decision-making process, understanding the characteristics of leaders and the travel motivation of group members is valuable for tourism industry practitioners to implement effective marketing plans. Specifically, as leaders, who were related to respect for authority, were found to largely influence the group travel decision-making process, tourism industry practitioners need to identify the demographic and travel characteristics of and information channels used by leaders in the Chinese youth market, and then implement specific marketing plan for these leaders in order to attract these leaders visiting the destination. In addition, people did not express disagreement for two reasons: maintaining a close friendship, and expecting an enjoyable travel experience. Tourism industry practitioners need to explore what motives travellers to travel with their friends: travel itself or the time of being together? If travellers care about travel, they may express their real thoughts in order to select a suitable destination that meets everyone’s need; however, if they care about friendship, they may not care about disagreement issue in travel-related decisions.

For those interviewees who directly expressed their disagreement, and experienced the process of resolving disagreement, understanding the details of the group communication is valuable for tourism industry practitioners. As conformity was the common focus in group travel decision-making process, tourism industry practitioners need to understand how a group of young Chinese travellers discuss with each other to address disagreement in order to meet everyone’s need. Another valuable issue could be: what types of approaches are used for resolving disagreement in different types of travel-related decisions, such as destination selection, accommodation selection, or meal options?

REFERENCES


Destination China: Chinese international students’ expectations of attributes needed by graduates of Australian tourism and hospitality degrees

Katrine Sonnenschein, Michelle Barker and Ray Hibbins
Griffith University

Abstract

The study will examine Xi Jing’s Chinese Dream that focuses on the rapid growth of Chinese society through expanding the middle class. Middle-class consumption includes investment in prestigious international education and growing interest in travel and tourism. This paper considers the influence of middle-class wealth on the selection of educational institutions and expectations of Chinese international students and their parents.

Preliminary findings of semi-structured interviews with Chinese international students enrolled in Australian tourism and hospitality degrees will be presented. It will consider their expectations of attributes needed in the Chinese hospitality industry. Particular reference will be made to the influence of professional socialisation.

It is envisaged that the research will contribute to university curriculum development, as well as provide recommendations for university–industry collaboration between Australia and China in relation to the hotel industry.

Key words

Chinese Dream, tourism/hospitality education, skills and labour demands, tourism and hospitality teaching, curriculum development

Introduction

Since Xi Jing took power of the Communist Party of China on 15 November 2012, he has promoted the concept of “the Chinese Dream” (Wang, 2013). According to Wang (2013), the Chinese Dream builds on previous Chinese leaders’ goals of national rejuvenation and national identity (Wang, 2013). Xi’s Chinese Dream focuses on the rapid growth of China and the desire to build a wealthy society by expanding the middle class which has already grown significantly since 1978 (Goodman, 2014). Individual dreams of wealth could be seen to represent the national Chinese Dream which is rooted in Confucian values, demand for social recognition, and the growing influence of Western values (Degen, 2010).

Signs of middle-class wealth and lifestyle include private housing, expensive cars, extensive shopping, and frequent dining out (Goodman, 2014). Furthermore, education is considered crucial for admission to the middle class, and the number of Chinese universities has dramatically increased in recent years (Goodman, 2014). Middle-class parents also invest in prestigious international education for their one child. Finally, a sign of the growing wealth of the middle class is the increasing popularity of travel and tourism (Silverstein, 2012).

In 2012, tourism and hospitality was the seventh most popular academic discipline area among Chinese international students in Australia (Havelock, 2013). Davidson and King (2008) claim that Chinese international students studying for a degree in the hospitality industry generally consider that this sector offers dynamic job opportunities in their
 homeland, where the tourism industry is booming as part of the Chinese Dream (Davidson & King, 2008). Indeed, employment outcomes are important for Chinese students and their families when considering study-abroad options (Gribble & Li, 2013).

Although the expectations managers have of graduates’ skills differ from country to country, universities need to consider which skills are important for their future graduates’ careers. There is a risk that international students have notions of employability that differ from those that shape the curriculum of their degree (McKinnon, 2013).

It is anticipated that this research will enrich the body of knowledge about the relevant attributes for future employment across cultures, particularly in tourism and hospitality.

**Theoretical framework**

The research applies Weidman et al.’s (2001) framework, which argues that attributes derived from students’ experience in universities must be addressed in order to understand professional socialisation (Weidman, 2001). The authors define professional socialisation in university as follows:

> Socialisation in graduate school [i.e., university] refers to the processes through which individuals gain the knowledge, skills, and values necessary for successful entry into a professional career requiring an advanced level of specialised knowledge and skills. (Weidman, 2001, p. 5)

According to Bragg (1976), the conditions of successful socialisation are most evident in education for professions such as medicine and law. However, the process also operates in other degree programs, including tourism and hospitality (Bragg, 1976).

Figure 1: Conceptualising Graduate and Professional Student Socialisation (Weidman, 2001, p. 37)
At the centre of Figure 1, is the core professional socialisation processes occurring at university. The surrounding parts of the figure represent the professional socialisation taking place outside the university context (Weidman, 2001, p. 37).

Using data from semi-structured interviews of Chinese international students, the study’s discussion will focus on how the students’ professional socialisation is being shaped during their university tourism and hospitality studies.

Methodology

The theoretical perspective of the research is interpretivism. Researchers using an interpretive perspective rely on respondents’ views of the phenomenon being studied, and recognise that their own background and experiences impact the research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). This research relies on the perception of various respondents in relation to attributes that are important in the Chinese hotel industry. An interpretive paradigm is therefore relevant for the thesis. The study reflects a social constructionist epistemology. The application of social constructionist principles suggests that individuals establish what it is to be a professional through interacting with others (Clouder, 2003).

The first stage of the data analysis uses NVivo10. Both open and axial coding is used. During open coding, blocks of data are labelled and properties and dimensions indicating variation are developed. Axial coding allows the categories to be related to each other by elaborating them (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). A method of constant comparison occurs between data. For example, the researcher looks for consistencies within each transcript and similarities among various transcripts (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Sampling

The study includes a preliminary analysis of 15 semi-structured interviews with Chinese international second- and third-year students enrolled in the Bachelor of Business (International Tourism and Hotel Management and Hotel Management) and Master of Business (International Tourism and Hospitality Management) in a particular Australian university.

Preliminary findings

The themes related to Chinese individual dreams of wealth that emerged from the interviews include the following:

- Investment in international education: All parents of the interviewees have invested in one or more international degrees for their one child – a sign of wealth and social recognition.
- High aspirations of students: Students want to gain specific attributes (including leadership, finance, critical thinking) in their international education to achieve a high position in China – a sign of status and respectability.
- Booming tourism industry: Interviewees consider that the Chinese tourism industry offers dynamic job opportunities due to the popularity of the travel and tourism industry – a sign of increasing middle-class wealth.
Contributions of the research

It is anticipated that this study will offer methodological, theoretical and practical contributions. In particular, it is envisaged that the research will contribute to university curriculum development, as well as provide recommendations for university–industry collaboration between Australia and China in relation to the hotel industry.

Conclusion

The Chinese Dream of individual wealth manifests itself in various ways, including increased consumption of prestigious international university education, as well as tourism and travel. Through utilising interviews with Chinese international students enrolled in Australian tourism and hospitality degrees, the study investigates the individual dreams of Chinese students with regard to prestigious international degrees, future employment, and expectations of attributes needed in the booming Chinese hotel industry.

References


The effect of Western or Chinese Hotel Brand Names on Chinese Customers’ Quality Expectation and Purchasing Intention

Dongmei Sun

Beijing International Studies

Keywords: Westernization; Chinese local; Quality expectation; purchasing intention; interaction effect.

The Research Background:

Lately, as the Chinese hospitality have developed quickly, a host of Chinese local hotels have emerged. Some of them have western brand names, such as the Green Hotel, the Vienna Hotels, the Plateno Hotels Group, the Radisson Hotel. According to China Hotel Association, the above hotel companies have entered the top 60 in Chinese hotel industry, so huge scale have occupied an important position in Chinese hotel industry, and as a result local hotels with western brand names have got great attention.

The Research Questions:

This paper aims to study why do the local hotels choose western names? And what is the differences of customer quality expectation and purchasing intention of different hotel brand names. In detail, in the paper, 9 hypothesis are mentioned to study the research questions.

H1a: for Chinese local low-end hotels, the Chinese customers have higher quality expectation of the hotels with Western brand names than with Chinese brand names.

H2b: H1a: for Chinese local low-end hotels, the Chinese customers have higher purchasing intention of the hotels with Western brand names than with Chinese brand names.

H2a: for Chinese local mid-end hotels, the Chinese customers’ quality expectation of the hotels with Western brand names or Chinese brand names have no obvious differences.

H2b: for Chinese local mid-end hotels, the Chinese customers’ purchasing intention of the hotels with Western brand names or Chinese brand names have no obvious differences.

H3a: for Chinese local high-end hotels, the Chinese customers have higher quality expectation of the hotels with Western brand names than with Chinese brand names.

H3b: for Chinese local high-end hotels, the Chinese customers’ purchasing intention of the hotels with Western brand names or Chinese brand names have no obvious differences.

H4a: whatever Chinese hotels with Chinese or Western brand names, the customers quality expectations rise as the hotel level rises.

Su Dongmei, third -year graduate in BeiJing International Language Study University, majoring in hospitality management. E-mail:15652372513@163.com or 1024434819@qq.com
H4b: whatever Chinese hotels with Chinese or Western brand names, the customers purchasing intention falls as the hotel level rises.

H5: the price and brand name will interact to have effect on Chinese customers quality expectations.

The Research Method:

Experimentation. The experiment includes pre-experiment and the formal experiment. The pre-experiment aims to form the hotel brand names with the most western or Chinese characteristic respectively. Questionnaires that have 3 Chinese hotel brand names and 3 Western names are provided to 50 testes in the Likert scale form. At last YueHai and Khai are selected to be the hotel brand names with the most Chinese or Western characteristics.

The formal experiment is a \((2*3)\) design. The independent variables are the brand name attribute and the price. The brand name have two dimensionalities: the Westernization and the Chinese. The price is divided into low, mid and high, that is the low-end hotels, mid-end hotels and high-end hotels. In this paper, low-end hotels refer to the hotels with price per night less than 300 RMB, mid-end hotels refer to the hotels with price per night between 301 to 600 RMB, high-end hotels refer to the hotels with price per night more than 601 RMB. There are two groups taking part in every experiment at the same time. The testee is provided a description paragraph about the condition and the hotel message. In order to reduce the information’s difference’ effect on the testee, the description are the same other than the tested variables.

The Conclusions:

For low-end hotels, hotels with Westernization brand names can make customers to have higher quality expectations and higher purchasing intention; for mid-end hotels, there are no obvious differences between hotels with Westernization brand names and Chinese brand names when comparing the customers’ quality expectations and purchasing intentions; for high-end hotels, the customers’ quality expectation result is the same as the low-end hotels while the customers’ purchasing intention result is the same as the mid-end hotels. Meanwhile, for both westernization and Chinese hotels, the customers’ quality expectation rises as the hotel’s level rises. While the purchasing intention is the opposite. At last, the experiment also prove that the interaction of the price and brand name have obvious effect. As a result, for hotel operators, they should name hotels with different levels different brand names to get the higher customer quality expectations and purchasing intentions. At the same time, pay attention to the interaction of the price and brand, try to get the perfect combination, to make the hotel develop in the long term.

The Contributions:

This is the first time to study the westernization and Chinese brand names’ effect customers’ quality expectation and purchasing intentions of the local hotels, and have an obvious result of the customers preference, this will help the hotel operators to make some advisable decisions.

The Limitations:
Firstly: the testees are limited. They are all from one university, the thinking modes are similar and the consumption ability is limited, so they have less mid or high-end hotels consumption experience. so the research result’s popularization needs more proved.

Secondly: the stimulus provided to the testee is a paragraph of word description, no visual reference, so the testee’s reaction is limited.

Thirdly: the Westernization or Chinese problems is related to the country of region, this paper just pay no attention to the country of region, so the research is not so comprehensive and deep.

**Future Research Direction:**

First of all, bring the country of origin in the research. Study the country of origin, brand name and price together, to get the comprehensive result;

Secondly, to design more real situation. Help the testee have more real feelings and to make more real reaction;

At last, choose much wider testee to get more representative collecting data, as a result the conclusion will be more convincing.

**The references:**


Chinese tourists’ gaze on New Zealand: the effect of otherness in destination image formation

Minghui Sun, Chris Ryan and Steve Pan

Minghui Sun
New Zealand Tourism Research Institute, Auckland University of Technology

Chris Ryan
The University of Waikato

Steve Pan
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Keywords: Chinese tourists, blog, content analysis, otherness, destination image

Abstract

According to the official data from China National Tourism Administration, a total of 97 million Chinese tourists left the country in 2013 (CNTA & China Tourism Academy, 2014). As Chinese tourists differ from their western counterparts, the pattern of Chinese tourists is of great value for the study of the cultural influence in the process of destination image formation.

According to Myers (as cited in Pike & Ryan, 2004), destination image is comprised of cognitive, affective, and conative perceptions. Cognition is the total knowledge obtained about a destination; affective components include all the feelings an individual holds about a place; and conation referred to the desire and interest of visiting a place at a certain time (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Thus anthropologists viewed travelling as a process of self-discovery and self-representation in which tourists were facing the challenge of personal identities between self and other (Galani-Moutafi, 2000).

From the tourists’ perspective, the “Otherness” can be the place where the touristic experiences occurred, such as 1) the place outside one’s social norms (Cave, 2005); and 2) heterogeneous spaces (Soja, 1995). The “Otherness” also can be one person, or a group of persons that are so different to the “self”. As MacCannell (1976) mentioned, tourists are commonly seeking the exotic, primitive and natural destinations that are absent from their own world. However, because of the significant difference, the “other” can be perceived universally as an exotic and romantic being (Ackermann, 1998), or even idealised other place, like Utopia (Cave, 2005). Thus the place, people, and things that tourists gaze upon are mixed with their own identities and expectations (Mellinger, 1994), that is, a self-reflexive and self-questioning paradigm emerges (Galani-Moutafi, 2000).

Seeking “Otherness” is a significant driving force for tourists to travel (Doorne, Ateljevic, & Bai, 2003). Through “Otherness”, differentiation of cultural, natural, and historical extraordinariness can be served as a sign of distinction and attracts tourists to visit the destination (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2005; Galani-Moutafi, 2000). More specifically, Fürsich (2002) indicated that the “exotic” was a powerful strategy of using “Otherness” because the desire to experience difference is one of the primary motivations of the tourists. According to Harkin (1995), the exotic represents the differentiations of society and place which is an
alternative to domestic experience. Trying to arouse the intention of “reading”, “appropriating”, and “exploiting” the destination, the tourism industry need to think how to entice tourists to this “exotic” world (Galani-Moutafi, 2000). Thus, given the fact that otherness plays an important role in destination image formation, understanding different market segments and selling differentiation is vital for destination marketers to attract more international tourists.

As Kellehear (1993, p. 5) said, unobtrusive measures can be used to assess “actual” behaviour instead of “self-reported” behaviour. In order to study the above mentioned “actual” behaviour, Chinese blogs were selected to identify the otherness in the perception of New Zealand. After the elimination of commercial, official posts, and non-travel related posts, a total of 409 travel blogs containing 6,968 photographs were selected for content analysis. Computer assist qualitative analysis software Atlas ti was used to assist qualitative content analysis in dealing with the large amounts of text and structuring conceptual networks.

Fan (2000) indicated that Chinese culture gives Chinese people their basic identity that is different from western and other eastern cultures. Chinese tourists are not content to simply seek the aesthetic qualities of landscapes, but they usually try to find the history, culture, and legends that relate to a certain destination. Hence, when travelling to another country, Chinese tourists normally possess a different way of gazing on a country and have different behavioural patterns when compared to their western counterparts. In many ways New Zealand is very different from China. Therefore the tourists gaze on the former through their own filters of perceptions compounded from imagination and expectations, and through a self-reflexive and self-questioning paradigm (Galani-Moutafi, 2000). By looking at the “Other”, it confirms in a sense of the gazer’s own identity, and their feelings for and about their own country. This paradoxical feeling of looking at difference forces the tourists to think about that which is familiar to them. Thus the Chinese tourists often made comparisons between New Zealand and China.

“Taking photographs is an emblematic tourist practice” (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003, p. 23). As Urry (2002) indicated, the tourist gaze is way of seeing the world. Blogger W03 posted a series of 14 photographs of morning exercise in one entry titled as “Morning exercise for people living in a sea view villa”. Through these photographs, an enjoyable life of those living in Auckland was described. The sea view villa and jogging on the beach is far from an ordinary life for Chinese people. Chinese tourists are curious about New Zealanders’ lifestyle and admire their attitude of enjoying life. As Jenkins (2003) declared, the prime motivation for travel is seeking different experience and curiosity. This differentiate was usually perceived by tourists as a distorted idealised “other” world (Cave, 2005).

As mentioned above, destination image encompasses cognitive components, as well as affective components. The analysis clearly show that Chinese bloggers progress by not only recording what it is that they do and see, but also do so through a process of comparison with their own lives in China.

It is recognised that many different approaches exist in interpreting and analysing text written by tourists. Such texts as blogs are recorded ‘gazes’ of tourists, and as Urry (2002) has noted, there are different such gazes including the romantic, nostalgic, the collective, anthropological and mediatized to mention but a few from his list. Gazes are social constructs – what is selected as the object of the gaze, the duration of surveillance, the interpretation of
what is seen, these are all associated with a social milieu within which the cultural framing of the gaze is important. Aspects of that cultural framing has been implicit in much of what has been observed in the blogs, but cultural framing has, like any attitude, a cognitive, affective and conative component. Chinese visitors gaze on New Zealand from a perspective of primarily newly affluent urban dwellers living in some of the largest urban centres on the planet. The lack of crowding, the absence of easily observed pollution, the views of clear skies represent significant differences to their daily lives. The affective assessment of clear starlit skies evokes memories of a classical Chinese past. The conative is embryonically seen in a making of comparisons between the two countries and a questioning of what accounts for differences.

For Chinese visitors to the “Land of the Long White Mist”, New Zealand represents an “other” that is far remote from the crowded and polluted major cities of China from which many of the tourists come. Therefore, this comparison is commonly remarked upon by the Chinese, and turned inward to reflect upon the nature of their own living conditions. Yet there is no sense of criticism being expressed of China, but perhaps a sense of loss. Given that China has so recently emerged from impoverishment for so many millions, the tourists arguably appreciate their own good fortune of being able to visit “the other”, of being able to obtain the “prestige” that comes from within their own social milieu for being able to make such a journey, and also, as will be seen, also possessing a sense of pride that a Chinese diaspora does so well in the exotic “other” of New Zealand.

The Effectiveness of 72 Hours Transfer Visa-free Policy in Converting Stopover Passengers into Future Stayover Tourists in the Relevant Hub Cities in China – Evidence from Dalian

Chuanzhong Tang and Fangfang Shi
Global Institute of Management and Economics, Dongbei University of Economics and Finance

Introduction

The Chinese Dream was described by the Chinese president, Xi Jinping, as ‘the great rejuvenation of the Chinese nation’. The dream is about building a prosperous country, revival of the nation and the well-being of the people (Xinhua News, 2014). Apparently, an imperative to achieve the goal is economic progress, in which tourism plays a significant role. According to WTTC’s research, travel and tourism’s total contribution to China’s GDP was around 9% of total GDP in 2011, and the figure will grow by more than 9% over the next ten years, a faster growth rate than the total economy (7.6%) (Koumelis, 2012). The Chinese government has issued a number of policies to boost its tourism industry, and one of them is the 72 hours transfer visa free policy for foreign visitors (Li 2014). It is expected that the policy will allow transit tourists to have a taste of China, and hopefully come back in the future for a longer stay. It has been a year since the policy came into effect in September 2013 and it is time to examine the effectiveness of the policy. Additionally, most of the tourism studies only focus on the tourist-generating and destination regions, where most marketing and tourism activities occur. Little attention has been paid tourist transit region as well as its constitute elements. This research is thus developed to catch the attention of the scholar on the tourism transit region by promoting an innovated concept, quasi-destination, and evaluating the effectiveness of the 72 hours transfer visa free policy in influencing the travel decision and behaviours of the foreign visitors in China.

Literature Review

Historically, Mariot (1969, cited in Prideaux, 2000) developed a theoretical tourist flow model emphasising the linkage and access routes between the tourist’s place of permanent residence and the tourist centre. To conceptual the basic spatial dynamic of tourism, Leiper (2004) developed ‘a simple whole tourism system and its environments model’. The different routes linking the origin and the destination developed in Mariot’s model have been generalised as the transit route region. Broadly, transit activity includes moving from one place to another, changing transport modes and transferring within the same transport mode. The specific place for transit is the ‘hub’.

Due to the highly developed hub and spoke networks and alliance strategy pursued by most major airlines, transiting through hub airports is a normal part of the tourism experience especially for medium and long-haul travel. However, this phenomenon is not significantly recognised in Leiper’s model, and the ‘hub’ should be emphasised and added to the transit route region (see Figure 1). Despite the critical travel-facilitating role of the transit region, few studies have emphasised its importance within tourism systems. One reason is that the transit region is often regarded as a taken-for-granted non-discretionary space which the tourist must cross to reach their final destination (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). However, more
and more facilities/services in the transit region are now being marketed as tourism attractions in their own right, blurring the distinction between the transit and destination components. This blurred distinction has been captured in the concept of ‘transit tourism’, which McKercher and Tang (2004) define as a short-stay visit by transit tourists (i.e. stopover visitors) in the transit point while they are en route to their final destination.

![Diagram of Multiple locations of the ‘Hub’ in the transit route region](image)

*Figure 1 Multiple locations of the ‘Hub’ in the transit route region (adopted from Weaver & Lawton, 2010)*

The difficulty of distinguishing between a transit region and a destination is not only due to the idea of ‘touring’ and the concept of ‘transit tourism’. Even within a destination region, multiple transit experiences will probably occur (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). If an inbound tourist in Shanghai would like to visit a nearby place of interest, a one or two-hour transit journey may be required. Therefore, Lohmann and Pearce (2010) further indicate that a place can have different nodal functions based on the number of nights that the passenger stays and the primary reason for experiencing this place. If the passenger only experiences this single place and stays for more than one night, this place can be then recognised as a tourism destination. In addition, the place can be also considered as a gateway destination, which functions as a transit point and a destination at the same time, if the passenger stays for more than one night at this place in order to transfer to another destination. This function is similar to the aforementioned concept of the ‘transit tourism’ developed by McKercher and Tang (2004). Meanwhile, it is believed that there is a crucial link between the nodal functions of the transit place and engagement with the local tourism industry. Appropriate management and promotion for the transit point can significantly bring the economic benefits for the relevant local stakeholders (Lohmann & Pearce, 2010).

In order to further develop the tourism industry and achieve more economic benefits, China is now promoting its ‘transit tourism’ and would like stopover passengers to stay longer at transfer sites. As of 31 December 2013, stopover passengers from 45 countries benefitted from the visa-free policy and could stay 72 hours at the transfer place when they transit through Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Chengdu, Chongqing, Shenyang and Dalian to a third country (The Central People’s Government of PRC, 2013). This visa policy enables stopover passengers to explore local icons during their transfer and their encounter is a good promotion for the tourism of China, as they may share the ‘transit tourism’ experience with their friends, relatives and colleagues through word-of-mouth and social media.

The original purpose of developing ‘transit tourism’ in China conforms to the discussion and arguments of McKercher and Tang (2004), and Lohmann and Pearce (2010). However, Tang
and Weaver (2014) further expand the concepts of ‘transit tourism’, and introduced an innovative component, ‘quasi-destination’, in the transit region of the tourism system. It is proposed that ‘quasi-destinations’ are essential transit locations such as a flight path, aircraft or a hub that also possess some characteristics of a destination (Tang & Weaver, 2014). In addition to the positive impacts obtained from developing ‘transit tourism’, it is expected that the hubs under the 72 hours transfer visa-free policy in China can also function as ‘quasi-destinations’. After the transfer travellers visit the icon attractions of the hub city in the limited time, they may obtain a positive image based on this short encounter, which may stimulate their revisit intention. When the transfer travellers consider their next holiday destination, they may come back to the hub city and stay longer as a tourist. Therefore, a research is needed to confirm this hypothesis and evaluate the effectiveness of the hub, functioning as a quasi-destination, in converting stopover passengers into future stayover tourists.

Research Methodology

Based on a comprehensive literature review and a critical analysis of the relevant research gaps, the overall research purpose of this research is to examine whether or not the 72 hours transfer visa-free policy in China can allow the relevant hub cities to function as ‘quasi-destinations’ and evaluate their effectiveness in converting stopover passengers into future stayover tourists. Considering the research scale and the data availability, Dalian is selected from the seven hub cities under the 72 hours transfer visa-free policy as the case study place. Survey-based quantitative research is employed to achieve the objective of this research. The questionnaire is inspired by the AIDA (Attention, Interest, Desire and Action) model and theory of reasoned action (TRA). Likert-scaled questions focused on interviewing the transfer travellers who just completed their short encounter with Dalian using the 72 hours transfer visa-free policy. Eleven local icon attractions including Xinghai Square, People’s Square, No.15 Warehouse, Golden Pebble Beach, Tiger Beach, Binhai Road, Dalian Forest Zoo, Dalian Discovery Land, Sun Asia Ocean World, Lvshun Japan-Russia Prison, and Lvshun Baiyu Mountain are selected to examine their positive exposure to the transit location in the sequence of awareness, participation, satisfaction and influence (A-P-S-I). The APSI framework developed by Tang and Weaver (2014) is believed as an effective model in examine the effectiveness of the ‘quasi-destination’. Demographic characteristics such as gender, age and education level, and travel preference were also solicited in the questionnaire.

With the help of the immigration officer at Dalian Zhoushouzi International Airport, the questionnaire will be distributed directly to the transfer travellers who have used the 72 hours transfer visa-free policy when they pass the immigration check point before departure. The willingness participants can fill up the survey while waiting for the flight and drop the completed questionnaire into the collecting box. SPSS 20.0, will be used to analyse the questionnaire data. This will initially involve aggregate descriptions of the sample. Hierarchical cluster analysis will then be used to identify relatively uniform sub-samples differentiated by their response patterns to the Likert-scaled questions of influence. Subsequently, comparison-of-means and chi-squared tests will be used to see how the clusters differ. The APSI (Awareness, Participation, Satisfaction and Influence) analysis method (Tang & Weaver, 2014) will be applied to investigate the exposure of the respondents, collectively and by individual cluster, to the hub city, and subsequent revisit intentions.
Research Significance

Currently, there is no research that focuses on analysing the impacts of the 72 hours transfer visa-free policy on the relevant hub cities in China. This research will thus detailed illustrate the influence of this newly established tourism policy. In addition, the concept of the ‘quasi-destination’ will be further promoted, which invites a reassessment of conventional tourism system models in demonstrating the hub’s role as a transit/destination hybrid that influences other dynamics in the system. It is believed that this research will have substantial benefits for the other hub cities in the world, which have the potential to function as the ‘quasi-destinations’. At the same time, more attention will be generated to the transit region from tourism scholars and it is expected more research will be conducted focusing on this area in the future.

Reference List


‘Powerscape’ in Chinese tour packages

Ying Wang, Anna Kwek and David Weaver

Ying Wang
Griffith University

Anna Kwek
Griffith University

David Weaver
Griffith University

1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Tourism is not merely a simple act of travelling to destinations, but a dynamic and mediated process rife with underlying tension and power plays. Power can be soft or hard, and expressed individually or organizationally. Soft power is the ability to get others to do what you want them to do through co-option, relying on shaping behavior and perceptions (Keohane & Nye, 1998; Nye, 2008). Kwek, Wang and Weaver (2014) demonstrate the application of soft power to influence the shopping behavior of package tourists through gift-baiting and storytelling that promote alleged cultural values and health benefits. In contrast, hard power is exercised coercively through threats and sanctions (Nye, 2008), manifested in aggressive, persistent and unidirectional selling (Kwek et al., 2014).

All-inclusive package tours, combining airfares, accommodation, guides, sightseeing and/or transfers for one fixed price, are fundamental to contemporary mass tourism. A Chinese form, “zero-dollar tours”, grossly misrepresents actual costs by pricing below operational costs (Chen, Mak, & Guo, 2011). This is enabled by diverting tour groups to designated shopping outlets that pay sales commission to tour operators (Dwyer, King, & Prideaux, 2007). While purchases are at the discretion of individual shoppers, guides attempt to manipulate tourists through various selling strategies (Huang, Hsu, & Chan, 2009). Contrary to the view that tourists, particularly from developed countries, exercise power over their hosts (Cheong & Miller, 2000), low-priced tour packages therefore are sites of power projection where providers vigorously attempt to restrict tourist power. These tours are increasingly popular among overseas Chinese visiting China. The 41 million overseas Chinese (OCAC, 2014) represent a major global tourism market and constitute a substantial share of international visitors to Chinese destinations, where strategies are developed specifically for this market (Liang, 2012). This study investigates the power dynamic of overseas Chinese-only tour packages offered in China, identifying disempowerment and empowerment techniques adopted by service providers and tourists.

2. METHODS

An analytic autoethnography under the interpretive, social constructivist viewpoint was adopted which assumes that everyone experiences a different reality in the socially constructed world. Our innovative hybrid framework uses triangulation to enhance credibility and authenticity. Primary data were collected by two ethnic Chinese researchers (hereafter researcher 1/Tour A and research 3/Tour B), and additional data from other tour participants, promotional materials, and blogs of past participants. Tour A was an eight-day excursion to
Beijing and surrounds with 33 predominantly China- or Taiwan-born Chinese residing in Australia, New Zealand or North America. Tour B, with 26 overseas Chinese originating from Australia or Indonesia, started in Beijing and ended nine days later in Shanghai, traveling overland. Both tours were priced below cost and included an intensive shopping component. We formulated a standard checklist to guide data collection and sought perceptions of service interaction quality. Researcher 2 is an Australian of European descent who helped to develop and refine the conceptual framework, interpret data, and identify patterns. Manual and NVivo assistance was used to identify, code, and group patterns.

3. RESULTS

Figure 1 depicts the major revealed themes. Member experiences are negotiated between supplier attempts to disempower members and the reciprocal effort of members, individually and/or collectively, to self-empower. Different disempowerment strategies appear to solicit specific member reactions.

Note: The lines between the panels indicate tour members’ responses to disempowerment strategies.

**Figure 1: Powerscape in Chinese tour package setting**

**Disempowerment Strategies.** Service intermediaries variably attempted to disempower members through hard power impositions and soft power manipulations. Imposition implicates sub-strategies of domination and intimidation where the exercise of power is visual and conflicts with member interests. Suppliers seem to own power to force desired changes in shopping behaviour. Manipulation refers to intermediaries’ effort to create reliance and build trust. We observed an orchestrated agenda by providers to create perceptions of reliance so as to make tourists transfer their power to them. The exercise of power is less visible, and located in providers’ capacity to create and reinforce barriers. For instance, by accommodating tourists away from city centres, tour operators hindered tourists
from accessing other shopping venues and comparing prices. Trust-building occurs when tour members are manipulated to exhibit trust in a provider, eliciting enthusiasm and agreeability even when in conflict with self-interest. In this euphoric state, members willingly purchased goods at inflated prices because they truly believed in the quality and value of the merchandise. Shopping venues also attempted to embedding Chinese culture into the product and project a socially responsible image to create trust.

**Self-empowerment Strategies**

Members exhibited diverse responses to forced shopping in an attempt to self-empower, consciously or subconsciously. Three levels of resistance were observed including active resistance, passive resistance and non-resistance. Active resistance involves the strategies of confrontation and subversion. Confrontation was observed often as assertive direct refusal to purchase. This occurred more often in the early tour stages in response to the exercise of hard power. Using this strategy, members exhibit strong will to exercise power directly. There is similar strong will in the subversion strategy to exercise power but indirectly by undermining and overriding the efforts of intermediaries.

Passive resistance includes reactions of indifference, avoidance, submission/resignation, bargaining tactics and appeasement. Indifference entails non-participation, lack of enthusiasm and interest, and shifting the responsibility to others (e.g., males deflecting buying pressure to spouses). Avoidance is highly effective. Excuses to avoid interaction with intermediaries include faked sickness, visiting the restroom, pretending not to understand Chinese, and declaring lack of money. Members sometimes surrendered to pressure. In one case, members were disinterested in another expensive, optional acrobatic show, but relented to avoid having an angry tour leader for the trip duration. Bargaining strategies are manifested in befriending the tour guide, attaching oneself to a big shopper, bantering with sales people or faking interest to deflect pressure. Appeasement results from weak will to exercise power and is demonstrated by buying to meet minimal expectations, or selectively purchasing cheap and easily consumable products such as keychain holders and confectionary to fend off pressure.

Non-resistance, including accommodation and co-option, reflects weak will to exercise power with members willingly purchasing products at inflated prices. The difference between the two lies in the nature of trust in service intermediaries. Co-opted members often exhibit irrational trust and exert influence on others to purchase, as exemplified in an episode where a member actively defended the shop and persuaded others to buy.

4. CONCLUSION

This study is the first to examine reciprocal power relationships in tour package contexts. A key contribution is to model this power exchange and its variability across different service interactions and sales strategies. Such power interplay as an explicit phenomenon has not been previously recognized in the tourism literature. Differing from host resistance classifications of Joseph and Kavoori (2001) and Maoz (2006), our study explores willingness to resist from a tourist perspective. Consistent with the Foucauldian view that power is unstable (Cheong & Miller, 2000), we noticed not only fluidity in members’ responses to disempowerment efforts, but also in intermediaries’ reactions to those responses. Of note is the mutual influence members have to exercise power collectively. How members cope depends not only on individual emotional intelligence but also group coherence.
Shopping is an economic activity, but members’ experiences derive from power exchanges and how effectively they negotiate these within contexts of nationality, socio-cultural connectedness, emotional intelligence, psychological resilience, and understanding of Chinese norms. We propose the concept of powerscape as the multifaceted geographical, socio-cultural, economical, and psychological context within which members’ experiences in tours are negotiated between supplier attempts to disempower members and reciprocal member efforts to self-empower.

References


A Study of the Application of Flexible Working Arrangements in Chinese Hotel Industry

Yu Wang and Fu Yanyan
School of Hospitality Management, Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, P. R.C.

Abstract

With a large number of hotels springing up annually in Mainland China, the Chinese hotel market presents a status of supply exceeding demand as a whole in higher-end market, leading to fierce competition. Since the Central Chinese government introduced a series of tightening government spending policies, the overall RevPar of Chinese luxury hotels has been experiencing a sustained downward trend. Meanwhile, China’s labour cost is on the rise over the years. Hotels’ relatively low payment contributes much to the high turnover rate, which in turn increases hidden labour cost to the industry. Thus, given the labor-intensive nature and its competitive business environment, it’s essential for the hotel industry to improve its human resources management efficiency. Meanwhile, some technology advancements, such as the increased use of internet and mobile devices worldwide have helped to break time and space limitations in traditional workplace. As a result, more flexible working arrangements (FWAs) have emerged and been trialed in many industries as the world requires. However, what type of flexible arrangement can be applied to the hotel industry and the corresponding implementing conditions are not clear, due to lack of previous studies, especially in Mainland China.

Thus, the main objectives of this research are three-fold. Firstly, it aims to construct a flexible working arrangement (FWA) classification model based on literature reviews. Secondly, it hopes to find out what FWAs have been used in China’s luxury hotels, if there is any. Thirdly, it explores what factors prevent or promote the adoption and selection of FWAs in current Chinese hotel industry, especially in the luxury sector. Since so far little has been discussed about FWAs in China and in the Chinese hospitality industry, the current study may contribute to both theory and practice. As an on-going study, this paper only reports some of the preliminary findings.

The research design includes three phases. First, literature reviews phase. In this stage, the researchers review main human resource management and hospitality management articles and books related with FWAs, and attempt to group existing FWAs in five dimensions including time, numerical, functional, location and financial flexibilities. A FWA model is proposed to be used as an analytical tool in the current study. Second, the pilot investigation stage. It was conducted in eleven Beijing hotels, ranging from luxury to economic ones, using factual questionnaire and in-depth interviews to be filled by HR managers in the sample hotels. The combination of both tools is useful to collect factual information across the sample in a relatively tight interview schedule, while at the same time keep necessary depth that the research is required. Third, field research and analysis with bigger sample size and modified questionnaire and interview questions. The third stage is just starting, and findings will not be included in the paper.

The research findings suggested that among the five types of FWAs, numerical flexibility and functional flexibility are mostly used by sample hotels. Other FWAs have been found with limited adoption. In luxury hotels, location flexibility and time flexibility were rarely mentioned by the respondents. It may be a reflection of the “luxury” feature, in other words,
the people-intensive nature of hotel works and services are still believed to be “necessary” by many. Additionally, China’s national social insurance system and employment laws were reported with limited flexibility to encourage hotel companies to apply some types of FWAs due to cost related considerations. More specifically, numerical flexibility was found mainly applied in trainees. Outsourcing with part-time and temporary workers used only occasionally in some hotels for quality or safety reasons. However, hotels included were found with increasingly awareness of the importance to cultivate multi-functional and multi-skilled employees. Cross-training was a common practice. Some hotels even provided special trainings or learning programs for their staff as an incentive tool to reward excellent employees. Financially flexible methods, such as merit pay and commission allowance, were found in all sample hotels to increase efficiency. Working time was found rather fixed in majority sample hotels. All hotels surveyed have strict clock-in policy. Hourly paid employees, which are commonly practiced in many western countries’ hotels, were rarely found in the Chinese hotels. In terms of location flexibility, off-hotel working cannot be realized in many hotel job posts, but people like sales persons can work outside after punching in, and become mobile. Nevertheless, some hotels have tried to bring some flexibility to their workplace, such as a case hotel adopted Comprehensive Working Hour Calculation System and job splitting. When comparing the luxury hotels with the selected chain budget hotels, it was found that more similarities than differences in terms of the types of FWAs in the sample. All of the hotels interviewed have applied numerical flexible labor practices, mostly using student trainees and outsourcing. They all put high emphasis on cultivating multi-functional employees to improve work efficiency. However, the included economic hotels did provide more time and location flexible policies in their workplace, although most were informal practice (i.e. not clearly stated in their companies’ HR policies).

It is hoped that the current research may contribute to the general knowledge of the FWAs and to China’s hotel industry and its human resource management. However, the findings presented in this paper are only based on a small and convenient sample of only 11 Beijing hotels due to the accessibility issue and the need of depth with hotels’ management for the pilot stage. The next stage of the study will try to reduce some of the potential bias caused above mentioned facts.

**Keywords:** Flexible working arrangements, Chinese hotel, Human resource management
Tourism and the Chinese Dream: A Framework for Engagement

David Weaver
Dept. of Tourism, Sport & Hotel Management, Griffith University

Introduction

The idea of the “Chinese Dream” was popularised by President Xi Jinping in November 2012 to frame a national discussion about China’s future development aspirations. Although deliberately ambiguous, basic contours pertain which focus on maintaining balance and harmony in the face of the potential contradictions that attend China’s transition from socialism to a mixed socialist/market-based society. Thus, collective aspirations to foster national pride and sense of community and egalitarianism are emphasised, but so are individual aspirations for personal and family well-being. The contemporary focus on materialism, accordingly, should be balanced against rejuvenated spiritual and aesthetic sensitivities. China’s internal development, additionally, is reinforced by efforts to foster external perceptions of China as a respected and admired great power exercising a positive influence on global development (ChinaDaily USA, 2014).

In the discourses that are currently unfolding around the idea of the Chinese Dream, there has been attention to increased economic growth, acquisition of consumer goods, the equitable distribution of benefits, and demands for clean water and air as well as safe food. However, among these quality-of-life parameters, there is no evidence of any formal engagement with tourism. This is surprising considering China’s emergence as a global tourism powerhouse that in 2013 hosted 129 million inbound tourists (including from Hong Kong and Macau) and 3.2 billion domestic tourists while generating 97 million outbound tourists (ChinaDaily 2014). It is assumed here accordingly that tourism is implicated as a major and growing manifestation and facilitator of the Chinese Dream, but also functions as a potential inhibitor. A tentative matrix model is presented which expedites analysis of the relationships and the formulation of optimal outcomes.

Tourism in Relation to the Chinese Dream

A tentative model for analysing the relationships between tourism and the Chinese Dream positions the inclusive dimensions of tourism as domestic, outbound and inbound, and the possible relationship categories as manifestation, facilitator and inhibitor. This results in a set of nine interrelated analysis-cells applicable to all destination-scales and all tourism situations (Figure 1). The relevance of each cell to a particular destination will vary, so that prioritisation will be necessary in the early stages of analysis. Regarding appropriate strategic planning and management actions, the six cells that situate under the “positive” relationships of manifestation and facilitation require realisation if not already evident in suitable places and times, and reinforcement if already present. Conversely, the three “negative” cells under inhibition warrant amelioration if present, and prevention if not. Every cell is informed by the idea of “quadruple bottom-line (QBL) sustainability”, which augments the conventional triple bottom-line (i.e. economic, environmental and sociocultural) with a geopolitical dimension that focuses on the viability of the Chinese state (Weaver, 2010). This framework also recognises the role played by external systems (e.g. cultural, political, social, technological, economic, and geophysical) in mediating the tourism/Chinese Dream relationship.
The actions of reinforcement and amelioration reflect the importance of an “enhancement sustainability” approach which seeks continually to improve on the destination status quo (Weaver, 2006). This in turn is embedded in “enlightened mass tourism”, a more general frame of reference and aspiration which advocates the synthesis of strengths associated respectively with mass tourism and alternative tourism (Weaver, 2014). The former, among other assets, evokes efficient economies-of-scale sufficient to handle demand, and competitive energy that fosters innovation. Alternative tourism provides added foci on ethics and compassion which moderate the destructive tendencies often associated with laissez-faire tourism development; as such it moves beyond the “opportunistic environmentalism/social activism” that characterises much contemporary engagement with corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives.

Matrix applications

Pending empirical verification, it might be assumed that many Chinese, implicitly or explicitly, are “living the Chinese Dream” through their participation in domestic tourism (D-Man), an opportunity almost inconceivable to their grandparents. Certain activities and attractions, however, are more valued than others so that only some such experiences might merit Dream status. For others or under other circumstances, domestic travel might indicate more a facilitation of the Dream (D-Fac) through for example the accrual of social status, networking opportunities and résumé-enhancing travel experience. In either case, however, there is considerable potential for Dream undermining. Excessive crowding at iconic sites such as the Great Wall and Forbidden City during the Golden Weeks, and the highly commoditised display of ethnic minority people to Han Chinese tourists in Yunnan Province, might exemplify the “Chinese Nightmare” for tourists and local residents respectively (D-Hib).

Outbound tourism, smaller than domestic tourism by a factor of 30, may represent a higher form of the Dream (O-Man), or could in relative terms undermine domestic tourism as a dream manifestation in the same way that the ownership of a Porsche subverts the status of an Audi-owning neighbour. Facilitation (O-Fac) seems overtly evident in the presence of Chinese students in Australian universities, and covertly in the “ambassador” role played by such visitors in the construction and projection of China’s soft power brand. Regardless, destination marketing organisations in Australia and elsewhere may better capitalise on China’s market opportunities by developing and promoting attractions and experiences that manifest or help to advance outbound tourists’ realisation of the Chinese Dream. Finally, inbound tourism can be an affirmation of China’s merit as a respected and admired destination-country (I-Man) as well as a source of wealth-creation for entrepreneurs able to capitalise on the attendant commercial opportunities (I-Fac). However, dissatisfied inbound visitors can have a reverse effect (I-Hib), as can situations where priority is given to foreigners in accessing prestigious attractions and experiences.

Summary

The Chinese Dream is the focus of a mega-level discourse in contemporary China that considers the collective and personal aspirations of its people, and the burgeoning tourism industry displays variably (and perhaps in some cases concurrently) as an important manifestation, facilitator or inhibitor. The model presented here provides a basis for engaging this relationship at the national, regional, and local scale, and empirical applications are now
required with the short-term goal of matrix refinement and the longer-term goal of realising enlightened mass tourism with Chinese characteristics.

References


Figure 1
Tentative Model for Analysing Tourism/Chinese Dream Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of tourism</th>
<th>Role of tourism in the Chinese Dream</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manifestation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>D-Man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outbound</td>
<td>O-Man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inbound</td>
<td>I-Man</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Strategies:
- Realisation
- Reinforcement
- Prevention
- Amelioration
Stakeholder dynamics in the formation and development of Chinese historic and cultural precincts as tourism attractions: Evidence from Australia and China*

Bixia Xu¹, ², Karine Dupre¹, Linlin Dai³

1. Urban Research Program, Griffith University, Gold Coast, QLD 4215, Australia
2. Sustainability Research Centre, University of the Sunshine Coast, Maroochydore DC, QLD 4558, Australia
3. College of Urban and Environmental Sciences, Peking University, Beijing 100871, China

* Chinese case studies in this project were partially funded by the Natural Science Foundation of Beijing, China (No. 8132030).

Recently, the shift towards a more leisure-oriented society and economic reconversion has led many cities and territories to question the renewal of their identity, attractiveness, image, as well as their local, domestic, and international influence. As such, it often ended the traditional and customary practices of segregating tourism and culture from the city (re)development and demonstrated the positive weight of culture and tourism in a collaborative planning scheme. Culture has become a “must”, and within this context, tourism significantly affects the conception, fabrication, practice and everyday life experience of contemporary cities⁷. In particular, cultural tourism with its intangible dimensions obviously challenges the sense of place, its identity, and the relationship between supply and demand, but also inhabitants’ concerns such as social inequalities and the sense of belonging.

With regard to China, tourism had no role to play in China’s socialist planned economy society during the Maoist era. It was not until 1978 when a market-oriented economic reform, known as the ‘open-door’ policy, was introduced⁸, that tourism became economically important and an active policy area in China⁹. Since then tourism growth in China has accelerated and, through the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA), the Chinese government has played an important role in stimulating the nation’s economy, adopting tourism as a complementary tool e.g. to fight poverty and enhance quality of life in certain regions¹⁰.

“The Chinese Dream” concept, introduced by the President of China Xi Jinping in late 2012, sets the current governmental framework. Xi summarised the Chinese Dream as a "great renewal of the Chinese nation"¹¹. Although the Chinese Dream has led to multiple

---

⁷ Gravari-Barbas, M. 2013, Amenager la Ville Par la Culture et le Tourisme, Le Moniteur.

interpretations, what emerges is a framework based on sustainability\(^\text{12}\) and renewal of national identity. In the tourism context, the Chinese Dream underlines the maintaining of Chinese culture and tradition elements in Chinese cultural tourism destinations, while exploring and adopting successful practices in planning and management of such tourism attractions to achieve sustainability. Furthermore, it states that the Chinese Dream is an integrative and transformative vision for tourism development in China\(^\text{13}\), whereas the *Outline for National Tourism and Leisure (2013-2020)*, which was issued by the CNTA in March 2013, sets out the strategic goals of strengthening tourism by focusing on quality\(^\text{14}\).

With the rapid development of tourism industry in China since 1980, the country has experienced an increasing use of its natural and cultural resources for tourism purposes, resulting in tourism resources being adversely affected in many tourism destinations\(^\text{15}\). Due to the large dependency of the tourism industry on natural and socio-cultural resources, the Chinese government has also embraced the task of maintaining and enhancing the ecological and cultural sustainability of tourism destinations. Thus, the role of the Chinese Government in cultural tourism development has evolved from a primarily economic focus to include broader considerations of its ecological and socio-cultural impacts, political and geopolitical responsibilities, and environmental and cultural sustainability\(^\text{16}\).

Concurrently, the rapid development of the tourism industry within Chinese society is not only a national phenomenon for local people, but implicates and fosters relationships with the outside world. This provides Chinese tourists with an opportunity to look past their own borders, and to promote interaction with Chinese diaspora populations. In that context, how to promote one’s culture and understand how it will be perceived; how to make it financially attractive and also culturally sustainable, are all pertinent questions. Interestingly, some overseas countries have also followed a similar trajectory regarding the development of Chinese cultural tourism. If very often the economic drive is evident, more subtle non-economic interests might also exist. This is for example the case in Australia, where, due to the long history of Chinese settlement, the tourism industry has started to look at existing Chinese precincts (“Chinatowns”) as opportunities for developing culture tourism. Furthermore, with the foreseen economic benefits of Chinatown tourism in terms of attracting both local and international Chinese, some government planning forces have pushed forward Chinatown development as an economic catalyst. Recent examples include the planning, design and construction of Chinatowns in Brisbane in the late 1980s and currently on the Gold Coast. This latter initiative is strongly supported by the city’s Destination Tourism


\(^{13}\) China Daily USA, 2014a


Management Plan released in May 2014. This unusual formation and development pattern of a ‘traditional’ Chinese historic and cultural precinct has attracted the interest of our research team.

Intrigued by the new forms of Chinese tourism in China and overseas, and specifically Chinese cultural tourism, this paper presents the work-in-progress of a research project focusing on the formation and development of Chinese historic and cultural precincts as tourism attractions in both China and Australia. It seeks to unveil how Chinese culture – the ‘Chinese-ness’ of it – is used, transferred, developed through two case studies in each country. Chinese cultural tourism today is experiencing dramatic changes both at home and abroad, and further analysis is needed to investigate how Chinese tradition is being used and maintained in such tourism destinations, as well as what effective and efficient practices have been adopted in planning and management of such tourism attractions to achieve sustainability. This research adopts a multiple case study approach conducted in China (Gubei Water Town and Cuandixia Village) and Australia (Brisbane and Gold Coast Chinatowns) in the first phase. This study gives an important opportunity to provide an understanding of the current development of historic villages in China and overseas Chinatowns under the label of cultural tourism.

Methodologically, three main concepts form the conceptual frame of this research: urban morphology, translation and cultural sustainability. The first refers to urban morphological studies\(^\text{17}\) and how the analysis of urban fabric and patterns in terms of building blocks and city forms are indicative of societal changes. The second focuses on the process of “translation”, as defined by Callon and Latour\(^\text{18}\) and its political and morphological significance. The last one concerns cultural sustainability in terms of the promotion of cultural diversity and the preservation and conservation of cultural heritage\(^\text{19}\). First results\(^\text{20}\) focus on the case studies’ physical form and evidence of how tourist incentives are influencing development processes in similar ways in the two countries. However, the use of Chinese features slao reveals some differences among the case studies; ‘Chinese-ness’ is variably reflected in historical support (Gubei Water Town and Cuandixia Village), recreation (Brisbane Chinatown, Gubei Water Town) or reinterpretation (Gold Coast Chinatown). The shift to utilise the attributes of contemporary China (for example, in the rejuvenation of Brisbane Chinatown and the modern look of the future gates of Gold Coast Chinatown) is also significant and it needs to be underlined - it reveals another rationale distanced from the traditional representation of Chineseness, whilst it emphasises a top-down development approach against the more traditional bottom-up pattern.

The second phase of this project concerns different stakeholders and questions their role and responsibilities in the process, as well as their attitude towards financial attraction and

---


\(^\text{19}\) Duxbury, N. & Gillette, E. 2007, *Culture as a Key Dimension of Sustainability*, Creative City Network of Canada, Centre for Expertise of Culture and Community.

cultural sustainability. It will also explore the interactions among key stakeholders. After an introduction of the research objective and the context in which Chinese cultural tourism is currently developing, this article will present methodology, case studies, and results of the second phase.
An Eye-tracking Study of Cross-culture Influence on Tourism Advertising: a Comparison of China and Australia

Xueyan Xu, Noel Scott and Jun Gao

Xueyan Xu
Shanghai Business School, China

Noel Scott
Griffith University, Australia

Jun Gao
Shanghai Normal University, China

Abstract

With the globalization of tourism industry, the importance of advertising tourism attractions on a worldwide basis continues to grow. Based on an eye-tracking and self-report study, this paper examines Chinese and Australian tourists’ visual attention during viewing the brochures of Tangalooma island resort. We argue there are important cultural differences and similarities between these two countries. The findings will assist businesses by providing important information about customer perceptions of print advertising on a cross-culture perspective. The contributions and limitations of this research and future research directions are discussed.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the support of Tangalooma Resort Island during this research study.

Introduction

Eye-tracking research

Our eyes are collecting a large amount of information round us that our brain only extracts the needed information by using the selective visual attention. The Initial inquiry into eye movement research began in the early 1900s. In order to understand how people view and response to the marketing stimuli, a growing number of the visual attention researches have been investigated. Russo (1978) explains that consumers have to move their eyes to process a specific object or location in a visual marketing stimulus. This is required because acuity across the retina of the human eye rapidly falls off with increased eccentricity from the fovea, which is the central and most sensitive part of the retina directly opposite of the lens. This makes it interesting to study eye movements as indicators of information acquisition behavior. Russo also points out that the eye-tracking research is entering its fourth era with the emergence of interactive applications.

Satu (2012) mentions that eye-tracking has been broadly used in marketing, cognitive sciences, human computer interaction in recent years. According to Michel & Rik (2007), there has been a rapid growth in commercial applications of eye-tracking technology in the
United States and Europe. In order to help render their visual marketing efforts more effective, companies track closely what consumers see. Duchowski (2002) illustrates that by using eye-tracking advertisement effectiveness can be studied in e.g. copy testing, images, video and graphics. Sundsted et al. (2009) emphasizes that important objective information can be revealed via eye-tracking. Nielsen & Pernice (2010) reveals using eye-tracking can enriches the understanding of people’s approach to the sites and reactions to words and pictures in order to communicate better with interactive content. The major limitation of existing eye-tracking research is that they just answered the question of “what” and “how” about the subjects’ ocular behavior but we hardly know “why”. We can record their eye movements and compare the metrics but we are not sure of the cognitive processes happening.(Rehder, Bob, Hoffman, Aaron B2005).

Nielsen & Pernice (2010) argues the best way to visualize eye-movements is by gaze replay in real time or in slow-motion. Additionally, the heat maps (fixations of many users) and scan path or gaze plots (fixation of one user) have been used. On the other hand, during the experiment many researchers find it is simply raising the visual attention of the user, if we want to find out the reason why, we should combine eye-tracking with other methods of investigation, like a self-report questionnaire or an interview. (e.g. Hyrskykari, Ovaska, Majaranta, Räähää & Lehtinen, 2008; Koivunen, Kukkonen, Lahtinen, Rantala, Sharmin, 2004)

**Cross-culture influence**

Hofstede’s (1980) study on cross-cultural theory points out that different countries hold divergent values. His study structures four dimensions on societies differ: individualism (IDV), power distance (PDI), uncertainty avoidance (UAI), and masculinity (MAS). In 1983, Hofstede examined 50 countries and 3 regions on his four cultural dimensions and gave scores to each one of them. Hall (1973) proposes that the group consisting of the US, the UK and Australia represents occidental cultures, characterized by low power distance, high individualism, low uncertainty avoidance, low masculinity and low information context culture. In contrast, the other group, consisting of Japan, China and Korea is high representative of oriental cultures, characterized by high power distance, low individualism, high uncertainty avoidance, high masculinity and high information context. Fernandez & Carlson (1997) reexamine the value structures from several of Hofstede’s original countries considering the shifts of major environment changes. Recent marketing researches have begun to use Hofstede’s four culture dimensions as a framework to test cross-cultural differences. Researchers show interested in such differences because values are of central concern in understanding consumer behavior (Carman 1978; Rosenberg 1956; Vinson, Scott & Lamont 1977; Yong Zhang & James 1996). Many studies have addressed this important aspect of culture in relation to how different culture system affect actual consumer responses to print advertising. (Triandis 1990).

Moving beyond past research, this study is significant in that it can reveal the visual discrepancies between oriental and occidental markets in print advertising. On the practical side, this research will provide suggestions on culture-based advertising. In addition, to the researcher’s knowledge, this is the first empirical study to examine the visual components of print tourism advertising within two international markets.

**Hypotheses**
According to Hofstede’s four dimensions, we tried to give more descriptions of these dimensions in details (see table 1) and find the levels of score for each country to put forward our hypotheses. Such cultural values, norms and characteristics are also embedded in advertising appeals. As the main objective of this study is to test to what extent that culture difference does influence the effectiveness of advertising. An attempt was made to see whether there are clear differences in advertising effectiveness between China and Australia. The proceeding consideration helped to suggest our hypotheses. For the lack of materials, masculinity (MAS) appeal didn’t include in this study.

**Individualism (IDV)**

**H1:** Advertising indicates individualism appeals work more effective in high IDV score counties.

H1a: In Australia, advertising indicates *live separately* elicits more positive response.

H1b: In China, advertising indicates *live collectively* elicits more positive response.

H1c: In Australia, advertising indicates *independence* elicits more positive response.

H1d: In China, advertising indicates *family* elicits more positive response.

**Power distance (PDI)**

**H2:** Advertising indicates power distance appeals work more effective in high PDI score counties.

H2a: In China, advertising indicates *luxury* elicit more positive response.

H2b: In Australia, advertising indicates *cheap* elicits more positive response.

**Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)**

**H3:** Advertising indicates uncertainty avoidance appeals work more effective in high UAI score counties.

H3a: In China, advertising indicates *safe* elicit more positive response.

H3b: In Australia, advertising indicates *adventure* elicits more positive response.

**Methodology**

This research focuses on ocular behavior on brochure materials by using eye movement metrics and scanpath analysis. Our study aims to test the determinants of eye movement behavior on a tourist ads and the effectiveness of an advertising programme after it has been designed and implemented.

**Method**

**Participants**

54 (30 Australian, 24 Chinese) tourists from Tangalooma island resort volunteered to participate in this experiment.

**Procedure**
This study used a combination of survey, eye-tracking to understand tourists' experiences of the brochure. All the participants were seated at a standard computer workstation with a Tobii T60 Eye-Tracker, keyboard, and mouse. Each participant was asked to view 1 brochure (test brochures were prepared in two languages, see figure 1.2), together with 10 pairs of pictures which were selected from the brochure purposely. During the experiment, participants viewed all these stimuli at their own path while their eye movements were recorded. When viewing 10 pairs of pictures, subjects were asked which one was their favorite.

**Dependent variables**

We used eye-tracker software to divide each advertisement into specific areas of interests (AOI). Then eye-tracker collected eye movement data on each AOI included total fixation duration, first fixation duration, total fixation count, saccade count, etc. Fixation duration was calculated the sum of the total time spent on all stimuli. Measures of fixation duration (length of time a person stops to stimulus) and fixation count (number of times a person stops to stimulus, including return fixations) were also obtained. For each of the measures, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

**Results**

**Overall result**

First of all, the average amount time spent looking at the brochures is shown in Table 2. As seen in Table 2, from the beginning of the test, all the subjects spent relatively more time on the first pages than others, although the first page had less information. Moreover, Australian participants spent significantly more time looking at the brochure than the Chinese did. Table 2 also demonstrated that more time was spent on P4-6 and P8 for the Chinese, while the Australian spent fairly more time on P4-P7 than other pages. In page analysis, we found in page 3 which contained both textual and pictures regions, all the subjects tended to made significantly more fixates on the text than other regions as shown in table 3.

As in most of the ads, it was easy to dividing the ads into different regions of text and picture components. We designed some AOIs which showed significant difference on the measures to examine our hypotheses and further our study on a cross-culture perspective. Additionally, self-report data were analysis to gain a better understanding of the question.

**Individualism (IDV)**

The average amount of all the measures on figure 3 is shown in table 4. In summary, strong evidence for attention wear-out was found between these two pictures. The results showed significant effects of two pictures on fixation count (F=6.662, p<0.05, MSE=177.899). All the participants spent relatively more total fixation duration (F=19.721, p<0.01, MSE=27.270), fixation count (F=24.320, p<0.01, MSE=649.474), saccade duration (F=17.143, p<0.01, MSE=4.028), saccade count (F=6.153, p<0.05, MSE=7.053) on the pictures which implied a harmonious family. Since fixation and saccade duration is the length of time the participant looks at an AOI or an AOI group which is positively related to attention and task difficulty. Fixation and saccade count has a positively relationship with visual
attention (Nakayama et al. 2002). Therefore hypotheses H1d is supported while H1c is unsupported.

Despite the Australian subjects didn’t pay more attention on the picture of a man enjoying sand tobogganing by himself, self-report data presented almost 61.8% of the Australian group tended to like the picture which indicate the meaning of independence. Here, hypotheses H1c can be supported partly.

*Power distance (PDI)*

Similar analyses were carried out for the hypothesis of power distance (see figure 4). Generally, there were no main effects on all the measures (see table 6). Therefore, hypothesis H2a and H2b both seemed to be unsupported. However, the heatmap showed significantly looking time on an extra bed in a cheap room for the Chinese participants. The finding implies Chinese spent more cognitive attention on viewing collective appeal, on which hypothesis H1b is supported. On the other side, hypothesis H1a is unsupported here. We can’t predict more from the self-report data analysis.

*Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)*

Two pictures were selected to examine hypothesis H3. One was about diving and seeking wild dolphins which indicated adventurous, meanwhile the other is about waiting for the wild dolphins to come which seemed to be more safe. The results in Table 7 demonstrate that Chinese participants had a significantly contribute to the fixation count ($F=4.368, p<0.05, \text{MSE}=233.969$) on observing the pictures which seemed to be more safe. The finding implies that Chinese subjects demanded more cognitive effort and attention in viewing safe appeal. The analysis supported the hypothesis H3b. On the contrary, in the examine of H3a, there was no main effect on all measures for the Australian subjects. Thus, hypothesis H3a was unsupported. No special preference for this pair of picture still.

*Scanpath and heatmap*

Although the scanpath and heatmap are difficult to quantify, there were some typical characteristics of how the subjects viewing brochure. From the scanpath research, both to the Chinese and Australians, almost all the first fixations were always occurred in the center. According to the heat map, when the text was quite short (1-3 lines), participants typically read all of the text. When it was quite long, none read it all, especially for the Chinese readers.

**Conclusion**

In summary, the analyses reported in the previous section highlighted three key outcomes. First of all, viewers did not often read all of the text on a page and their eye movements always occur from the center of advertisement and driven by the location of large print. When designing a tourist ads, we strongly suggest taking good advantage of headline and center part. As far as we can tell, when the participants looking at the advertisement containing both textual and pictorial information, they tended to spend more time looking at the text than the picture in ads. It is quite interesting that although viewers indicated that they didn’t like ads with a lot of text, they did spent relatively more time on the text part. These findings indicate that the key textual information be more concise.
Secondly, tourists paid most attention to the first page and attention declined through the rest of the brochure. From this, we suspect tourists are interested in the price of products and service. The results of our experiment suggest that information of price and activities seems to be stimulus to arouse the attention of tourists.

In sum, it is unwise to use one appeal across the board. The results of our study imply cultural background does affect reading habits. Specially, as many scholars found in previous studies, individualism-collectivism dimension was one of the most basic culture dimensions. In other word, an tourist advertiser can use Hofstede’s results to gain better understanding of their target market. Further research on the cross-cultural differences is recommended to improve international marketing.

**Limitations**

The major limitation of this study is the sample scale and size. Although comparable to many eye-tracking studies, it is relatively small compared to cross culture studies, which aims to specify common values and behavior tendency. Our findings seem to generate more questions than answers. Future research should involve more subjects from various countries to expand both breadth and depth of the analysis on culture values.

Some interference was not taken into account. Moreover, the effects of other factors or multi-dimensions of mental workload on ocular metrics haven’t been tested yet in this study. Future research can include additional methods, such as facial expression, emotion changes, post experiment interviews, in order to gain greater insights into the cognitive processes involved in these changes.

Overall, it is hoped that the results of this study could assist tourist advertisers to gain a better and clearer understanding of how visual stimuli and component affect among different countries. Our research should be viewed as a starting point, further research is worth pursuing.
Table 1  Hofstede’s four dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hofstede’s explanation</th>
<th>values share in high score countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>individualism (IDV)</td>
<td>individual decision making and live separately, &quot;I&quot; - consciousness actions are encouraged by society, relationship prevails over task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>power</td>
<td>power difference are accepted and sanctioned by society, people with power to look as powerful as possible, face matters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distance (PDI)</td>
<td>society is unwilling to accept need for security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncertainty</td>
<td>society is unwilling to accept need for security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoidance (UAI)</td>
<td>traditional male values are important to a society. productivity, try to be the best, big and fast considered beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>masculinity (MAS)</td>
<td>traditional male values are important to a society. productivity, try to be the best, big and fast considered beautiful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2  Total fixation time(s) on Brochures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese Version (mean) content</th>
<th>English Version (mean) content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1 52&quot;129 cover page</td>
<td>1'04&quot;769 cover page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2 38&quot;219 Discover:Resort Facilities</td>
<td>51&quot;444 Discover:Resort Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3 39&quot;467 Experience:wild animals</td>
<td>45&quot;353 Experience:wild animals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4 51&quot;62 Adventure:80 activities</td>
<td>1'06&quot;888 Adventure:80 activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5 1'06&quot;170 Relax:Accommodation</td>
<td>1'31&quot;399 Relax:Accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6 57&quot;423 Food and Beverage</td>
<td>1'00&quot;230 Accommodation Packages(show rates)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7 33&quot;54 Wedding</td>
<td>1'47&quot;657 Day Cruises Packages(show rates)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P8 1&quot;22&quot;697 How to get there(maps and schedule)</td>
<td>46&quot;8 How to get there(maps and schedule)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong> 7'34&quot;480</td>
<td><strong>9'52&quot;180</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 fixation count (n) on page 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>language</th>
<th>text box</th>
<th>picture</th>
<th>slogan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>26.89**</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>Not included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>50.18**</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:*p<0.05;**p<0.01

Table 4 All measures for Individualism (IDV) study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Australian</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single man</td>
<td>with family</td>
<td>Single man</td>
<td>with family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first fixation duration(s)</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total fixation duration(s)</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.40**</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixation count(n)</td>
<td>6.69</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>11.89**</td>
<td>8.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saccade duration(s)</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.95**</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saccade count(n)</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.68  *</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:*p<0.05;**p<0.01

Table 5 Self-report data for Individualism appeal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>language</th>
<th>single man</th>
<th>percent</th>
<th>with family</th>
<th>percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>61.76471</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38.23529</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84.375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 All measures for Power distance (PDI) study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Australian</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expensive room</td>
<td>Cheap room</td>
<td>Expensive room</td>
<td>Cheap room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first fixation duration(s)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total fixation duration(s)</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saccade duration(s)</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saccade count(n)</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures</td>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>seeking dolphin</td>
<td>observing dolphin</td>
<td>seeking dolphin</td>
<td>observing dolphin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first fixation</td>
<td>M: 0.25, SD: 0.20</td>
<td>M: 0.21, SD: 0.16</td>
<td>M: 0.24, SD: 0.15</td>
<td>M: 0.22, SD: 0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duration(s)</td>
<td>total fixation duration</td>
<td>M: 2.44, SD: 2.28</td>
<td>M: 2.92, SD: 2.01</td>
<td>M: 1.89, SD: 1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixation count(n)</td>
<td>saccade duration(s)</td>
<td>M: 1.04, SD: 0.80</td>
<td>M: 1.17, SD: 0.73</td>
<td>M: 0.81, SD: 0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>saccade count(n)</td>
<td>M: 2.41, SD: 1.37</td>
<td>M: 2.71, SD: 1.27</td>
<td>M: 2.26, SD: 1.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:*p<0.05

Figure 1 test brochure (Chinese version)

![Figure 1](image1.png)

Figure 2 test brochure (English version)

![Figure 2](image2.png)
Figure 3 picture for Individualism (IDV) study

Figure 4 picture for Power distance (PDI) study

Figure 5 Heatmap for Power distance (PDI) study

Figure 6 picture for Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) study
References


Characteristics of Cruise Tourism Consumption in Shanghai

Guodong Yan
School of Management, Shanghai University of Engineering Science, China

Keywords: Cruise Tourism; Consumption Characteristics; Shanghai

Abstract. Shanghai will have become a cruise hub port in East Asia and one of the three int’l cruise centers in Asian-Pacific Region. How to fulfill the abovementioned development goals has become a critical issue. the paper attempts to probe into characteristics of cruise tourism consumption based on related research findings, and raises countermeasures based on the current situation of Shanghai cruise tourism consumption So as to promoting sustainable development of cruise tourism and providing foundations for decision making of the government’s related management policies.

1. Current Situation of Shanghai Cruise Tourism Consumption

Consumption Level: In 2005, the per capita GDP in Shanghai amounted to USD 6414, and the figure exceeded 10,000 in 2008, largely helping rapid development of cruise tourism consumption in Shanghai. Between 1997 and 2005, the number of cruises inbound and outbound at Shanghai Port totalled 25, with cruise tourists adding up to 75,000. This indicated the very beginning of cruise consumption. From 2007 to 2010, the number of tourists in inbound and outbound cruises at Shanghai Port rose from 100,000 to 340,000, a very evident increase. On Feb. 16th, 2010, “Queen Mary 2” Cruise brought about 3700 tourists and sailors in total, making it the largest luxury cruise since Shanghai Port was opened for business. During World Expo 2010, solely Pujiang Frontier Inspection Station checked 141 cruises, including 102 Sino-Japan passenger cruises, which brought nearly 260,000 tourists and sailors, witnessing a passenger flow volume rise by 176% year-on-year. Shanghai Expo led to tourist peak in cruise tourism consumption. In 2012, the number of cruise tourists amounted to 300,000 based on the current information of cruise routes already confirmed. And by the end of the “12th Five-year Program”, the figure was forecasted to achieve 1 million to 1.2 million; the direct economic contributions that the cruise industry makes to Shanghai will reach 5 billion to 8 billion yuan, and its overall economic contribution will get to 15 billion to 20 billion yuan. All these are symbols of rapid growth of cruise tourism consumption.

Consumption Will: Consumption will directly impacts decision making about cruise tourism consumption. In 2010, among all Shanghai tourists, 57.77% are willing to go traveling with their families; 20.39% are willing to choose the time for honeymoon; 16.99% are willing to go with their friends. It could thus be seen that cruise tourists going with families bear an obvious consumption will, and there’s a great potential in the consumption market of tourists traveling with friends. In addition, non-cruise tourists and cruise tourists in Shanghai show certain difference in their demand preference. In 2010, non-cruise tourists in Shanghai believed that the top 3 major attraction factors about cruise tourism were respectively the exotic flavor, facilities and activities of the port berthed, as they deemed them symbols of their identities; at the same year, a survey was carried out targeted at tourists of “Romantica” from Costa Cruise Lines, the result showed that the top 3 attractions included rich activities, shore sightseeing and hearty catering. It could thus be concluded that non-cruise tourists favored a comfortable and romantic atmosphere, while cruise ones paid greater attention to cruise experience. The difference of demand preference was quite obvious between the two
types of tourists. Therefore, how to bridge the gap between them in their consumption will is an important premise for popularization of cruise tourism consumption.

**Leisure Time:** In 2010, 71.84% Shanghai tourists accepted cruise tourism products lasting over 5 days, and were willing to choose May for traveling. The top three lasting periods they accepted were 6 to 8 days, 2 to 5 days and 9 to 15 days respectively, which indicated that the characteristic of Shanghai tourists’ time demand of cruise tourism products complied with int’l trend while tended to be shorter (China Communications and Transportation Association—Cruise & Yacht Industry Association, 2010-2011 China Cruise Industry Development Report). The leisure time of Chinese residents mainly lies in May Day Holiday, National Day Holiday and Spring Festival, but a 5-day cruise line requires at least 6 days. Such a tight schedule drove away many tourists. Besides, Shanghai possesses a complete three-dimensional traffic network, with over 60 foreign airline companies launching regular flights in Shanghai and an average daily handling capacity of 300 int’l flights; also the high-speed railway attracted some tourists. Therefore, more importance should be attached to routes lasting not more than 6 days.

**Route Demand:** Shanghai is the center of China’s offshore routes and Asian cruise routes, having a natural advantage in developing cruise routes. Centered at Shanghai, cruises can reach South Korea, Japan, Singapore, HK and Taiwan within 48 hours, thus obviously helping with the launch of new int’l cruise routes. Currently, the world’s top 3 cruise groups have set up offices in Shanghai and launched regional cruise tourism routes with the home port at Shanghai. In 2010, the three cruises “Costa Classica”, “Costa Romantica” and “Legend of the Seas”, launched “Shanghai-Japan and South Korea” marine outbound routes, the amount and scale both record in Shanghai Port, and formed cruise route demands mainly oriented to white-collar middle-aged and young people. On July 7th, 2012, the two home port cruises “Voyager of the Seas” and “Costa Victoria” berthed at Shanghai Wusongkou Int’l Cruise Port at the same day, bringing about a passenger flow of 16,000. Both of the two cruises launched Asian routes based on Shanghai as the home port for the first time, and the total tonnage and passenger capacity were both record in the operation of China’s cruise ports. To continue the expansion of cruise route demands in Shanghai, it’s necessary to strive for attracting the affiliation of int’l cruise routes from Europe, America and Asian-Pacific Region, while developing key products based on seasonal characteristics of Shanghai routes. For instance, March to October is the sailing season, and focus should be on developing routes to north coastal region, Japan, South Korea and Russia; Nov. to Feb. the next year should witness more routes to south coastal region and southeast Asia, so that the cycle of slack season and boom season can be minimized, while the economic effect of cruises can be maximized.

**Characteristic of Information Demand:** In 2009, in Shanghai Port Int’l Technical Center, a survey was carried out targeted at tourists of “Costa Allegra” and it was found out that the top 4 channels for tourists to obtain information about cruise were respectively travel agency, recommendation by friends, newspapers and magazines and the Internet; TV, broadcast and pamphlets were of low ranks; and for tourists of “Costa Romantica” starting from Shanghai in 2010, the top 4 channels to obtain information about cruise were the Internet, travel agency, recommendation by relatives and friends, and newspaper commercials; TV, broadcast and travel exhibition were of low rank. These showed that travel agency, relatives and friends, newspapers and magazines and the Internet had become major information sources about cruise for Shanghai cruise tourists. In 2010, based on surveys, the top 3 channels for non-cruise tourists in Shanghai to obtain information about cruise were
respectively the Internet, TV and broadcast, and recommendation by relatives and friends. By comparing the two types of tourists, it can be seen that the difference in travel agency was the most evident, where cruise tourists are 40.07% higher than non-cruise tourists; the second place was the recommendation by relatives and friends and the third was TV and broadcast. All these showed that cruise tourists are more willing to obtain information through travel agency and the Internet, while non-cruise tourists are more willing to do this via the Internet and TV and broadcast. Therefore, publicity about cruise tourism through travel agency, the Internet, and TV and broadcast should be further stressed. In 2011, there were altogether 1175 travel agencies in Shanghai, 46 of which were permitted to operate outbound travel businesses for Chinese citizens and serve on behalf of cruise companies to organize travel groups; as the cruise reception capacity reached 60 to 100 voyages annually on average, it’s urgent to boost rapid increase of travel agencies that are able to serve cruise business and enhance information publicizing about cruise tourism through travel agencies.

2. Inspirations to Shanghai:

In terms of the consumption level: cruise tourism consumption is developing rapidly in Shanghai but mainly oriented to low price still, so it’s necessary to speed up market promotion to attract more consumers to accept high-end cruise tourism products and improve the consumption level of cruise tourism.

In terms of the consumption will: there’s an evident cruise tourism consumption will in the form of family traveling in Shanghai; non-cruise tourists favored a comfortable and romantic atmosphere, while cruise tourists pay greater attention to cruise experience, therefore, it’s urgent to bridge this gap between cruise tourists and non-cruise tourists and fully meet the consumption will of tourists, so as to promote the popularization of cruise tourism consumption.

In terms of leisure time: Shanghai tourists’ time demand of cruise tourism products complied with int’l trend while tended to be shorter. Therefore, cruise companies and travel agencies should focus on the launch of routes within 6 days for route design and product promotion.

In terms of route demand: Chinese tourists give priority to Mediterranean and Far East, so it’s good to strive for the affiliation of int’l cruise routes from Europe, America and Asian-Pacific Region; and during March to October, attention should be paid to developing routes to north coastal region, Japan, South Korea and Russia, and Nov. to Feb. the next year should witness more routes to south coastal region and southeast Asia, so that the cycle of slack season and boom season can be minimized, while the economic effect of cruises can be maximized.

In terms of characteristics of information demand: Shanghai cruise tourists are more willing to obtain information via travel agency and the Internet, while non-cruise ones favor the Internet and TV and broadcast for information, so it’s urgent to boost rapid growth of travel agencies that are able to serve cruise business and enhance information publicizing about cruise tourism through travel agencies.

References
The Development Model Analysis of Qunar

Jingshu Yao and Liu Ting

International School of Business, Beijing International Studies University, Beijing 100024, China

Abstract

Qunar is the third party online travel website focus on vertical search and price comparison. However, in recent years, its business scope has extended to the direct marketing of hotels and launched new trading system (TTS) in air tickets and hotel sectors. As its business scope is becoming more and more diversified and complicated, the development model of Qunar is arguably the most controversial. By analyzing the background of Qunar’s development progress and it’s status quo, this paper points out that the development of Qunar is very clear. Its mission and vision is to be a one-stop service online tourism platform sticking to the consumer-oriented principle. There are three conclusions for this study: a) Qunar is a platform for online tourism service; b) Qunar’s business model rely on online platform; c) Qunar has contribute much innovation for industry. Finally, the paper put forward some suggestions to Qunar’s development.

Keywords: Qunar, the third party, vertical search, price comparison, one-stop service, tourism platform

1. Introduction of Qunar

Founded in 2005, through eight years development, Qunar has become the leading tourism search engine in China. There is no doubt that Qunar is the best in the field of tourism product price comparison.

The search volume of Qunar has reached 1.8 billion in 2012, with 1.4 billion in the first half year of 2013. Qunar is the highest proportion website in China’s online travel industry. In 2012, the APP download counts of Qunar has exceeded 100 million, ranking first in similar products. The achievements of Qunar is conspicuous, the enterprise culture of Qunar is popular with new generation. However, in recent years, the development model of Qunar is arguably the most controversial in both industry and academia.

It’s headquarter is located in Beijing. Qunar advocates the freedom, independent, comfortable travel experiences. Its slogan is “make your travel more intelligent”. It pursues the goal to let numerous Chinese tourists have ability to make their own decisions. Qunar promotes the development of China's online travel industry.

2. Literature Review

According to the CNKI, the current 308 literature papers about Qunar can be divided into four aspects:

---


b) The innovation of Qunar. Hou Tao (2012) introduced the cooperation between Haihang and Qunar at E-commerce. LvMeng (2010) studied what role does Qunar play in tourism destination’s marketing.

c) The research of marketing method. Zhang Xin (2012) studied the adverse marketing C2B in hotel, which is the new marketing methods used by Qunar. He also studied the psychological effect to consumers. Chen (2012) Shilin (2013) introduced the innovation at internet marketing, such as micro marketing.

d) The comparison study, Xue Qin (2011), YaoChen (2012) focused on the differences of business model between Ctrip and Elong. Chen Lao (2009) pointed out the different information dissemination ways between Qunar and CYTS. About the future development of Qunar, Su Juan (2010) and Wang Jiewen (2011) both insisted that the core business of Qunar is the remarkable vertical search capability in tourism products. They thought Qunar should make full use of it and play the role as the information providing website.

In conclusion, those papers few analysis why Qunar expends its business scope and launches the TTS model neither combine their studies with industry background.

3. Case Study: The Development orientation of Qunar Ignites Controversy

According to the latest data, Qunar owns 50,000 domestic direct-sale hotels, exceeds the established online travel agent Ctrip and Elong. Which poses a threat to the industry giants. Since May 2011, Qunar got into the B&B market that was ignored by Ctrip and Elong. In recent two years, Qunar has sped up its collaboration with the direct-sale hotels, the number of hotels increases rapidly. The scope of direct-sale hotels range from economical hotels to high-end hotels at home and abroad. Many industry figures blames that Qunar deviates from its role as “the third party platform online travel website of vertical search and price comparison”.

In April 2013, nearly ten OTAs (Online Travel Agent) including Elong, LY, Feiren, Mango, Zhuna withdraw their hotel products from Qunar. The direct reason is that Qunar applies the TTS (Total Solution System) to the hotel business. The giant OTA thought that under the TTS system, all of the hotel reservations are done at Qunar, with all suppliers hidden, the website traffic and consumers that belong to the supplier have transferred to Qunar. However, the officials of Qunar respond that TTS model is conducive to standardize and unify the agent, improve service quality. It attracts more customers booking at Qunar, the agents on this platform will eventually benefit.

---


23Bed and breakfast, one kinds of Hotels, which is running by individuals, more personalized than other kinds hotels
As a typical third party website focus on vertical search and price comparison, Qunar vigorously get into the direct-sale market and launches the TTS mode has sparked questions, some people say Qunar should be play the role as “referee” to judge the “player” (point to the agents of Qunar) who provides the products, but now Qunar also get involved in the low price competition. It plays the role both as referee and athlete, which obviously violates the rules of the industry. Some people say “Qunar wants to become an OTA motivated by interests”. There are also a lot of people believe that Qunar will build itself as the combination of “Google and Expedia” in online travel industry. Faced with so many doubt, many people can’t help asking “Where does Qunar want to go?”

To answer this question, it’s better to starting with the original intention of Qunar. When asked about this, Zhuang Chenchao, the CEO of Qunar, said “Chinese consumers faced with many unsolved problems when choosing a travel product, I believe that a platform that focus on information integration will be valuable.” According to the description, we can get some information about the Qunar’s position. First of all, Qunar was founded to chase consumer desire. Second, What Qunar want to do is to help tourists with their travel decision. Last but not least, Qunar plays a role as a platform focus on information integration. Consequently, this paper makes a conclusion of Qunar’s mission and vision: to build the one-stop third party online travel platform based on consumer desire. The following part will elaborate this conclusion further.

4. Findings: The Development Model of Qunar

4.1 Consumer –oriented

From the aspect of cross session, the online travel industry chain can be divided into four parts: a) The upstream suppliers including hotels, airlines, catering enterprises, leasing companies, attractions, etc; b) Middle direct-sale agents, including online trading platform and travel agencies, etc; c) The downstream internet media marketing platform, including the comprehensive search platform, social network websites, vertical search platform, etc. d) The last part is the end consumers. The online travel industry chain is shown in figure 1. Qunar belongs to the third part i.e. the downstream network marketing platform.
From the longitudinal view, the online travel industry has passed through four stages\textsuperscript{25}. The first stage is the late 1990s to the beginning of the 20th century, which is the cultivation period of online travel industry. The core business model mainly depends on commission mode at the airline and hotel booking fields, a few online agents began to emerge. The second stage, 2004-2006, the online travel market continues to blossom, online travel agents provide multi-products and multi-prices. The third-party vertical price comparison platform emerging. The third stage, 2007-2009, with the diversified demands of users, services such as online scenic booking, travel route design and travel experience sharing come out. So the websites provide these services emerging. The fourth stage, 2010-2013, large electricity companies trap into online travel industry. From the point of this one angle, Qunar appears in the second stage, as the platform providing vertical search and price comparison.

After the analyzing of the chain structure and development feature of the online travel industry, we can draw a conclusion that Qunar is a product of market and its business is decided by end-user. The launching of TTS model in hotel business also considers more about the user experience. In the pattern of TTS model, all of the booking processes are done on one network interface, which avoids multiple hops between OTA and Qunar. Furthermore, TTS system centralizes users information, which makes Qunar guarantees users rights. The difference between CPC and TTS system can be illustrated by figure 2.

4.2 **Play the Role as a Platform Not a OTA**

Let’s make a comparison between Qunar and Ctrip, which can illustrate the role of Qunar. From the point of industry positioning, Qunar is the top third party online travel vertical search and price comparison platform, while Ctrip is the top online travel agency. From the point of business model, the former is technology-oriented online search platform, while the latter is the online travel agency. From the point of earning model, Qunar primarily relies on CPC (cost per click click billing amount) and TTS mode, while Ctrip, commission mode. From the relationship of the two, Qunar is a OTA integration platform, Ctrip is a customer of Qunar, while Ctrip is a OTA only.

Qunar adheres to the strategy of opening-up, which brings diversification. The hotel groups, individual hotels, airlines, cruises, scenic spots take Qunar as a direct-sale platform; The OTA and other distributors take Qunar as a marketing platform. Which Qunar cares is whether online tourism resources can be integrated fully and available to consumers. Take group-buying for example, Qunar cooperate with hotels directly when the group-buying mode were not accepted by OTA, however, when it does, Qunar introduces the group-buying products provided by Elong and Ctrip, playing the role as the marketing platform.

The one-stop service platform provides comprehensive process travel service, from the generate of travel desire to the experience sharing after the travel. To build such a one-stop platform, Qunar needs to integrate the resources on tourism industry chain and other relevant online travel companies, such as insurance companies as well.

According to the **project prospectus of Qunar**, released in November 2013, the consumer resources of Qunar includes Air China, China Eastern Airlines, China Southern Airlines, Hainan Airlines and other 17 domestic airlines; CATHAY PACIFIC, DRAGONAIR, Lufthansa, UNITED AIRLINE and other 11 international airlines. Accor, Ctrip, Elong, Feiren and other 1240 OTAs both in China and abroad; Intercontinental, Marriott, super 8, Jinjiang, Home, 7 days and other 53360 hotels at home and abroad; Taikang online, Huatai, Pacific and other 113 indirect customers.
With huge customer resources, Qunar establish itself as a strong vertical search and price comparison platform provides consumers with rich source of travel information. The real-time monitoring data indicates that, by November 2011, Qunar has covered 3300 domestic flights, 43000 international flights, Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan flights. The hotel reservation business, 380 websites, 71360 cities, 468000 hotels. Vacation business, 1380 travel agencies and 104608 tourism routes. In addition, the website provides ten thousands kinds of electronic tickets, and nearly 33000 group purchase products. The real-time data can be seen in figure 3.

Figure 3: the real-time data of Qunar

5. Conclusion

Here are some advice for Qunar:

a) Further play well its advantages is the key to keep core competitiveness in the highly complex and varied markets. No matter what Qunar want to become, the specified role as the third party vertical search and price comparison or the diversified role as “Baidu+Taobao”, Qunar must be clearly realized that its core competence is still based on the strong ability to integrate resources and provides a qualified marketing platform for customers. With that context, Qunar can seeks opportunities to further development, such as expanding hotel direct-sale business as the supplement, creating platform function as social network, comments platform and travel guides.

b) To cooperate with widespread enterprises and seek common development opportunities. On November 1st, 2013, Qunar were listed in the Nasdaq United States. Choosing Baidu as the largest shareholder is a logical and sensible decision. Which combines the superiority of the two. Large user base of Baidu provides more network traffic to Qunar and the professional service of Qunar makes the these scattered users more centralized. When both of the two grasping the users’ character, they grasp market developing trends. In the future, Qunar should constantly expands its cooperation scope, improving its core business.

In conclusion, Qunar is one of the typical online travel websites in China’s tourism industry. The development model study of Qunar has numerous meanings. Firstly, in terms of academic, it makes contribution to the future study of the online travel companies’ business model. It reminds scholars that it may be unreasonable to define a fixed model for some website. Secondly, in terms of practice, it helps the online travel companies to realize the development trend of this field and take effective measures. Last but not least, it also gives some tips to others indirect related companies to seek investment opportunities in the online tourism field.

References
How do multinational hotel companies view the Chinese market —— an analysis of Annual Reports from four public companies: 2000-2013

Min Zhan and Yu Qin
Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China

Abstract — China's economy has been developing rapidly for more than thirty years. The hospitality industry is booming and attracting a lot of multinational companies. Research on Chinese hotel market has become an hot topic for academics in recent years. However, few researches have been done about how multinational hotel companies view the Chinese market, which is the key for understanding the expansion performance of multinationals in China. The purpose of this research is to analyse how the multinationals view the Chinese market and to explore the relationship between their attitudes and expansion performances in China. Data in four major public traded hotel companies were collected by studying their annual reports for 14 years. Quantitative content analysis was applied to count word frequencies of "China" and "Chinese" and to count their locations in the annual reports. The contextual information was coded and categorised to explore their meaning for expansion decision. Three major findings of this study were as follows: (1) Multinational hotel companies have put increasingly emphasis on the Chinese market. (2) Those companies who have put greater emphasis on Chinese market have achieved better developments in China. (3) The expansion model, the strategies and the roles of CEOs worked as moderating factors which have impacts on the relationship. The limitation and future directions were provided after discussing the theoretical and practical implications.

Keywords — Multinational Operation, Multinational Hotel Companies, Qualitative Analysis, China

1. Introduction

Recently, China's economy has been developing rapidly with tremendous achievements, especially Chinese hotel market. Famous worldwide hotels group are penetrating into China, such as InterContinental, Marriott, Accor and Starwood.

With leading hotels group gradually expanding in China, it is more and more important to answer the fundamental the basic “what, why, and how” questions about multinationals’ transnational expansion, which is relative unknown for academic community. For instance, when do the multinational hotel companies start to attach great importance to Chinese market? How to embody the attachment? How does the attachment make change over time? What’s the difference among these companies? More important, what is the relationship between the company's attitude towards the Chinese market and the expansion performance in Chinese market? This research was aimed to answer the above questions.

2. Review of the Literature

The hospitality industry is booming and attracting a lot of multinational companies. Research on Chinese hotel market has become a hot topic for academics in recent years. Michael D. Olsen, Bvsan Murthy & Richard Teare (1994) claim that CEOs of international hotel group tend to pay attention to the international hotel group operating environment, especially in China, which begin to appeal researchers to value executives review. Ray Pine, Hanqin Qiu & Pingshu Qi (2000) point out that international hotel group have come across with
opportunities and challenges in China. They list several points to clarify it, not mentioning features of Chinese market. Further current domestic study on multinational management behaviour mainly includes entrance ways into China (Yu Yingxin, 2006; Yang Honghao; Zou Rong, 2012), expansion strategy (Li Yanping, 2011; Ma Yanxia, 2013) and Operations model (Chen Maichi, 2010, Xiang Jing, 2011). Besides, current domestic study mainly focus on cross-cultural management, strategic alliances, brand building, human resource management and successful experience, which has answered the fundamental the basic “what and how” questions.

Vinnie Jauhari (2012), Siyathorn Khunon & Kaewta Muangasame (2013) do research on emerging-market multinational management in India and Thailand. They both think that it is significant to find out the intention behind expansion. But, why do multinational hotel companies expand in China? It is a question still unsolved.

Therefore, there are few studies about multinational hotel companies’ attitudes towards Chinese market. Instead, scholar's research interests focus on successful experience of international hotels group and the development trend of international hotel groups in China by qualitative analysis. Fu Jianxin (2006), Wu Lei, Zheng Xiangmin (2009) argue that quantitative study, empirical study and comparative study methods are often used to do research. Many academics do research on Chinese market by this method.

Consequently, it is worth to explore the relationship between their attitudes and expansion performances in China. What’s more, quantitative content analysis will be applied in this research.

3. Research Methodology

Annual report is a comprehensive file which documents financial results and operation overview of public companies for the previous year. The annual reports of hospitality companies includes information about a variety of product lines (different brands) and regional markets (different countries and regions), making it an idea source to analyze a companies’ attitudes and activities towards a market, in our context, the Chinese market.

Data in four major public traded hotel companies (IHG, Marriott, Starwood and Accor) from 2000 to 2013 were collected by studying their annual reports for 14 years. Those four companies are chosen from eight world's largest hotel companies. Quantitative content analysis was applied to count word frequencies of “China” and “Chinese” and to count their locations in the annual reports. Meanwhile, brands, region distributions, room numbers, profitability and development prospects in China will also be conducted for further analysis. The contextual information was coded and categorised to explore their meaning for expansion decision. Through data reduction and data display, quantitative content analysis can refine and analyse information much deeper.

4. Research Findings

Three major findings of this study were listed as follows:

*Multinational hotel companies have put increasingly emphasis on the Chinese market.* By counting the number of two words “China” and “Chinese” mentioned in the reports, it can be concluded that multinational hotel companies put increasingly emphasis on the Chinese market. The number of two words mentioned in annual reports is on the rise year by year.
From 2000-2003, early stage into China; from 2004-2009, developing stage; from 2010-2013, more attention on Chinese market stage. In other words, multinational hotel companies attitude towards Chinese market observes the follow development path: Ignorance—Focus on—Developing—Rapid Expansion.

Those companies who have put greater emphasis on Chinese market have achieved better developments in China. It can be inferred from the expression of two words "China" or "Chinese" mentioned in each companies’ reports. What’s more, it is mainly elaborated from five aspects: expansion scale, expansion stage, future forecast, market assessment and corporate social responsibility. Word frequencies mentioned in reports: Marriot’s is the most, followed by IHG, Starwood and Accor.

The expansion model, the strategies and the roles of CEOs worked as moderating factors which have impacts on the relationship. For instance, "China” and” Chinese "being mentioned by presidents, CEO, or other people, it reveals the different signification. In each Marriott’s annual reports, there is always CEO’s or Executive review to mention the development of Chinese market; however, it is not the same in other companies’ reports. Therefore, compared with IHG, Accor and Starwood, Marriot pays more attention on China, and China has become the largest target market outside North America. Besides, pursuing large-scale and high profits in China, four companies implement different expansion model and strategies, which have influence on four companies’ hotel numbers, room numbers, distribution areas and profits in China. Furthermore, China has become one of the fastest multinational expansion areas in global lodging industry.

5. Conclusions

With a novel data source, the contexts in public companies’ annual reports, this research use content analysis techniques to explore 4 hotel companies’ attitudes towards Chinese hotel market in a 14- year period. As our limited knowledge, few researches on multinational hotel company development in China market have the similar approach to investigate multinationals’ strategic expansions.

By indicating the relationship and its influencing factors between multinationals’ attitudes and expansion activities in Chinese hotel market, the findings of this study would be helpful for research in international hospitality studies. Also, practitioners would find some of the findings, which are helpful for their decision.

One of the major limitations lies in that the research only includes 4 hotel companies and their 14-year annual reports, more companies and longer extension of time would help to improve the rigidity. Also, the value of findings found in China may be affected by the fact that China is an idiosyncratic market, requiring more caution when using the findings. Future research also should try to combine annual reports with other data source in a longitude way to improve our understanding in the area of multinational expansion research.

References


Customer’s perception of the hotel “soft article” marketing

Man Zhang
Beijing International Studies University

Abstract:

Today, with the continuous development of science and technology, media constantly enrich and the customers becoming more maturity. Companies are finding marketing environment are more complex, and good marketing results are hardly to see, diversified marketing has become a trend and inevitable. Compare with traditional advertising, with straightforward introduce product or service, “soft article” is more likely to hidden information of products or services into the newspaper, magazine or network, avoid the "hard advertising" make consumers aversion, and for its low cost ,strong infiltration, light taste of commercial, easy to change the way describe, for these advantages, “soft article” soon become very popular among companies.

Although it discuss a lot in academia for “soft article”, undeniable, soft article can indeed can achieve the goal of low-input and high-harvest ,At present, soft article studies focused on critically from the perspective of media credibility and journalistic ethics, discourse analysis of soft article in newspaper (Erpeng Shang 2008), the possibilities of three win for media, advertisers and audiences in soft article (Xiaoye Zhou 2010). In recent years, with the development of internet technology, network soft article flourished, there appeared some research like” the propagation mechanism of net soft article (Xia Dai 2013)”, network marketing of soft article and so on. However, research is still relatively small in general, especially from the perspective of the consumer perception.

This paper tries to examination the perception of consumer for different channels of soft article. read the related literature, after defining the concept of soft article, with reference to existing research, through three different channels: newspapers, magazines and social networking sites, design situational experiment, to explore which form of soft article have a better acceptance, explore the factors which influence consumer accept soft article. Then article marketing software for merchants to provide some thoughts, hope to give some helpful suggestions for companies.

The innovation of this paper is focused on the areas of research in the hotel industry. Currently, the Chinese hotel market demand continues to rise, increasingly fierce competition between businesses, the hotel's marketing face serious challenges in this context, Advertorial(soft article) is gradually being valued by hotel marketing staff. study of customer perception of soft article may be offer some useful suggestions for hotel marketing. choose better channel to put in their soft article, enhance market competitive strength.

Key words:
Soft article, hotel marketing, consumer perception
我国厉行节约政策对高星级酒店的影响研究

Research on the effects of Chinese austerity policy on high-star hotel

Yaxing Zhao and Gu Huimin

Beijing international studies university, Beijing, China

摘要

2012年12月，中共中央政治局提出了厉行节约的八项规定，会议一致同意关于改进工作作风、密切联系群众的八项规定和六项禁令（凌峰，2013）。这一政策表现出对“公款消费”的打压和对政府官员接待标准的控制。随后各地工商部门相应为新政策下达《行政指导告知书》，要求各酒店等餐饮行业厉行勤俭节约，并取消“最低消费”，“开瓶费”等。此项政策实施除了压制了政府的公务消费行为，还对在公务消费市场获得巨大利益的行业造成了冲击，其中高星级酒店业首当其冲。

新政策使酒店业出现退订潮，这些被退掉的订单多为政府单位团拜年，年终聚会等。往年的12月至春节前本是酒店业的经营旺季，利润额将占本年度利润额的25%至30%。据中国饭店协会统计，至2013年春节，多数高档酒店营业额降幅高达20%至40%左右，其中个别对政务消费依赖程度高的企业接近60%，不少企业面临大幅度裁员和缩减原材料成本，还有一些地区甚至直接关闭一些私人高级会所和娱乐场所。这对于结构性失衡进入饱和期的高星级酒店来说冲击很大。

为此，业内呼声一片，到底这一政策产生了多大的影响，会持续多久？本文采用比较分析法、内容分析法和专家访谈法。首先，针对厉行节约政策对高星级酒店的影响分析：本文从纵向、横向进行了全面对比。纵向比较分析我国酒店业比较发达的5个城市（北京、上海、浙江、广东、江苏）高星级酒店的经营绩效。这里的经营绩效主要围绕酒店数量、平均出租率和平均房价三个指标，数据的统计是2012年第一季度到2013年第四季度。纵向比较分析了历史上的SARS和金融危机对我国酒店业的影响。文章也比较了厉行节约政策对经济型酒店、高端餐饮和奢侈品行业的影响；其次，针对经营者对厉行节约政策的反映问题：本文运用统计分析法，设计我国厉行节约政策对高星级酒店经营者信心影响问卷调查，运用多元线性回归法和因子分析，对影响经营者信心的因子进行筛选，分析这些因子对经营者信心影响程度，运用假设检验分析其影响度；最后，文章运用内容分析法、分析通过报纸、网络、官网和微信等渠道获得的企业领导人意见、政府部门讲话等信息。

本文通过对厉行节约政策对高星级酒店的影响分析，旨在为高星级酒店产业结构和战略转型提供借鉴。

关键词：厉行节约政策、高星级酒店、影响分析
**Abstract**—In December 2012, the Politburo of the Communist Party of China put forward the eight principles which aimed at practicing economy (Lin Feng, 2013). The austerity policy shows the suppression of "public consumption" and the standards for the reception of government officials. Some business sectors then issued "administrative guidance notice" corresponding to the new policy, requiring all hotels and other catering industry to combat waste strictly, and cancelled policies of "minimum consumption", "corkage fee" etc. The austerity policy not only suppresses the government's official consumer behaviour, but also impacts the industry which relied on official market, and high-star hotels have borne the brunt.

The new policy made a flood of cancellations for hotel. The orders being drained away were mostly the year-end gatherings ordered by government agencies. In former years, the period between December to the Spring Festival was the hotel industry’s boom season, and the profit value accounted for 25-30% of profits. According to the China Hotel Association, to the end of the 2013 Spring Festival, most high-star hotels’ turnover declined up to about 20-40%, the ones depend deeply on government officials nearly declined 60%, many enterprises were facing significant layoffs and reduced raw material costs. Some areas even closed private senior clubs and entertainment venues. The phenomenon affects the high-star hotels.

Therefore, the hospitality industry calls a piece. This article uses comparative analysis, content analysis and expert interview analysis as the research method, and the research tools are the multivariate statistics and statistical analysis. First, this article conducts a comprehensive comparison on the impact of austerity policy on high-star hotel from the vertical and horizontal dimensions. For the vertical dimensions: we select five hotel industry developed cities (Beijing, Shanghai, Zhejiang, Guangdong, Jiangsu), and analyze its operating performance by comparing and analysing the number of hotels, average occupancy rate and average room rate, the data are between the start of 2012 to the end of 2013. Meanwhile, the article also uses longitudinal comparison approach by comparing the different impact between SARS and financial crisis on hotel industry. We also analyse the austerity policy’s impact on the luxury and economic hotels, in order to get an objective conclusion; Secondly, this paper uses statistical analysis to design the questionnaire, to study the operators’ confidence in their industry. The multiple linear regression and factor analysis will be used to select the factors that affect operators’ confidence; Thirdly, this article use content analysis method by analyzing industry leader’s public speeches, government officials viewpoints from various media including newspaper, internet, company website, WeChat etc.

Suggestions have been made including product development, market development as well as industry transformation.

**Keywords**——austerity policies, high-star hotel, impact study

**References**

[20] 王文慧. 酒店营销新视野[M]. 北京企业管理出版社. 2010. 4
[23] 张云中. 节约新风促酒店业转型[N]. 国际商报，2013-4-（A08）.
Outdoor tourism in China

Prof Zhong Linsheng and Prof Ralf Buckley

Prof Zhong Linsheng
Chinese Academy of Sciences

Prof Ralf Buckley
Griffith University, Australia

The Chinese Dream, along with its counterparts in other countries, is an evocative, socially compelling but academically imprecise concept. Analyses advanced by Western commentators are not necessarily congruent with Chinese perspectives, especially at the broader political levels. There seems to be consensus, however, that at the individual level, Chinese aspirations commonly include prosperity, harmony, and the opportunity to pursue distinctly Chinese philosophies, lifestyles, and ways of doing things, not necessarily the same as in other countries and cultures.

Practical manifestations of this include increasing individual wealth, leisure time, freedom to travel, concern over personal health and wellbeing, and interests in Chinese tradition, culture and nature. All of these are expressed in very large-scale growth in domestic and outbound Chinese tourism, including nature-based and adventure activities. Here we argue that this growth has taken place, and continues, along paths which are distinctly Chinese. We also argue that as outbound tourism from China increases, the expectations of Chinese tourists, influenced by factors broadly referred to as the Chinese Dream, will affect tourism in destination countries.

In support of our contentions, we summarise seven separate studies on domestic outdoor nature and adventure tourism in China, supplemented by our own personal experience in the development of outdoor tourism in China over the past three decades.

1. The Chinese concept of shengtai luyou, ecology tourism, is different in small but significant ways from the western concept of ecotourism. In particular, (a) it includes large scale operations which fit Weaver's concept of enlightened mass tourism; (b) it includes human modifications to natural environments which are perceived as improving on nature; and (c) it includes a strong human health component, particularly for city dwellers seeking clean and invigorating air and water in forests and mountains.

2. The Chinese tourism ecocertification system differs from Western systems in four key aspects. (a) It certifies destinations rather than enterprises, products or individuals. (b) It specifies a maximum total number of certified destinations, so that destinations must compete to become certified. (c) It is operated by the Chinese National Tourism Administration, a central government body, rather than by private third-party enterprises. (d) It contains very detailed and comprehensive technical specifications, matched only by very few of the Western systems.

3. Marketing of outdoor tourism products and destinations in China, for both domestic and international inbound tourists, links natural and cultural components much more strongly than most Western counterparts. In some cases such links are perceived by western tourists as authentic, as for example in the cultural landscapes of Qinghai or Inner Mongolia. In others
they appear to Western visitors as staged, as for example in many minority villages, festivals and performances, or copies of buildings from other parts of the world. Historically, this does not seem to be of concern to Chinese domestic tourists. Currently, however, the new Chinese Tourism Law does include a greater focus on destination authenticity.

4. Domestic adventure tourism within China has evolved along different cultural pathways from international counterparts, yielding a number of characteristic products which exist only in mainland China. One example is piaoliu luyou or piaoliu ziyou, river drifting, which is a form of mass adventure tourism involving short unguided float trips in small paddle-less whitewater rafts, on heavily modified watercourses with low volume of water but high volume of clients. This is very different from the international model of white water rafting with small client numbers on high-volume unmodified rivers, which does also exist in western China.

5. China has ~8000 protected areas in at least six different categories, which may be managed either by national, provincial or local governments. A detailed analysis of environmental and visitor management in over 1100 of these parks shows a broad continuum between larger, longer-established, more heavily visited parks with larger budgets and larger-scale visitor infrastructure; and smaller, more recently established, less heavily visited parks with smaller budgets and more limited infrastructure. On top of this broad division there are a number of less widespread patterns related to different geographic regions.

6. Some of China's protected areas are amongst the world's most heavily visited, with over 100,000 visitors per day during peak season in some cases. This has necessitated the development of new infrastructure and management approaches capable of allowing 100,000 people through a single entrance in a short period at opening time, transporting them safely and with low impacts throughout the park, feeding them all adequately at lunchtime, providing mobile pump-out toilet facilities at numerous key scenic stopping points, monitoring visitor movements in real time, and allowing everyone to exit rapidly and safely when the park closes. A number of Chinese parks also incorporate large-scale cableways, cliff-face walkways (some of them made of glass), and in one case, an elevator travelling over 300m vertically up and down a cliff face.

7. Overall wealth in China has increased greatly during recent decades, and there are now numerous Chinese entrepreneurs and corporations which can and do invest tens of billions of Yuan in tourism assets and developments. This was demonstrated dramatically, for example, by successful sales of development opportunities for upmarket coastal tourism resorts, at an event in Ninghai during 2012.

Overall, we may anticipate that future outbound Chinese tourists will be more wealthy and sophisticated than in the past, and more interested in nature and adventure tourism products; but that they will approach these experiences from a Chinese cultural perspective, framed and derived from their domestic tourism experiences within China; and tourism providers in other countries will need to adapt to these expectations.
Information search behaviour of Chinese international students—an emerging independent travel market

Manli Zhu, Professor Betty Weiler, Dr. Martin Young, Dr. Yun-Lok Lee
Southern Cross, Australia

Key words: China tourism, International students travel, Information search behaviour

Introduction

China is Australia’s most important trading partner in both the international education and tourism industries (Keating & Godfrey 2013). In terms of education, Chinese students form the largest international student group in Australia, generating $4.3 billion in export income for 2012 (Keating & Godfrey 2013). These students are not only significant for the education industry, but also make substantial contribution to local tourism economies. Previous research has found that Chinese international students travel regularly, engage in local tourism activities, and receive visits by family and friends (Pyke, Jiang & Delacy 2013). Therefore, Chinese international students have an influential and ongoing impact on the Australian tourism industry (Babin & Kim 2001; Frost & Shanka 1999). However, little attention has been given to Chinese international students as a travel market for the destination country (Zhang, Burgess & Kerr 2009).

In terms of tourism development, considerable research has examined current Chinese outbound travellers. These studies have indicated that most current Chinese tourists are rather inexperienced, and prefer the safety and comfort of traditional tour group travel (King & Gardiner 2013). However, as their travel experience increase, it is expected that Chinese tourists will increasingly wish to travel independently and seek more meaningful engagements, more local contact, and activities closely suited to their personal interests (King & Gardiner 2013). It is recommended that Chinese international students constitute China’s first wave of independent outbound travellers as they have more travel experience and foreign language skills, and are looking for more individual, in-depth experiences related to local culture and special interest (King & Gardiner 2013). With enhanced financial support from their parents, Chinese students studying abroad constitute a potential economic phenomenon (King & Gardiner 2013; Smith & Hill 2009). Therefore, understanding the attitude and behaviour of the Chinese international student market is not only important for attracting and managing the current significant student market, but also critical to predicting future China independent outbound travel which is expected to be the main stream travel market in future China outbound travel.

This research seeks to uncover Chinese tertiary students’ attitude and behaviour at the beginning stage of travel—vacation planning and information searching. When students decide to go on a trip, their first step is to search and collect available information. Therefore, information search behaviour forms the basis for their vacation planning (Bieger, Laesser & Gallen 2000). In a highly competitive tourism market, consumers’ choices of tourism and hospitality products depend heavily on the information they use (Fodness & Murray 1997). Thus to influence students’ travel decisions on destination, accommodation, transportation, and travel activities, tourism and hospitality companies need to understand their information search behaviour to provide relevant information at the right time through appropriate channels (Lo, Cheung & Law 2002).
Specifically, this study identifies what information sources Chinese international students most prefer when choosing travel services, what factors influence or determine students’ information search behaviour, and how Chinese students perceive the value of current information sources.

As the internet becomes the most important channels to connect with affluent consumers all over China, traditional media and events are no longer the best way to reach these consumers (Thraenhart 2012). Moreover, compare to the general consumers in the marketplace, the current young Chinese is a particular product of the “one-child” policy, and have experienced and enjoyed significant attention and resources from their parents. Therefore more young Chinese nowadays have opportunities for international education (King & Gardiner 2013). This market is also shaped by technology and by social attitudes associated with the growing ownership of mobile devices (King & Gardiner 2013; Smith & Hill 2009). When reaching out to them, tourism marketer will benefit from considering the environmental elements and the generational differences including individuality that may be shaping and influencing their attitudes and behaviour. This study seeks to provide empirical evidence of how these factors influence their information search behaviour.

Methodology

To investigate how international students search for travel information when planning a holiday in Australia, a letter of invitation containing a hyperlink to an online survey was sent to international offices of 38 universities in Australia. The letter addressed the purpose and importance of the research, and including that the results are expected to help travel companies better understand the Chinese student market and therefore to improve their business and the students' holiday experience. The consent and support from international offices was sought to forward the letter of invitation to the Chinese international students who are currently enrolled in the institution.

Preliminary results

Until now, 4 of the universities have accepted the invitation, and forwarded the email to their Chinese international students. A total of 114 Chinese international students have completed the online survey, and 104 are able to be used for data analysis. A preliminary data analysis of the 104 collected respondents to indicate the merits of patterns of the Chinese student market in regard to information collection and consultation.

A comparison of information sources utilised was undertaken by examining the percentage of respondents who employed each source. Of the seven alternative information sources, "online information" (76.9% of sample) and "recommendation from friend" (73.1% of sample) were utilised by the greatest proportion of respondents in their vacation planning (see Figure 1). "Travel book or magazine" (20.2% of sample) and "tourist information centre" (20.2% of sample) were utilised by a much smaller proportion of respondents.
Figure 1

Regarding the primary source of information that respondents selected for service planning (e.g. travel accommodation, transportation, recreational activities, and entertainment activities), "online information" was used mostly as a primary source of information to plan all four services (Figure 2). Specifically, "hotel or other accommodation websites" were utilised mostly to choose accommodation, "airline or other transportation websites" were utilise most for transportation, and "online travel guide" was utilised mostly as a primarily website to plan recreational activities and entertainment activities (Figure 3).

Figure 2. Primary source of information used for service planning
More data will be gathered between August and October 2014. In the future work, analyses will focus on identifying the importance of each of the information source and website evaluated by the student market, how trip-related variables (e.g. previous travel experience, travel party composition, length of trip, etc.) may influence students' information search and use behaviour, and how student perceive the value of information sources in the current marketplace.

Reference list


Bieger, T, Laesser, C & Gallen, S 2000, 'Segmenting travel situations on the basis of motivation and information-collection by the traveller', *Revue de Tourisme*, vol. 2, pp. 54-64.


The Investigation of “Donkey Friends”’ Travel Behaviour Case Study On Lvye Website

Sha Zhu, Li Tao, Shan Jiang
Capital Normal University

Nowadays, with the increasing development of tourists’ demand, “Donkey Friends” is a new guided tour type which becoming more and more popular in China, and gradually formed a scale. It is a special group among the tourist and a new area to research. These people who have their own culture, value, performance and so on, is called “Donkey Friends” in China and can be found in Big Cities like Beijing, Shanghai, Xian and so on. Now the number of “Donkey Friends” is going up with the diversification of the tourist market, and then come into their own organization. They use all kinds of New Media to expand the influence of organization. Such as WeiBo, Blog, Social Networking Website and so on. The organization held all kinds of sightseeing regularly on weekend or holiday without travel agency. The organizer who plays the important role like tour guide will help them to complete their tour. They take food made by themselves from home and share it with together. It often takes one or two days to enjoy a comfortable tour in an economic way. The scenic spots are locate in suburbs and exurbs, but there is rarely people to visit. Most of those views are free. They also exploit the scenic spots and, sometimes, live in residents’ home nearby the spots. There is no exactly concept for “Donkey Friends” and that is why I concerned, because they deserve special attention and need more scholar to research it.

This study examines “Donkey Friends” motivation on Lvye Outdoor Club, Beijing. This study adopts mixed methods to collect data which mainly including 210 questionnaire surveys and 10 in-depth interviews. All of the data was collected at Lvye Outdoor Club, and the principal component analysis method was used to analysis the collected data. The results of this study found that the most important motivator was the social purpose; low expense; and the flexible travel. Based on the method of demographic statistics and Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, “Donkey Friends” has some unique characteristics such as high education level, price sensitive, sociable and young worker. And the most important motivator was the social purpose for “Donkey Friends” tourism group. The conclusion presents important guidance for “Donkey Friends” Tourism Marketing and provides another research area in guided tours.