Cape Peninsula
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A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF MARKETING CHINESE TOURISTS TO THE WESTERN CAPE WINE ROUTES

by

PENG JIANG
205166431

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SUPERVISOR: NORBERT E. HAYDAM

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DECLARATION

I, Peng Jiang, declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Signed

Data

ABSTRACT

Resident within the context of tourism marketing, this research, following a proposal that marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes, as a destination component, may enrich and strengthen the image and competition of South Africa as a tourist destination in China, has focused on the psychological behaviour of Chinese tourists and their demographic profiles in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes. Within this research, a mixed research design was adapted, after layered literature studies that comprised tourism and marketing, consumer [tourist] behaviour and wine tourism, while fieldwork involved both qualitative and quantitative approaches, which covered both experienced and non-experienced Chinese tourists with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes.

During the research fieldwork, a tourist investigation included a set of mini-group interviews and an intercept survey [comprising 275 samples], which provided an understanding of Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes, as well as South Africa and Cape Town, by both underlying and broad data. As a result of this research, a blueprint to market the Western Cape Wine Routes as a destination component in China, in the form of a formulated framework, some business recommendations at a strategic level, are represented, which include strategic marketing directions, Chinese tourist market analysis, evaluation of current competition, SWOT analysis, strategic objectives and corresponding strategies in the form of the 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix, as well as major complementary strategic resources. Finally, within an academic perspective, future studies are also suggested.

Key words: Chinese tourists, South Africa, strategic marketing, tourism, Western Cape, wine tourism, wine routes and wine tourists.

DEDICATION

To my parents, my wife and my young sister, with love and in gratitude

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CLARIFICATION OF BASIC TERMS AND CONCEPTS

The following definitions are extracted from relevant literature sources in order to offer consistent understanding on certain concepts that are quoted throughout this thesis.

CONCEPT	DESCRIPTION
4Cs	A reflection of the traditional marketing mix from a buyer's point of view, namely customer solution, customer cost, convenience and communication (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 20).
4Ps	Refers to the marketing mix, namely product, price, promotion (communication) and place (distribution) (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 48).
7Ps	An extension of the traditional marketing mix in services marketing, including the 4Ps (product, place, promotion and price) and other three extended strategies (3Ps): physical environment, process and people (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 21), in relation to the services marketing mix.
8Ps	An extension of the services marketing mix (7Ps) in tourism marketing, which include place, product, people, price, promotion, programming and physical evidence, as well as partnerships (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 160), namely the tourism marketing mix.
Accommodation	Accommodation is a critical component of the tourism industry, which satisfies the tourist demand, and can be classified into two categories: serviced and self-catering accommodation (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 43).
Allocentrics	Persons with a need for new experiences, such as backpackers and explorers (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2006: 911).
All-inclusive tour	An all-inclusive tour refers to a package where a tour price has been set, which includes all air and land arrangements (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55).
Ambience	Refers to atmosphere of event or place.
Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	Analysis involving an investigation of the effects of one treatment variable on an interval-scaled dependent variable-hypothesis-testing technique to determine whether statistically significant differences in means occur between two or more groups (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 674).
Approved Destination Status (ADS)	Approved Destination Status (ADS) is a qualification for destination countries, which has been developed by the National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA). The Chinese government allows its citizens to use personal passports and tourism visas to visit ADS countries; South Africa received Approved Destination Status (ADS) in 2003 [Mintel, 2003: 8; Wikipedia, 2006; South African Tourism (SAT), 2006b: 13].
Atmosphere	Designed environments that create or reinforce a buyer's leanings towards consumption of a product (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 911).
Attitude	A person's enduring favourable or unfavourable evaluation, emotions and action tendencies towards some object or idea (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G1).
Behaviour	Overt actions that can be directly observed and measured by others (Peter and Olson, 2005: 546).
Belief	A descriptive thought that a person holds about something (Kotler and Keller, 2006).
Blueprint	A method of visually portraying the processes and participants involved in the production of a service (George, 2004: 398).

Brand	A name, term, sign, symbol, design or combination of them, which is intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G1).
Brand personality	Brand personality is a specific mix of human traits that can be ascribed to a particular brand (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 182).
Business tourism	The category of the tourism industry that is concerned with travel for business purposes, rather than travel for leisure purposes (George, 2004: 398).
The Cape Winelands District (Municipality)	This District in the Western Cape Province, namely the former Boland District, covers the main wine regions and includes some famed wine routes, such as Stellenbosch and Paarl (www.capewinelands.org; Washkansky, 2006).
Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU)	Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU) is the provincial Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) in the Western Cape (www.tourismcapetown.co.za).
Chartered group	Chartered groups are assembled to achieve lower fares and temporarily hire or rent equipment from a supplier for their exclusive use (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55).
National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA)	The National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA) administers the environment within which the travel sector operates (including inbound and outbound tourism) in China, namely the China National Tourism Organisation (NTO), (www.cnta.gov.cn).
Chinese tourists	In this research, tourists who are permanent residents in the Chinese mainland (excluding China's Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan).
Closed-ended questions	Questions that require respondents to choose from a list of possible options (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 267).
CNY	Chinese currency Yuan; CNY1=ZAR1.107 (Yahoo Finance, 18 July 2008).
Codes	Rules for interpreting, classifying and recording data in a cording process; also refers to actual numerical or other character symbols assigned to raw data (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 675).
Conclusions	Generalisations that answer questions raised by the research objectives or otherwise satisfy the objectives (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G1).
Confidence level	A percentage or decimal value that tells how confident a researcher can be about being correct. It states the long-run percentage of confidence intervals that will include the true population mean (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 557).
Consolidated tour	Consolidated tours refer to individuals teaming up with already established tours (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55).
Construct validity	Degree to which a measurement instrument represents and logically connects, via the underlying theory, the observed phenomenon to the construct (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G1).
Consumer behaviour	Consumer behaviour is the behaviour that consumers display in searching for purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products, services and ideas, which they expect will satisfy their needs (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: 6).
Consumer orientation	An identification and focus on people or firms that are most likely to buy a product and the production of a good or service that will meet their needs most effectively (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 4).
Communications mix	Marketing communications mix, namely promotion mix, which includes advertising, sales promotion, events and experience, public relations and publicity, direct marketing and personal selling (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G5).

Core product/offering	Answers the question of what the buyer is really buying; every product is a package of problem-solving services (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 912).
Critical value	The value that lies exactly on the boundary of rejection (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 676).
Cue	A stimulus that determines when, where and how an individual responds (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G2).
Culture	A set of basic values, perceptions, wants and behaviours learned by a member of society from family and other important institutions (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 912), which is a fundamental determinant of a person's wants and behaviours (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G2).
Customer Relationship Management (CRM)	Customer Relationship Management (CRM) is an approach where the seller fine-tunes the marketing effort with information from a detailed customer database (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G2).
Customer value	Customer value is the outcome of a process that begins with a business strategy anchored in a deep understanding of customer needs (Troy, 1996: 5); Perreault and McCarthy (2002: G3) defined it as the difference between the benefits a customer sees from a market offering and the costs of obtaining those benefits.
Customerisation	Combination of operationally driven mass customisation with customised marketing in a way that empowers consumers to design the product and service offering of their choice (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G3).
Data	Facts or recorded measures of certain phenomena (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 676).
Data analysis	An application of reasoning to understand the data that have been gathered (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 676).
Depth interviews	One-on-one interviews that probe and elicit detailed answers to questions, often using nondirective techniques to uncover hidden motivations (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G2).
Demands	Human wants that are backed by buying power (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 913).
Demographics	The objective and quantifiable characteristics of consumers, which are classified into groups; demographic designators include age, marital status, income, family size and occupation, among several others (Greenbaum, 1998: 246).
Descriptive analysis	An elementary transformation of raw data in a way that describes basic characteristics such as central tendency, distribution and variability (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 676).
Destination	A destination is a place, which includes a physical or perceived location, which consists of attractions and supports amenities that entice people to visit, where offered and, which are designed to meet tourist needs (George, 2004: 334).
Destination image	A destination image may be defined as the visual or mental impression of a place or product that is experienced by the general public (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1995).
Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO)	The Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) are those governmental and non-governmental organisations that are responsible for marketing specific tourism destinations within the travel trade, as well as to individual travellers; they range in size from multinational to local (George, 2004: 337).
Destination-mix	A unique relationship found in the tourism industry involving attractions, accessibility, amenities and ambience (George, 2004: 399).
Dichotomous questions	Closed-ended questions that ask respondents to choose between two possible answers (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 267).

Discussion guide	The outline that a moderator uses to lead discussion in a focus group session; it is developed by the moderator on the basis of the briefing and identifies the topics that will be covered in a focus group session and the approximate emphasis given to each (Greenbaum, 1998: 248).
Disposable income	The money that remains once all expenditure has been subtracted form the income of an individual or family (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 434).
Emerging wine countries	Apart from the Old-New World wine countries (refer to Old World and New World wine countries), which are new wine countries such as China, Russia and India.
Escorted tours	Escorted tours refer to group tours that use the services of a professional tour manager or escort (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55).
Exploratory research	Preliminary research conducted to increase understanding of a concept, as well as to clarify the exact nature of the problem that should be solved or to identify important variables that should be studied (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G2).
Focus groups (Mini-focus groups)	A qualitative research technique in which a group of 8 to 10 participants of common demographics, attitudes or purchase patterns are led through an in-depth discussion of a particular topic or concept by a moderator; while a focus group that contains 4 to 6 participants, are called mini-focus groups (Greenbaum, 1998: 247).
Focus groups moderator	Person hired by a research project to lead the focus group, while moderator should have a background in psychology or sociology or, at least, marketing (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G2); in this research the moderator is the researcher.
Frequency analysis	[Frequency distribution] A set of data organised by summarising the number of times a particular value of a variable occurs (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 678).
The Global Network of Great Wine Capitals	This international organisation embraces Melbourne, Bordeaux, San Francisco-Napa Valley, Porto, Cape Town, Bilbao-Rioja, Florence and Mendoza and works to encourage international winery tourism, as well as economic, academic and cultural exchanges between these famous capitals of wine (www.greatwinecapitals.com). In South Africa, this organisation is hosted by the Cape Winelands District Municipality (Cape Times, 2006).
Group buyer	An organisational buyer, which includes corporation, association and governmental agents, as well as family; in this research they buy a leisure tourism offering (George, 2004: 168).
Group dynamics	Interaction among people within a group (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G3).
Group participants	Persons who participate in focus groups.
Hospitality	Commercial activities that offer consumers accommodation, meals and beverages while they are away from home (George, 2004: 399).
Hosted tours	Hosted tours include the services of a tour escort who meets the individual or groups at each destination (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55).
Hypothesis test	A test that is conceptually similar to the one used when the mean is the characteristic of interest but that differs in the mathematical formulation of the standard error of the proportion (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 678).
Image	A set of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person holds regarding an object (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G4); within a tourism context, George (2004: 399) defined it as the general perception that a consumer has of a tourism offering, organization or destination.
Inbound tourism	A classification of tourism, which involves tourists who come from other (foreign) countries to visit the destination country (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 435).

Inbound tourist An international tourist from another country (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 37).

Incentive tours Incentive tours refer to trips that serve as a reward for some or other achievement (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55).

Index measure An index assigns a value based on how much of the concept being measured is associated with an observation. Indexes are often formed by placing several variables together (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 678).

Industry A group of firms that offer a product or class of products that are close substitutes for one another (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G4).

Infrastructure The system according to which a company, organisation or other body is organised at the most basal level; in the tourism context, it refers to accommodation, transport and other facilities and services used by the typical tourist (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: K915).

Intermediary Any dealer that acts as a link in the chain of distribution (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 53).

Judgment samples Non-probability samples in which the selection criteria are based on the researcher's personal judgment about representativeness of the population under study (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 314).

Learning Changes in a person's behaviour arising from experience (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G4).

Leisure Leisure is considered to be "free time", in other words, the time, which is not devoted to work or other duties; this term usually describes an industry, which provides products and services for people to use in their spare time (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 437).

Lifestyle The manner in which people conduct their lives, including their activities, interests and opinions (Peter and Olson, 2005: 551).

Long-haul trips Trips variably defined as those, which occur outside of the world region where the traveller resides or beyond a given number of flying time hours (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 28).

Long-term memory A permanent repository of information (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G4)

Loyalty A commitment to re-purchase or re-patronise a preferred product or service (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G4).

Macroenvironmental forces Demographic, economic, technological, political, legal, social and cultural, as well as natural factors (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 916).

Mall-intercept interviews Interviews conducted by intercepting mall shoppers (or shoppers in other high-traffic locations) and interviewing them face-to-face (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G3).

Market demand The total volume of a product that would be bought by a defined customer group in a defined geographical area in a defined time period in a defined marketing environment under a defined marketing programme (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G4).

Market positioning Formulating competitive positioning for a product and a detailed marketing mix (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 915).

Market segmentation The process of dividing a market into groups of similar consumers and selecting the most appropriate group(s) for the firm to serve (Peter and Olson, 2005: 551).

Market targeting Evaluating each market segment's attractiveness and selecting one or more segments to enter (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 915).

Market value Market value is the potential of a product or service to satisfy a customer's wants and needs (Sheth, Mittal and Newman, 1999: 58).

Marketing	From a supply perspective, this is a process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 4). Form a demand perspective, this is the social and managerial process by which people and groups obtain what they need and want through in creasing and exchanging products and values with others (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 915).
Marketing concept	A business philosophy based on consumer orientation, goal orientation and system orientation (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 4).
Marketing mix	The controllable variables that the marketing organisation combines to satisfy a target group (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G6).
Marketing research	The systematic and objective planning, gathering, recording, analysing and interpretation of data and information relevant to the identification and solution of any problem in the field of marketing, social and communication decision-making: the function with links consumer, customer and public to the marketer, communicator or other decision-maker through information leading to the provision of problem solutions [Southern Africa Marketing Research Association (SAMRA), 2004].
Marketing strategy	A related marketing mix that is aimed at a target market (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G6).
Marketing stimuli	Marketing stimuli can be divided into communication and physical stimuli, which are anything designed by marketing organisations in order to influence consumers (Kurtz and Boone, 2006: 169).
Mass marketing	A typical production-oriented approach that vaguely aims at everyone with the same marketing mix (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G6).
Mean	A measure of central tendency; an arithmetic average.
Memory	A process of acquiring information and storing it over time so that it will be available when needed (Solomon, 2006: 626).
Motivation	It is the driving force within individuals that can impel them to action with the two interdependent factors of motivation being goals and needs. Most forms of behaviour are goal-oriented and can be utilised to study consumer behaviour (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991: 83).
Multiple-choice questions	Closed-ended questions that ask respondents to choose among several answers; also called multichotomous questions (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 267).
National Tourism Organisation (NTO)	The National Tourism Organisation (NTO) in South Africa is South African Tourism (SAT), which is responsible for marketing South Africa internationally (George, 2004: 400).
Natural events	Attractions that occur over a fixed period of time in one or more location and are more natural than constructed (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 163).
Natural sites	Geographically fixed attractions that are more natural than constructed, which can be subdivided into topography (physical features), climate, hydrology (water resources), wildlife, vegetation and location (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 163).
Needs	Basic forces that motivate a person to do something (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G7).
New World wine countries	Wine countries, which planted vines and developed their wine industries after the 1500s, including Australia, New Zealand, Chile, Argentina, the US, Canada and South Africa (Cambourne, Hall, Johnson, Macionis, Mitchell and Sharples, 2000: 36).
Non-probability samples	Samples in which specific elements from the population have been selected in a nonrandom manner (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 303).

Old World wine countries	Major wine producing countries in Europe, particularly western European traditional wine countries such as France, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Austria and Germany (Cambourne and Hall *et al*., 2000: 36).
Open-ended questions	Questions to which respondents reply in their own words (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G4).
Opinion leader	A person within a reference group who, because of special skills, knowledge, personality, or other characteristics, exert influence on others (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 916).
Outbound tourism	A classification of tourism, which involves tourists who depart from their own country in order to visit another (foreign country) (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 436).
Outbound tourist	An international tourist who departs from their usual country of residence (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 436).
Package tours	Namely package holiday or package travel, is an all-inclusive tour or a tour combines at least two tour elements, which usually include transportation, accommodation, sightseeing, leadership, meals, social events, transfers, attractions, special events and activities and other services, as well as those with limited flexibility and with the same purpose (de Souto, 1993: 10; Hanefors and Mossberg, 2000: 186).
People	People within the tourism industry are all human actors who play a part in service delivery and thus influence a buyer's perceptions in terms of the organisation's employees, consumers and other people within the service environment (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000: 26).
Perception	It is the process by which individuals select, organise and interpret stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world; perception has strategic implications for marketing because consumers make decisions based on what they perceive (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991: 145).
Personality	A set of distinguishing human psychological traits that can lead to relatively consistent responses to environmental stimuli (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G6).
Physical evidence	Tangible clues such as promotional material, employees of the firm and the physical environment of the organisation, which can be used to make products more tangible to the consumer (George, 2004: 400).
Pilot test	Trial run of a questionnaire in the form of pre-test (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G4).
The Point of Good Hope	This refers to Cape Point, since most Chinese people refer it as the "Point of Good Hope" rather than "Cape Point".
Population	Entire group of people about whom information is required.
Post-travel	Tourists who return from their destination or onsite experience, or once they have returned to their place of residence.
Pre-travel	Before decision-making, tourists' intended travel habits and likely choice of destination.
Price	An amount of money charged for a product or service or the sum of the values that consumers exchange for the benefits of having or using the product or service (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 917).
Product	Anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that might satisfy a want or need; it includes physical objects, services, persons, places, organisations and ideas (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 917).
Product life cycle (PLC)	The course of a product's sales and profits over its lifetime. In general, it involves five distinct stages: product development, introduction, growth, maturity and decline (George, 2004: 400).

Projective test	Technique for tapping respondents' deepest feelings by having them projects those feelings onto an unstructured situation (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G4).
Pull factors	Forces that help to stimulate a tourism product by "pulling" consumers towards a particular destination (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 97).
Psychocentrics	Consumers who wait until a destination is firmly established before visiting (George, 2004: 401).
Psychographics	This is a scientific technique, which uses psychology and demographics to measure and categorise consumer lifestyles and involves the measuring of activities, interests and opinions (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 184, 252).
Pull strategy	The marketing organisation uses advertising and promotion to persuade consumers to ask intermediaries for the products, thus inducing intermediaries to order it (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G6).
Push factors	Economic, social, demographic, technological and political forces, which stimulate a demand for tourism activity by "pushing" consumers away from their usual place of residence (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 69).
Push strategy	The company uses its sales force and trade promotion money to induce intermediaries to carry, promote and sell products to end users (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G6).
Qualitative research	Research, where the objective is to gain insight into attitudes and feelings and not to develop numerical data that may be projectable to a larger universe; qualitative methodologies include focus groups, mini-focus groups and one-on-one interview (Greenbaum, 1998: 251).
Quantitative research	Research designed to generate projectable numerical data about a topic; quantitative studies are conducted by telephone, mail or questionnaire interviews (Greenbaum, 1998: 251).
Questionnaire	Set of questions designed to generate the data necessary to accomplish the objectives of the research project; also called an interview schedule or survey instrument (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G5).
Ranking	A measurement task that requires respondents to rank a number of stores, brands or objects on the basis of overall preference or some characteristic of the stimulus (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 682).
Reference group	All the groups that have a direct or indirect influence on a person's attitudes or behaviour (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G6).
Research design	The plan that should be followed to answer the marketing research objectives.
Respondents	People who answer an interviewer's questions or provide answers to written questions (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 682).
Sample	Subset of all the members of a population of interest (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G5).
Sampling	Process of obtaining information from a subset of a larger group (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G5).
Scaled-response questions	Closed-ended questions in which the response choices are designed to capture the intensity of the respondent's feelings (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 269).
Screening questions	Questions used to identify appropriate respondents or participants (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G5).
Search engine	A computerised directory that allows anyone to search the World Wide Web (WWW) for information, using a keyword search (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 682).

Self-administered questionnaire	Questionnaires that are completed by respondents with no interviewer present (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G5).
Self-concept	The ideas, meanings, attitudes and knowledge that people have about themselves (Peter and Olson, 2005: 554).
Semi-structured interview	Semi-structured interviews usually come in written form and ask respondents for short essay responses to specific open-ended questions and respondents are free to write as much or as little as they want. The questions would be divided into sections, typically, and within each section, the opening question would be followed by some probing questions. When these are performed face-to-face, there is room for less structured follow-ups (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 150).
Service	Any act or performance that one party can offer another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G7).
Services marketing	The marketing of services such as those that are associated with the tourism industry, as opposed to the marketing of the goods industry; services marketing has several characteristics such as intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability, as well as emotional labour (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 231).
Short-term memory (STM)	A temporary repository of information (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G7).
Social classes	Homogeneous and enduring divisions in a society, which are hierarchically ordered and whose members share similar values, interests and behaviour (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G7).
Socio-cultural events	Attractions that occur over a fixed period of time in one or more locations and are more constructed than natural such as historical commemorations and re-creations, world fairs, sporting events and festivals (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 163).
Socio-cultural sites	Geographically fixed attractions that are more constructed than natural, which can be classified into prehistorical, historical, contemporary, economic, specialised, recreational and retail subcategories (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 163).
South African Tourism (SAT)	South African Tourism (SAT) is the country's National Tourism Organisation (NTO), whose role it is to market the country at an international level (www.southafrica.net; George, 2004: 400).
South African Tourism Growth Strategy (SA TGS)	The [South African] Tourism Growth Strategy (SA TGS) 2005-2007 is a Tourism Act that has been established by the South African government. In this research, it has also been regarded as the groundwork and principle.
South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB)	The South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB) is an independent and nonprofit marketing body within the country's wine industry. As a central body of the National Wine Tourism Steering Committee, it has a mandate from the government to promote wine tourism on both domestic and international levels [www.sawb.co.za; South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB), 2005].
SOWT analysis	Identifies and lists the marketing organisation's strengths and weaknesses, as well as its opportunities and threats (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G11).
Special Interest Tourism (SIT)	The provision of customised leisure and recreational experiences driven by the specific expressed interests of individuals and groups (Derrett, 2001: 3). In other words, tourists who travel to a place for specific reasons, for example, wine-related tourism (George, 2004: 401).
Standardised Deviation (Std D)	A quantitative index of a distribution's spread, or variability; the square root of the variance for a distribution (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 683).

Stayover	A tourist who spends at least one night in a destination region (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 30).
Stellenbosch wine route	This is the first wine route for tourism purposes in South Africa and is also the most successful one among South African wine routes (www.stellenboschtourism.co.za; Preston-Whyte, 2000: 107; Demhardt, 2003: 120).
Stellenbosch American Express Wine Routes	The Stellenbosch American Express Wine Routes is a successful wine tourism promotion organisation, as well as the leader of the South African Wine Routes Forum [www.wineroute.co.za; South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB), 2005; Joubert, 2005; Dube, 2005a].
Strategic marketing	Strategic marketing is a market-driven process of strategy development that takes into account a constantly changing business environment and the need to deliver superior value (Cravens and Piercy, 2003: 31); it can also be regarded as a process of choosing customer value, and includes customer segmentation, market selection and positioning, as well as scanning environment (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 36).
Strategic marketing direction	Strategic marketing direction means the "overall strategy" of a corporation (Nelson, 2006). Within this study, two strategic marketing directions of the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market have been identified, namely (i) augmented strategic marketing direction; and/or (ii) independent strategic marketing direction.
Subculture	Subdivisions of a culture that provide more specific identification and socialisation such as nationalities, religions, racial groups and geographical regions (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G7).
Tactical marketing	Marketing tactics include product features, promotion, merchandising, pricing, sales channels and service (Kotler and Keller, 2006: G8).
Test of differences	An investigation of a hypothesis stating that two or more groups differ with respect to measures on a variable (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 683).
Tourism	Tourism is an activity in which people spend a period of time away from home for business, pleasure or other travelling purposes (George, 2004: 402); this research focuses on the pleasure aspect, namely leisure and holiday tourism.
Tourism industry	The sum of the industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services mainly for tourist consumption (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 46); the industry includes four components: attractions, accommodation, transportation and support services, as well as intermediaries (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 39).
Tourism marketing	Tourism marketing is the process through which a tourism organisation identifies and satisfies customer wants and needs in order to achieve sales activities for a profitable or efficient purpose by way of effective strategies (George, 2004: 23).
Tourism offering/product	A tourism offering is a combination of services, which deliver primarily intangible, sensual and psychological benefits but, which also include some tangible elements (George, 2004: 188).
Tourist	A visitor whose visit extends for at least one night and whose main purpose of the visit may be classified under one of the following three groups: (1) leisure and holiday; (2) business and professional; and (3) other tourism purposes (Medlik, 2003: 167). This research focuses on the first group.
Tourist experience	Tourist experience is a complex combination of factors that shape the tourist's feelings and attitudes towards his or her visit; tourist experience is different for each individual because it is formed through a series of value judgments that are based on emotional and physical responses to a site that results in satisfaction/dissatisfaction with one or more component of the site (Page, 2003: 239).

Tourist market The overall group of consumers that engage in some form of tourism-related travel (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 195).

Tourist attractions Specific and generic features of a destination that attract tourists; some, but not all, attractions are parts of the tourism industry (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 162).

Tour leader Tour manager/director/conductor/escort/courier is the person who is employed as the escort for a group of tourists, usually for the duration of the entire tour; according to the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system, a Chinese outbound tour-group's tour-leader should come from the travel agency that has organised the tour, and cannot be supplemented by a local agency.

Tour group Generally, a Chinese outbound leisure tour group includes no less than five tourists and one or two tour leaders from the origin travel agency, as well as a local tour guide from the destination travel agency; sometimes, it may also include a language translator, a tour guide from the origin travel agency and a second tour leader from the organisational buyer.

Tour operator Belongs to intermediaries, while a tour operator is an organisation that strictly handles the operations of the tour (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 53).

Tour wholesaler Belongs to intermediaries, while a tour wholesaler can be defined as a middleman (individual or organisation) that compiles tours and all their components and the sells these tour packages through their own company, retail outlets and/or through approved retail travel agencies to the consumer (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 53).

Transportation Transportation can be defined as the means to reach a destination, as well as the means to move around within a destination; a component of the tourism industry and mainly includes road, air, water/sea and railway transport (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 48).

Travel agents/agencies Belongs to intermediaries, where a travel agent/agency can be defined as a middleman (individual or organisation), which sells the travel's individual parts or a combination of the parts to the consumer (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 55) or provides retail travel services to customers for commission on behalf of other tourism industry sectors (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 151), which can be divided into (1) full-service, (2) corporate and (3) specialty travel agency. According to the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system, both origin and destination travel agencies, which have qualifications to serve Chinese outbound tourists, should be designated by the National Tourism Administration of the People's Republic of China (CNTA).

t-test [Independent samples t-test] A test for hypotheses stating that the mean scores for some interval- or ratio-scaled variable grouped based on some less than interval classificatory variable (Zikmund and Babin, 2007: 557).

Wants Needs that are learned during a person's life (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: G11).

Word association test Projective test in which the interviewer says a word and the respondent mentions the first thing that comes to mind (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G6).

Western Cape The Western Cape is the principal destination for international tourists within South Africa. It is also the main wine producing area and wine tourism destination in the country (Rudman, 1999: 37; Preston-Whyte, 2000: 107; Joubert, 2004).

Wine route A wine route is a wine region, which delivers wine tourism value. Its participants include wineries, agritourist enterprises, public bodies, restauranteurs, hoteliers, tour operators and travel agencies, specialty product distributors, as well as tourists, recreation, cultural, environmental, sport and other associations, schools and other teaching establishments and complementary service providers (Cambourne, Hall *et al.*, 2000: 37).

The Wine Routes	This refers to the Western Cape Wine Routes within the South African Winelands, which is mainly in the Western Cape and is plotted in some sub-regions by winegrowing areas and districts; the Wine Routes, as a touristic product or destination, also includes 15 sub-wine-regions that are used for wine tours (refer to Figure 1.3 and Figure 1.4) (Hobson and Collins, 1997: 7; Preston-Whyte, 2000: 107).
Winescapes	Winelands or wine routes, which are cultural landscapes significantly influenced by the presence of vineyards, wineries and other features, are associated with viticulture and wine production; an essential element of wine-focused tourism (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 140).
Wines of South Africa (WOSA)	Wines of South Africa (WOSA) is an independent, nonprofit marketing body of the country's wine industry, which has a responsibility to promote South Africa's wine products and wine tourism globally [www.wosa.co.za; South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB), 2005].
Wine tourist	According to Mitchell, Hall and McIntosh (2000: 119), a wine tourist is one who visits vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for the purposes of recreation.
The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)	The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) is an international agency, which formulates tourism policies worldwide and represents public sector tourism organisations from most countries (www.unwto.org; George, 2004: 402).
Wine tourism	Visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows where grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine region, are the prime motivating factors for visitors (Hall, Johnson, Cambourne, Macionis, Mitchell and Sharples, 2000: 3).
Wine tourist	According to Mitchell, Hall and McIntosh (2000: 119), a wine tourist is one who visits vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for the purposes of recreation.
Word-of-mouth	World-of-mouth (WOM) communication is communication that occurs when consumers share information with friends about products and/or promotions such as good deals on particular products, valuable coupons in newspapers or on sale at a retail store (Peter and Olson, 2005: 556).
Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR)	Tourists who stay in the homes of friends and relatives while at a holiday destination (George, 2004: 402).
Visitor	A widely used term for someone who makes a visit to an attraction; visitors are not all tourists in the technical sense, since they will not all spend at least one night away from home (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 438).
ZAR	South African currency Rand; ZAR1=CNY0.894 (Yahoo Finance, 18 July 2008).

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

China is an increasingly growing large economy in the world, buoyed by a rising middle class, hungry for products and service. A supposition, in this research, is that China's huge consumptive market may offer a huge potential opportunity in its outbound tourism for the wine tourism sector within the South African tourism industry, which also implicates the South African wine industry.

This research is resident in a tourism context and has focused on the demand side [tourists] by using psychographics to ascertain and explain motivations of Chinese tourists and their perceptions and behavioural preferences towards the Western Cape Wine Routes as a destination component of South Africa. As a result, this research has generated a blueprint in respect of marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, based on a relevant conceptual framework within strategic marketing with an aim to attract more Chinese tourists to visit South Africa, in particular the Western Cape and its wine routes. Within this chapter, the research problem setting and its background, along with a literature review, research delimitations, demarcation of the study field, study aims and prospective outcomes, as well as a brief introduction of research methodology and an outline of the report structure, are presented.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The tourism industry is important within South Africa's economy. Since Approved Destination Status (ADS) was gained from the National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA) in 2003, South African Tourism (SAT) has struggled to attract more Chinese outbound tourists to visit the country. However, South Africa has a small share in this market, which has fluctuated during recent years. Therefore, a possibility to promote new wine offerings, in terms of the Western Cape Wine Routes, as a destination component of South Africa, in China, may enrich and strengthen South Africa's attractiveness to attract more Chinese visitors so that they may extend their stay length, engage in a geographical spread and stimulate their expenditure in South Africa, particularly within the Western Cape area.

A conceptual framework to understand the underlying psychographics of Chinese tourists towards the Western Cape Wine Routes as a destination component of South Africa, and their travel behaviour, can lead to a blueprint, which relates to attracting Chinese tourists to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes. In other words, this study can formulate certain marketing recommendations, on a strategic level, in order to facilitate the Western Cape Wine Routes, and further interest in South Africa as a national destination in China. At present, no other study has been conducted in respect of linking the Western Cape Wine Routes and China outbound tourists. There is, therefore, a need for this research project.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW AND BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

In order to clarify and understand this research problem and its implications, the problem's background is introduced as follows, which includes several aspects, namely: (1) South Africa's inbound tourism and its growth strategy, (2) China outbound tourism, (3) current Chinese tourists to South Africa, (4) inbound tourism and (5) wine routes in the Western Cape, as well as (6) wine tourism and wine tourists in China.

1.3.1 SOUTH AFRICA'S INBOUND TOURISM AND ITS GROWTH STRATEGY

South Africa is a world-class destination, which attracts foreign tourists annually with its tourism industry already playing an important role [Burger, 2004: 33; Mintel, 2005: 22; South Africa, Department of Environment Affairs and Tourism (SA DEAT), 2005: 2]. According to South African Tourism (SAT) (2007b: 8), in 2006, tourism contributed ZAR142 billion (8.3%) to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of South Africa and was responsible for 947,530 in employment. As shown below in Table 1.1, South African Tourism (SAT) (2008) also reports that South Africa recorded 9.1 million foreign tourists in 2007 that represented an 8.3% increase since 2006, which raised the compound average growth rate between 2002 and 2007 to 7.4%.

Table 1.1: Foreign tourists to South Africa (million) and their expenditures (billion)

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Foreign Tourists	6.4m	6.5m	6.7m	7.4m	8.4m	9.1m
Total Foreign Direct Expenditures (ZAR)	48.8bn	53.9bn	49.0bn	65.4bn	74.2bn	*n/a*

Source: Data from SAT (2003; 2004b; 2005a; 2006a; 2007a; 2007b; 2008)

In order to further develop international markets, the South African government has established the [South African] Tourism Growth Strategy (SA TGS) 2005-2007 (SAT, 2004a: 12), which recognises the mandate and key strategic objectives in a vision for tourism as follows:

> *"The Tourism Act's mandate to South African Tourism (SAT) is: (1) sustainable gross domestic product (GDP) growth; (2) sustainable job creation; and (3) redistribution and transformation;*
> *… through six key objectives: (1) increase in tourism volume; (2) increase tourist spend; (3) increase length of stay; (4) improve geographic spread; (5) improve seasonality patterns; and (6) promote transformation;*
> *…by acting in a focused way to: (1) understand the market; (2) choose attractive segments; (3) market the destination; (4) facilitate the removal; (5) facilitate the product platform; and (6) monitor and learn from tourist experience."*

Hence, within this study, the above Tourism Growth Strategy (TGS) has been regarded as the existent research direction in terms of understanding the demands of Chinese tourists of the Wine Routes in the Western Cape, which include a choice of attractive segments, as well as marketing the Wine Routes appropriately in a quest to attract more Chinese tourists.

1.3.2 CHINA'S OUTBOUND TOURISM MARKET

China is a huge source-market for global tourism (Mintel, 2003: 1). According to the State Statistics Bureau of China (SSBC) (2008a), China's outbound travellers exceeded 41.0 million in 2007. The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2003) notes that: "*China (mainland) will have 100 million outbound travellers, the fourth largest source of outbound travel in the world, by 2020*". However, the Economic Intelligence Unit (EIU) (Hooke, 2005) and the National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA) (2007c), deem that this number of 100 million travellers will be reached by 2015. Furthermore, according to AC Nielsen and the Tax Free World Association (TFWA)[1], in 2004, China's total tourist expenditures, per outbound trip, ranked second in the world (People's Daily, 2005).

Table 1.2: Chinese outbound travellers (million) and their expenditures (USD billion)

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Outbound Travellers	16.6m	20.2m	28.8m	31.0m	34.5m	41.0m
Outbound Spending (USD)	15.3bn	15.1bn	19.1bn	21.8bn	24.3bn	*n/a*

Source: Data from SSBC (2008); State Administration of Foreign Exchange of China (SAFEC) (2008)

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2003: 10) and South African Tourism (SAT) (2006b: 17), most Chinese outbound tourists, especially leisure travellers, are generated from China's southeast coastal areas, particularly large and well-developed cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Shenzhen. Except for the booming economy, a dynamic source, which drives Chinese outbound tourism, within these cities in particular, is a shift in social structure in terms of an increased middle class with regard to aspects of Western lifestyle (UNWTO, 2003: 8; W.X. Zhang, 2005).

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2003: 8) notes that this rising Chinese middle class, which is a major segment in the country's outbound tourism market, has pursued and afforded high quality in respect of their leisure and travelling. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) (2004) reports that the China Academy of Social Sciences (CASS) has forecasted that the Chinese middle class will amount to 40% by 2020. As a result, the European Tour Operator Association (ETOA) (2005) notes that 25 million Chinese have the same spending power as Europeans (until 2004).

Due to related policies, economic and cultural reasons, major destinations for Chinese outbound tourists are in the Asia and Pacific region, and while the share of long-haul international tourists is still rather small, its number is markedly increasing, especially to West Europe and North America (Zhang, 2006a: 4). Sightseeing or "eye-opening" are among the main reasons for outbound trips, since many Chinese tourists travel overseas for the first time. However, Zhang (2006a) and Xu (2005: 5) have argued that

[1] The survey included some 1,500 Chinese consumers in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou who travelled overseas in the recent half year on business or for recreation purpose.

this infant travelling motivation is quickly varied along with changes in traditional ways of thinking among sophisticated tourists in China, while range from "saving money" to "spending money", from "save for other" to "enjoy themselves", from "purchase of goods" to "seeking personal experience and well-being". Meanwhile, travel motivations, behaviours and destination choices of Chinese outbound tourists, are notably influenced by the Government's tourism policy, such as the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system, especially with regard to travels for pure leisure purposes (Wikipedia, 2006; Zhang, 2006b: 13).

The Approved Destination Status (ADS) agreement confirms the signed country as an approved destination for Chinese residents to travel to for pure leisure purposes, which is an innovation of China's outbound tourism policy and was established in 1983. An agreement should be established by both signatory parties, under this agreement, while the mode of travel to the destination country is decided by both governments, in the form of a packaged tour (organised by a Chinese government designated travel agency, including a minimum number of tourists and one tour leader from the agency) or by free independent travel (FIT). Until 2007, a majority of the world's countries or regions had gained Approved Destination Status (ADS), but only a few, such as Hong Kong and Macau, can permissibly engage in free independent travel (FIT) (Mintel, 2003: 11; SAT, 2006a: 13; Zhang, 2006b).

1.3.3 CURRENT CHINESE TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

China has been defined as one of the most important target markets for South Africa's inbound tourism by the South Africa National Tourism Organisation (SA NTO) [SA DEAT and Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), 2004: 9] since 2000, while South Africa was granted Approved Destination Status (ADS) (in 2003) by the National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA) (SAT, 2006b: 21). Since then, the number of Chinese arrivals, although South African Tourism (SAT) pays much attention to develop this market (Jin, 2004; Nyembezi, 2005), is still limited and has remained in a fluctuating state for the last few years, as shown in Table 1.3. Meanwhile, the Total Direct Expenditure of Chinese visitors in South Africa, also reflects undulation and is not in accord with the changing number of Chinese arrivals.

Table 1.3: Chinese tourists and their total direct expenditure (million) in South Africa

Item	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Chinese Tourists	36,957	42,822	51,080	44,228	41,962	47,378
Total Direct Spending (ZAR)	500.9m	717.7m	498.5m	397.0m	428.0m	*n/a*

Source: Data from SAT (2003: 66; 2004b: 91; 2005a: 95; 2006a: 37; 2007a: 104; 2008)

According to South African Tourism (SAT) (2003: 64; 2005a: 93-94; 2006a: 87; 2007a: 104), Chinese tourist arrivals in South Africa are broken down into provincial distribution, as shown in Figure 1.1, which also indicates that more than half of them had visited the Western Cape during 2002-2006.

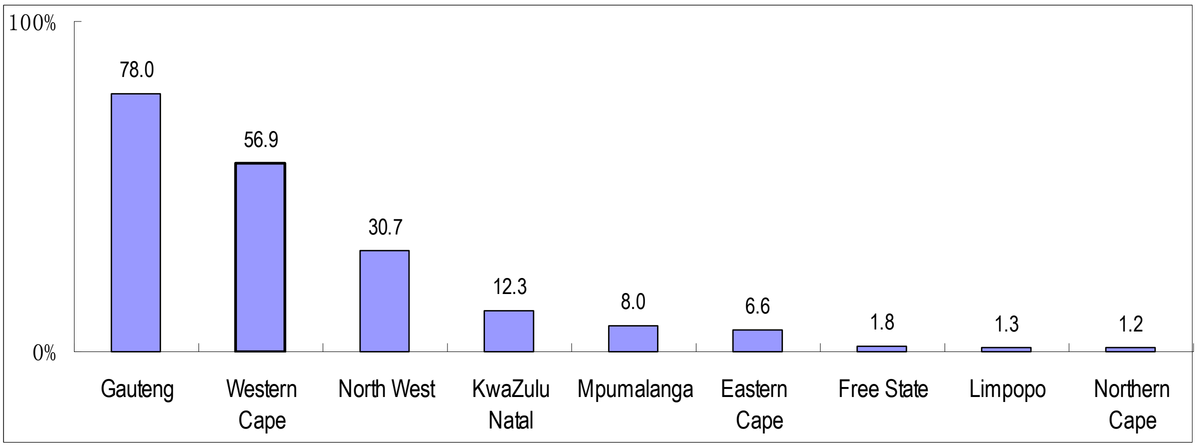

Figure 1.1: Provincial distribution of Chinese tourists in South Africa (*)
Source: Adapted from SAT (2006a: 87-88) * multiple alternatives

While the above outline tallies with the previous review of Chinese outbound tourism, South African Tourism (SAT) (2006b: 17) notes that most Chinese tourists to South Africa are also from Beijing, Shanghai and the Guangdong Province (Guangzhou and Shenzhen). According to South African Tourism (SAT) (2006b: 33-34), South Africa targets a current market segment, which includes a potential 2.5 million consumers from within Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Shenzhen, while a further 12.9 million consumers for South Africa's extended market are from within the wealthiest provinces in China. Although the average length of stay is 16 nights, most Chinese visitors stay in Sough Africa for only 7 nights (SAT, 2006a: 77), which implicates a standardised product package for Chinese tourists that is proposed by South African Tourism (SAT) (refer to Table 1.4).

Table 1.4: A standardised holiday package in South Africa for Chinese tourists

Day 1	Depart to Johannesburg, South Africa
Day 2	Sightseeing in Johannesburg; visit the Gold Mine city and watch the mining process
Day 3	Leave for Sun City; enjoy a day amongst the wildlife at Pilanesburg; try luck at casino at night
Day 4	Visit the Lion Park and then head for the Museum after lunch; visit diamond mining in the afternoon
Day 5	Arrive in Cape Town in the morning; stop at ostrich farm and eat ostrich lunch
Day 6	Visit Seal Island; sightseeing at the Cape of Good Hope; visit penguin beach; back to Cape Town
Day 7	Shop at V&A shopping centre and head for the airport after lunch
Day 8	Arrive in China the next day

Source: Data from SAT (2006b: 20)

From the above itinerary, the number of Chinese tourists to South Africa appears limited in terms of their expenditure and length-of-stay within the country, while a current tourism product-mix is outlined. While South African Tourism (SAT) strategically positions the country as a "*low scale product*" in China (SAT, 2006b: 17), South Africa's national tourism minister believes that China will become one of the country's top three sources of tourists by 2010, while a survey conducted by South African Tourism (SAT) reflects growing interest in South Africa as a prime destination for Chinese tourists, since a majority of the respondents in the survey stated that they have a "*great interest*" in South Africa and said that they would place it at the top of their destination list, hereby, a potential market of 30 million has been extrapolated (Liu and Sun, 2006). However, as an "*investment market*" (SA DEAT and DTI, 2004: 10) for South Africa, the China outbound tourism market is worthy and meaningful for study in various aspects such as promoting new offerings (wine tourism), which would enrich and strengthen South Africa's unique attractiveness.

1.3.4 INBOUND TOURISM IN THE WESTERN CAPE

The tourism sector is a major contributor to the Western Cape's economy (CTRU, 2005: 5). According to Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTUR) (2003: 15), the Western Cape is South Africa's leading destination for foreign tourists and has done particularly well in the leisure holiday component of the international tourism market. The provincial tourism industry's vision is as follows (CTRU, 2005:4):

"To be regarded as African visionary organisation and global role model responsible for securing Cape Town and the Western Cape's position as the No.1 experience destination for business, events and leisure tourism, doubling tourism's contribution to the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 2014."

During the past few years, the Western Cape has been the second most visited province by foreign tourists in the country (SAT, 2006a: 51). According to Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU) (2006: 1), the Western Cape had 21.6% of South Africa's international arrivals in 2005, of which approximately 1.6 million had visited the Western Cape and spent more than 16 million nights and ZAR14.9 billion in this province. The Provincial Government notes that tourism accounted for 9.8% of the Gross Geographic Product (GGP) and employed 9.6% of the province's workforce in 2004 (CTRU, 2005: 5). Meanwhile, this province is also a major destination for Chinese leisure tourists to South Africa (SAT, 2006a: 88).

Among niche and sub-sector tourism in the Western Cape, wine tourism is one of the major products for international visitors (CTRU, 2003: 66; CTRU, 2005: 5). Figure 1.2 shows the most popular landmarks and attractions in the Western Cape for international tourists [during 2004]:

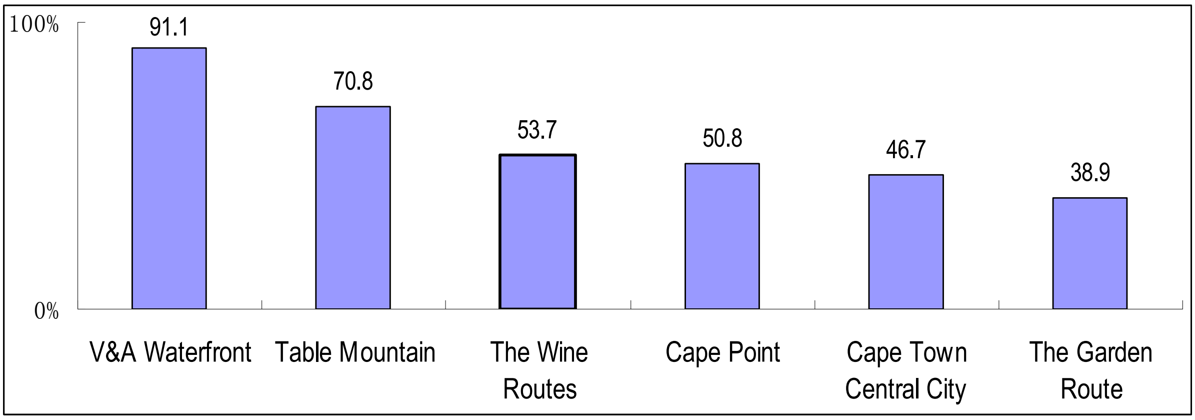

Figure 1.2: Landmarks and attractions visited in the Western Cape by foreign tourists (*)

Source: Adapted from SAT (2005b) * multiple alternatives

1.3.5 WINE TOURISM AND WINE ROUTES IN THE WESTERN CAPE

In the tourism industry, wine tourism can be regarded as a Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market (Derrett, 2001: 3; Bruwer, 2003: 423). At the same time, it is a significant component of both the wine and tourism industries globally. Hall, Johnson, Cambourne, Macionis, Mitchell and Sharples (2000:1) have depicted a linkage between wine and tourism, as:

> *"Wine and tourism have been intimately connected for many years, but it is only recently that this relationship has come to be explicitly recognised by governments, researchers and by the industries themselves. For the tourism industry, wine is an important component of the attractiveness of a destination and can be a major motivating factor for visitors; for the wine industry, wine tourism is an important, strategic way to approach consumers, offer experiences and directly sell products."*

In retrospect to European colonisers overseas, the history of viticulture and viniculture in South Africa began during the mid-seventeenth century (WOSA, 2005; Cape Wine Academy, 2005: 11). According to Tassiopoulos, Nuntsu and Haydam (2004: 52), South Africa's winegrowing areas (winelands) are mostly in the Western Cape Province (of 95%) but other smaller areas include the Northern Cape, Free State and the Gauteng Province, whose geographical distribution of winegrowing is depicted in Figure 1.3:

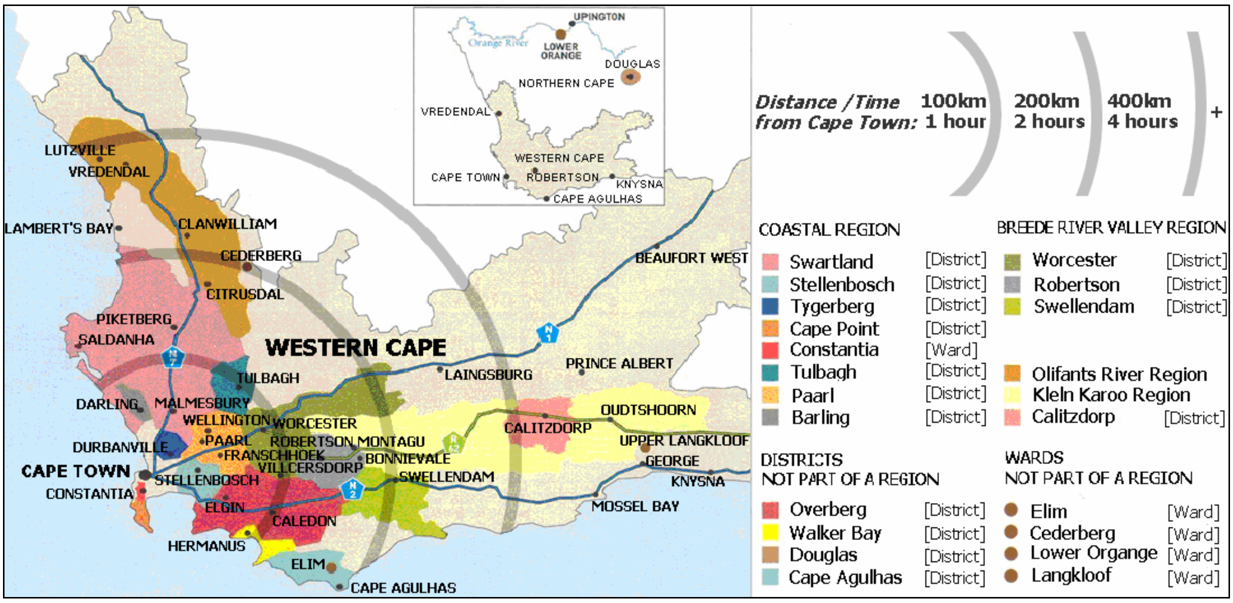

Figure 1.3: Winegrowing areas in South Africa

Source: Adapted from WOSA (2006: 3)

According to the International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV) (2006: 46), the South African Wine Information and Systems (SAWIS) (2006) and Wines of South Africa (WOSA) (2005c), South Africa produced 3.1% of the total global wine production in 2005, and was ranked number nine among the world wine producing countries, since its wine industry is an important sector in the country's economy [257,000 direct and indirect employment, ZAR16.3 billion and 1.5% of the total GDP in 2004], with the

Western Cape Province, in particular [ZAR11.4 billion and 8.2% of the total GGP in 2004]; furthermore, some ZAR4.2 billion and 59,000 persons in employment, were generated through wine tourism in 2004.

The South African Wine Industry Strategy Plan (in 2003) identifies wine tourism as a major strategic approach for the country's wine industry to "brand South Africa" in promoting and marketing South African wine products internationally [South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB), 2003: 16]. The South African Wine Tourism Steering Committee (SAWTSC) is led by the South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB) and Wines of South Africa (WOSA), under the national Government's authorisation (SAWB, 2005). It works with national and local tourism bodies to establish linkages and support systems for regional tourism events, wine routes, exhibitions, shows and related opportunities, as well as for the promotion of the Cape's wine tourism abroad (SAWB, 2003: 31).

Cape Town and the Cape Winelands is a member of the Global Network of Great Wine Capital, along with Melbourne (Australia), Bordeaux (France), San Francisco-Napa Valley (America), Bilbao-Rioja (Spain), Porto (Portugal), Florence (Italy) and Mendoza (Argentina) (Dube, 2005a; Cape Times, 2006). The Strategic Tourism Marketing Framework for Cape Town and the Western Cape (in 2003) identifies that wine tourism is not only a tourist product, but also a basic feature in the brand strategy of the local tourism industry (CTRU, 2003: 26). In other words, wine tourism is implicated to create and experience an ambience, culture, lifestyle and distinctive image for the Western Cape, while, at the same time, it can further enrich and strengthen the attractiveness of South Africa as a destination.

As an embodiment of wine tourism in the country, the Wine Routes in the Western Cape formally emerged since the establishment of South Africa's first wine route in the Stellenbosch area in 1971 (Stellenbosch American Express Wine Routes, 2005). The historical and cultural town of Stellenbosch and its vineyards is one of the most popular attractions for international visitors in the Western Cape (Joubert, 2004; WOSA, 2005d). Preston-Whyte (2000: 107) notes that the success of the Stellenbosch wine route further draws the development of adjoining regions, since increasing wine routes, beyond the Stellenbosch area, have become more recognised by travellers. Figure 1.4 lists fifteen main wine routes with their brand marks among the Wine Routes in the Western Cape.

There is more than merely wine for tourists who visit Cape Town and the Western Cape, though a specific aim may be to visit the Wine Routes, as they can also indulge in its associated experiences such as taking in the scenic beauty of the region, patrimony of Cape Dutch architecture, discovery of a unique lifestyle and local culture, rural setting, as well as universities, golfing, spas, arts and crafts (Dube, 2005a). Because of these multiple attractions and its wide geographical distribution, the Wine Routes not only contribute to an increase in the number of international tourist arrivals to South Africa, and, in particular, the Western Cape, but it can also extend the geographic spread of visitors in order to protract their length of stay and increase their expenditure.

Figure 1.4: Main wine routes in the Western Cape

Source: Adapted from WOSA (2005e)

1.3.6 WINE TOURISM AND WINE TOURISTS IN CHINA

China has a 6,000 year history of grape growing and a 2,000 year history of wine making, although its modern wine industry began with the establishment of the Chang Yu Winery in Yantai[1] (in the Shandong Province) at the end of the nineteenth century. Since the 1990's, wine began to be widely accepted by general consumers in the Chinese mainland, along with social and economic development, increased incomes and official encouragement (Eijkhoff, 2000: 3; Robinson, 2003; Berberoglu, 2004). However, according to Vinexpo and International Wine and Spirit Research (2006), as well as the International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV) (2006: 7, 46, 51), China had 487,000 hectares of vineyards (number five in the world) until 2005, when the country produced 3.9 million hectolitres of wine (number seven in the world) and consumed 4.2 million hectolitres (number ten in the world).

Along with the development of China's wine industry and its expanded wine market, its wine tourism has emerged, albeit at an infant stage (Kong, 2006). According to Reiss (2005), Li, Wei, Li and Song (2005), San (2006), Collins, Liu and Murphy (2006), Wang, Liu and Murphy (2006) and Pape (2007), the emergence of China's wine tourism is implicated in several social and economic issues, such as:

(i) Economic development and social transformation in China, which are the most important infrastructure for tourism and the wine market, as well as the connection in terms of wine tourism;

[1] Yantai City was named "International Vine and Wine City" by the OIV in 1987 (www.oiv.int/uk/accueil/index.php).

(ii) The rising middle class in China's big cities (such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Shenzhen), with their high educational background, good occupations and income, westernised lifestyle and increasing leisure time, are the greatest segments for both the tourism and wine markets;

(iii) Internal push-factors, which are from China's wine and tourism industries and the Government's policies, drive the development of wine tourism in China because they have recognised the contributions of wine tourism for themselves and the local economy; and

(iv) External pull-factors, which originate from major wine producing countries (also tourism wine destinations) in the world, promote their wine tourism in China in order to market their inbound tourism, as well as to create diversifying marketing approaches to export wines, which may educate and catalyse the Chinese wine tourist market.

Due to historical and modern industrial reasons, winegrowing areas in China are broad, but are highlighted in several regions, such as the Yantai area in the Shandong Province, the Turpan area in the Xinjiang Province and the Changli area in the Hebei Province (Berberoglu, 2004; San, 2006). These highlighted wine regions are also major wine tourism destinations in China. The first formal one was in Yantai at the Chang Yu Winery, which was launched in 1992 (Li *et al*., 2005; Wang *et al*., 2006: 72; Du, 2006). There were nearly two million tourists who visited the Chang Yu Winery from 1992 to 2005[1] (Wang *et al*., 2006: 74); including its Wine Culture Museum, which has attracted nearly 200,000 visitors and has contributed approximately USD200 million to tourism income in 2005 (San, 2006).

Meanwhile, some wine tourism destination countries such as Australia, France, Italy and Spain attempt to promote their wine tourism in China in order to attract tourists and to export wine products (WOSA, 2004; W.X. Zhang, 2005; Qian, 2006; Wine Tour, 2006; Lo Tour, 2006). An example is that 129,600 Chinese tourists visited Melbourne in 2005, which is a famous wine tourism region in Australia (Tourism Australia, 2006: 20), however, there is no specific figure on the statistics of outbound Chinese wine tourists (Greeff, 2005; Viljoen, 2005a; Fan, 2006; Jones, 2006; Boyce, 2007; Dai, 2007) because this new consumer segment has only recently been appreciated, while the purposes of Chinese outbound tourists may be more complex via one trip.

In South Africa, some local tourism bodies and wine tourism operators in the Western Cape such as Wines of South Africa (WOSA) (Morgenthal, 2005, 2007), Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU) (Dube, 2005b), the Cape Winelands District Municipality (Johnson, 2005; Harrison, 2005), Stellenbosch Tourism Information Bureau (STIB) (Viljoen, 2005b), Stellenbosch American Wine Routes (Waterford, 2005) and Paarl Tourism (Frater, 2006), intend to link wine tourism with Chinese tourists; similarly,

[1] In 2002, its domestic tourists include 30% from Beijing, 15% from Shanghai (Li *et al.*, 2005).

South African wine businesspersons have also proposed to "*resort to the Approved Destination Status (ADS) in concentrating on wine tourism to market South African wines in China"* (WOSA, 2005a). However, conversely, there is limited knowledge about Chinese wine tourists here, particularly regarding the implications between them and the Western Cape Wine Routes in South Africa. Therefore, against this background, a presumable solution (by psychological and demographic studies) may accurately determine the market opportunity in detail, which will contribute to the body of knowledge on wine tourism in South Africa, as well as benefit South Africa's inbound tourism market.

1.4 RESEARCH DELIMITATIONS

In order to clarify the scope of this research, five delimitations of the research have been determined:

(1) Firstly, this research belongs within a context of tourism marketing, although the Western Cape Wine Routes has some implications for the marketing of exporting South African wines;
(2) Secondly, used as a reference, the industry side of wine tourism has been considered by ways of a simple environment scan and several executive interviews with the industry practitioners, but this study focused on the consumer side in term of Chinese tourists who visit at the Western Cape area;
(3) Furthermore, considering that this Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market is wine-related, which implies alcohol law, the target population of this research should not be under the age of 18 years;
(4) Fourthly, there are several factors that may impact on consumer psychology and behaviour, while consumer behaviour can be changed over time. The research focuses on current motivations, perceptions and travel preferences of Chinese tourists with regards to the Wine Routes; and
(5) Lastly, political issues such as government tourism policies [China's outbound travel policy and South Africa's visa policy], are excluded from the research.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY FIELD

The study field was compartmentalised into four aspects, which can clarify and cover holistic research scopes. These four aspects included tourism, marketing, consumer study and wine tourism, which were studied from a broad study field, and was moved to a crossed area and focused on the specific context of tourist behaviour and wine tourism.

Furthermore, in order to be more logical and well-knit, the theory of these four aspects are integrated and layered into three hierarchies, in terms of three chapters within the literature review of the final report, namely Chapter Two (Tourism and Marketing), Chapter Three (Consumer Behaviour in Tourism) and Chapter Four (Wine Tourism). This demarcation of the study field is displayed in Figure 1.5.

CHAPTER TWO:
LITERATURE REVIEW OF TOURISM AND MARKETING

A TOURISM PERSPECTIVE

- Tourism Conception
- Definition and Classification of Tourists
- Special Interest Tourism (SIT)
- Tourism Industry

MARKETING PRINCIPLES IN TOURISM

- Nature of Services
- Strategic Marketing and Tactical Marketing
- Tourism (Services) Marketing Mix (8Ps)
- Destination Marketing

CHAPTER THREE:
LITERATURE REVIEW OF MODELLING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN TOURISM

AN OVERVIEW OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

- Consumer Characteristics
- Consumer Psychology
- Buying Decision Process

CONSUMER BEHAVIOURAL ASPECTS IN TOURISM MARKETING

- Modelling Tourist Behaviour
- Psychological Factors in Tourism

CHAPTER FOUR:
LITERATURE REVIEW OF WINE TOURISM

- A History of Wine and Vine
- A Theoretical Framework of Wine Tourism
- Consumer Behavioural Aspects in Wine Tourism
- Wine Tourism in Destination Marketing

Figure 1.5: Three hierarchies of the demarcation of the study field

1.6 THE STUDY AIMS

1.6.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

There are five objectives, which should be achieved by this research, which may contribute as solutions to the research problem. They are presented as follows:

(1) To ascertain the motivations of Chinese tourists towards the Western Cape Wine Routes;

(2) To discover the preferences of Chinese tourists in choosing wine tourism destinations;

(3) To identify the perceptions of Chinese tourists toward the Western Cape Wine Routes;

(4) To describe the demographic profile of Chinese wine tourists, and to compare it with South Africa's current inbound Chinese tourists; and

(5) To make recommendations with regard to the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China.

1.6.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As a process of reaching the mentioned objectives, the following five questions will be responded to by this research in order to achieve solutions to the research problem.

(1) Do Chinese tourists travel for purposes of wine-related tourism?
(2) What do they prefer instead of wine tourism?
(3) How do Chinese tourists consider the Western Cape Wine Routes as a travel destination?
(4) What are the demographic characteristics of Chinese wine tourists?
(5) Is there any effective approach, at a strategic level, to market Chinese tourists to the Wine Routes?

1.6.3 EXPECTED RESULTS, OUTCOMES AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH

1.6.3.1 ACADEMIC RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

This research focuses on consumers, by means of a psychographic and demographic study, in order to identify and explain the motivations of Chinese wine tourists and their perceptions towards the Western Cape Wine Routes, as well as their travel preferences and demographic profiles, which, as a significant component, may enrich the body of knowledge of wine tourism in South Africa.

1.6.3.2 PRACTICAL RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

A blueprint of the practical results, in terms of a conceptual framework, has been formulated on a strategic level to market more Chinese tourists to South Africa, in particular the Western Cape Wine Routes, which cannot only be used to heighten the competitiveness of South Africa as a tourism destination in China, but can also be regarded as a byproduct that implicates promoting the export of South African wines.

1.6.3.3 POTENTIAL BENEFICIARIES

Firstly, this study may contribute to the bodies of wine tourism in South Africa such as the South African Wine Tourism Steering Committee [South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWBC) and Wines of South Africa (WOSA)], as well as other South African wine tourism/route stakeholders. Secondly, potential beneficiaries also include the National Tourism Organisation (NTO) and the local Destination Marketing Organisations (DMO), namely South African Tourism (SAT), Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU) and the tourism office of the Cape Winelands District Municipality, as well as local wine tourism operators. Thirdly, as a byproduct, the outcomes of this study may also benefit the South African wine industry.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A combination approach, as shown in Figure 1.6, including qualitative studies and a quantitative survey, was designed to achieve the objectives of this exploratory research in nature, which is outlined in the chapter of the research design and methodology, namely Chapter Five. This design was employed because it provides a highly accurate and meaningful account of the phenomenon under study into psychographic and demographic profiles of Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes.

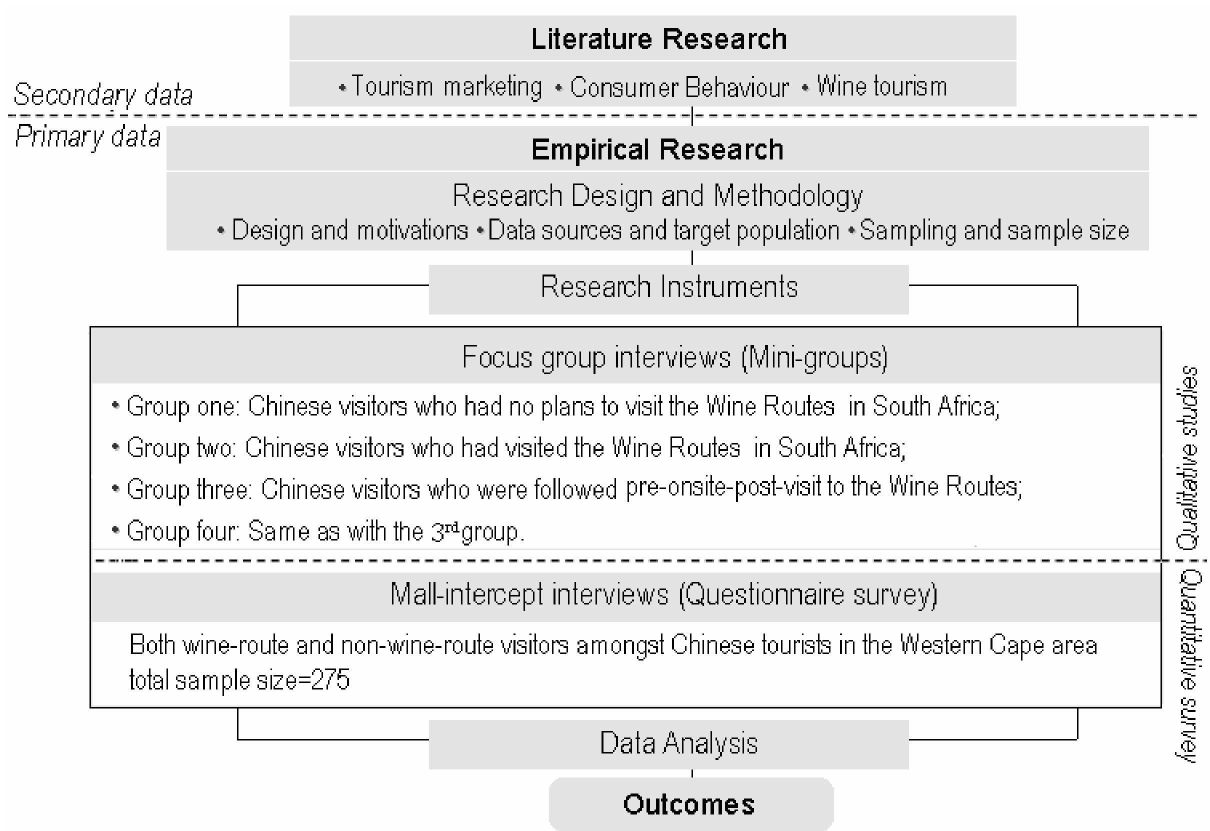

Figure 1.6: Framework of the research design

As shown above in Figure 1.6, following the literature review, a mixed approach was used in the research fieldwork, which included a qualitative study and a quantitative survey. Primarily, in order to probe deep-seated and underlying data in respect of Chinese tourists towards the Western Cape Wine Routes, this qualitative study comprised a set of focus group interviews. Because limited number of Chinese tourists who could be recruited as the participant in the destination [Western Cape], the group interviews were conducted by undertaking four mini-groups. In the South Africa experience, for a comparable relation in studying Chinese tourists, in terms of their experience and non-experience of the Western Cape Wine Routes, where the participants in the fist group who had no plans to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes; and those in the second group who had visited to the Wine Routes. The third and fourth groups were the same, where participants were followed by the researcher from pre-visit to post-visit. The qualifications of participants were identified and filtered by a set of screening questions (refer to Appendix A-1). Furthermore, a discussion guideline was designed and used during the group interviews, which is enclosed as Appendix A-2.

However, there was also a quantitative survey within the investigation of Chinese tourists, which was based on the literature review and the qualitative study, via a quota of survey questionnaires (refer to Appendix B), which discovered Chinese tourists in the Western Cape area in respect of the Wine Routes. This intercept survey at the destination captured some meaningful and exact data directly from the target population in a larger sample size. According to the research delimitations in Section 1.4, the target population should be Chinese tourists in the Western Cape area and from all demographic backgrounds, while not under the age of 18 years because of an alcohol-related clause. Finally, the number of valid respondents, in terms of sample size, was 275. Moreover, as assistant tools, the Statistical Package for Social Science programme (SPSS v12) and Microsoft Excel, were also utilised.

1.8 OUTLINE OF THE REPORT STRUCTURE

With exception of Chapter One, the report has been divided into the following chapters:

Chapter Two is a literature review of tourism and marketing, which is related to a perspective of tourism and marketing principles in tourism. Its first section includes studies of the tourism concept, definitions and classifications of tourists, Special Interest Tourism (SIT) and the tourism industry. Following this, a section introduces the nature of services, strategic and tactical marketing, the tourism marketing mix and destination marketing. As a result, a holistically theoretical framework was produced to support this research.

Chapter Three is also a literature review that tries to model consumer behaviour within tourism. In this chapter, two sections were included in terms of an overview of consumer behaviour and consumer behavioural aspects in tourism. Firstly, general consumer characteristics and psychology, as well as the process of buying decisions, were introduced. The second section is a discussion that is related to a specific tourism area. This chapter provides more detailed theories, which support this tourist study.

Chapter Four covers a theoretical study within wine tourism, which provides exact and direct theory that supports the specific study field. This chapter includes a history of vine and wine, a theoretical framework of wine tourism and consumer behavioural aspects in wine tourism, as well as wine tourism in destination marketing.

Chapter Five considers research design and methodology, which involves four sections, namely research design and required data, a development and discussion of research instruments and data analysis, as well as research limitations. Meanwhile, a motivation of research design was also included in this chapter. However, the models of all instruments, in terms of a moderator's guide of the group interview and a survey questionnaire, are listed in the section of appendices.

Chapter Six includes a presentation and discussion of results, which focuses on the consumer [tourist] side, summarised findings from the research fieldwork and provided an interpretation of the results. The results covered two sub-sections of the fieldwork, namely (1) some qualitative insights of Chinese tourists; and (2) an analysis of quantitative data from intercept interviews with Chinese toruists.

Finally, Chapter Seven deals with the conclusion and recommendations, which include (1) formulated business recommendations at a strategic level in respect of marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes, as a component of the destination [South Africa], in China; and (2) academic suggestions in respect of the possibilities and necessity for further study.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the research problem and its background, which included a literature review. The delimitations and demarcation of the study field were defined, which the research scope, hierarchy and sequence, were clarified. In order to solve the research problem, there are five research objectives and five corresponding questions, which were presented. Furthermore, this chapter has indicated the importance of the research in terms of expected academic and practical results of the research and its potential beneficiaries. Finally, this chapter also briefly introduced the research methodology and provided a general outline of the report structure.

CHAPTER TWO: TOURISM AND MARKETING

In relation to the research problem, the research examined Chinese tourists' psychological behaviour and demographic profiles in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes within a wine tourism marketing context. Therefore, the holistic literature study comprises several aspects, namely tourism, marketing, consumer behaviour and wine tourism, which, together, can construct a theoretical framework for this research.

In order to present a logically, well-knit context structure within the literature study, these three aspects are further reincorporated into three chapters, which deals with the (1) theories of tourism and marketing in Chapter Two and (2) the theories of modelling consumer behaviour in tourism in Chapter Three, which provides (3) a theoretical foundation for the literature study of wine tourism in Chapter Four.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprises theoretical studies, which cover tourism and marketing principles and strategies. Primarily, the tourism study provides a domain perspective, which includes tourism conception, the clarification of tourists and Special Interest Tourism (SIT), as well as an anatomy of the tourism industry. Secondly, the marketing theories and implications in tourism are studied, which involve the nature of services, strategic and tactical marketing, the services of marketing mix in tourism (8Ps), as well as destination marketing. Furthermore, in order to uncover and analyse tourists' psychological behaviour in detail, relevant theories are separated from the marketing principle and studied in the next chapter.

2.2 TOURISM PERSPECTIVE

The tourism perspective involves tourism conception, tourist study and the tourism industry. In the first instance, tourism conception provides a tourism definition, as well as a holistic framework of tourism components and management. Secondly, from a marketing perspective, the tourism sector can simply be divided into a demand component (tourists) and a supply component (industry) (Haydam, 2001: 08):

a) The demand side has to do with tourism markets, people and consumers of products and services such as the tourist (Bennett, 1995: 44), which is the core component of tourism (as shown later in Figure 2.1). In this chapter, the tourist study consists of its definition and classification;
b) The supply side is mainly referred to as the tourism industry, which includes aspects such as attractions, accommodation, transportation and support services (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 39). The literature study of the tourism industry in this chapter focuses on attractions because the Western Cape Wine Routes is regarded as a typical tourist attraction.

2.2.1 THE TOURISM CONCEPTION

The concept of tourism should be seen against the background that tourism is a new and great segment that has been revealed to the global economy (Hollingworth, 2006). As pointed out in Weaver and Lawton (2006: 2), tourism is an increasingly widespread and complex activity that requires sophisticated management in order to realise its full potential as a positive economic, environmental, social and cultural force. Hence, any tourism study should depend on an interdisciplinary approach, which integrates some implicated areas into tourism study. Highlighted themes, among the disciplines, which synthesise tourism study, include economics, geography, history, political science, agriculture, marketing, anthropology, business management, psychology, sociology, ecology, law and history.

It is evident from the above revelation that any definition of tourism is difficult to cover in detail because of all the disciplines and stakeholders within this field. The officially accepted tourism definition from the international organisation responsible for tourism, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (1991), is:

"The activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".

Page (2007: 10) has indicated that the use of this definition by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) makes it possible to identify tourism between countries, as well as tourism within a country. Classifications of tourism can be determined based on the locations of tourist activities, as presented in Pender (2005: 6), which include:

- ◎ Domestic tourism: visits by residents of a country to their own country; and
- ◎ International tourism, namely:
  (a) inbound tourism: visits to a country by nonresidents; and
  (b) outbound tourism: visits by residents of a country to another country.

Another wider definition can be found by Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 5) who have depicted a universal tourism framework and various groups, which play important roles, are interconnected in this framework. All components and their inter-relationships within the tourism field are shown later in Figure 2.1. Hence, tourism may be regarded as a sum of the phenomena and relationships, which arise from interaction among tourists, the tourism industry, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communications and surrounding environments in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing these tourists and other visitors.

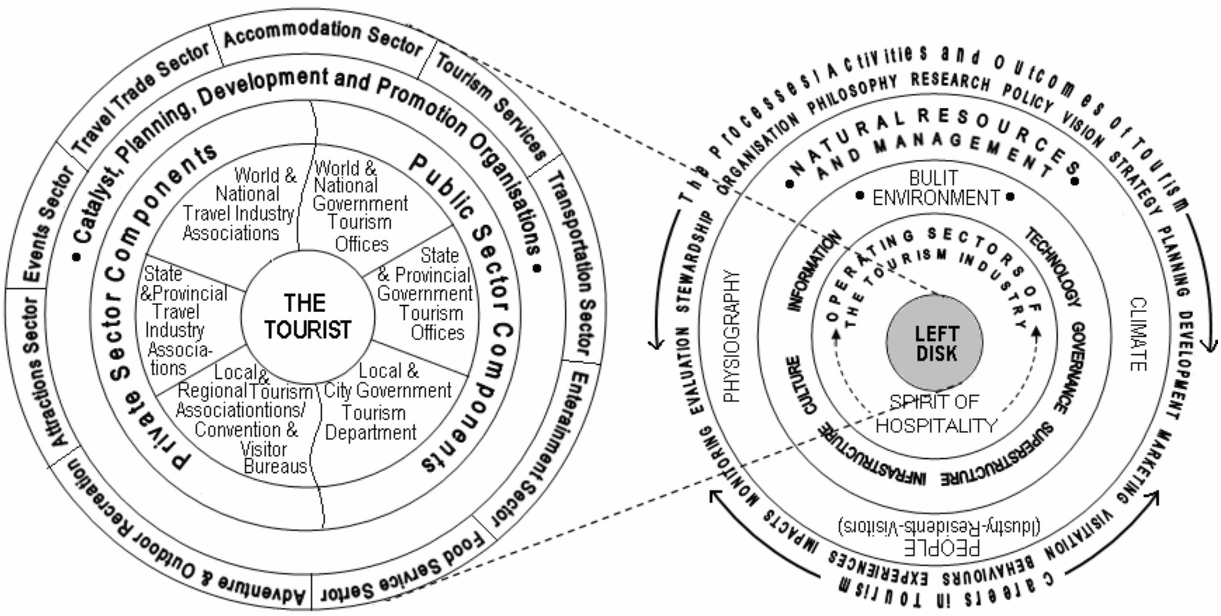

Figure 2.1: Tourism phenomenon: components of tourism and tourism management

Source: Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 14)

Furthermore, Figure 2.1 shows that the tourist, as a core entity within the tourism phenomenon model, is surrounded by all tourism components. It means that there is a need to understand tourists and to satisfy their needs and wants, which is the central mission within the tourism field and also the most important task in any tourism-marketing organisation on both a macro level (such as destination marketing organisations) and micro level (such as travel agencies). Therefore, the focus of the tourism perspective will shift to a definition of a tourist.

2.2.2 DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF TOURISTS

What constitutes a tourist? Referring to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation's (UNWTO) tourism definition earlier, George (2004: 20) has pointed out that tourism is concerned primarily with people who are (i) outside normal routines for work and social commitments; (ii) on a visit that is temporary and short-term; (iii) required to travel to the destination (usually making use of some forms of transport); (iv) usually engaged in activities that would be associated with leisure; and (v) sometimes on business.

Also underlying the afore-mentioned tourism conception, travellers can be described as people on a trip between two or more countries or between two or more localities within their country of usual residence, which, in tourism, are described as "visitors", while all visitors are divided into two categories:

(1) Same-day visitors or excursionists who do not spend the night in collective or private accommodation in the country visited; and
(2) Tourists who stay in the country that is visited for at least one night.

Weaver and Lawton (2006: 18) agree with the United Nations World Tourism Organisation's (UNWTO) concept of a tourist by seeing a tourist as an individual who travels temporarily outside of his or her usual environment for certain qualifying purposes. The travel purpose mentioned earlier, means that the tourist seeks various psychic and physical experiences and satisfactions, which largely determine the destinations that are chosen and the activities that are enjoyed (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006: 5).

Undoubtedly, the idiographic purposes of a visit are various and include leisure or recreation, visiting friends and relatives (VFR), business, sport, health, study or multipurpose (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 33). Based on the main travel purposes, tourists may be classified into three groups: (i) leisure and holiday; (ii) business and professional; and (iii) other tourism purposes.

Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 11) have other ways to classify tourists. Firstly, as per Pender's tourism classification in Section 2.2.1, tourists can be classified by the locations of their activities, namely (i) domestic and (ii) international tourists, while the latter includes (a) outbound and inbound tourists. Secondly, it depends on the distance of the destination(s) in a trip, since tourists can be divided into two types, namely (i) long-haul and (ii) short-haul tourists, while usually the long-haul tourists may visit more than one destination in a trip. All of the above classifications are systematically shown in Figure 2.2.

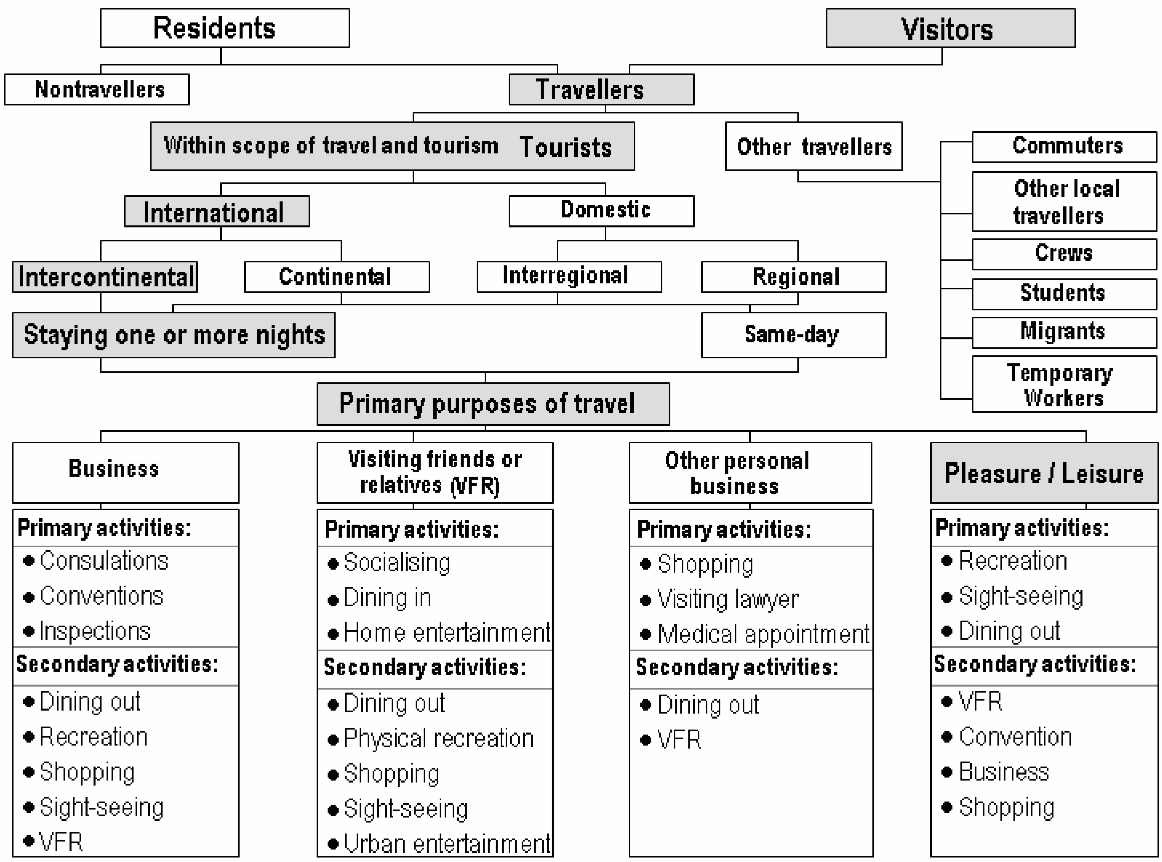

Figure 2.2: Classification of tourists

Source: adapted from Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 11)

Applying this systematic technique to wine tourism, the wine tourist, in particular those who come from foreign countries such as China, to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes, can be depicted by the highlighted flow in Figure 2.2. Chinese tourists who visit the Wine Routes belong to a group termed international leisure travellers who engage in some primary activities such as recreation, sight-seeing and dining out, as well as staying for one or more nights in the winelands or in surrounding areas. Essentially, this (wine-related) case can be classified into the scope of Special Interest Tourism (SIT).

2.2.3 SPECIAL INTEREST TOURISM (SIT)

As a result of the discussion concerning wide travel purposes, the concept of Special Interest Tourism (SIT), has emerged. This is not a new phenomenon although Special Interest Tourism (SIT) may be a new term, which could include various markets that are based on particular travel purposes such as business, cultural, rural, educational, heritage, health, environmental, seniority, sex, festivals and events tourism, as well as wine tourism (Derrett, 2001: 3; George, 2004: 158).

From a conceptual perspective, Special Interest Tourism (SIT) can be regarded as "*the provision of customised leisure and recreational experiences driven by the specific expressed interests of individuals and groups*" (Derrett, 2001: 3). A special interest tourist purchases an offering that satisfies idiographic interests and needs, which means that Special Interest Tourism (SIT) is undertaken for a distinct and specific purpose. Similarly, as mentioned by Poon (1997: 47), this Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market is a phenomenon of large scale packaging of non-standardised tourism offerings at competitive prices to meet demands of tourists and the economic and socio-environmental needs of destinations.

With the characteristics of Special Interest Tourism (SIT), Derrett (2001: 3) asserts that this phenomenon is engaged with flexible delivery, market segmentation (specific niche with small-scale) and advances in technology affecting management and distribution. In addition, there is a labour-intensive nature of Special Interest Tourism (SIT), which tends to employ expert personnel, for example, knowledgeable staff and their professional services within wine tourism. Furthermore, for a specific Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market, its consumers often have a related-knowledge background, as is also shown in wine tourism. In order to clearly understand this Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market in terms of wine tourism, its particular theories are further studied in a separate chapter, namely Chapter Four: Wine Tourism.

However, Special Interest Tourism (SIT), along with other tourism sectors, should exist within the tourism industry and have common features under the principle, therefore, a perspective of the tourism industry and its marketing operations are introduced during the following context.

2.2.4 THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

As shown earlier in Figure 2.1, the tourist is surrounded by suppliers of tourism offerings, including goods and services that are provided to satisfy the demands of tourists, which are mainly referred to as the tourism industry (Haydam, 2001: 108). Weaver and Lawton (2006: 46) have described the tourism industry as a sum of industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services for tourist consumption, although McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie (1995: 21) note that tourism is typically not defined as an industry, since there is no Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) code for tourism. However, a concrete and precise tourism industry may be confined within a narrow range by the following definitions.

McIntosh *et al*. (1995: 22) have depicted the tourism industry by listing various service activities from the tourism supply side to the demand side. These service activities can be divided into three key activity regions: (i) accommodation; (ii) transportation; and (iii) shopping, as well as other activities such as business, festivals and studies. Haydam (2001: 109) also notes that “these activity regions occur in the context of natural, built and cultural resources of a particular destination”.

Moreover, Page (2007: 93) notes that the supply of tourism services can be categorised by businesses such as: (a) tourism resources, which comprise both the natural and human resources of an area; (b) general and tourism infrastructure such as the transport and communications infrastructure; (c) receptive facilities, which receive visitors such as restaurants and accommodation; (d) entertainment and sports facilities, which provide a focus for tourists’ activities; and (e) tourism reception services such as travel agents, tourist offices, guides and interpreters. These highlight the scope of tourism supply, but a number of less tangible elements of supply should also be involved such as image.

Leiper (1990) considers the tourism industry as businesses and organisations that are involved in delivering tourism offerings. In terms of Leiper’s view, Cooper (1993c: 143) divided the tourism industry into five main sectors and believes that these can fully demonstrate the operation of the industry, even though they do not represent the complete range of enterprises within the industry. These include (1) governments; (2) attractions; (3) accommodation; (4) transport; and (5) intermediaries.

Similar to Cooper, van Harssel (1994: 7) divided the tourism industry into six sectors, namely: (1) accommodation; (2) attractions; (3) transport; (4) intermediaries; (5) peripheral private sector; and (6) peripheral public sector. This is a detailed segmentation, but does not show its inter-relationships.

Overall, Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 38-39) believe that the tourism industry includes all those firms, organisations and facilities that serve a specific purpose, namely to satisfy the needs and wants of tourists at a profit; while entrepreneurs and investors invest capital for the purpose of obtaining a satisfactory return on their investment. In Figure 2.3, Bennett and Schoeman depict the role-players and components, their classification, as well as the inter-relationships within the tourism industry.

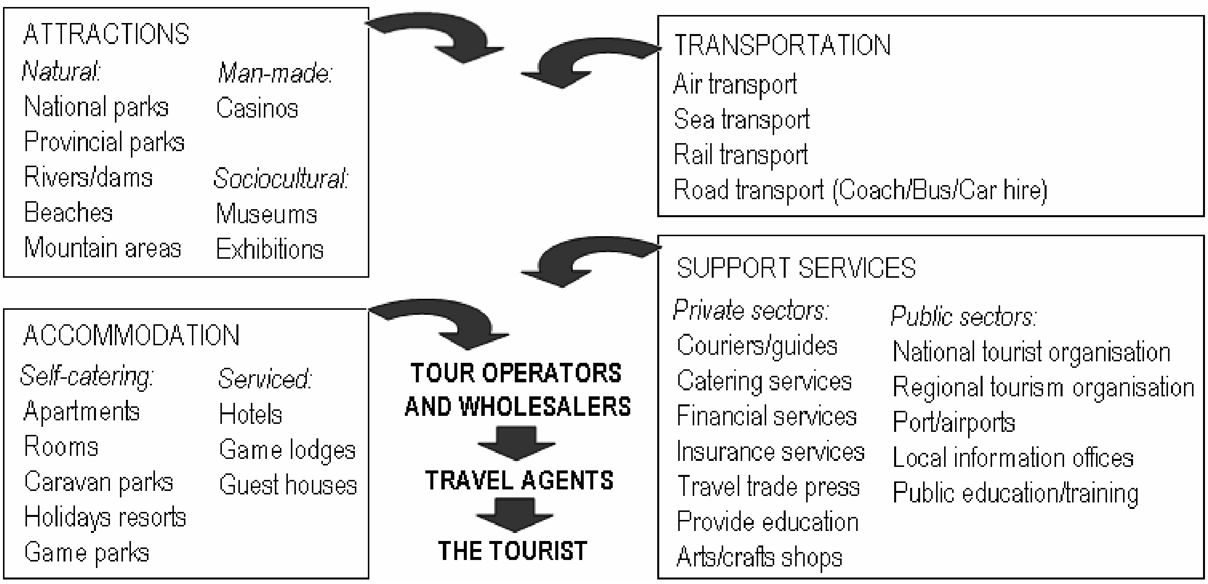

Figure 2.3: The tourism industry

Source: Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 39)

It is evident from Figure 2.3 that the tourism industry can be broadly classified into two main categories:

(i) Producers of the tourism product, which refer to the suppliers of attractions, accommodation, transportation and other support services from the public and private sectors; and
(ii) Intermediaries, since producers sell their products and services directly to tourists, or they do so via intermediaries such as tour operators, wholesalers and travel agents.

Among these role-players within the tourism industry, attractions are the most powerful component and are at a first-line position. For purposes of this research, wines, wine tourism and wine routes can be regarded as attractions, which enrich and strengthen the destination's tourism resources. Therefore, the definition of attractions, their classifications and attributes, will now be discussed in detail, followed by an overview of other components of the tourism industry, as referred to in Figure 2.3.

2.2.4.1 ATTRACTIONS

Swarbrooke (2002: 3) believes that tourism would not exist if it were not for attractions. George (2004: 335) has also argued that tourist attractions play a key role in tourism destinations, as the core of the tourism offering, which include the main travelling motivators that, according to Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 39), provide the main "pull" of traveller movement.

The study of attractions in the following context includes a classification of tourist attractions, an examination of their general attributes and a market view of the attraction product, as well as some of the instances that may link with wine tourism, which can provide an understanding of attractions, essentially.

- **Classification of Attractions**

Destinations benefit from having a diversity of resources, therefore, a compilation of an attraction inventory can determine the full tourism potential of a destination (Swarbrooke, 2002: 12). There are numerous arguments for the classification of attractions, however, two popular dimensions are explained below. In terms of the first dimension, attractions can be classified according to whether they are primary or secondary:

(i) Primary attractions refer to those that form the main motivation to take a trip. Visitors spend most of their time at these destinations either because the site or event is a vital resource of a preferred activity or because it is necessary to spend several hours on the site or event in order to obtain value for money (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 41); and
(ii) Secondary attractions or stop-overs are those that are not important enough to lure tourists, but can serve as complimentary features, which provide more activities and features for tourists so that they can increase their length of stay (Inskeep, 1991: 94).

An attraction may be perceived differently by different visitors (George, 2004: 335). For example, wine tourism is a major attraction in South Africa's domestic and inbound tourism sector, particularly in the Western Cape area, which can become a primary motivator to induce those local and foreign travellers such as west Europeans and Americans, to visit the Wine Routes and could probably include a small number of Chinese visitors. However, many Chinese travellers to South Africa may be primarily attracted to visiting destinations such as the Garden Route, Table Mountain, Cape Point or the Kruger National Park, but may also be motivated to visit secondary attractions at the same time, such as the Wine Routes.

The second dimension can be found earlier in Figure 2.3, since it divides attractions into three groups, which are (i) man-made, (ii) natural and (iii) socio-cultural attractions. Based on this, Wanhill (1993: 206) added "events" and reclassified them into four categories: (1) sites of natural resources; (2) events of natural resources; (3) man-made sites; and (4) man-made events. Similar to Wanhill's four categories, Weaver and Lawton (2006: 129) have also presented a systemic classification scheme in Figure 2.4, which can expressly classify various attractions into (a) natural sites; (b) natural events; (c) socio-cultural sites; and (d) socio-cultural events.

	Site	Event
Natural	Topography, climate, hydrology, wildlife, vegetation, location	Volcanic eruptions, tides, animal migrations (for example, whale watching)
Socio-cultural	Prehistorical, historical, contemporary culture, economic, recreational, retail	Battle re-enactments, commemorations, festivals, sporting events, Olympics, markets

Figure 2.4: Generic inventory of tourist attractions

Source: Weaver and Lawton (2006: 130)

Natural attractions, as the name implies, are associated more closely with the natural environment rather than with the socio-cultural environment. There are some more detailed examples outlined below, which further subdivides and vividly explains the above classification scheme. Firstly, natural site attractions can be identified and subdivided into the following six aspects:

- ◎ Topography such as mountains, canyons, beaches, volcanoes, caves or fossil sites;
- ◎ Climate such as temperature, sunshine or precipitation;
- ◎ Hydrology such as lakes, rivers, waterfalls or hot springs;
- ◎ Wildlife such as mammals, birds, insects or fish;
- ◎ Vegetation such as forests or wildflowers; and
- ◎ Location such as centrality or extremity.

These natural sites represent protected areas, scenic lookouts, wildlife parks and botanical gardens, as well as vine planted areas in the form of winelands. However, destinations have little scope to change their natural resources. The challenge is that destinations should manipulate the market image so that "unattractive" natural phenomena are converted into tourism resources (Weaver and Lawton, 2006:130).

Secondly, natural events are often independent of particular locations and are unpredictable in their occurrence and magnitude such as volcanic eruptions, tides and animal migrations, as well as grape harvests. Natural sites and events more or less implicate wine tourism per se, while they also serve as independent attractions and can broadly exist in a wine tourism destination and its surrounding areas.

Thirdly, socio-cultural sites, also known as "built", "constructed" or "man-made" sites, are as, or more, diverse than their natural counterparts. These sites can be classified into the following six types (each of which may be found within selected the Western Cape Wine Routes): (1) prehistorical such as rock art or other aboriginal sites; (2) historical such as old townships or buildings, museums and ancient monuments; (3) contemporary culture such as architecture, university campuses or food and drink; (4) economic such as wineries or wine farms; (5) recreational such as golf courses, spas, theme parks or casinos; and (6) detail such as shopping districts or cellar sales.

Finally, according to Weaver and Lawton (2006: 137), socio-cultural events can be distinguished and classified by the dimensions, which are outlined below.

(1) Regular or irregular in occurrence (such as annual food festivals versus one-time-only art shows) or locations (such as the Stellenbosch Wine Festival versus the changing Rugby World Cup site);
(2) Ranging in size from a small, local exhibition to international mega-events such as the Olympics;
(3) A “single destination” (such as the Cape Town Marathon) or “multiple destinations” in space or time (such as the 2010 Soccer World Cup, which is spread throughout several cities within South Africa); and
(4) Topical categories such as history, sport, music and art.

However, in terms of natural and socio-cultural categories, the distinctions may often be blurred when considering specific attractions. For example, wine tourism, which is a complex tourist attraction, fits into both natural (such as vine-planting areas) and socio-cultural sectors (such as wine museums), as well as in sites (such as vinery) and events (such as wine festivals). Furthermore, a wine tourism destination and its surrounding areas usually involve some non-wine-related attractions of different types, which can be on its own or combined to induce travellers to visit wineries.

- **The Attributes of Attractions**

In order to compile an inventory of tourism attractions, Weaver and Lawton (2006: 146) suggested that destination organisations should periodically assess their status across an array of relevant attraction attributes in order to inform appropriate planning and management decisions. Figure 2.5 represents a spectrum that can be utilised in each case to reflect the continuous natural occurrence of the variables.

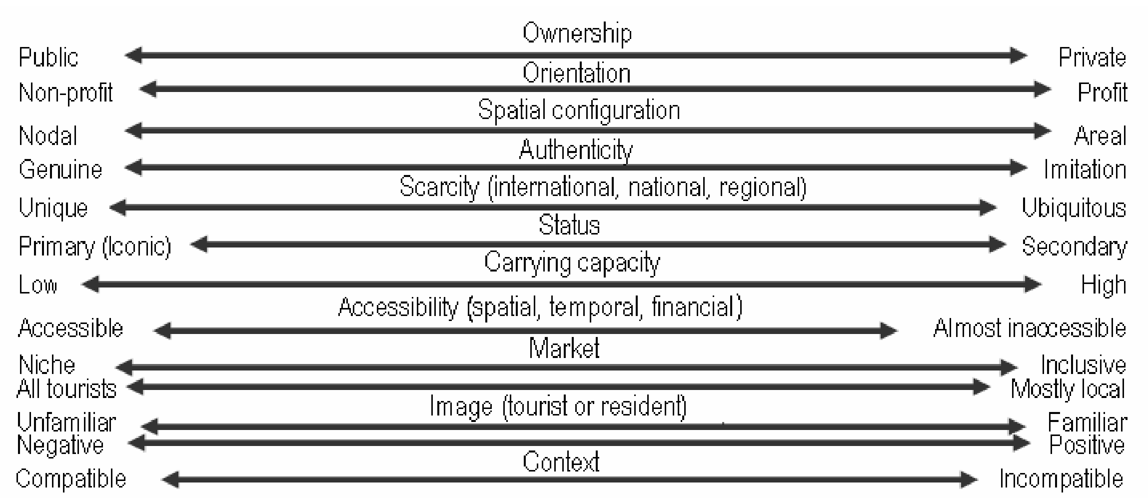

Figure 2.5: Tourist attraction attributes

Source: Weaver and Lawton (2006: 147)

- **Attraction Experience**

In terms of a market view, Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 42) have described the attraction product as an experience, beginning with the anticipation of visiting the attraction and planning the trip. Then there is the visit itself, the journey to and from the attraction and the time spent there. Once the visit is over, one has the memories of the trip. Numerous elements affect this experience, including:

(i) The tangible element of the product, for example, a wine route, which may include wine, vineyards, cellars and farm restaurants;
(ii) The intangible element of the product such as its brand image and atmosphere;
(iii) The delivery element, which includes the appearance, attitude, behaviour and competence of staff;
(iv) The consumers themselves in terms of their expectations, behaviour and attitudes; and
(v) The factors that are outside the control of the attraction operator or consumers such as the mixture of people who use the attraction and the weather.

The above complex inter-relationship of factors shows that the experience is different for every consumer. Hence, according to Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 42), an important consideration in terms of attraction products, is management patterns, which could make the experience pleasurable for each consumer. As further discussed by Wanhill (1993: 215-216), visitor patterns can be managed by starting with marketing and information provisions, followed with techniques, which can influence the visitors' behaviour at home, at the site and after the visit. However, as with foundational understanding, these theories of marketing management and consumer behaviour are studied later during this chapter.

2.2.4.2 ACCOMMODATION SUPPLIERS

Accommodation has been conceptualised by some researchers as a product, which should satisfy tourist demands. Page (2007: 206) has summarised the principal factors that can impact on the way the accommodation product is constructed, portrayed and sold to consumers, which includes (a) location of the establishment (accessibility); (b) facilities (bedrooms, restaurants, meeting rooms, sports facilities); (c) service level (dependent upon grade of establishment and price); (d) image (how customers view it through advertising and marketing media); (e) price; and (f) ability to differentiate between products in respect of different customers and incentives, which would encourage key clients (priority club membership or rewards for frequent use).

Tourists, who spend at least one night at the destination visited and are not same-day visitors, means that the accommodation provisions become the core of their activities as they proceed to interact with other services in the area. At the same time, the available accommodation at a destination also determines its capacity for overnight tourism. In this regard, Lockwood and Knowles (1993: 161) note that accommodation suppliers play a central role in tourism, as shown in Figure 2.6 below.

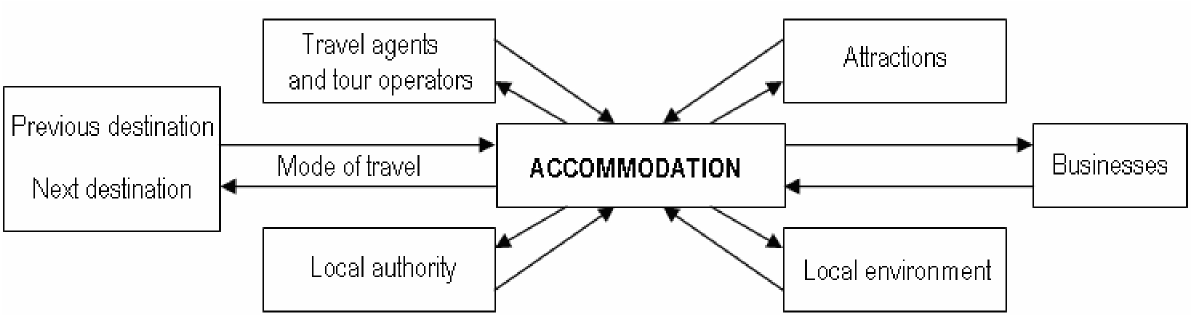

Figure 2.6: the role of accommodation in tourism

Source: Lockwood and Knowles (1993: 161)

Accommodation may range from hotels of an international standard to bed-and-breakfast (B&B) establishments, self-catering apartments and camping grounds. Although there are numerous perspectives, which exist on the classification of accommodation, a popular one can be found in Foster (1985) that classifies accommodation into two categories, namely serviced and self-catering accommodation. Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 44) have further explained that:

(1) Serviced accommodation refers to establishments that have staff on its premises who are responsible for various services such as room service, meals and laundry services. This category includes hotels, motels, guest houses, lodges, farmhouses, bed-and-breakfasts (B&B) and any other type of accommodation that provides such or similar services; and

(2) Self-catering accommodation includes camping sites, caravanning, apartments, chalets, timeshare, rented flats and any other type of self-catering establishments, which can provide a place to sleep and does not include any additional personal services.

Linked to wine tourism, accommodation can present all of the above forms in a wine tourism destination or its surrounding areas. People may choose different types of accommodation when visiting a wine tourism region, which depends on their travelling modes (such as group or non-group tours), lifestyles and economic status. For example, when tourists visit wine routes in the Western Cape area, they may stay overnight at a wine farm’s guest house; some may find a rural lodge or beach house. Others may choose a hotel or bed-and-breakfast (B&B) in a town such as Stellenbosch or Franschhoek; they may also return to Cape Town for wider choices, which range from self-catering rooms to luxury star-grading hotels.

2.2.4.3 TRANSPORT SUPPLIERS

In many instances local transport systems are designed for residents or freight, but without transport, tourism cannot exist (Lumsdon, 1997: 233) because all forms of travel depend on adequate transportation in terms of transportation services and facilities, which have, therefore, become integrated into the tourism system (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006: 146).

According to Burkart and Medlik (1981: 47), transport can be seen as "*a means to reach the destination, as well as the means to move around within the destination*". As summarised by Westlake and Buhalis (1993: 176), there are four major modes of transportation, namely:

- Road transport: walking and cycling, buses and coaches, as well as car hire;
- Railway transport: trams and metros, local rail, inter-urban and long distance trains;
- Water and sea transport: ferries, water buses and long distance cruise liners; and
- Air transport: scheduled and charter flights, as well as helicopters.

Westlake and Buhalis (1993: 177) also note that, generally, a traveller's choice of mode of transport is affected by the following: (i) distance and time factors; (ii) status and comfort; (iii) safety and utility; (iv) comparative price of services offered; (v) geographical position and isolation; (vi) range of services offered; and (vii) level of competition between services.

In terms of the role of transport in tourist travelling, Page (2007: 111) has proposed a sample shown in Figure 2.7 that illustrates the all-embracing role of transport, which facilitates tourist trips to a destination and enables tourists to travel within a destination.

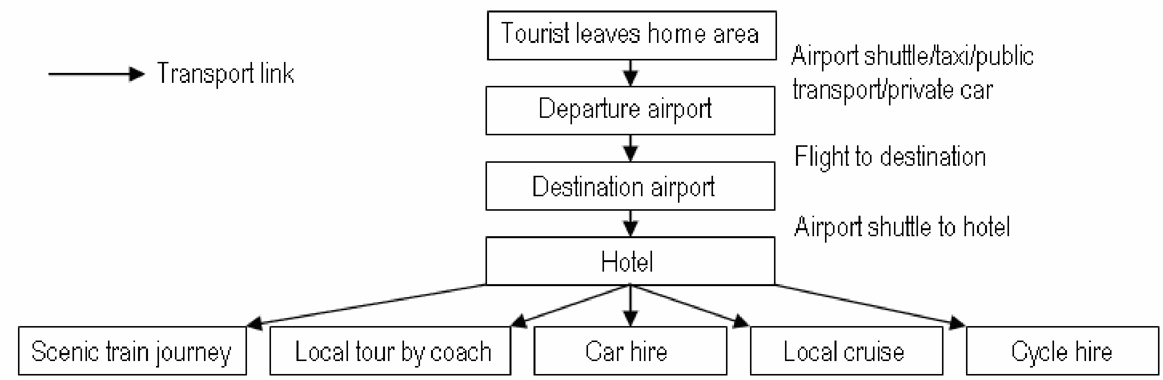

Figure 2.7: The role of transport in tourist travel

Source: Page (2007: 111)

In spite of an availability of various transport services and facilities, it should be pointed out that it may lack flexibility for Chinese tourists to choose transport to travel to and within South Africa because most

Chinese travel overseas for a holiday via package tour groups (SAT, 2006a: 15). This means that, after a long journey by scheduled flights to South Africa, many Chinese tourists charter tour busses to visit places such as Johannesburg, Cape Point or Stellenbosch.

2.2.4.4 SUPPORT SERVICES

As shown earlier in Figure 2.3, support services in the tourism industry can be divided into private and public sectors. Firstly, the private sector may include couriers or guides, catering services, financial services, insurance services, travel trade press, private education and training, as well as arts and crafts shops. Secondly, the public sector may include national tourist organisations, regional tourist organisations, ports or airports, local information offices and public education and training. There are some public and private support organisations within destination organisations in South Africa and the Western Cape area, which are introduced later in this chapter within “destination marketing”.

Conversely, within wine tourism, many public and private support services may come from the wine industry. In the case of the Western Cape Wine Routes, its public supporters include such entities as the Cape Winelands District Municipality, Wines of South Africa (WOSA) and the South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB); and its private supporters involve all local wine farms.

However, some support services within the wine tourism sector may be combined by public and private resources simultaneously and may come from a combination of both the wine and tourism industries, such as wine tourism media and the South African Wine Routes Forum. There is a combination of wine tourism support, which can be found later in Figure 4.1 in Chapter Four.

2.2.4.5 INTERMEDIARES: TOUR WHOLESALERS AND TRAVEL AGENTS

The term intermediary can be referred to as any dealer that acts as a link in the chain of distribution. Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 53) note that intermediaries are any third party or organisation between the producer and consumer and their role facilitates purchase, transfer services to the consumer and transfer sales revenue to the producer. Figure 2.3 earlier shows two main intermediaries in the tourism industry, namely (1) tour wholesaler and tour operator; and (2) travel agents.

Firstly, a tour wholesaler can be seen as a middleman (individual or organisation) that constructs tours and all their components and then sells these tour packages through their companies via retail outlets and/or via approved retail travel agencies to the consumer. Although a tour wholesaler often acts as an operator, the tour operator should be defined as an organisation that strictly handles the tour operations.

These tours can be classified into the categories outlined below[1] (Bennett and Schoeman, 2005: 54):

- ◎ Package tours;
- ◎ Escorted tours;
- ◎ Hosted tours;
- ◎ All-inclusive tours;
- ◎ Chartered groups;
- ◎ Consolidated tours; and
- ◎ Incentive tours.

Secondly, at the front-line of the tourism industry for buyers, a travel agent can also be seen as a middleman (individual or organisation) that sells the industry's individual parts or a combination of the parts to a consumer. Travel agents act on behalf of a client by making arrangements with suppliers and receive a commission accordingly, but they accept no liability for services rendered by suppliers. According to Bennett and Schoeman (2005: 55-56), travel agents can be divided into:

(1) Full-service travel agencies, which offer general travel services for all types of travel, whether holiday or business, individuals or groups of people;

(2) Corporate travel agencies, which specialise solely in servicing the needs of business travel; and

(3) Specialty agencies, as a result of specific market needs, which serve the needs of specific market segments, such as adventure travellers or wine tourists.

In the case of Chinese travellers who take overseas holidays via long haul journeys, they tend to consult with or purchase from tourism intermediaries in China by way of Chinese travel agencies because under the current Chinese tourism policy, its tourism business operation is not entirely open to foreign travel companies and investors[2]. As reported in Xinhua.net (June 15, 2006), the 2005 ranking procedure by the National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA), the top 20 Chinese outbound travel agencies in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong are enclosed in Appendix D-1, while the major five are listed below:

- ◎ China International Travel Service (CITS), www.cits.com.cn;
- ◎ China Youth Travel Service (CYTS), www.cyts.cn;
- ◎ China Comfort Travel (CCT), www.cct.cn;
- ◎ Shanghai Jinjiang International Travel, www.jjtravel.com; and
- ◎ China Travel Service (CTS), www.ctsho.com.

[1] The definitions of these different tours can be found in the section "Clarification of Basic Terms and Concepts".

[2] Foreign investment travel companies can set up their branches in the Chinese mainland from July 1, 2007, but still no outbound travel operations (CNTA, 2002; 2007a).

The above five tour operators and their branches reach all of the main cities in China. Within Chinese outbound tourism operations, each of them plays a role of tour wholesaler and retailer simultaneously.

On the other hand, inbound tour operators in host countries, which provide services such as reception and guiding at the destination for Chinese visitors, should be approved by the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system. This means that in the case of attracting Chinese tourists to the Western Cape Wine Routes, ADS-approved inbound tour operators in South Africa should be regarded. As enclosed in Appendix D-2, nineteen ADS-approved South African inbound tour operators are listed (CNTA, 2007b), while five that are based in the Western Cape are shown below:

- ◎ Best Hope Travel, diana.best@galileo.co.za;
- ◎ China International Travel Agency, cita98@hotmail.com;
- ◎ Fullmark Tours, fullmarktour@fullmarktour,co.za;
- ◎ Sunray Travel, tamara@sunray.co.za; and
- ◎ United Touring Company, Stephen@utcza.co.za.

However, intermediaries and other components of the tourism industry, with regard to the demand side, should be integrated in marketing activities, which is also the same with the wine tourism industry. These marketing activities, including such products and services design, promotion, distribution, administration and selling, in terms of the marketing principle, are discussed in the following section.

2.3 MARKETING PRINCIPLE IN TOURISM

Weaver and Lawton (2006: 50) have indicated that tourism possesses typical attributes of services, which is especially presented in its marketing operations. George (2004: 334) also noted that the tasks of marketing play the most important role within the tourism industry because it integrates all internal and external resources of the industry in order to meet the final profitability. In this section, the nature of services is primarily studied, since tourism marketing belongs to service industries, followed by theories such as strategic and tactical marketing, the services marketing mix in tourism (8Ps) and, finally, destination marketing.

2.3.1 NATURE OF SERVICES

Service industries are everywhere and comprise a large scale globally, while tourism, as a highlight sector, can provide more experiences and add value to its consumers. Therefore, a probe in the nature of services, including its definition, categories, characteristics and specific features in tourism, as well as quality gaps, can provide a foundation for the understanding of tourism marketing.

2.3.1.1 DEFINITION OF SERVICES

In order to clarify the services concept, two popular definitions are presented here. Gronroos (1984)[1], as cited in Bennett and Strydom (2005b: 250), regards services as:

"*An activity or series of activities of a more or less intangible nature that normally, but not necessarily, takes place in interactions between the consumer and the service employees and/or physical resources or goods and/or systems of the service provider, which are given as solutions to consumer problems*".

Kotler and Keller (2006: 402) define services in a similar manner:

"*Any activity or benefit that one party can provide to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything*".

Firstly, both above definitions show that services production might or might not be tied to a physical product and in the marketing operating process, all participators such as manufacturers, distributors and retailers can differentiate themselves and enhance competitive advantages through providing value-added services or simply excellent customer services.

Secondly, a key characteristic of services can also be identified from the above definitions in terms of its intangibility, which distinguishes services marketing from the marketing of physical goods. As introduced in Boshoff (2003: 175), Shostack (1997)[2] has proposed a "good-services continuum", as shown in Figure 2.8, which reveals the interrelationship between goods and services.

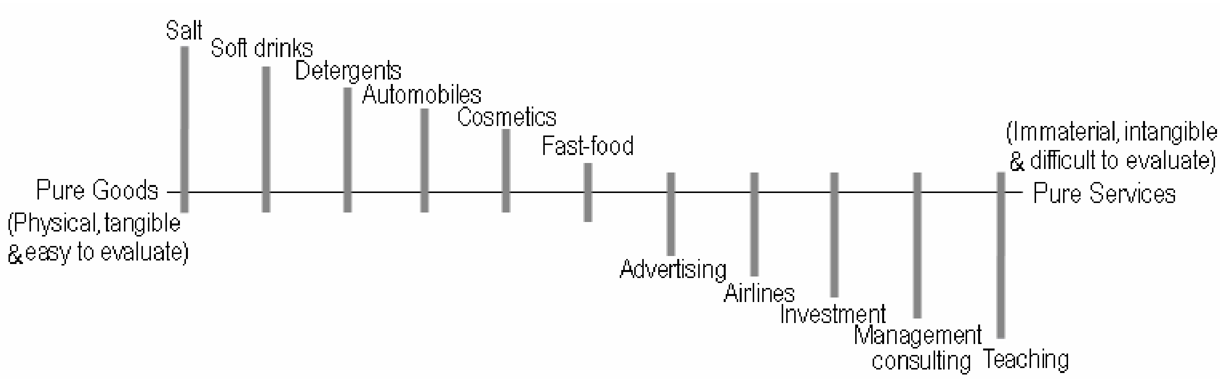

Figure 2.8: The goods-services continuum

Source: Shostack (1977), citied in Boshoff (2003: 175)

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1 Gronroos, C. 1984. A service quality model and its marketing implications. *European Journal of Marketing*, 18(4): 36-44.

2 Shostack, L.G. 1977. Breaking free from product marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, April: 77.

Goods refer to a tangible term, while services are not physical. In reference to the above continuum, most products are a combination of tangible and intangible elements (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 251), which are distributed between “pure physical goods” and “pure services” and cannot be absolutely identified as “pure physical product” or “pure service product”. The tourism industry, including the wine tourism sector, can be seen as a separate marketing activity and is, evidently, a “pure service product”.

2.3.1.2 CATEGORIES OF SERVICES

In order to further clarify the services concept and discover the services markets, some detailed categories of services are now summarised below on two levels.

Firstly, the “goods-services continuum” provides a basic way to classify services on a macro level. In terms of the combination of services and physical goods, some products are service-based, while some are goods-based. In the continuum, the service component in marketing offerings represents several varieties; Kotler and Keller (2006: 403) have described the five categories, as listed below:

- ◎ “Pure tangible goods” in which the offering consists primarily of a tangible product such as salt, since almost no services accompany the product;
- ◎ “Tangible goods” with accompanying services where offerings consist of a tangible product accompanied by one or more services;
- ◎ “Hybrid goods” where offerings consist of equal parts of goods and services such as restaurants in both foods and services;
- ◎ “Major services” with accompanying minor goods and services, for example, offerings consist of a major service along with additional services or supporting goods such as a traveller who buys an airline’s transportation; and
- ◎ “Pure services” where offerings consist primarily of a service such as psychotherapy.

Additionally, some distinctions can classify services without most goods, which focus on service-based products. According to Perreault and McCarthy (2002: 251-270):

(1) Services can be divided into equipment-based (cinema) and people-based (nursing and lawyering), while people-based services can further be divided into unskilled, skilled or professional;
(2) Services can be divided into different types by their different delivering processes, for example, restaurants can be a cafeteria-style, fast-food, buffet and candlelight service;
(3) Some services require the buyer’s presence (tourism) and some do not (car repairs);
(4) Services can also be divided into personal services (to meet personal needs) and business

services (to meet business activities); and

(5) Services can be classified by objectives and ownership, namely profit services, nonprofit services, private services and public services.

These service-based products, as discussed by Kotler and Keller (2006: 404), are generally high in experience and credence qualities, which are difficult to evaluate and may lead to more risk in the consumer buying process. This can result in several consequences, namely:

(i) Firstly, the reliance of service consumers is based on word-of-mouth rather than advertising;
(ii) Secondly, a high reliance on price, personnel and physical cues in order to evaluate quality;
(iii) Thirdly, a high loyalty of consumers to service providers who satisfy them; and
(iv) Finally, service customers cannot be easily enticed by competitors because of buying inertia and switching costs.

2.3.1.3 DISTINCTIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF SERVICES

With regard to the above categories, services, compared with physical products, have distinctive characteristics such as intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability, which can produce significant influences in designing services marketing programmes, especially within tourism marketing.

- **Intangibility**

Firstly, unlike physical products, services cannot be seen, tasted, felt, heard or smelled before they are bought, which may add more uncertainties to the purchasing process (Boshoff, 2003: 176; see Figure 2.8). This means that buyers will look for evidence of quality such as place, people, equipment, communication materials and symbols or price, in order to reduce the uncertainty of intangibility. As a result, service providers should differentiate themselves, since one of the important tasks is to "manage the physical evidence by tangibilising the intangible" (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 405).

In order to transform intangible services into concrete benefits, Carbone and Haeckel (1994: 17) have suggested "customer experience engineering", which begins with development of a clear picture of what the customer's positive perception of an experience should be in terms of the marketing organisation's attributes, followed by a design of a consistent set of performances around it and a contextualisation of the clues to support that experience. This context of clues, within a marketing organisation, can trace an experience blueprint, which should address all five senses and be presented to consumers.

- **Inseparability**

Secondly, services are typically produced and consumed simultaneously. They cannot only be separated from the person who produces them, but the client is also present as the service is produced. This interaction of providers and clients is a special feature of services marketing (Boshoff, 2003: 178).

- **Variability**

Thirdly, services have high potential variability in their delivery process because variable human inputs are involved in service production. Boshoff (2003: 179) asserts that variability impacts hugely on the control of service quality. Hence, in order to counteract variability, Kotler and Keller (2006: 406) refer to three steps, which marketing organisations can follow in order to increase quality control:

c) Recruit the right employees and provide them with excellent training because people, as service providers, are the foundation of service business;
d) Standardise the service-performance process throughout the organisational construction structure and function; and
e) Monitor customer satisfaction. Added to customer satisfaction, Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 333) assert that marketing organisations should also develop customer relationship management (CRM) as control instruments.

- **Perishability**

Finally, perishability means that services cannot be stored but should be produced on demand, which can cause an imbalance between supply and demand such as tourism seasonality (Boshoff, 2003: 179). According to Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 259-282), several strategies can be used to balance the match of supply and demand in a service business. These strategies, on the demand side, are:

(i) Different pricing to balance demand from peak to off-peak times;
(ii) Creating or cultivating nonpeak demand;
(iii) Using complementary services to provide more alternatives; and
(iv) Using reservation systems to manage the demand level;

On the supply side:

(v) Hiring part-employees to serve peak demand;
(vi) Introducing peak-time efficiency routines to correspond with internal capability;
(vii) Encouraging consumer participation to increase service capacity;

(viii) Sharing services to increase service capacity; and
(ix) Developing facilities in advance to fulfill further expansion.

The above four characteristics are common to all services, particularly to fundamentally impact tourism marketing, which include intangibility (offering and distribution), physical evidence, blueprint (process), and human inputs (people) that are discussed later in the tourism marketing mix (see Section 2.3.3).

2.3.1.4 SPECIFIC FEATURES OF SERVICES IN TOURISM

In addition to the above four basic characteristics, George (2004: 26) further summarised eight features in services that are unique to the tourism industry, which are:

- **Ownership**

Tourism offerings are typically service-based, which means that tourists may take home souvenirs and intangible memories of the experience, but no transfer of the ownership to the offerings.

- **Fixed Locations**

Tourism destinations are fixed locations. Communications methods such as advertising and sales promotions are essential in order to bring the consumer to the locality.

- **Seasonality**

Seasonality is another unique feature within the tourism industry because a common characteristic of tourism demand is that it fluctuates during different times of the year. For example, on the supply side, most visits to South Africa occur during its summer and many tourism businesses are at peak capacity during December and January, but during winter, off-season becomes evident. Conversely, most Chinese tourists seem to travel overseas for holidays during what is termed three "Golden Weeks"[1] [2] (SAT, 2006a: 25), which are:

◎ Chinese New Year (Spring Festival), during February and March;
◎ May Day (from 1 May); and
◎ Chinese National Day (from 1 October).

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[1] Each of the "Golden Weeks" has ten to fifteen days.
[2] However, as a part of the holiday system of China, these three Golden Weeks have been changed since 2008, in terms of the May Day long-holiday is reduced as a three-day holiday, but another three tranditional Chinese festivals are added in March/April [Tomb-sweeping Day, 28 February in Chinese lunar calendar], June/July [Dragon Boat Festival, 5 May in Chinese lunar calendar] and September/October [Mid-autumn Festival, 15 August in Chinese lunar calendar]. Each of these three new festivals can be linked with a near weaken to bring a three or five-day holiday.

- **Loyalty**

This feature shows that consumers may be loyal to a particular hotel group brand, a local restaurant, an airline, a particular destination or attraction that usually depends on factors such as the consumer's age and wealth or other socio-demographics.

- **High Costs**

High costs remain in both the supply and demand sides of tourism. On the supply side, although low variable costs could be paid to extra staff for maintenance and meals served, it depends on the number of received tourists, since tourism organisations generally have high fixed costs in order for the business to operate such as permanent staff wages, rent, heating, lighting, fuel and marketing expenditures.

However, tourists, especially long-haul tourists, have to pay high-costs for purchasing airline tickets or staying at hotels during their holiday, as well as spend more time making a decision and making comparisons with alternative offerings.

- **Distribution Channels**

With reference to the discussion of the intermediaries (in Section 2.2.4.5), there is no physical distribution in the tourism industry, since consumers have to travel to the destination by taking means such as road, air, water or railway transport, in terms of distribution channels, which form part of the tourism offering.

- **Interdependence of Tourism Offerings**

Another feature is the interdependence of tourism offerings because when a consumer decides to buy a tourism offering, it usually involves the purchase of several service offerings such as services from transportation, accommodation, attractions and travel agencies, which rely on each other.

- **External Shocks**

Finally, the tourism industry is particularly prone to external shocks, which include wars, diseases, hurricanes, terrorist attacks, transport accidents, pollution, political events and economic factors. These risks may be paroxysmal and impact within a short term such as 2005 South-East Asian tsunami; but it may also impact over a long time, such as the 911 terrorism attack. Others may not be paroxysmal but have long term effects on a tourist destination's environment such as HIV/AIDS or crime.

Similarly to the four characteristics of services, all of the above specific features also influence the tourism marketing mix, which is discussed later during this chapter (see Section 2.3.3).

2.3.1.5 SERVICE QUALITY GAPS

From the above definitions and characteristics, it is clear that people, as a component of service offering, can cause service delivery gaps. Tourism is a typical "peoples' business", which is why tourism organisations should recognise those gaps in managing service quality.

Consumers' service expectations can arise from several sources such as word-of-mouth or past experience. According to Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 411), customers compare their expected service with the perceived service. If the perceived service cannot reach the expected service, consumers become disappointed. Contrarily, if the perceived service meets the expected service, the purchase may occur or re-occur. Marketing organisations should match consumer expectations and perceptions and should close any gap between the two. Ideally, successful strategies attempt to offer added benefits that not only satisfy customers, but also surprise and delight them.

The service-quality model was labelled the SERVQUAL (SERVice QuaLity) model, as shown in Figure 2.9 and indicates the main requirements for delivering high quality and reveals five shortfalls (gaps) that cause unsuccessful delivery (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Leonard, 1985[1], as cited in Kotler and Keller, 2006: 412). The five gaps are introduced below:

(1) Firstly, the gap between consumer expectations and management perceptions, which means that management does not always correctly perceive what customers want;
(2) Secondly, between management perceptions and service-quality specifications, which means that management may correctly perceive customers' wants but not set a performance standard;
(3) Furthermore, between service-quality specifications and service delivery, which means that employees may be poorly trained or be incapable of or unwilling to meet the standard or they may use conflicting standards;
(4) Fourthly, the gap between service delivery and external communications, which means that consumer expectations are affected by statements that are made by marketing organisation representatives and advertisements; and
(5) Finally, the gap between perceived service and expected service, which occurs when the consumer misperceives the service quality.

[1] Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. and Berry, L.L. 1985. A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, (Fall): 44.

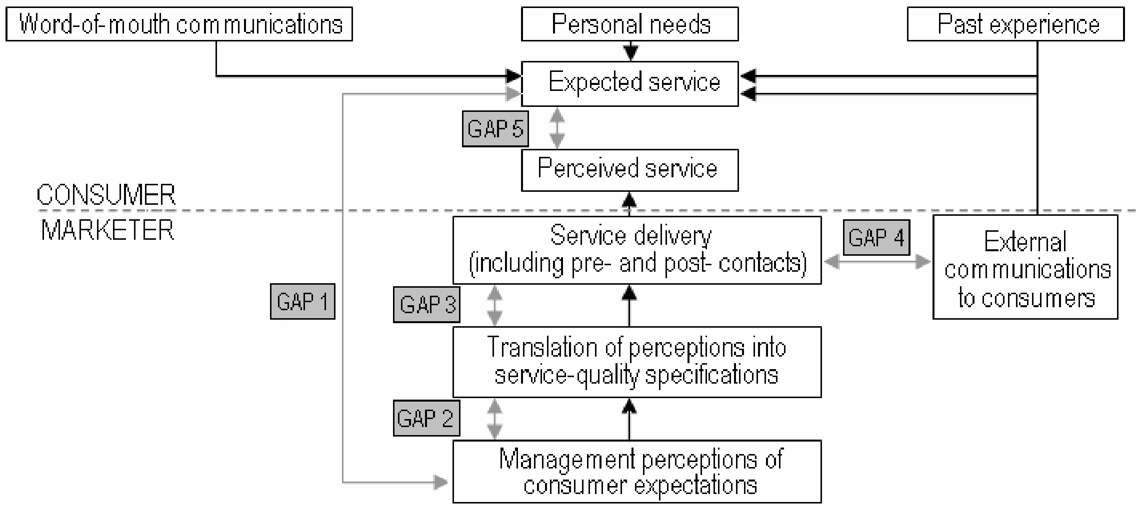


Figure 2.9: SERVQUAL model

Source: Parasuraman *et al.* (1985), cited in Kotler and Keller (2006: 413)

Depending on the SERVQUAL model, Berry and Parasuraman (1991: 16) have also identified five determinants of service quality, in order of importance:

(1) Reliability: ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately;
(2) Responsiveness: willingness to help customers and to provide a prompt service;
(3) Assurance: knowledge and courtesy of staff and their ability to convey trust and confidence;
(4) Empathy: provision of caring, individualised attention to customers; and
(5) Tangibles: including physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials.

2.3.2 STRATEGIC MARKETING AND TACTICAL MARKETING

Having discussed services, the discussion moves to the marketing of these services. This is a process by which people and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging offerings and values with others (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 915). On the supply side, as shown below in Figure 2.10, marketing can also be regarded as a value delivering process. This process includes "choose the value", "provide the value" and "communicate the value", which can further be reduced into strategic and tactical phases in terms of any marketing, which should begin with a strategic plan.

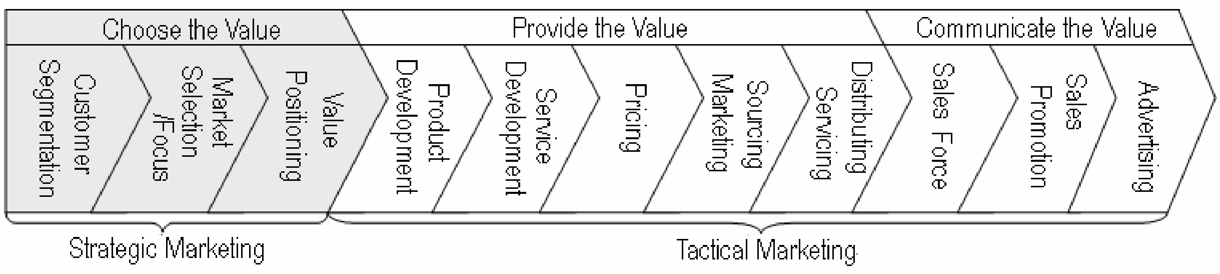


Figure 2.10: The value delivery process

Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 36)

Similarly, Perreault and McCarthy (2006: 16) have further described that a consumer-oriented marketing strategy (plan) should follow the value, which is chosen and delivered by marketing organisations to target consumers. Within a marketing organisation, under its business mission, the marketing strategy should depend on the study of the environment (both internal and external) in order to set up its goals and tactics (marketing mix) to satisfy its target consumers before consumer feedback is received. This business unit of the strategic-planning process, as shown in Figure 2.11, is continuous and circulatory.

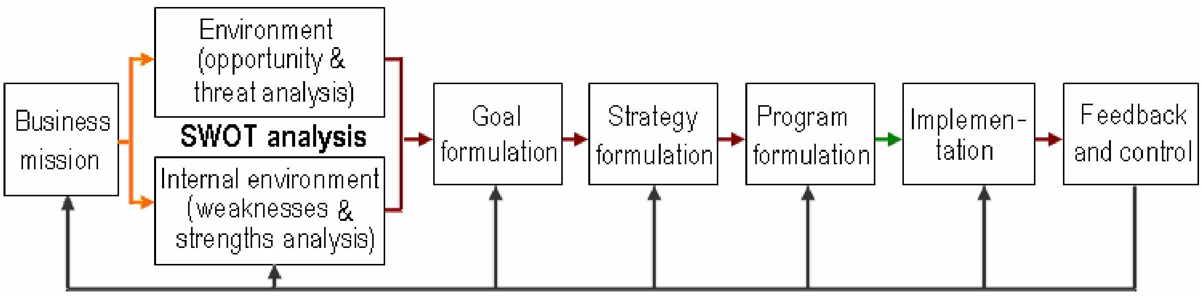


Figure 2.11: The business unit strategic-planning process

Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 51)

In this section, the study of strategic marketing (segmenting, targeting and positioning), with basic tactical activities in terms of the marketing mix (4Ps: product, price, promotion and place), can provide an understanding of holistic marketing, as well as a breakdown of marketing operations.

2.3.2.1 STRATEGIC MARKETING

As shown earlier in Figure 2.10, strategic marketing can be regarded as instrumental in the choice of consumer value. This strategic design includes three key processes, namely market segmentation, market targeting (selection) and market positioning, which are explained in detail below.

- **Levels of Market Segmentation**

Market segmentation is an instrument that can be used to identify and profile distinct groups of buyers who differ in their needs and preferences, which more rest with consumer analysis. Against mass marketing, Kotler and Keller (2006: 240) note that market segmentation can transform most companies into micromarketing at one of four levels: (i) segments, (ii) niches, (iii) local areas and (iv) individuals.

Segments cannot be created, therefore, in segment marketing, the marketing organisation's task is to identify and decide which one(s) to target. A market segment can be regarded as a group of buyers who hold a similar set of needs and wants (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2006: 739). However, each segment remains large, since not everyone wants exactly the same thing. Hence, Anderson and Narus

(1995: 75-83) have suggested that marketing organisations present fixable market offerings to all members of a segment. A fixable market offering consists of two parts:

◎ A naked solution: all segment members' value (for example, a standardised holiday package by South Africa for Chinese tourists, see Table 1.4 in Section 1.3.3); and

◎ Discretionary options: some segment members' value (present more additive alternatives to them such as "wine holiday", "diamond travel" or "wildlife exploration").

Different ways can be used to define market segments. A basic way to carve up a market is to identify preference segments (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 241). For example, holiday buyers are asked how much they value nature and socio-culture as two destination attributes: three different patterns can appear.

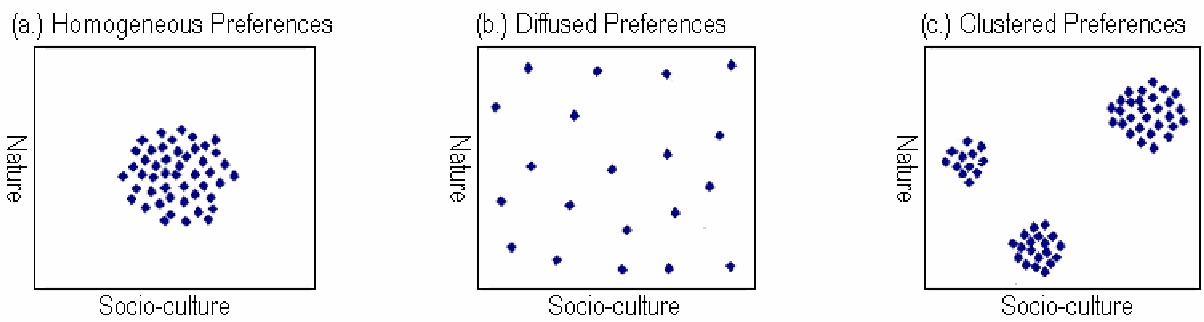


Figure 2.12: Basic market-preference patterns

Source: Adapted from Kotler and Keller (2006: 242)

According to the analysis in Kotler and Keller (2006: 241-242), the three patterns are presented in Figure 2.12:

(i) Homogenous preferences: Figure 2.12(a) shows that all consumers have approximately the same preferences in a market where there are no natural segments. It can be predicted that existing brands are similar and cluster around the middle of the scale in both nature and socio-culture.

(ii) Diffused preferences: Figure 2.12(b) presents that preferences are detached throughout the space and, in terms of consumers, vary greatly in their preferences. The first brand in the market is likely to position itself to aim at all consumers. A succeeding competitor can position the same with the first brand and fight for market share, or position itself to attract a customer group that is not satisfied with the centre brand. If several brands exist in the market, they can position themselves throughout the space and show differences to match different consumer preferences.

(iii) Clustered preferences: Figure 2.12(c) indicates that few distinct preference clusters are revealed in the market, since they are natural market segments. In this market, the destination marketing organisation has three options: position in the centre to attract all groups; position in the largest segment; or develop several brands for each different segment.

Furthermore, a segment can further be divided into subsegments in terms of niches. A niche is a more narrowly defined customer group, which seeks a distinctive mix of benefit. Moseki (2004: 62) notes that niches are smaller and attract fairly fewer competitors compared with a segment's large size and more competitors. The characteristics of a valuable niche include: (a) customers in the niche have a distinct set of needs; (b) they will pay a premium to the company that best satisfies their needs; (c) the niche is not likely to attract other companies; (d) the niche gains certain economies through specialisations; and (e) the niche has size, profit and growth potential (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 242).

In order to generally understand all segmentation levels, the last two, namely local marketing and customerisation, are explained. In order to narrow down a market segment and its niches, marketing organisations should further tailor their marketing programmes to satisfy the needs and wants of local customer groups, in terms of local markets. These include trading areas, neighbourhoods and individual stores, which connect consumers as closely and personally as possible and reflects a growing trend (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 242).

The ultimate level of segmentation is on individuals, or so-called "customerised marketing" (Peppers and Rogers, 1993), which means that marketing organisations can respond to individual customers by customising its products, services and information on a one-to-one basis.

- **Segmenting Consumer Markets**

After understanding the levels of market segmentation, the ways to segment consumer markets are also important. One approach is introduced by Schoeman (2006: 175-190), which involves four steps with regard to the process of segmentation. In this process, the marketing organisation should first identify those segmentation variables, whose major four are summarised below in Table 2.1. They can be used singly or in combination to identify consumers' needs.

Table 2.1: Major segmentation variables for consumer markets

Variable	Variables Included	Examples
Geographic	Region, city or metro size, density (urban, suburban, rural), climate	Africa, China, Western Cape, Beijing, Shanghai, Winelands, "Two Oceans"
Demographic	Age and life-cycle stage, life stage, gender, income, social class, ethnicity	Females shopping overseas, white-collar, Disney park, higher income, education
Psychographic	Personality, psychological traits, lifestyle, geo-demographic	Wine tours (for cultural, spiritual, romantic), honeymoon tours, adventure holidays
Behavioural	Occasions, benefits, user status, usage rate, buying stage, loyalty status, attitude	Business travels, wine tours (wine drinking and buying), study overseas (short term)

Source: Adapted from Schoeman (2006: 175-190); Kotler and Keller (2006: 247-257)

In the second step, based on the above, consumers are grouped with similar need sets into respective segments. This step, generally, involves consumer research, including surveys, interviews and concept tests. Once consumers with similar need sets are identified, each group should be described in terms of their demographics, lifestyles and media usage. After a thorough understanding of each segment has been attained, the attractive segment or segments could be selected and served within market targeting.

In addition, a needs-based segmentation approach can combine several variables in an effort to identify smaller, better-defined target groups. It leads to a seven-step segmentation process (Best, 1997:115):

(1) Needs-based segmentation: group customers into segments based on similar needs and benefits sought by customers in solving a particular consumption problem;
(2) Segment identification: for each needs-based segment, determine which demographics, lifestyles and usage behaviours make the segment distinct and identifiable (actionable);
(3) Segment attractiveness: using predetermined segment attractiveness criteria (market growth, competitive intensity and market access), determine the overall attractiveness of each segment;
(4) Segment profitability: determine segment profitability;
(5) Segment positioning: for each segment, create a "value proposition" and product-price positioning strategy, based on that segment's unique customer needs and characteristics;
(6) Segment test: test the attractiveness of each segment's positioning strategy; and
(7) Marketing-mix strategy: expand segment-positioning strategy with all aspects of the marketing mix.

The above mentioned segmentation processes involve both the tasks of market targeting, positioning and the marketing mix, which are discussed in the following text.

- **Market Targeting**

Market targeting involves selection of one or more of the attractive segments, as identified by the segmentation process (Schoeman, 2006: 180). The task of market targeting is to evaluate and select market segments. However, firstly, in order to be useful in evaluation, market segments should rate possibly on four key criteria (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 295):

◎ Measurability: the size, purchasing power and characteristics can be measured;
◎ Substantiality: the segments are large and sufficiently profitable to serve;
◎ Accessibility: can be reached and served; and
◎ Actionability: effective programmes can be formulated to attract and serve the segments.

Kotler and Keller (2006: 262) have further indicated that there are two factors, which should be considered in evaluating different market segments:

(1) The segment's overall attractiveness (the above mentioned four criteria and general characteristics such as size, profitability and risks); and
(2) The marketing organisation's objectives (long-term and short-term), competencies and resources.

Once those different segments have been evaluated, five patterns may be considered by the marketing organisation for target market selection, which are single-segment concentration, selective specialisation, product specialisation, market specialisation and full market coverage, as illustrated below in Figure 2.13.

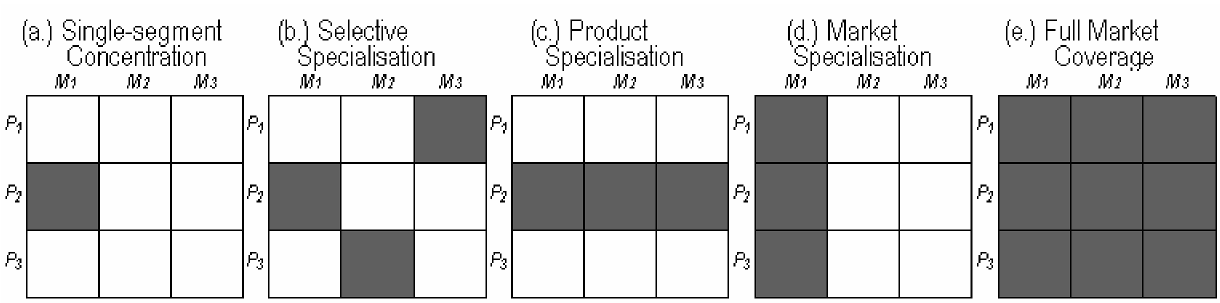


Figure 2.13: Five patterns of target market selection (*P*=product, *M*=market segment)
Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 262) adapted from Abell (1980: 192-196)[1]

Figure 2.13 could be used as a tool within the marketing of South Africa tourism in China (segmented by geographic variables into m1=Beijing, m2=Guangdong, m3=Shanghai) with reference to three holiday offerings [products] (p1=landmarks, p2=wildlife, p3=wine routes), while several target market selections can be appeared, as outlined below:

◎ Single-segment concentration: concentrates on the Beijing area to sell wildlife tours;
◎ Selective specialisation: selects all three areas but each by a different offering;
◎ Product specialisation: sells wildlife tours to the three different segments;
◎ Market specialisation: concentrates on the Beijing area to sell all offerings; and
◎ Full market coverage: serves all segments with all offerings that they might need, which can further be divided into (a) undifferentiated marketing and (b) differentiated marketing.

However, in practice, in the tourism strategy (SAT, 2006a: 55), by a multilevel segmentation approach, South Africa targets its current market with 2.5 million people in China. This target market can also be regarded as a "supersegment", which, with its four priority segments, is illustrated in Figure 2.14.

1 Abell, D.F. 1980. *Defining the business: the starting point of strategic planning*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

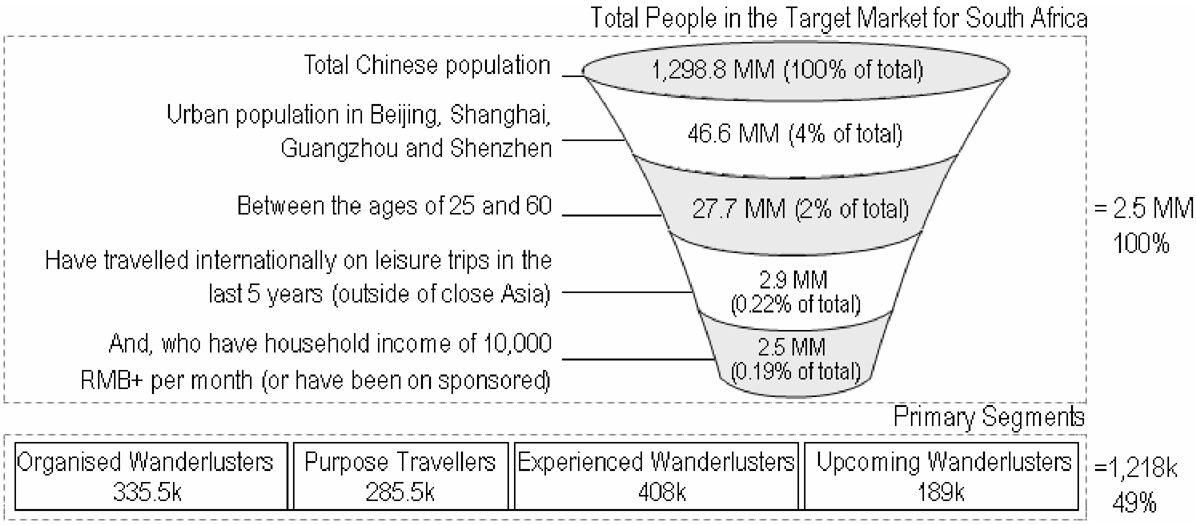


Figure 2.14: South Africa's target market and priority segments in China

Source: SAT (2006a: 55)

Although the above four priority segments have further been identified (refer to SAT, 2006a: 55-60), there is a standardised package offering (an all-in-one seven-day tour, see Table 1.4 in Section 1.3.3), which is promoted to all of these segments, as well as to the whole supersegment. This is a typical undifferentiated marketing strategy, which "ignores market segmentation differences and goes after the whole market [supersegment] with one [homogeneity] market offering" (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 295). For more detailed offerings and brand positioning to the selected segments, refer to the following text.

- **Positioning**

As mentioned earlier in the process of segmentation, positioning tasks begin once the market has been divided and targeted. In tourism marketing, this is the way in which tourist destinations and its offerings are perceived or viewed by target audiences in relation to its competitors (Lumsdon, 1997: 74). This concept also relates to branding (in Section 2.3.3.1) and destination image (in Section 2.3.4). By examining this positioning concept, four essential principles can be distilled below (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 64):

(i) Positioning lies ultimately in the eyes of its consumers in terms of how the destination is perceived;
(ii) Positioning should be singular, providing one simple, consistent message such as a brand;
(iii) Positioning should set the offering differentiated from its competitors, while differentiations can occur by physical attributes, services, personnel, location or image; and
(iv) The destination should focus on its efforts and not serve all things to all people.

From the above principles, Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 65) reflect that the marketing organisation can develop an effective positioning strategy in combining market analysis and competitor analysis to internal corporate analysis, as shown in Figure 2.15. In other words, positioning plays a pivotal role to link tourist destinations, its tourists and competitors in establishing a tourism marketing strategy.

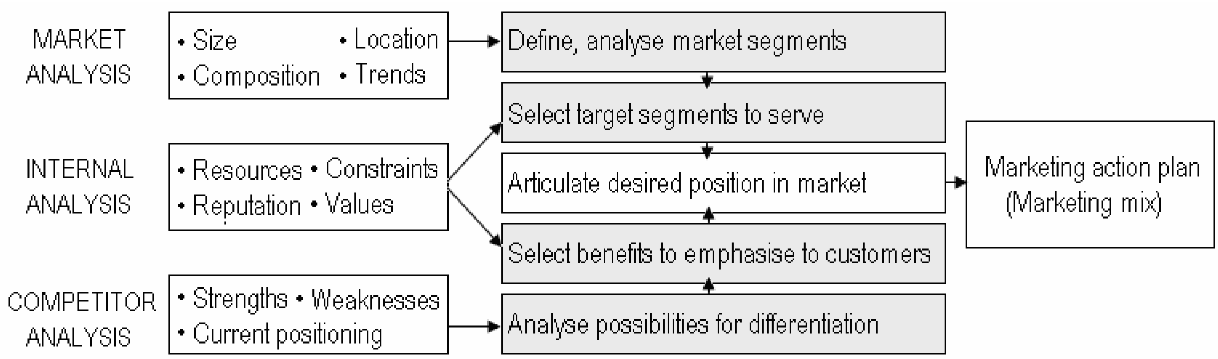


Figure 2.15: Developing a market positioning strategy

Source: Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 67)

According to the SWOT (strength, weakness, opportunity, threat) analysis from the market, competitors and internal corporation, four different strategies could be selected to position tourism offerings in the minds of consumers (George, 2004: 138):

- ◎ Price and offering features can be used to position an offering;
- ◎ Positioning according to the needs offerings or the benefits that offerings provide;
- ◎ Position to certain categories of users; and
- ◎ An offering can be positioned against existing competitors.

Overall, as suggested by Kotler *et al*. (2006: 281), the positioning task consists of three key steps:

(1) Identifying a set of competitive advantages or unique selling propositions to choose from such as price, image, attractions, accommodation and staff, which are often referred to as differentiation;

(2) Selecting the right competitive advantages: for example, South Africa has an advantage by promoting wildlife to compete with competitors outside of Africa, but people may visit other African countries such as Kenya for wildlife, therefore, the Cape and wine routes may combine with wildlife to enhance South Africa's image as a tourist destination in target markets such as China; and

(3) Communicating and delivering the chosen position to the target segment.

Furthermore, perceptual (product-positioning) mapping, as a tool for positioning measurement, is also introduced here. Kotler *et al*. (2006: 291) note that perceptual mapping is a way to represent tourists' perceptions of alternative offerings or destinations. According to Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 69), a map is usually confined to two attributes although three-dimensional (or more than three) models can be used to portray corresponding attributes. In order to build this map, a survey should be conducted amongst a random sample of consumers who are asked various questions that are designed to provide an image of the marketplace in which the organisation operates (George, 2004: 140). For example, there are three perceptual maps in relation to South Africa's tourism, as shown below in Figure 2.16:

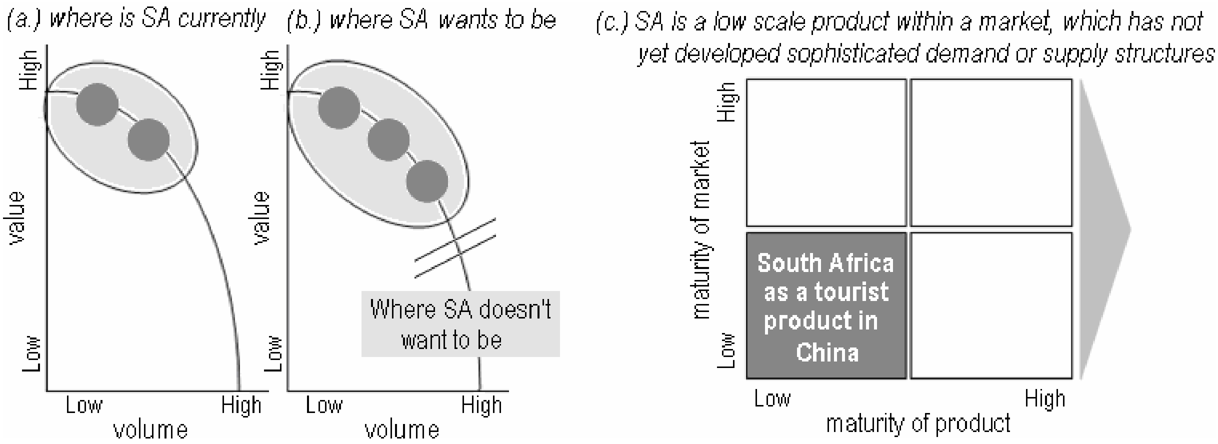


Figure 2.16: South Africa's tourism positioning in overseas markets and China

Source: (a) and (b) adapted from SAT (2004a: 18); (c) adapted from SAT (2006a: 17)

Figure 2.16(a) shows that South Africa's position within overseas markets has historically been aimed at a high-value, low impact market, which makes the country an expensive destination that few tourists can afford. However, as referred to in Figure 2.16(b), the current position does not mean that, in the future, South Africa will no longer serve the high value end of this market, rather, it implies that clusters of tourism offerings will reconfigure themselves to serve a range of segments from the high-end to middle markets (SAT, 2004a: 18).

Figure 2.16(c) indicates the current position of South Africa as a tourism product in China. The first dimension shows "a low maturity of a Chinese travel market for South Africa", which implies (i) low market penetration; (ii) increasing growth rates; (iii) high price levels; (iv) low market transparency; (v) low consumer sophistication and experience; (vi) low tendency of channel to specialise; and (vii) profitability driven by market access. The second dimension denotes "low maturity of South Africa as a product in China", which means (a) low market share; (b) low variety of packages; (c) low frequency of tour groups; (d) high relative price; and (e) low knowledge of sales staff with regard to the product (SAT, 2006a: 17).

2.3.2.2 TACTICAL MARKETING

As illustrated earlier in Figure 2.10, following the above mentioned strategic marketing, tactical marketing is the value provision and communicating process, which supports the determined positioning strategy (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 291). In typical consumer markets, the process of tactical marketing is designed to increase chances so that consumers will have favourable thoughts and feelings about particular products, services and brands and will try them and repeatedly purchase them.

Peter and Olson (2005: 12) also note that tactical marketing, in terms of the marketing mix, involves developing and offering marketing stimuli, which is directed at selected markets in order to influence their behaviour. The controllable stimuli, within marketing activities, can occur in all forms. Traditionally, the classical marketing mix involves a set of idiographic marketing tools, namely the 4Ps (product, price, promotion, place)[1], which are used to pursue their marketing objectives (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 48). The particular marketing variables, under each "P", are shown below in Figure 2.17.

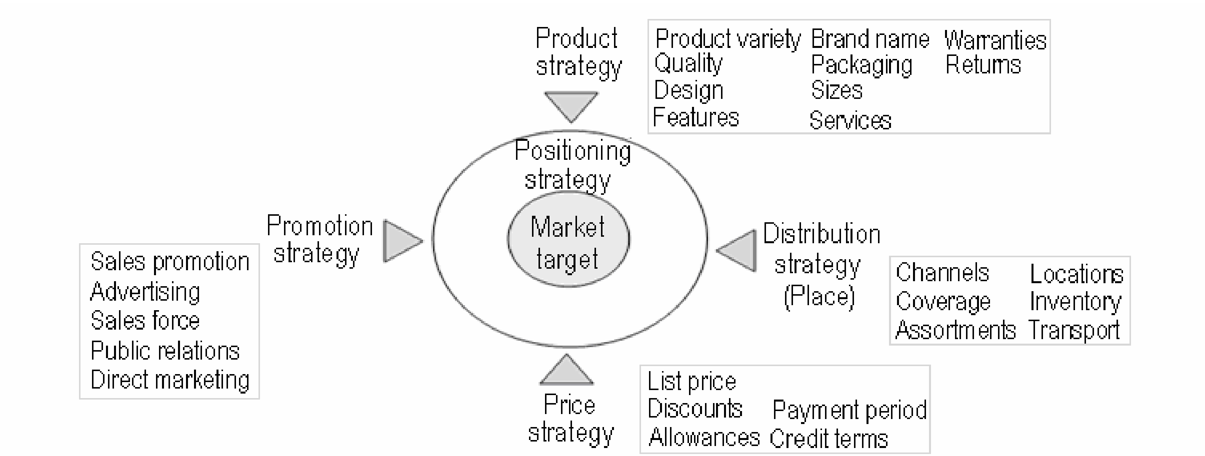


Figure 2.17: The marketing mix (4Ps)

Source: Adapted from Cravens and Piercy (2006: 35)

Figure 2.17 shows that the efforts of all particular marketing variables under each "P" should support the position strategy and finally focus on the target market. In order to create an integrated marketing strategy, all these marketing activities and programmes should be combined in an effective way to meet the needs of the target consumers. This integrated marketing-mix strategy is displayed below in Figure 2.18:

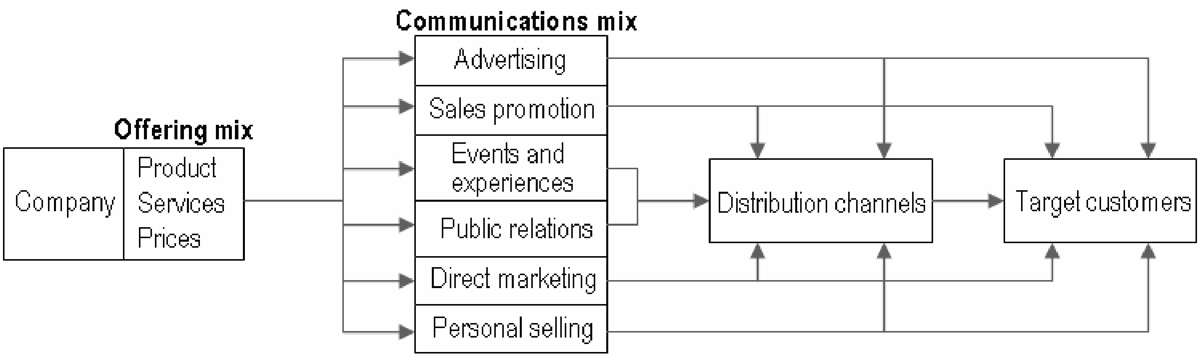


Figure 2.18: The marketing-mix strategy

Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 19)

[1] From a buyer's point of view, the 4Ps can also be regarded as corresponding customer solutions, customer costs, convenience and communication, which incorporate the "4Cs" (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 20).

In Figure 2.18, this integrated strategy shows the marketing organisation preparing an offering mix of products, services and prices and then by a communications mix of advertising, sales promotion, events and experiences, public relations, direct marketing and personal selling, it reaches the trade channels and finally meets target consumers.

However, many theorists maintain that the classical marketing mix (4Ps) is too limited to apply within services, especially tourism marketing. As Zeithaml and Bitner (1996: 26) have suggested, the 7Ps of the services marketing mix can be cited in tourism to allow for greater flexibility. Figure 2.19 depicts that the additional three Ps are "people", "process" and "physical evidence".

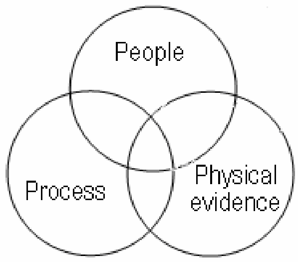


Figure 2.19: Additional three Ps

Source: George (2004: 307)

Furthermore, Weaver and Lawton (2006: 228) add "partnerships" as another "P" in order to reinforce the 7Ps of the services marketing mix in tourism. This extended marketing mix can be regarded as the 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix. All of these, in terms of product (offering), price, place, promotion, people, process, physical evidence and partnership, are discussed in detailed in the following text.

2.3.3 THE TOURISM (SERVICES) MARKETING MIX (8Ps)

As outlined in the above text, the marketing mix is extended as the 8Ps in order to suit tourism marketing, which is because of several basic issues. Firstly, the fundamental principles of tourism marketing, in comparison with the manufacturing industry, are the same in terms of general marketing theories, which can also be applied in tourism business, but, marketing operations, within tourism, has its own features (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 11). Practically, tourism marketing is more complex in comparison with other service sectors because it has more unique features[1].

Furthermore, tourism is a composite of several services and products that are offered by different organisations in different areas such as attractions, accommodation, transport, food and beverages and intermediaries, which cooperate in order to influence the outcome of tourism marketing (refer to Figure

[1] Including ownership, fixed location, seasonality, loyalty, high cost, distribution channels and the interdependence of the tourism offering, as well as the effect of external shocks (as discussed earlier in Section 2.3.1.4).

2.3). Finally, tourist demand is highly elastic and emotional and can be easily influenced by subjective factors such as motivation, perception, preferences and attitudes[1] (Jooste, 2005: 212-213).

Therefore, as a result of the above, these tactical activities, including offering (product), price, communication (promotion), place (distribution), people, process and physical evidence, as well as partnership, as displayed in Table 2.2, should be interacted and integrated in order to satisfy tourists.

Table 2.2: The 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix

Product (Offering)	Place (Distribution)	Promotion (Communication)	Price	People	Physical evidence	Process	Partnerships
Physical features Quality level Branding Packaging Warranties Product-line	Channel type Intermediaries Exposure Outlet locations Transportation Storage	Promotions Adversitising Salespeople Internet Publicity	Flexibility Terms Price level Discounts Allowances Differentia	Employees Communication Customers	Facility design Signage Equipment Employee dress Other tangibility	Activity flow Standardised Customised Reception Level of customer involvement	Intermediaries Accommodation Transportation Destination organisation Provide & public suppliers

Sources: Adapted from Jooste (2005: 216)

2.3.3.1 THE TOURISM OFFERING

The product, in terms of the offering in the tourism context, is the most foundational and important component of the marketing mix.

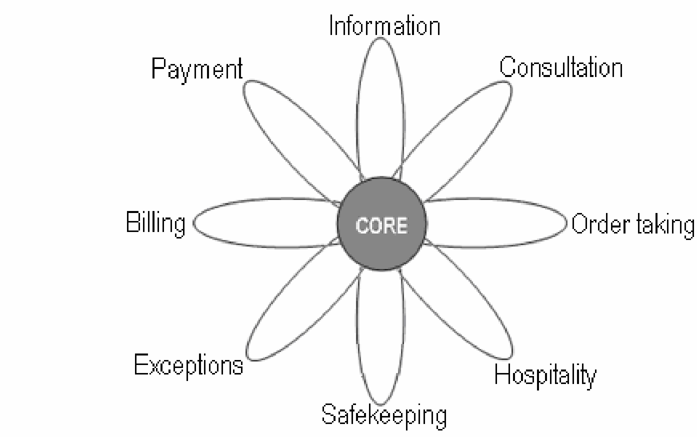
- **Creating the Service Product**

Firstly, it is necessary to probe how designing the service product can provide a basic understanding of the attributes of the tourism offering at a general level of the services. Indeed, it is a complex task to design a service product, since it requires an understanding of how the core and supplementary services should be combined, sequenced and scheduled in order to create an offering that meets the needs of target consumers. In order to shape the core of competitive advantage, marketing organisations should create distinctive branded service experiences for their consumers, which require all product elements at all stages of the service delivery process. In addition, the task of creating a service product often pays attention to improving the value-creating supplementary services that surround the core (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 122).

In creating a service product, Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 103) have proposed a model in Figure 2.20, the Flower of Service concept, which shows that most different types of core products often share use of

[1] These psychological and behavioural theories are discussed in Chapter Three.

similar supplementary elements.



FACILITATING SERVICES
- Information
- Order taking
- Billing
- Payment

ENHANCING SERVICES
- Consultation
- Hospitality
- Safekeeping
- Exceptions

Figure 2.20: The Flower of Service: core product and supplementary services

Source: Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 103)

In Figure 2.20, the core product supplies the central problem-solving benefits that customers seek, while supplementary services augment the core product, with both facilitating its use and enhancing its value and appeal. Not only does the extent and level of supplementary services often play a role in differentiating and positioning the core product, but it can also add value to the core product in order to charge a higher price.

According to Lovelock and Wirtz (2004:102), facilitating services include aspects such as (1) information, since customers require relevant information in order to obtain full value from any product or service; (2) order taking because once customers are ready to buy, a key supplementary element comes into play: accepting applications, orders and reservations, which should be polite, fast and accurate; (3) billing is common to almost all services, so that accurate, legible, completed and timely bills can reduce risk in the buying process; and (4) payment, which combines with billing into a single act.

Enhancing services include aspects such as: (1) consultation, a dialogue to probe customer requirements and then to develop a tailored solution such as an overseas holiday plan; (2) hospitality in terms of the quality of hospitality services that are offered by the host, which can increase or decrease satisfaction with the core product; (3) safekeeping, which is the most basic element in choosing the service product, since, unless certain safekeeping services are provided, some consumers may not come at all; and (4) exceptions involve supplementary services that fall outside the routine of normal service delivery, which means that marketers should anticipate exceptions and develop contingency plans in advance.

- **Shaping Tourism Offerings**

Instead of referring to it as service products in tourism, it is accurately referred to as tourism offerings because, according to Lumsdon (1997: 143), a tourism offering can be described as "*a combination of services, which delivers primarily intangible, sensual and psychological benefits but, which also includes some tangible elements*". This definition shows that (a) the tourism offering reveals strongly service-based attributes; (b) there are both tangible and intangible elements that are involved when buying a tourism offering; and (c) most destination organisations design a range of offerings to fit their positioning strategies in different segments (as shown earlier in Figure 2.13) (George, 2004: 188).

In order to clarify tourism offerings, Jooste (2005: 225), based on Lovelock and Wirtz's Flower of Service earlier in Figure 2.20, grouped the different features of an offering into three levels, namely core, expected and augmented levels. As shown below in Figure 2.21, the most basic level is the core offering, which is intangible and is located at the centre of the total offering. George (2004: 189) has pointed out that it is what the consumer really buys and represents the main benefits that consumers look for in order to satisfy their needs in terms of "the central problem-solving benefits that tourists seek".

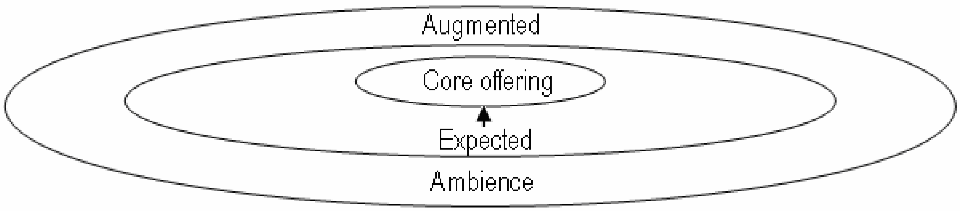


Figure 2.21: Levels of the tourism offering

Source: George (2004: 189)

On the second level, the expected offering is a combination of tangible goods and intangible services that should be present in order to enable the consumer to buy the core offering. The expected offering includes those features that consumers normally expect when they purchase an offering such as quality level, styling and brand name. Finally, the augmented offering is both tangible and intangible and integrates any additional customer services and benefits, which form the competitive advantage of the tourism offering (Swarbrooke, 2002: 45; Jooste, 2005: 225).

- **Branding Tourism Offerings**

As mentioned in George (2004: 192), the concept of branding tourism offerings is common within the marketing operation. Branding, in tourism marketing, according to Cooke (1996: A101), can be described as a name, term, colour, sign, design or a combination of these elements in order to identify the offerings of a company or destination, which distinguishes them from competitors.

Cooke also identified the attributes that are associated with a successful brand:

- ◎ It can be a name, symbol or both, which is well known;
- ◎ It is unique and cannot be copied, especially by competitors;
- ◎ It is relative to the consumer's self image;
- ◎ It represents the intangibles of a product;
- ◎ It informs and influences a consumer at the point of consumption; and
- ◎ It provides the foundation for all marketing activities.

The above attributes show that branding offerings (or destinations) are particularly important in tourism marketing. The tourism offering's name or trademark can achieve several advantages:

(1) Makes the offering easy to be bought and adds more value to the offering that they represent;
(2) As tangible evidence of the intangible attributes;
(3) Makes distinction in the positioning strategy that is relative to the competition and service; and
(4) Provides an effective instrument in promotion (communication mix).

- **Developing New Tourism Offerings**

In order to develop and retain their markets, it is important for destination marketing organisations to understand the development of new offerings (George, 2004: 200). Figure 2.22 directs possible permutations of market and offering, in other words, a new tourism offering may be based on the new and current combinations.

	Current offerings	New offerings
Current markets	Modify existing offering for current market	Launch new offering for current market
New markets	Reposition current offering to attract new market	Launch of new offering for new market

Figure 2.22: New tourism offerings

Source: George (2004: 198)

Depending on the above representation in Figure 2.22, new offerings, in this regard, may indicate the following (Lovelock, 1984[1], as cited in George, 2004: 200):

(i) Style changes such as changes in décor or changes on the logo;
(ii) Offering improvements, which involve an actual change to a feature of the offering that is already available in an established market;

[1] Lovelock, C.H. 1984. Development and implementing new services. *Developing New Services*. Chicago: AMA.

(iii) Offering line extensions, which are additions to the existing product-service offering range;
(iv) New offerings, which are developed by a company for its existing consumers; and
(v) Major innovations, which are entirely new offerings for new markets.

For South Africa's inbound tourism, China is a new market, particularly within the wine tourism sector. In this research, therefore, the Wine Routes would be examined by the quadrant in Figure 2.22 and then as a new component of the destination [South Africa] for promotion in China.

In order to develop the new offering, Dibb, Simkin, Pride and Ferrell (1994:14) proposed a six-step structure to describe this process, although not all new offerings should experience all of the six steps:

(1) Firstly, some ideas should be collected for developing the new offering (consumers are the most important and effective sources, while other sources may come from intermediaries, suppliers, competitors and internal employees);
(2) The next step is to screen out good ideas and to evaluate, which is termed a shortlisting of ideas;
(3) Thirdly, once an idea for developing a new offering has been chosen, a business analysis should be used to determine whether the idea is commercially viable;
(4) Fourthly, the offering development then brings the offering to the market;
(5) The fifth step is to test-market the offering or idea before the final step of developing the new offerings; and then
(6) Finally, offering the launch.

- **The Product Life Cycle (PLC)**

Similarly, with general products, the tourism offering also exhibits a characteristic life cycle, which is illustrated graphically with visitor numbers (sales) and profits, as shown below in Figure 2.23.

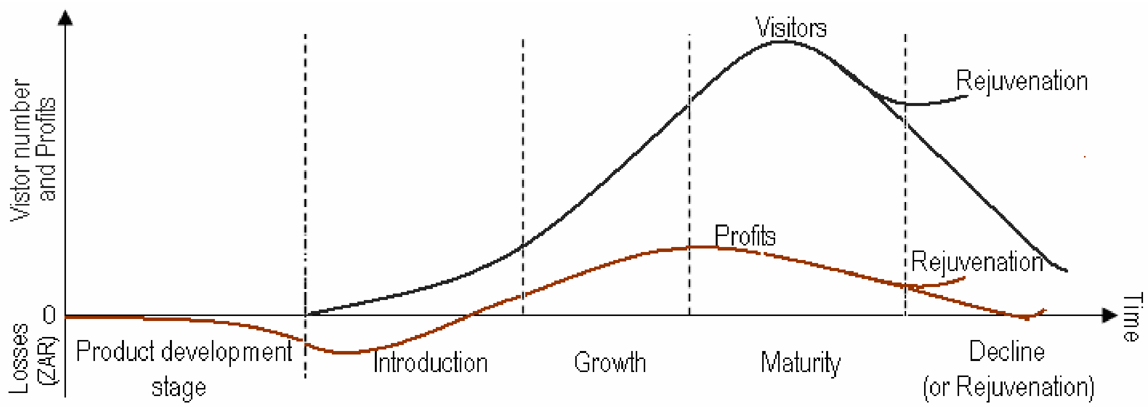


Figure 2.23: The product life cycle (PLC) (including visitors and profits)

Source: Kotler *et al.* (2006: 339)

Kotler *et al*. (2006: 338) have explained the five distinct stages of the product life cycle (PLC), as:

(i) Product development, which begins when the tourism organisation finds and develops a new tourism offering idea; during this stage, sales are zero and the investment costs add up;
(ii) Introduction, which is a period of slow sales growth as the offering is introduced onto the market; at this stage, profits are nonexistent because of the heavy expenses of product introduction;
(iii) Growth, which is a period of rapid market acceptance and increasing profits;
(iv) Maturity, which means that, at this stage, profits and sales growth are slowed down; and
(v) Decline is the period when sales and profits decrease, though this tourism offering may be rejuvenated owing to a number of reasons such as increased technology, increased attractions or changing consumer needs.

After considering an analysis of the tourism offering, pricing is now introduced, since the two are closely integrated.

2.3.3.2 PRICING IN TOURISM MARKETING

Price is a critical element within the marketing mix, since affordability constitutes an important pull factor in drawing tourists to particular destinations (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 222), while it is the most visible part of the marketing mix and plays an important role in satisfying the needs and desires of consumers (Jooste, 2005: 229).

Generally, a price is the amount of money that consumers pay for the exchange of benefits of having or using an offering (Lumsdon, 1997: 153). Price has different meanings for the final consumer and for the organisation. For the consumer, price represents an amount of money that is paid for a product, thus for the need satisfaction that the consumer receives. On the other hand, for the organisation, price is important since it relates directly to the organisation's income and profitability because: "*profits = total income - total costs; and total income = price x sales*".

Referring to the five stages of the product life cycle (PLC) in Figure 2.23, each face different levels of competition and each may be priced by using different criteria in terms of the product life cycle (PLC), which can influence the pricing decision (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 223). In reality, it is more difficult to define the costs in tourism business (services) than in a manufacturing operation, which results in the difficulty of tourism pricing. In order to determine an effective pricing strategy, a tourism marketing organisation should understand more internal and external factors, which influence pricing decisions such as its objectives, costs, customer value creating and competitor pricing. For example:

(i) A challenge is to relate the value that customers perceive in a tourism offering to the price that they are willing to pay for it, which means that tourism pricing can be influenced by time, effort and different market segments;

(ii) Tourism pricing may also refer to competitor pricing, but this comparison cannot depend on direct "price versus price", since competitive pricing should take all relevant factors into account; and

(iii) Tourism marketing organisations should also consider revenue management and high fixed costs (see Section 2.3.1.4) in the pricing decision of their offerings (George, 2004: 209).

However, according to Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 178), an appropriate pricing strategy is highly creative, which should address the central issue of what price to charge for selling a given unit of service, at a particular time, since most services combine multiple elements.

2.3.3.3 TOURISM PROMOTION (COMMUNICATION MIX)

Promotion is the descriptive term of the mix of communication activities, which tourism marketing organisations carry out in order to influence those sectors on whom their sales depend (Gilbert, 1993b: 258). The aim of promotional activities is to create a demand for an offering (product or service) by attracting attention, generating interest, creating a desire and obtaining action. Substantively, promotion is the way in which the tourism organisation communicates in an effective way with its target customers (Jooste, 2005: 237).

The communication process can be depicted as follows (George, 2004: 238-239):

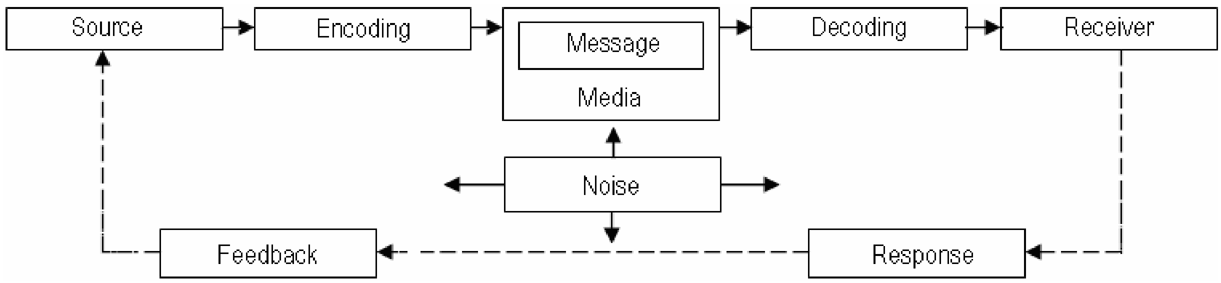


Figure 2.24: Principles and process of communication

Source: George (2004: 239)

As shown below in Figure 2.24, the elements within the process of communication can be divided into four groups:

(1) The source (person or organisation with a message to deliver to consumers) and the receiver (people who notice or hear the source's message, namely the consumers) are major parties in communication;

(2) Two are major communication tools, namely the message (what the source wants to communicate and hopes the receiver understands) and the media (communication channels through which the message moves from source to receiver);

(3) Encoding (the process of arranging the message into a symbolic form that will be clearly understood by the target market), decoding (receivers interpret the message for themselves), direct response (the ultimate objective of all promotion is to affect consumer buying behaviour) and feedback (the response message that the receiver sends back to the source) are the four major functions of communication; while

(4) Noise (distortion) is the last element within the communication process.

Another variation to the communication process is the ATR (awareness, trial and reinforcement) model. In this instance, a potential consumer firstly becomes aware of the new tourism offering, which is often achieved by mass media communication techniques. After the awareness stage, the consumer moves to the trial stage where he or she should be encouraged to try the offering. Finally, the consumer moves to the reinforcement stage. It is important to note that the organisation should retain the consumer by reinforcing the quality in order to achieve a repeat purchase and reinforce its market position by continual promotion (George, 2004: 240).

As a marketing method, communication is vital to all business companies. However, the marketing communication strategy for services requires a bit of a different emphasis from that used to market goods. The communication tasks of service marketing organisations include emphasizing clues from services that are difficult to evaluate, clarifying the nature and sequence of the service performance, highlighting the performance of customer contact personnel and educating the customer about how to effectively participate in service delivery (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 148).

Particularly, as noted in Kotler and Keller (2006: 421-423), managing service brands is a key task in the communication of services marketing, which means that marketing organisations should first differentiate between their services and then develop appropriate brand strategies. Developing brand strategies for a service brand requires special attention in choosing brand elements, establishing image dimensions and devising a branding strategy. Some relevant discussions in this regard are also mentioned in the previous text (see Positioning in Section 2.3.2.1; and Branding Tourism Offerings in Section 2.3.3.1).

In practice, marketing is a blended process of various communication techniques. The following table (Table 2.3) depicts communication instruments that are available to the services marketing manager.

Table 2.3: The marketing communications mix for services

Personal Communication	Advertising	Sales Promotion	Publicity and Public Relations	Instructional Materials	Corporate Design
Selling	Broadcast	Sampling	Press releases	Web sites	Signage
Customer service	Print	Coupons	Press conferences	Manuals	Interior décor
Training	Internet	Gifts	Special events	Brochures	Vehicles
Telemarketing	Outdoor	Sign-up rebates	Sponsorship	A / V cassettes	Equipment
* Word-of-mouth (other customers)	Direct mail	Prize promotions	Trade shows, exhibitions	Software CD-Rom	Stationery
			* Media-initiated coverage	Voice mail	Uniforms

Source: Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 135) * Denotes communication originating from outside the organisation

Similar to the communication mix of services, Swarbrooke and Horner (1999: 190-191) identified eight distinct ways of communicating a promotional message to the public within the tourism context:

- Advertising the tourism offering by a selected medium such as radio, television or the Internet;
- Promote tourism offerings or interaction with consumers via the Internet;
- Direct marketing activities such as mail and telephones;
- Sales promotion;
- By public image building or through public relations;
- In face-to-face situations using personal selling techniques;
- Using various forms of printed literature such as brochures; and
- Engaging in sponsorship.

With regard to promotion strategies, Push and Pull strategy is observable as an influencing factor in setting the communication mix within tourism. Figure 2.25 shows a comparison of the two strategies. A Push strategy is a technique by which a destination organisation promotes directly to the intermediaries who stock the offerings or the necessary resources and then pushes their consumers to visit the region. Conversely, the destination organisation can also use a Pull strategy in terms of using promotional techniques, which are directed at consumers to encourage them to visit the region (George, 2004: 243).

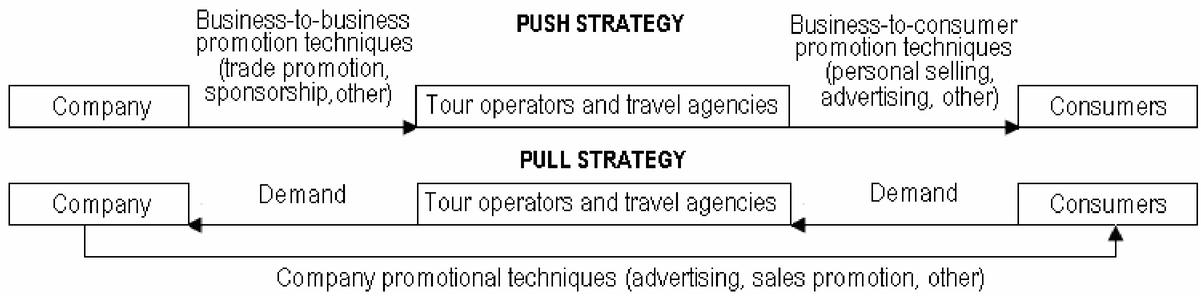


Figure 2.25: Push versus Pull promotion strategy

Source: Kotler *et al.* (2006: 560)

2.3.3.4 TOURISM DISTRIBUTION (PLACE)

Tourism marketing channels differ from manufacturing marketing channels, since tourism offerings are "experiences" and cannot be delivered from one point to another such as physical goods. This means that the principium of services distribution can provide a basic understanding to tourism distribution.

- **Principium in Distributing Services**

There is often nothing to move in services marketing because intangible products are not carried and stored and informational transactions are increasingly conducted by electronic and not physical channels. In a typical sales cycle, services distribution embraces three interrelated elements (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 182):

(1) Information and promotion flow, which refer to the distribution of information and promotion materials relating to the service offer, while its objective is to urge customers' interest in buying the service;
(2) Negotiation flow, which focuses on reaching an agreement on the service features and configuration, as well as the terms of the offer so that a purchase contract can be closed because its objective is to sell the right to use a service (such as sell a reservation or a ticket); and
(3) Product flow, which, for many services, particularly those that involve people or possession processing, requires physical facilities for delivery in terms of distribution strategy, which requires development of a network of local sites; for information-processing services, the product flow can be undertaken via electronic channels by using one or more of the centralised sites.

According to the "Flower of Service" in Figure 2.20, there is an important distinction between core and supplementary services. Many core services require a physical location, which severely restricts distribution, since tourism relies on a specific destination. Supplementary services are informational in nature and can be widely distributed and cost-effective. Advanced technology, especially Information Technology (IT), can also provide several ways and more flexibility in the distribution of services such as travellers who can prejudge the value of a destination via the Internet. Furthermore, services can be delivered in flexible time such as a "24/7" service each day of the year (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 204).

Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 204) have noted that intermediaries in services marketing are a part of the service offering and reinforce the core product. The Flower of Service framework, as depicted in Figure 2.26, shows an example in which the core product is delivered by the originating supplier, together with certain supplementary elements in the informational, consultation and exceptions categories. Delivery of the remaining supplementary services packaged with this offering, however, has been delegated in order to an intermediary to complete the offering as experienced by the customer.

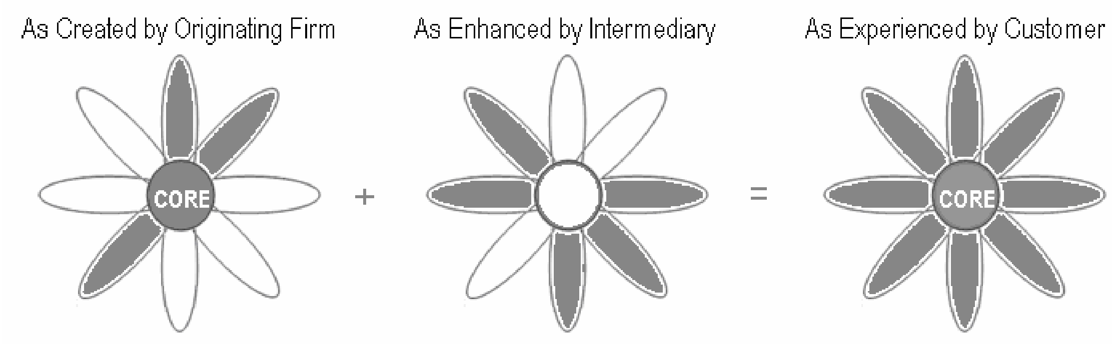


Figure 2.26: Splitting responsibilities for supplementary service elements

Source: Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 193)

In Table 2.4, Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 183) have also represented some possible options, which, with regard to the methods of service delivery, have further noted that the different distribution channels are often combined with delivery of the same service to consumers.

Table 2.4: Methods of service delivery

Nature of Interaction between Customer and Service Organisation	*Availability of Service Outlets*	
	Single Site	*Multiple Sites*
Customer goes to service organisation (such as tourists visiting a holiday destination)	Theatre Barbershop	Bus service Fast-food chain
Service organisation comes to customer	House painting Mobile car wash	Mail delivery Auto club road service
Customer and service organisation transact at arm's length (mail or electronic communications)	Credit card company Local TV station	Broadcast network Telephone company

Source: Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 183)

- **Distributing Tourism**

Based on the above principium of services distribution, tourism distribution would be easy to understand. In tourism marketing, the Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) should attract consumers (tourists) to them by selling their offerings directly or indirectly through one or more tourism destination channel; at the same time, these distribution channels can also influence consumers' holiday choices. As discussed in George (2004: 220), these tourism distribution channels can be regarded as a set of independent organisations, which are involved in the process of making a product or service available to consumers in terms of tourism intermediaries (see Section 2.2.4.5).

As discussed earlier, tourism intermediaries may include any dealer in the distribution chain who can be regarded as a link or "middleman" between destination organisations and their consumers. According to George (2004: 221-231), two different groups of tourism intermediaries can be mentioned here, namely:

(i) Indirect marketing intermediaries (refer to Push strategy in Figure 2.25), which include tour brokers and operators, travel agencies, sales people, professional conference organisers or destination management companies, incentive travel planners, the National Tourism Organisations (NTOs), the Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) and tourist information centres (TICs); and

(ii) Direct marketing intermediaries (refer to Pull strategy in Figure 2.25), which include the Internet, digital television and other means of multimedia and Information Technology (IT).

All of the above tourism intermediaries are available to both consumers and tourism organisations, since they have some common functions, which benefit both supply and demand. George (2004: 221-222) and Kotler *et al*. (2006: 533-534) have summarised these major common functions, which include:

◎ Tourism intermediaries are retailers;
◎ Tourism intermediaries are information memorisers and exchangers;
◎ Tourism intermediaries are destination or attraction promoters;
◎ Tourism intermediaries are professional holiday solvers, especially for group buyers; and
◎ Tourism intermediaries can also reduce business and purchasing risks.

The actual intermediaries have been discussed earlier in the case of marketing South Africa as a destination for China (refer to Section 2.2.4.5). Overall, as reported in South African Tourism (SAT) (2006a: 29), a holistic distribution channel can be depicted, as shown below in Figure 2.27. It shows that in this instance, in the choice of intermediary, the destination organisations should consider factors, not only costs, channel control and the service quality, but also the related policy or regulation, such as the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system.

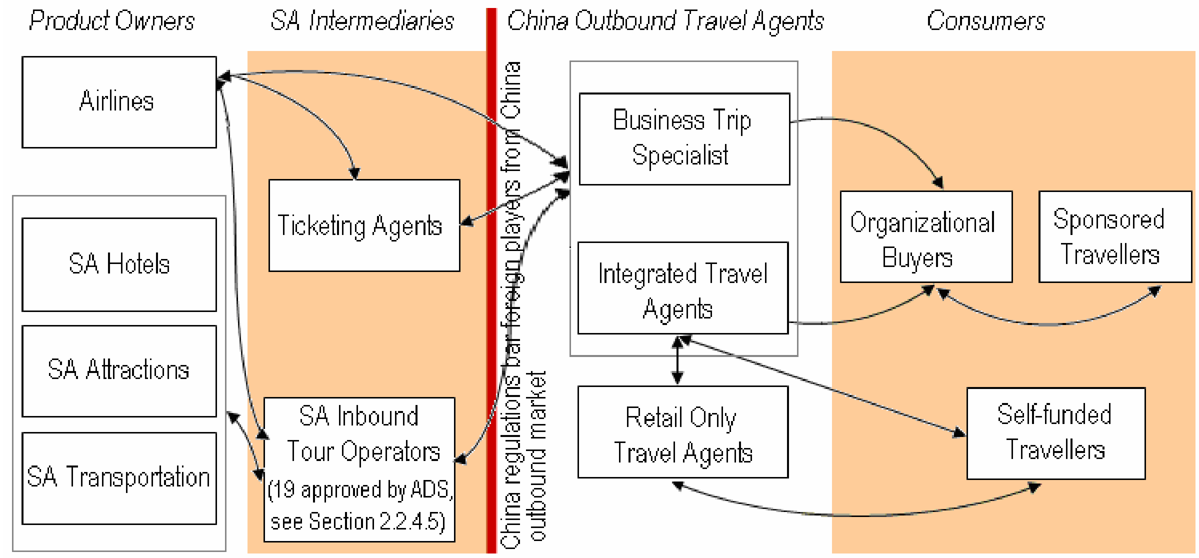


Figure 2.27: Distributing South Africa as a destination to Chinese tourists

Source: SAT (2006a: 29)

2.3.3.5 PHYSICAL EVIDENCE, PROCESS AND PEOPLE

As mentioned earlier in Section 2.3.2.2 (Tactical Marketing), in order to capture the distinctive nature of service performances, three extending strategies (3Ps), namely physical evidence, process and people, are associated with the above 4Ps of the marketing mix and represent a set of interrelated decision variables in the managing process of services delivery. Hence, each extending “P” is respectively introduced within general services marketing before they move into the context of tourism marketing.

- **Physical Evidences**

Physical evidences, including physical environment, relate to the style and appearance of the physical surroundings and other experiential elements that are encountered by customers at service delivery sites (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 21). As indicated in Turley and Milliman (2000), physical evidences are tangible and complex, which can be identified by the following main dimensions:

- ◎ The impact of ambient conditions such as buildings, landscaping, music, scent and colour;
- ◎ Spatial layout (size and shape of furnishings, counters and potential machinery and equipment, as well as the ways in which they are arranged) and functionality (the ability of those items to facilitate the performance of service transactions);
- ◎ Signs and symbols, which include brands, printed materials and other visible cues; and
- ◎ People, in terms of the appearance and behaviour of both staff members and customers, which can reinforce or detract from the impression created by a service environment.

As part of the service experience and value proposition, Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 298) have pointed out that the purpose of physical evidences is to build a service image, position the service offering and make the differentiation of the service offering. Furthermore, physical evidences also facilitate the service encounters and enhance productivity. Therefore, physical evidences play an important role in shaping service experience and delivering customer satisfaction.

- **Process**

Creating and delivering services to customers require the design and implementation of an effective process. A process, in this regard, should be seen as the method and sequence of actions in the service performance. This important process is noted by Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 22) who mention that badly designed processes often lead to slow, bureaucratic and ineffective service delivery, which finally result in customers being dissatisfied; similarly, poor processes make it difficult for front-line staff to do their jobs well, resulting in low productivity and the likelihood of service failure.

A powerful tool to design the service process is blueprinting, which is a more sophisticated version of flowcharting and includes flows, sequences, relationships and dependencies (Shostack, 1992: 77). Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 232) have further introduced the development of a service blueprint:

(i) Firstly, all the key activities, which are involved in creating and delivering the service, should be identified before these activities, with linkages between them, can together define a "big picture";
(ii) Secondly, the blueprint designer should also create a script for employees and consumers because in high-contact services, employees interact directly with consumers;
(iii) Thirdly, an important part of process design is to define the roles of customers in the production of services, including to determine their level of desired participation and to motivate and teach them to play their part in service delivery; and
(iv) Finally, the design of service blueprinting also includes activities such as setting service standards, identifying fail points and improving reliability of service processes by failure proofing.

In conclusion, the design of an appropriate service process can satisfy customers and render operations efficient in terms of marketers and operations specialists who should work at obtaining this.

- **People**

"People" is a crucial strategy in the services marketing mix because many services depend on direct interaction between customers and a firm's employees. According to Bove and Johnson (2001), from both the perspectives of a customer and frontline staff within a firm, the encounter with each side is probably the most important aspect of the service in terms of obtaining or providing. It should be noted that the way service is delivered by frontline staff, can be an important source of differentiation, as well as competitive advantage. Additionally, the strength of the relationship between customers and frontline staff is often an important driver of customer loyalty. The reason for the importance of frontline staff in services marketing, as explained by Lovelock and Wirtz (2004: 310), are as follows:

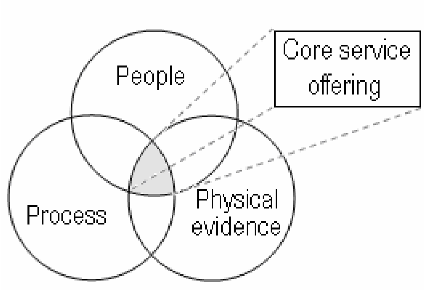
◎ Frontline staff is a core part of the product and significantly determines service quality;
◎ Frontline staff represents the service company; and
◎ As seen by customers, frontline staff and services are often a core part of the brand.

Furthermore, it should be pointed out here that service quality management is always implicated with people because people are not only the "service carriers", but also the "service accepters". The relevant literature, concerning service quality and gaps control, was discussed in a previous context (see Section 2.3.1.5, Service Quality Gaps).

Hence, a successful service company devotes significant effort to recruiting, training and motivating their employees, as well as building high-performance service delivery teams and a service leading culture within the company (Kotler *et al.*, 2006: 660).

- **People, Physical evidences and Process in Tourism Marketing**

The extended 3Ps in services marketing are further cited into specific tourism marketing, which can provide indispensable theories in terms of the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes. In an overview, these extended three Ps work together in tourism business and shape the core offering, which are depicted below in Figure 2.28.



People	Physical evidence	Process
Employees	Décor/atmosphere	Flow of activities
Consumers	Equipment/facilities	Reception
Communicating culture and values	Colour scheme	Staff procedures
Staff training	Signage/Stationary	Queuing
Employee research	Staff dress/uniform	Ticketing
	Image/company logo	

Figure 2.28: Additional three Ps with their details

Source: Lumsdon (1997: 142); George (2004: 307)

As mentioned earlier, people can be regarded as the most important force in services marketing, especially vitally in tourism, so that tourism is often referred to as a "people industry" (George, 2004: 307). According to Weaver and Lawton (2006: 220), people in tourism marketing should be seen within a wider context, including service personnel, local residents at the destination and the tourists themselves. Zeithaml and Bitner (1996: 26) have identified that people within the tourism industry are all human actors who play a part in service delivery and thus influence the tourist's perceptions in terms of the organisation's staff, the tourists and other people within the service environment.

Furthermore, tourism services are essentially intangible, since tourists often rely on physical evidences in order to evaluate the offering before the holiday is purchased and they also use physical evidences to assess their contentment with the offering during and after the holiday (Jooste, 2005: 245). On the supply side, the role of the tourism organisation is to provide physical evidences or tangible cues of the standard of services, from both the interior (internal resources) and exterior (external resources but can be utilised by the firm) (George, 2004: 312). Additionally, physical environment also significantly influences tourist perceptions, including the destination's macro environment and service infrastructure.

As mentioned earlier, tourism is an experience process. George (2004: 314) has argued that the process includes all the procedures, mechanisms and routines by which a tourism offering is created and delivered to a consumer. Tourism offerings cannot be held and owned owing to its intangible nature, in other words, tourists receive benefits from the offering that provide process, by attending, feeling, experiencing and participating.

Furthermore, blueprinting has adapted tourism marketing to effectively help the tourism organisation to plan and control this complex process (Shostack, 1984: 133-139). An introduction to blueprinting was made in an earlier text (see Process in Section 2.3.3.5).

2.3.3.6 PARTNERSHIPS

In addition to the above mentioned seven Ps, "partnerships", as an extended special strategy, is also citied into tourism marketing in terms of the last "P" of the 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 228). Constitutionally, this reveals the relationship between marketing and the various sectors within the tourism industry, as depicted earlier in Figure 2.3. In other words, the tourism organisation should pay attention to building its cooperation network, not only within the tourism industry, but also with other industries and includes both the private and public sectors.

In the case of marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, it not only needs internal cooperation within the tourism industry, but also involves players from the wine industry. Except for tourism actors such as South African Tourism (SAT), Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU) and local tourism information centres, the partners of wine tourism, also include Wines of South Africa (WOSA), South African Wines and Brandy Company (SAWB), wine tourism media and wine farms, as well as all tourist attractions in the Cape Winelands (for example, golf courts). In addition, in this case, the partners should also include industry participators in China such as travel agencies and the media. These particular tourism organisations are also listed later in this chapter, which deals with destination marketing.

In conclusion, this extended tourism marketing mix is based on the nature of services and shows off tourism features. The 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix have provided much greater flexibility in tourism business operations specifically and has sketched basic approaches to market wine tourism. However, tourism marketing is more than the 8Ps and also involves another important component, namely destination marketing, which is introduced in the following text.

2.3.4 DESTINATION MARKETING

The destination region is the place to which the tourist travels, while the attractions at the destination generate the visit (Cooper, 1993a: 77). This means that the destination region is perhaps one of the most important elements in the basic, whole tourism system (as illustrated in Figure 2.29), especially within the inbound tourism sector (Leiper, 2004; George, 2004: 334). The marketing of destinations combines all aspects of tourism that is perhaps the most complicated activity in tourism business.

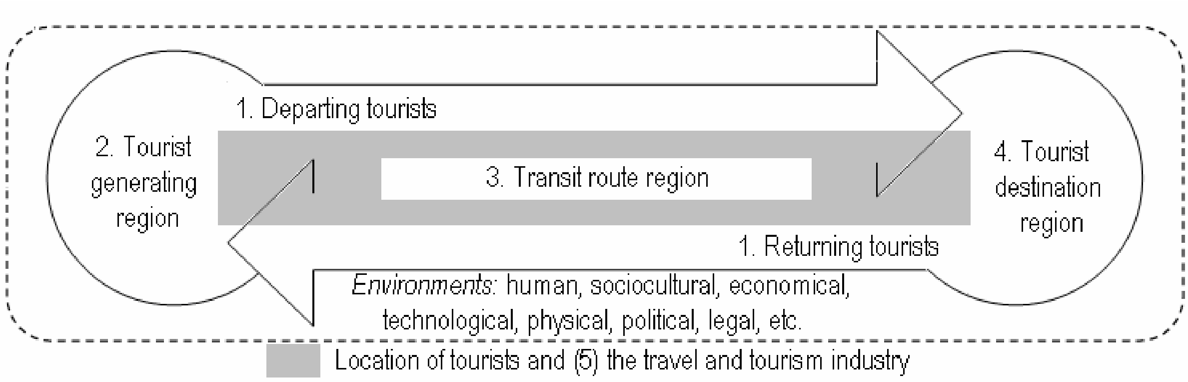


Figure 2.29: A basic whole tourism system
Source: Leiper (2004)

- **Definition, Complexity and Common Features**

If George's (2004: 334) definition of a destination is taken as "*a place, including a physical or perceived location, consisting of primary and secondary attractions and supplying amenities that entice people to visit; basically, it is where offerings that are designed to meet tourist needs, are located*", then the following implications should be noted:

(i) Destinations are often a perceived location, which refers to the image (a mental map) that the prospective visitor holds of a destination; and
(ii) The prospective visitor may have a mental picture of a physical boundary of the destination such as a city or a market-created boundary.

Furthermore, the above definition also shows that "*destination choice can be seen as the central core of the interface between geography and psychology in tourism*" (Oppermann, 2000: 21).

From a marketing perspective, the principles of marketing destinations are no different from those of marketing tourism offerings. However, destinations are not single units so that the marketing theory is far more complex, since they are multifaceted. Reasons for this complexity within destination marketing are offered by George (2004: 334):

(1) The destination range is uncertain, since a destination may be a country, province or city/countryside;
(2) Tourists may arrange to visit more than one place in several countries in one trip;
(3) Furthermore, tangible (such as attractions, accommodation and transport) and intangible features (such as social and cultural elements) occur at the same time in destination marketing; and
(4) Adding to the complexity, there is no direct charge for visiting a destination because visitors pay for individual attractions and amenities at a destination, which means that it is virtually impossible to control the number of visitors (the demand) who enter the destination.

Although marketing destinations is complex, Cooper (1993b: 81) has identified some common features of destinations in order to clarify the diversity of tourist destinations, which are outlined below:

(1) Destinations are cultural appraisals in terms of visitors having to consider a destination as attractive and worthy of the investment of time and money to visit;
(2) Destinations and their consumers are inseparable, which means that destinations are where tourism is produced and consumed;
(3) Destinations are not only used by tourists, but also by other groups such as local residents; and
(4) Various elements of the destination should be complementary in its tourism marketing.

- **The Destination-Mix**

Generally, the destination can be seen as a core, which comprises all tourism components (Cooper, 1993b: 81). As introduced by George (2004: 335), an effective method in destination marketing can be characterised by the "four As", in terms of the destination marketing mix, which is shown in Figure 2.30.

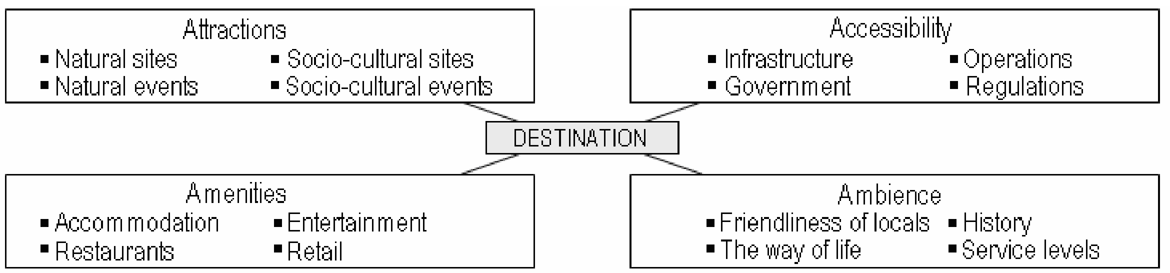


Figure 2.30: The tourism destination-mix

Source: George (2004: 335)

George (2004: 335) has argued that the above mentioned components of the tourism destination-mix (or destination amalgam) are interdependent and that all of them should be present to produce a satisfying holiday experience. Unlike the marketing mix or communication mix, the destination-marketing organisation has little, if any, control over the destination-mix components. Apart from tourist attractions (as discussed earlier in Section 2.2.4.1), another three components are introduced here.

Amenities are desirable supporting offerings at a destination that serve the needs of visitors while they are away from home, which may include: accommodation at the destination, restaurants, entertainment, retail outline (such as shopping malls and centres, travel agencies, souvenirs and curios), sports and activities, transport and communication at the destination and other amenities and services (such as information services, hairdressing and beauty salons, language schools and security services).

Accessibility, on the other hand, means that a place is easy to get to and this component in the destination-mix includes infrastructure (such as airports, roads and railways), operations (such as routes available, frequency of services and prices charged) and government regulations and equipment (size, speed and range of public transport vehicles). Ambience, namely atmosphere, means that a destination not only has physical tourist-related features, but also comprises social and cultural features.

The destination-mix can assist with destination auditing, which means that it can be used by destination organisations to know what resources are available within a destination (Seaton, 1996: 351). However, an analysis of the above component resources only shows what the destination is; in destination marketing, it is equally important to understand what is thought to exist, namely destination image.

- **Destination Image**

According to Oppermann (2000: 24) and Baloglu (2000: 66), a tourist destination is an interface of geography and psychology in tourism, which means that psychology (personal variables)[1] and geography (stimulus variables) are directly linked to destination image in the form of cognitive maps and perceptual differences of the destination regions and/or between different origin regions. In short, the destination image can be described as "*the visual or mental impression of a place or a product experienced by the general public*" (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1995).

"*All destinations have images (some of them may be good, some bad or indifferent)*" (George, 2004: 345), which is based on any resource from the destination-mix or their combination, since the destination image can be regarded as a "reflection" of the 4As (or part of the 4As) in the mind of a prospective consumer. During the process of information perceiving (perception), the consumer has perceptual biases, which influence the formation of the destination image. In other words, perception towards an image can be seen as a result of general exposure to the promotional means (Ateljevic, 2000: 197).

[1] The psychological and personal factors (also listed earlier in Figure 2.31) are studied during the next chapter.

In destination marketing, the destination images are significant because they are the main element in branding the destination and its offerings, as well as effecting market positioning (see Section 2.3.2.1). Furthermore, as mentioned above, destination images are positioned between supply and demand. This means that destination images are influenced by both consumer/personal and supply (stimulus) factors (as depicted in Figure 2.31) before they act, in reverse, on consumers' holiday purchases.

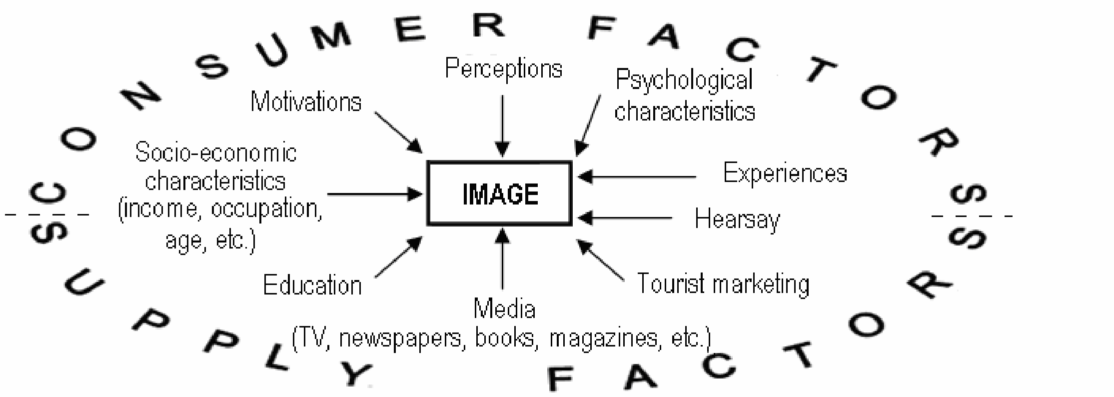


Figure 2.31: Factors that influence the destination image

Source: Stabler (1988: 142)

As mentioned by George (2004: 346), one of the key tasks in terms of marketing a destination, is to develop, maintain or alter the image of a destination, which is in line with the target market. Therefore, the marketing organisation should be aware that destination images are formed from several sources of information. Two main kinds of image sources are identified by George (2004: 346):

(i) Organic image sources, which include personal experience, word-of-mouth, the media and education, since most of them are out of the destination organisation's control; and
(ii) Induced image sources, which are designed by promotional agencies such as destination organisations that provide advertising and promotion on behalf of destinations and offerings.

- **Destination Organisations and Destination Marketing Techniques**

Destination organisations can be classified by the size of their destinations. The terms DMOs (Destination Marketing Organisations) and NTOs (National Tourism Organisations) tend to be used interchangeably. They are public-sector organisations but not operators or producers.

In South Africa, the term NTO (National Tourism Organisation) includes the country as a whole [South African Tourism (SAT) is the country's NTO], while the term DMO (Destination Marketing Organisation) is used for a region or province [such as Cape Town Routes Unlimited (CTRU) for the Western Cape Province]. Under the National Tourism Organisations (NTOs) and Destination Marketing Organisations

(DMOs), destination organisations are local authorities in terms of TICs (Tourism Information Centres or local tourism boards/bureaus/offices) such as the Stellenbosch Tourism Information Bureau (STIB) and the Tourism Marketing Office of the Cape Winelands District Municipality. The functions and references of these destination organisations and specific wine tourism players, in marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes, are explained in the section: Clarification of Basic Terms and Concepts.

George (2004: 338-339) has identified the marketing activities of the Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) and National Tourism Organisations (NTOs), which include promotion, providing information to tourists, portraying an image of the destination, providing amenities for locals, increasing pride in the destination, improving international ties, organising workshops and trade shows, conducting research and packaging the destination. Most Tourism Information Centres (TICs), besides promoting destinations, distributing brochures and travel guides/booklets, make room and tourist attraction bookings and provide any information about the destination, as requested by visitors.

Furthermore, George (2004: 341) has also summarised the major destination marketing techniques, which are applied by the Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) that are responsible for promoting the destination's attractions, including direct marketing, sales promotions, brochures, public relations and trade fairs and exhibitions.

Seaton (1996: 350), therefore, has summarised that the five major operations of destination marketing include:

(1) Assessing the current market(s) and forecasting future market(s) (taking into account general environmental trends);
(2) Auditing the destination and analysing its appeal to the markets (again taking into account general environmental trends);
(3) Developing strategic objectives and a marketing mix;
(4) Creating an organisation to implement the objectives; and
(5) Evaluating the results.

2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has briefly introduced the tourism industry, services and the marketing principle. Firstly, through the study of tourism, the concepts of tourism, tourists and Special Interest Tourism (SIT), as well as the tourism industry and its five main industrial components, particularly attractions, were presented. Subsequently, based on the theoretical study of the nature of services and strategic marketing, the 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix and destination marketing, were respectively analysed.

As the result, the theories studied in this chapter have provided a basic understanding of tourism business and its marketing activities at both strategic and tactical levels. Based on this understanding, consumers' psychological behaviour, particularly within the tourism context, is studied during the next chapter (Chapter Three). These two chapters should structure a theoretical framework for wine tourism literature, which is presented in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER THREE: MODELLING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN TOURISM

Following a review of the theories of tourism and marketing during the previous chapter, a study of consumer behaviour is covered in this chapter because all tourism and marketing activities should surround consumers and satisfy their needs and wants (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 5). This study began as an overview of consumer behaviour, including consumer characteristics, psychology and the buying decision process, followed by an analysis of tourists' psychological behaviour. This chapter further reinforced the theoretical foundation adequately for the literature study of wine tourism in Chapter Four.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As mentioned by Schiffman and Kanuk (1991:18), behavioural studies can provide a basis to understand consumers, as well as in a tourism context, which satisfies their needs by purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products, services and ideas. Within consumer research, psychographics refer to the scientific technique of using psychology and demographics in order to measure and categorise consumer lifestyles and involves measuring activities, interests and opinions (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 252). The use of psychographics, for the study of Chinese tourists, may provide plentiful and meaningful data about their psychological and demographic profiles, which affect consumption motivations and the perceptions of the Western Cape Wine Routes.

3.2 OVERVIEW OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Within consumer studies, a central task is to analyse and understand consumer behaviour. Consumer behaviour can be described as that, which consumers display when they search, purchase, use, evaluate and dispose of products, services and ideas, which they expect will satisfy their needs (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: 6). Although several consumer models exist, Kotler and Keller's (2006: 184) model, in Figure 3.1, would suffice to illustrate behavioural aspects of wine tourists.

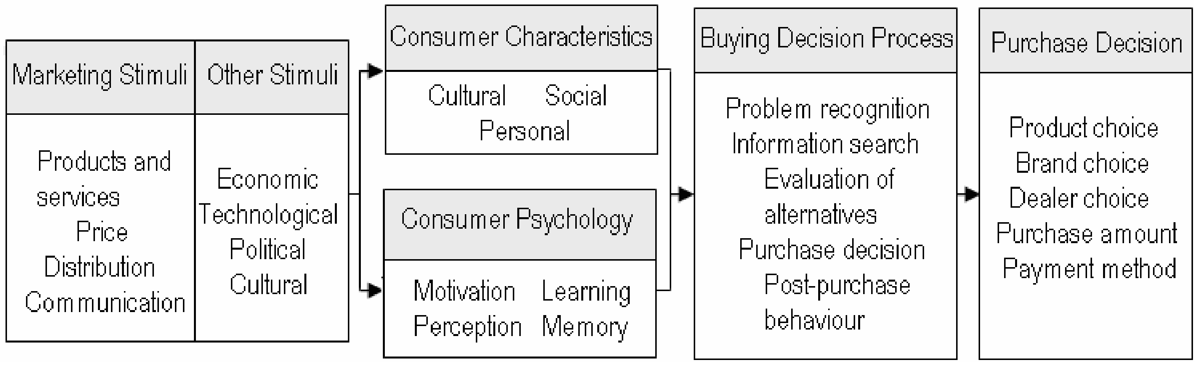


Figure 3.1: A model of consumer behaviour

Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 184)

The model, as depicted in Figure 3.1, shows that an understanding of consumer behaviour is triggered by some marketing stimuli, namely the marketing mix, as discussed early. After this marketing process, environmental stimuli enter the consumer's consciousness when a set of psychological processes combine with certain consumer characteristics, which are influencing factors and result in the buying process and decisions. The psychological characteristics depend on outside stimuli and individual characteristics but much deeper than other factors, which would directly influence consumer buying decisions (refer to Figure 3.2). Therefore, the following literature study includes three aspects in sequential order, namely consumer characteristics, consumer psychology and consumer buying decisions, which can also provide a foundation in order to further study tourist behaviour.

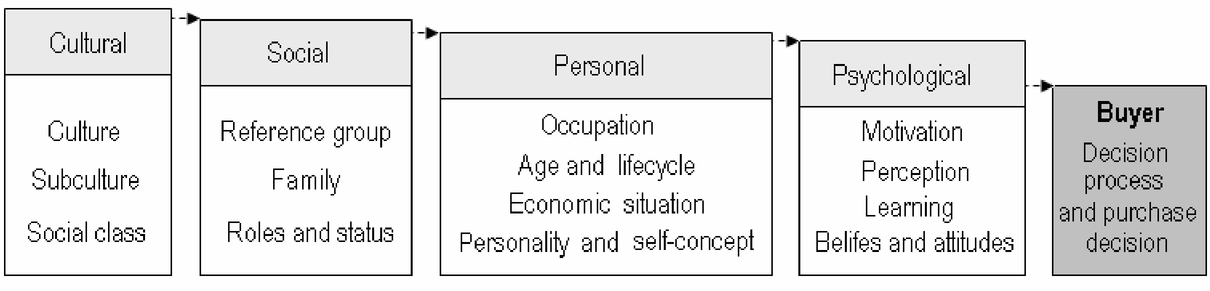


Figure 3.2: Factors that influence consumer behaviour

Source: Kotler *et al.* (2006: 199)

3.2.1 CONSUMER CHARACTERISTICS

As shown above in Figures 3.1 and 3.2, consumers' characteristics, which include cultural, social and personal factors, strongly influence their purchase decisions. Mostly, these factors cannot be controlled by marketing organisations but should be taken into account (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 199).

3.2.1.1 CULTURAL FACTORS

There are three cultural factors, namely (i) culture, (ii) subculture and (iii) social class, which exert the widest and deepest influences on buyer behaviour (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 174).

- **Culture and Subculture**

Culture is the fundamental determination of a person's wants and behaviours, which are mapped by a set of values, perceptions, preferences and behaviours that are acquired from family, school, community and other institutions during a person's growth (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 912). From a consumer- behaviour perspective, culture can be regarded as a sum of learned beliefs, values and customs, which serve to direct consumer behaviour of members of a particular society (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000: 322). Furthermore, each culture can be disassembled into smaller subcultures that provide more specific identification and socialisation for their members. Subcultures include nationalities, religions, racial groups and geographic regions, which implicate segmentation and is reflected by multicultural marketing strategies (Peter and Olson, 2005: 321-336).

Consider this factor in the case of Chinese outbound tourism, where Chinese tourists represent distinct characters in comparison with westerners because of the oriental cultural background. Furthermore, owing to the geographical, economic and ethical (fifty-six ethical groups), as well as religion and custom diversity in China, visible subcultures exist in different regions and may influence the psychological and behavioural preferences of Chinese overseas travellers who come from different provinces. However, within a holistic view, as found in tourist researches (Chan, 2004; Yu, 2004; Zhang, 2006), most Chinese overseas tourists tend to be more attracted to exoticism than characteristic cultural features.

- **Social Class**

Another cultural factor comprises social class, which encompasses a group of people within a country who are regarded as equal in status or community esteem, who socialise on a regular basis, both formally and informally and who share behaviour patterns (Lamb, Joseph and McDaniel, 2002). Virtually all human societies exhibit social stratification. This social stratification sometimes takes the form of a caste system where members of different castes are reared for certain roles and cannot change their caste membership.

More frequently, it takes the form of social classes, relatively homogeneous and enduring divisions within a society, which are hierarchically ordered and whose members share similar values, interests and behaviour (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 175). Social classes have distinctive behaviour patterns that are a function of occupation, education and income, which also show distinctive product and brand preferences in many areas, especially in leisure activities (Sivadas, 1997: 466). Strydom (2006: 76) has further noted that every country has a specific social class structure, but, generally, it can be divided into upper, middle and lower class. In effect, a strong middle class means that there is a vigorous and persistent purchasing power, which accelerates and maintains an emerging experiential economy, such as that, which exists in tourism markets.

During the past three decades, a rising middle class has emerged in China, especially in its big cities and littoral areas[1], which have become popular for consumers in both the outbound tourism market (UNWTO, 2003: 12) and the wine market (Li, 2004; Levin, 2004) in China.

[1] Including the Beijing and Tianjin Belt (Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei and Shandong), the Yangtze River Belt (Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang) and the Pearl River Belt (Guangdong, Hong Kong and Macao) (UNWTO, 2003: 11).

3.2.1.2 SOCIAL FACTORS

In addition to cultural factors, there are three important social factors, which also influence consumer behaviour, namely (i) reference groups, (ii) family and (iii) social roles and status.

- **Reference Groups and Family**

Strydom (2006: 73) noted that reference groups may be any person or group that serves as a point of comparison or reference for an individual consumer to form certain values, attitudes and behaviour patterns. A person's reference group consists of all those groups that have a direct (face-to-face) or indirect influence on his or her attitudes or behaviour (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2001: 426). Strydom (2006: 74) has further identified the classification of reference groups, as:

(1) Groups that directly influence an individual are called membership groups; contrarily, these can be called non-membership groups;
(2) Some membership groups are primary groups such as family, neighbours and friends, where the trend is continuous and informal interactions exist. People also belong to secondary groups such as religious, professional and trade-union groups, which are more formal and where there is less continuous interaction and, hence, less influence; and
(3) Reference groups can also be differentiated by aspiration, which people aspire to or belong to; and by association or disassociation, which people reject for whatever reason.

Reference groups affect marketing, since marketing organisations try to determine the shared values and beliefs of various reference groups and attempt to align marketing with those values and beliefs. This includes the influences from opinion leaders, who, in practice, exist in any reference group and play an important role. In each group, opinion leaders are few, but their attitudes, views and actions can influence the buying decision-makings of someone else who is in the process of information sharing (Kurtz and Boone, 2006: 164).

Consumers associate themselves with certain reference groups for various reasons (Strydom, 2006: 5):

(i) Consumers' regard for reference groups as the medium of information exchange;
(ii) Reward and punishment (normative or utilitarian influence), which is when consumers fulfil the expectations of a particular group, while they may receive a reward or be sanctioned; and
(iii) Aspiration (identification and values influence), for example, when people hope to belong to a certain reference group, which may enhance their self-concept.

Reference groups play important roles in Chinese consumer markets because Chinese consumers tend to be influenced by opinions of families and relatives, friends and colleagues, as well as others groups that they may belong to when they make buying decisions, especially for expensive purchases such as booking an outbound holiday destination. This means that “public praise”, in terms of word-of-mouth, is significant to promote a holiday destination in the Chinese market.

Another noticeable social factor, which influences consumer behaviour, is family. Family can be regarded as the most important consumer-buying organisation within society, since family members constitute the most influential primary reference group in the buying decision (Blackwell *et al*., 2001: 361). In Chinese consumer markets, family should be recognised as the most important reference group because it is emphasised and highly regarded in Chinese society and traditional culture.

- **Social Roles and Status**

Furthermore, roles and status, as the third social factor, should also be regarded by marketing organisations. Kotler and Keller (2006: 180) have noted that a person, as a participant, may exist simultaneously in several groups (including family, clubs, organisations and communities). A person’s position in each group can be defined in terms of their role and status, in which the former consists of those activities, which a person is expected to perform, while the latter role carries an attached status. As consumers choose products that reflect and communicate their role and actual or desired status within society, marketing organisations should, therefore, be conscious of status symbols, as well as the meanings of products, services and brands.

In the case of marketing Chinese tourists to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes, both “overseas holiday” and “wine-related activities” can be regarded as status symbols because from a perspective of Chinese consumers, these represent success, wealth, high education and an open mind to the world. This also confirms that in terms of the Chinese middle class, it provides the main potential for consumers for both the outbound tourism market and wine-related consumption such as wine holidays.

3.2.1.3 PERSONAL FACTORS

Consumer behaviour is also influenced by personal characteristics and, usually, these impacts are direct. These personal characteristics include (i) age and stage within the life cycle; (ii) occupation and economic circumstances; (iii) personality and self-concept; and (iv) lifestyle and values.

- **Age and Stage in the Life Cycle**

The first influencing factor is age and stage in the lifestyle, since people buy different goods and services over a lifetime and their interests are often age and stage related. Consumption is also developed by family life and the number, age and gender of people within the household at any point in time. Moreover, marketing organisations should also consider psychological life-cycle stages and critical life events or transitions. The latter includes marriage, childbirth, illness, relocation, career change and widowhood, which give rise to new needs (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 181). The table below provides a basic profile in order to understand the general Chinese overseas traveller, which includes age groups and the main stage in their life cycle.

Table 3.1: Demographic profile of potential mid-long travellers from China

Item	Content	Share %	Item	Content	Share %
Gender	Male	55	Education	Junior middle and less (9-year)	13
	Female	45		Senior middle (12-year)	30
Age	18-24	30		Technical school (12/13/14-year)	17
	25-34	38		College/University (16-year)	39
	35-44	15		M/D degree or higher (17-year +)	2
	45+	17	Marital status	Single	40
Household size	1-2 people	18		Married	59
	3 people	51		Separated/divorced/widowed	1
	4 people	17	Children in household	None	57
	5 people	10		One	40
	6 + people	4		Two or more	3

Source: Adapted from Mintel (2003: 24)

- **Occupation and Economic Circumstances**

Occupation is also an important influencing factor with regard to consumption. Marketing organisations should identify occupational groups, which may have different interests in product and service buying, such as the consumption difference between blue and white-collar workers. A person's economic circumstances also impact on his or her product choice, which includes spendable income (level, stability and time patterns), savings and assets, debts, borrowing power and attitudes of spending and saving (Kotler and Keller, 2006:182). As shown in Table 3.2, the best segment of the Chinese travel market for South Africa, in terms of "Chinese experienced wanderlusters", has been described, which includes data of occupation and personal income, as well as other demographical items.

Table 3.2: Segment overview of Chinese experienced wanderlusters

(avg.) Age	Married	Children	Higher education	Higher profession (*)	Income (per month, '000s CNY)		
					<10	10-15	>15
35-year	87%	53%	82%	38%	43%	27%	30%

Source: SAT (2006a: 62) * People are either senior employees, or higher manager, or directors.

- **Personality and Self-Concept**

Each person has a personality and his or her buying behaviour is influenced by his or her personality characteristics. Personality can be regarded as a set of distinguishing human psychological traits, which lead to relatively consistent and enduring responses to environmental stimuli, which can be described in terms of traits such as dominance, self-confidence, sociability, defensiveness, deference, autonomy and adaptability (Kassarjian and Sheffet, 1981: 166).

In this context, personality can be applied to analyse consumer brand choices, since brands also have personalities and people tend to choose brands whose personalities match their own. As stated by Kotler and Keller (2006: 182), brand personality is a specific mix of human traits that can be ascribed to a particular brand. In order to identify brand personalities, Aaker (1997: 350) has proposed five traits, which are listed below:

◎ Sincerity such as being down-to-earth, honest, wholesome and cheerful;
◎ Excitement such as darling, spirited, imaginative and up-to-date;
◎ Competence such as reliable, intelligent and successful;
◎ Sophistication such as upper-class and charming; and
◎ Ruggedness such as outdoorsy and tough.

Sirgy (1982: 290) has further pointed out that consumers increasingly tend to choose and use brands[1] that have a brand personality, which is consistent with their own "actual self-concept" (for example, how one sees one's self). Sometimes the match may be based on a consumer's "ideal self-concept" (for example, how one would like to view one's self) or even "others' self-concept" (for example, how one thinks others see one) rather than actual self-image.

- **Lifestyle and Values**

People from the same subculture, social class and occupation may have different lifestyles. As noted by Blackwell *et al*. (2006: 739), lifestyle refers to people's patterns of living in the world as expressed in activities, interests and opinions. Study lifestyles can be regarded as psychological analysis in order to probe consumers' buying behaviour, as well as travel motivation and purchase. Although researchers such as SRI International[2] have divided the Value and Life Styles (VALS), which is based on America, its categorisation may not be the answer for Chinese consumers.

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[1] Destinations could also be viewed as a brand in this regard.
[2] This SRI International's categorisation is described by Lumsdon (1997: 43).

However, in general, consumer lifestyles are formed, in substance, with two elements, namely money-condition and time-condition (Banco and Zellner, 2003: 100). In China, along with the social transformation and economic boom during the past few decades, Chinese lifestyles have shifted, which provided huge opportunities to market players in new business sectors. For example, increased personal income and the number of holidays have strongly boosted Chinese leisure markets such as highlighted tourism. Additionally, western lifestyles, such as wine consumption, are also accepted by more and more Chinese consumers, in particular amongst its rising middle class.

Furthermore, consumers' buying decisions are also influenced by their core values, which underlie attitudes and behaviours. Certain core values go much deeper than behaviour or attitude and are determined at a basic level. Core values can retain consumers' choices and desires over the long term. Kotler and Keller (2006: 184) have pointed out that marketing organisations target consumers on the basis of their values and belief that, by appealing to people's inner selves, it is possible to influence their outer selves, namely their purchase behaviour.

Overall, these mentioned characteristics directly influence consumer behaviour. While underlying psychological factors and processes are also important in consumer analysis, psychological studies can provide a much deeper understanding of consumer behaviour and buying decisions.

3.2.2 CONSUMER PSYCHOLOGY

As shown earlier in Figures 3.1 and 3.2, key psychological processes can fundamentally influence consumer responses to various marketing stimuli, which include motivation, perception, learning and memory. Moreover, attitude and belief, as two important factors, are also discussed here.

3.2.2.1 MOTIVATION

Three aspects of motivation, namely the nature of motivation, motivational theories and psychographics, are discussed in this section.

- **Nature of Motivation**

Motivation study is significant in marketing because consumer buying behaviour is driven by motivation to fulfill a perceived need that is the imbalance between actual and desired states (Kurtz and Boone, 2006: 167). Virtually every person has needs, whether it is physical (such as a house) or psychological (such as name brand) or innate (such as food) and acquired (such as education) (Brink, 2006b: 131).

Within marketing, it is vital to link needs with wants in terms of what consumers want in order to satisfy a need. This can be regarded as a motivation process, which acts as the driving force within individuals that impel them to action to satisfy both physiological and psychological needs through product purchase and consumption (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997: 83). Implementing the marketing concept of offering products that satisfy consumers' needs, should firstly begin with an understanding of what these needs are (Blackwell *et al*., 2006: 233).

All actions such as behaviour are goal oriented, whether general and product-specific. The latter goal can be achieved by marketing activities in terms of a specific product, which a person regards as a way to fulfill a need and, which can sometimes be referred to as a want (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997: 109). As shown below in Figure 3.3, the relationship between needs, motives and goals, has been depicted.

Figure 3.3: How motivation links needs and goals (behaviour)

Source: Brink (2006b: 131) based on Chisnall (1995: 40)[1] and Botha, Brink, Machado and Rudansky (1997: 65)[2]

The above model begins with the condition of the need. Some needs are utilitarian (such as books), while others are hedonistic (such as a holiday), but all people should first satisfy basic needs such as hunger and thirst. At the end of this model, there are various appropriate goals for a given need, especially since people may use different ways to achieve the same goal chosen by individuals depending on their diverse personal experiences, characteristics and physical and psychological conditions. Brink (2006b: 132) notes that need arousal, in terms of the motivation, may be triggered by a stimulus, while a variety of stimuli can be summarised into four types, namely (i) physiological arousal, (ii) emotional arousal, (iii) cognitive arousal and (iv) environmental arousal.

There are various theories that are related to motivations, which provide a much deeper understanding in the area of human behaviour from a multi-aspect perspective. However, three famed theories from them are reviewed here, which can classify motives and bring quite different implications for consumer analysis and marketing strategies, namely Freud's theory, Maslow's theory and Herzberg's theory.

- **Motivation Theories: Freud, Maslow and Herzberg**

Sigmund Freud[3], as mentioned by Kotler and Keller (2006: 184), assumed that the psychological forces, which shape people's behaviour, are largely unconscious and that people cannot fully understand their own motivations. This theory explains that a person not only reacts to his or her stated capabilities when

[1] Chisnall, P.M. 1995. *Consumer behaviour*. London: McGraw-Hill. p40.
[2] Botha, J.A.R., Brink, A., Machado, R. and Rudansky, S. 1997. *Consumer-oriented marketing*. Pretoria: Unisa.
[3] Freud, Sigmund. 1856-1939. Austrian psychiatrist and psychologist.

he or she examines specific brands, but also to other, less conscious cues. Certain associations and emotions can be triggered by shape, size, weight, material, colour and brand name. Generally, a person's motivations can be traced from the stated instrumental ones to the more terminal ones, which occur when marketing organisations can decide on an appropriate level to develop the message and appeal. This Freudian interpretation is developed by many psychological theorists in lieu of motivation research, in-depth interviews and various projective techniques, which are often applied to uncover deeper motives (Assael, 1995: 376-377).

Abraham Maslow (1970)[1] sought to identify specific human motives and to classify them in a general scheme. Maslow's theory ranged all human needs in the form of a hierarchy, from the most important to the least important. In order of importance, motivations range from physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem and self-actualisation (refer to Figure 3.4). Maslow's hierarchy theory indicates that upper needs arise based on lower needs being satisfied at least on a minimum level. For example, when people have satisfied an important need, they will then try to satisfy the next most important need (as reviewed by Solomon, 2006: 126).

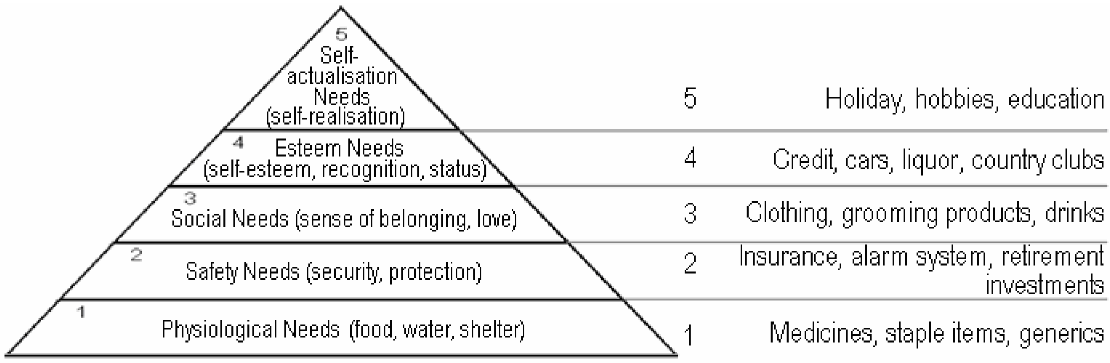

Figure 3.4: Maslow's hierarchy of needs and product implications

Source: Solomon (2006: 126) adapted from Maslow (1970)

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs, "physiological needs" are motives or needs that are necessary for biological functioning and survival such as the need for food, water and shelter and are the most basal motives of all, while people's behaviour are primarily directed towards the satisfaction of these needs for as long as they are not satisfied. Once people's physiological needs have been satisfied at least partially, "the need for safety" (second level within the hierarchy) will emerge such as security and protection, while the former level (physiological) then becomes less important. "Social needs" relate to the fundamental need for love (emotional needs always play a significant role in the decisions of people in their choice of products) and affiliation (affiliation needs find expression in the purchase of gifts and participation in in-group activities, which can produce a sense of belonging). "The need for esteem" on

[1] Maslow, A.H. 1970. *Motivation and Personality*, 2nd ed. New York: Harper & Row.

the other level is divided into two subgroups, namely self-respect or self-esteem, which relates into firstly, the need for respect and, secondly, the need for respect and approval by others in terms of recognition and status. The need for self-actualisation involves self-development, enriching experiences and self-fulfillment in terms of individuals who search for opportunities to realise their full potential so that they may become all that they are capable of becoming when former needs have been satisfied or they can be satisfied without much effort (Brink, 2006b: 134-135).

Maslow's theory can assist marketing organisations to understand how various products benefit specific needs of consumers such as those shown in Figure 3.4, which provide some examples of product appeals that are tailored to each level. Tourism, as a product, belongs to the need of self-actualisation. The hierarchy is often used as a basis for marketing segmentation[1] (Schoeman, 2006: 180) and can also assist with product positioning (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk, 1997: 105-107).

According to Kotler and Keller (2006: 185), Frederick Herzberg (1966)[2] also developed a motivational theory in terms of the dual-factor theory, which distinguishes between "dissatisfiers" (factors that cause dissatisfaction) and "satisfiers" (factors that cause satisfaction). The non-attendance of dissatisfiers is not enough; satisfiers should be present in order to motivate a purchase. For example[3], in order to market a tourism destination, dissatisfiers should include security, facilitation (such as guide and visa) and other infrastructure (such as transportation and accommodation). Satisfiers in this sample may include attractive ambience, quality services and unexpected values, as well as friendliness and hospitability.

Herzberg's theory, therefore, indicates that marketing organisations should pay attention to two aspects (Spiro, Stanton and Rich, 2003: 227), namely:

(i) Marketing organisations should avoid dissatisfiers although that is not sufficient to motivate consumers to buy; and
(ii) They should also identify major satisfiers or motivations of purchase within the market and then develop these satisfiers in order to stimulate consumers.

- **Psychographics**

Psychographics is the science of using psychology and demographics to better understand consumers in terms of defining and describing people's underlying motivations and other psychologies (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 252). Consumers' needs, motives, perceptions and attitudes are influenced by their family, job, social activities and culture; conversely, these psychological characteristics determine their

[1] Marketing segmentation has been reviewed in Section 2.3.2.1.
[2] Hertzberg, F. 1966. *Work and the nature of man*. Cleveland, US: William Collins.
[3] This infrastructure, facilities and services in the tourism industry are discussed earlier in Section 2.2.4.

behaviour, as well as their lifestyle. In general, consumers may share the same demographic characteristics and still be different people. Psychographic research is research that evaluates consumers on the basis of psychological dimensions as opposed to purely demographic dimensions. Therefore, psychographics can be used to segment consumers into groups that have similar psychological attributes (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1998: 305-307; Kurtz and Boone, 2006: 302).

Not only are psychographics an increasingly popular measurement within segmentation, but psychological information can also guide marketing organisations to emphasise features of the product that would complement a person's lifestyle. Products that are targeted at consumers whose lifestyle profiles indicate a high need to be around other consumers, may focus on the product's ability to help meet their social needs. An understanding of how a product or a service fits or does not fit into consumers' lifestyles, allows marketing organisations to identify new marketing opportunities, design media strategies and create environments that are most consistent and harmonious with these consumption patterns (Brink, 2006b: 141).

3.2.2.2 PERCEPTION

The second key psychological process is perception. As introduced above, a motivated individual is ready to take action, but their actions are influenced by his or her perceptions of the situation and different perceptions can lead to quite different behaviour. People act and react on the basis of their perceptions and not on the basis of objective reality, therefore, consumers' perceptions are much more important to marketing organisations than their knowledge of objective reality, namely that perceptions affect consumers' actions and buying habits (Rousseau and Spoelstra, 2003: 217).

In essence, perception (whether sensational or subliminal), is a psychological process by which people select, organise and interpret stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world, which occurs in respect of the five senses of sight, sound, smell, touch and taste (Brink, 2006a: 115). In short, it can be viewed as "how we see the world around us" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997: 146). As shown below in Figure 3.5, Solomon (2006: 49) provides an overview of the perceptual process.

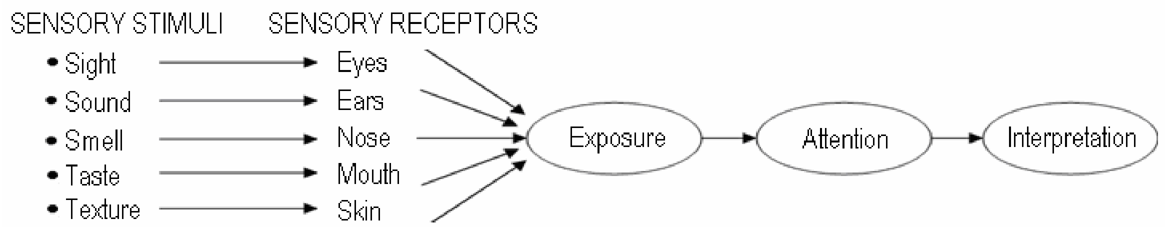

Figure 3.5: An overview of the perceptual process

Source: Solomon (2006: 49)

Because of three perceptual processes in terms of selective attention, selective distortion and selective retention, people may emerge with different perceptions of the same stimulus. A stimulus is any unit of input to any of the senses, which, within marketing, in general, includes products, services, brands, prices and advertisements (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 185). These stimuli are designed by marketing organisations in order to influence consumers and can further be divided into physical (product or service evidence) and communicational. The offering and its components are primary (intrinsic) stimuli, while communication methods are designed to influence consumer behaviour, which are secondary (extrinsic) stimuli. Hence, one of the key elements of a successful marketing campaign is to develop an offering and promotional stimuli to affect consumers' perceptions positively (Kurtz and Boone, 2006: 169).

In practice, consumer perception research is also useful to formulate a marketing strategy (Hawkins *et al*., 1998: 305-307) by determining and positioning brand image (Schiffman *et al*., 1997: 177-178) and measuring price and quality, as well as testing for new product concepts (Sheth *et al*., 1999: 297).

3.2.2.3 LEARNING

When people act, they learn (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 187). Learning is a change in an individual's thought processes, which is caused by prior experience or it can occur through simple associations between a stimulus and a response or via a complex series of cognitive activities (Solomon, 2006: 110). Learning is often based on direct experience, for example, people personally visiting a destination; and can also be based on indirect experience, by searching and browsing the destination's website. Consumer learning may result from marketing activities or it may result from stimuli as a result of non-marketing activities (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 161).

It should be pointed out that most behaviour are learned and occur through an interplay of drives, stimuli, cues, responses and reinforcement, which refer to a simple learning process, as shown in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6: The learning process

Source: Perreault and McCarthy (2002: 161)

Within the above model, a drive is a strong internal stimulus, which impels action. Cues, on the other hand, are minor stimuli, which include products, signs, advertisements and other stimuli within the environment that determine when, where and how a person responds. Finally, a response is an effort to satisfy a drive, while the specific response that is chosen depends on cues, as well as past experience.

Reinforcement affects this process when the response is followed by satisfaction, that is, a reduction in the drive. Reinforcement strengthens the relationship between the cue and the response and may lead to a similar response the next time the drive occurs (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 161).

The practical significance of the above learning theory for marketing organisations is that they can create and enlarge the demand for an offering by associating it with strong drives by using motivating cues and by positive reinforcement (Kotler and Keller, 2006:187). Botha, Brink, Machado and Rudansky (1997:59) also noted that the decision-making process is dependent on past learning situations. It means that in the marketing field, learning is a process by which people obtain buying and consumption knowledge and experience, which they apply to future-related behaviour (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997:177). Hence, marketing strategies should focus on the establishment of associations between stimuli and responses.

3.2.2.4 MEMORY

In a marketing context, memory can be seen as a process of acquiring information and storing it over time so that it is available when it is needed (Solomon, 2006: 626). With reference to memory study as an information-processing approach, it includes three interrelated stages: encoding, storage and retrieval (refer to Figure 3.7).

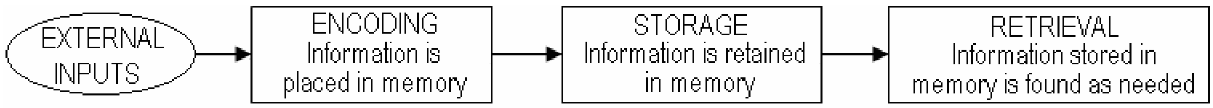

Figure 3.7: The memory process

Source: Solomon (2006: 97)

As shown in Figure 3.7, memory encoding refers to how and where information enters the memory, which can be characterised according to the amount or quantity of processing that the information receives at encoding and the nature or quality of processing that the information receives at encoding. During the storage stage, people integrate information with what is already in the memory and “warehouse” until it is needed. Finally, by a retrieval process, people access the desired information, which is stored in the memory (Solomon, 2006: 97).

Based on the above information-processing perspective (the memory process), three distinct memory systems can be identified: (i) sensory memory (a temporary memory); (ii) short-term memory (STM) (a temporary repository of information); and (iii) long-term memory (LTM) (a more permanent repository) (Solomon, 2006: 99). The relationships between these memory systems are depicted in Figure 3.8:

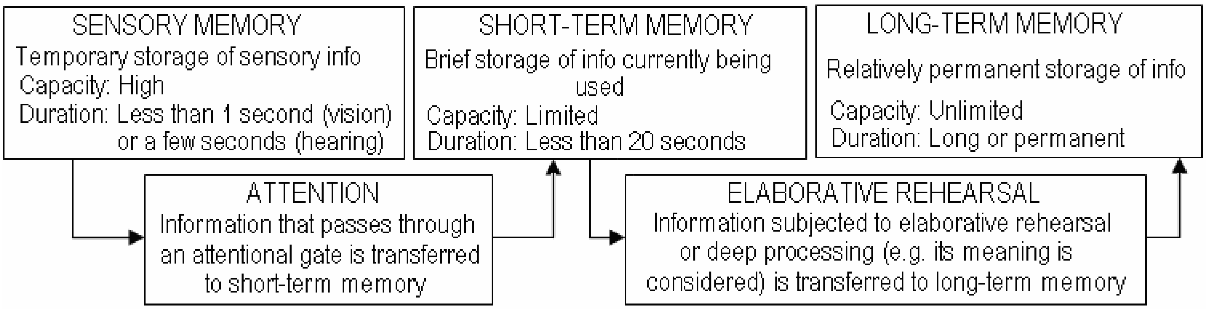

Figure 3.8: The relationships between memory systems

Source: Solomon (2006: 100)

3.2.2.5 ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS

Attitude and belief are also major psychological variables, which influence consumer behaviour because people acquire attitudes and beliefs by acting and learning, which, in turn, influence their behaviour.

An attitude can be described as an individual's relatively consistent evaluations, feelings and tendencies towards an object[1] or idea and brings people into a mind of like or dislike (Brink, 2006c: 147). Consumers' attitudes are learned, which means that attitude implies two aspects. Firstly, consumers form attitudes that are relevant to buying behaviour as a result of direct experience with the product, information acquired from others and exposure to mass media. Furthermore, attitudes tend to be relatively consistent with behaviour, since they are not permanent and can change.

Most theorists believe that an attitude has three components, namely affect, behaviour and cognition. Affect refers to the way a consumer feels about an attitude object; behaviour means the consumer's actions with regard to an attitude object; and cognition refers to beliefs, which a consumer holds about an attitude object (Solomon, 2006: 237). All these attitude components are important, but their relative importance varies depending on a consumer's level of motivation with regard to the attitude object and whether they are light or heavy users (Jewell and Unnava, 2004: 76). The ABC (affect, behaviour and cognition) model of attitudes in Figure 3.9, as a concept of a hierarchy of effect, can explain the relative impact of the three components, which are also the three ways to form different attitudes.

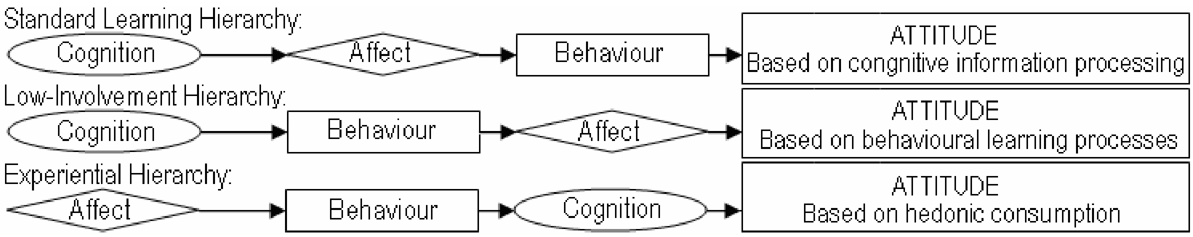

Figure 3.9: Three hierarchies of effects

Source: Solomon (2006: 238)

[1] This may be a product, a service, a brand, a salesperson or a shop (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 162).

Attitudes have more action implications because they are usually thought of as involving like or dislike. Beliefs, on the other hand, are not action-oriented as it is a descriptive thought, which a person holds about something. Hence, beliefs may help a consumer to shape his or her attitudes but does not necessarily involve any liking or disliking. On the other hand, beliefs about a product may have a positive or negative effect in shaping consumers' attitudes (Rousseau, 2003: 111).

Marketing organisations can obtain a significant and meaningful picture of markets in researching consumer attitudes and beliefs. For example, consumers who have positive attitudes towards a new product idea might provide a good opportunity, particularly if they have negative attitudes about competitors' products or services. They may even have beliefs that would discourage them from buying a product (Perreault and McCarthy, 2002: 162).

Overall, all mentioned cultural, social and personal factors, as well as key psychological processes, can provide an underlying understanding as a foundation to study the buying process and decision-making.

3.2.3 BUYING DECISION PROCESS

Consumer decision-making is a key part of consumer behaviour, but the ways in which people evaluate and choose products or services vary widely, depending on the diverse influencing variables from both the internal and external environments (Solomon, 2006: 333). These influencing variables (cultural, social, personal and psychological, as discussed earlier) should be integrated in the analysis of the process of consumers' buying decisions and can form a model for the buying decision-making. The study of the buying decision process includes both the buying process and decisions.

3.2.3.1 A MODEL OF CONSUMER BUYING DECISION

Buying behaviour can be regarded as a decision-making process that takes the form of problem-solving activities (Brijball, 2006: 192). The outcome of a decision depends on several influencing variables, which can be integrated into a model of buying decision-making (in Figure 3.10) (Rousseau, 2003: 110) and is divided into two categories: individual (internal) and environmental (external). The individual influencing variables include needs, motives, personality, perception, learning and attitudes; whereas, environmental influences include culture, social influences, reference groups, family, economic demand factors and business and marketing influences.

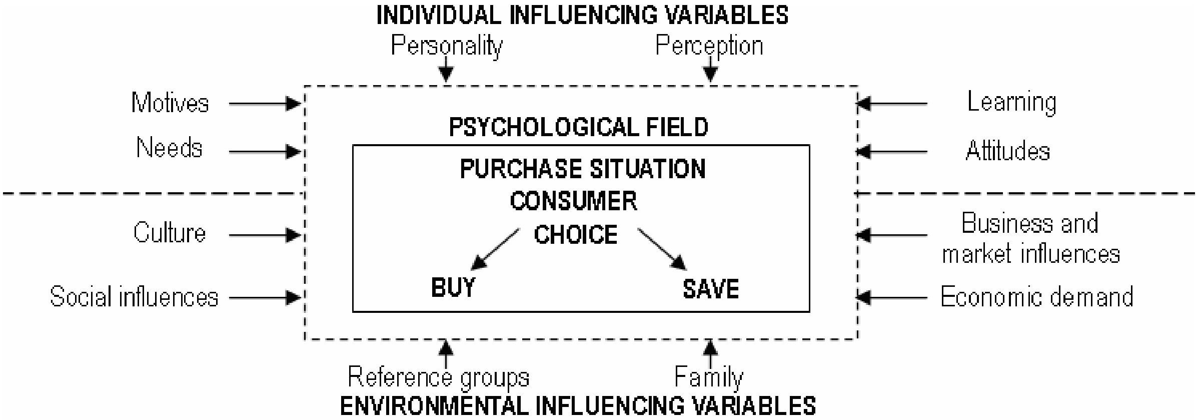

Figure 3.10: Model of consumer buying decision-making

Source: Rousseau (2003: 110)

Rousseau (2003: 113) has further pointed out that consumers are surrounded by a psychological field, which determines how they act in a given situation. This psychological field is made up of all influencing variables, both individual and environmental, as shown in Figure 3.10. The variables work together, as an important role in the final outcome of the individual's choice, since they continuously and simultaneously interact. In any buying situation, a person takes in information from the external environment and integrates it with his or her internal needs, motives, perceptions and attitudes. Learning from past experiences, as well as personality variables, also determines the choice outcome.

3.2.3.2 PROCESS OF CONSUMER BUYING DECISION

Consumers continuously make decisions about what products and services they should consume. Fundamentally, people should make decisions because of two major reasons, namely that they should satisfy their needs and desires; and, usually, more than one choice or alternative will satisfy their needs (Brijball, 2006: 193). Consumers should make decisions and their decision-making determines what goods and services they want, buy, own and use.

Kotler and Keller (2006: 191) argue that basic psychological processes play an important role in understanding how consumers actually make their buying decisions and suggest a five-stage model to explain the consumer buying process, although buyers may, at times, skip or reverse some stages. This model has, in general, described the buying process (refer to Figure 3.11).

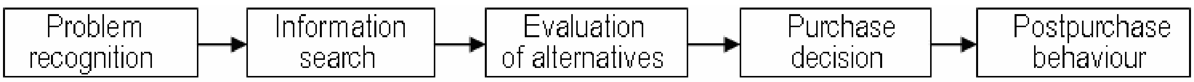

Figure 3.11: Five-stage model of the consumer buying process

Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 191)

In the five-stage model, the buying process begins long before the actual purchase and has consequences long afterward. All five stages, (namely problem recognition, information research, evaluation of alternatives, buying decisions and post-purchase behaviour), are briefly discussed below.

- **Problem Recognition**

A buying process begins when a buyer recognises a problem or a need. This need can be triggered by internal (for example, people visit a winery for tasting) or external stimuli (they are motivated to visit a wine festival). The implications of this are that marketing organisations should identify the conditions that trigger a particular need by gathering information from a number of consumers, followed by the development of marketing strategies, which trigger consumer interests (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 191).

Similarly, Solomon (2006: 308-309) has indicated that problem recognition occurs once a consumer recognises a significant difference between his or her current state of affairs and some desired or ideal state, while the consumer perceives that there is a problem that should be solved. The problem may be simple or complex, small or large. Figure 3.12 depicts that a problem or a need can arise by either need recognition, namely that the quality of the consumer's actual state can move downward, or by opportunity recognition, namely that the consumer's ideal state can move upward.

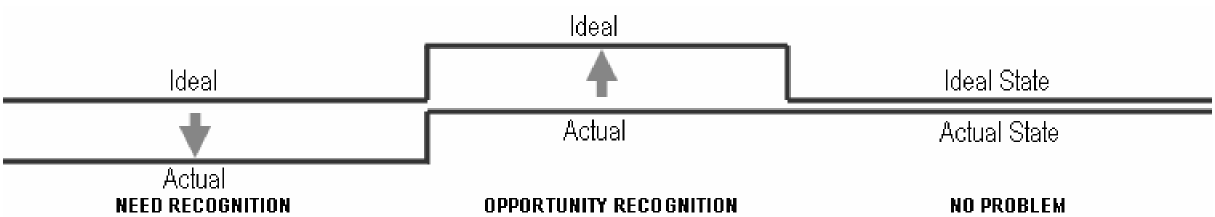

Figure 3.12: Problem recognition: shifts in actual or ideal states

Source: Solomon (2006: 308)

For example, when a person is ill, he or she buys medication (need recognition); another person buys a new model computer to replace an old one (opportunity recognition). In the "no problem" condition, marketing organisations can also create "demand" by any implication of the marketing mix.

- **Information Search**

Once a consumer recognises a problem, he or she requires adequate information with which to resolve it. Information search is the process by which a consumer surveys the environment for appropriate data in order to make a reasonable decision (Solomon, 2006: 309). Rousseau (2003: 118) notes that in this regard, a consumer search, as well as information processing, is essentially a learning process.

According to Kotler and Keller (2006: 191), a conscious consumer is inclined to search for information about his or her particular needs at two levels of the conscious state, which includes heightened attention and active information search. Heightened attention is a milder search stage, which means that a person simply becomes more receptive to information about a product, which leads to the second stage. At the active information search, a consumer engages in practical activities in order to collect information about the product in four different areas, namely:

(1) Personal such as family, friends, neighbours and colleagues;
(2) Commercial such as advertising, salespersons, events and packaging;
(3) Public such as public image, mass media and consumer union; and
(4) Experiential such as handling, examining and probation.

In addition, de Pelsmacker, Geuens and Van den Bergh (2001) have pointed out that the internet has offered a new approach to search for information, whilst presently many consumers may need both online (including wireless connection) and offline, which means searching for information about products and services. However, an understanding of information search would improve marketing organisations' preparedness towards effective communications in respect of both preferred information channels and information content when it comes to their targeted consumers.

- **Evaluation of Alternatives**

Buyers learn about the concerned product when they collect relevant information and make an evaluation of the alternative. The evaluation of alternative resolutions to a problem is the third stage in the consumer decision-making process. Evaluation reflects beliefs and attitudes (as discussed earlier in Section 3.2.2.5), which people acquire through experience and learning, which, in turn, influences their buying behaviour (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 193). During the stage of evaluation of alternatives, beliefs would provide a strong image of an object or idea from memory or experiences that people have held; and then attitudes, as a result, can bring relative evaluations, feelings and tendencies towards the object or idea, which translates into a mind of like or dislike (Cravens and Piercy, 2003: 123).

Consumer evaluation could also be seen as an act of identifying alternative solutions to a problem and assessing the relative merits and demerits of each. However, in this act, it should be noted that there are some pre-established criteria by consumers, which limit them in comparing and assessing problem features. This means that the criteria used for evaluation are not the standards, characteristics or specifications, in other words, consumers use different criteria to evaluate products and store and change the criteria in response to their situation or particular environment (Brijball, 2006: 201).

Furthermore, four types of consumers who are involved in decision-making can be identified by considering their different individual and environmental variables (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: 119):

(i) The economic individual who takes a calculated, rational decision based on complete information;
(ii) The passive individual who is not knowledgeable and can be manipulated by marketers;
(iii) The emotional individual who takes decisions based entirely on personal and irrational needs; and
(iv) The cognitive individual who takes decisions based on information from the environment, personal needs, attitudes, perception and experience.

- **Purchase Decision**

The next stage in the decision-making process is the purchase decision, which results in the consumer response, namely to buy or not to buy (Rousseau, 2003: 120). However, the steps between evaluation of alternatives (last stage) and a purchase decision, should be attended to because they directly influence the final response of the purchase decision. These interim steps are depicted in Figure 3.13.

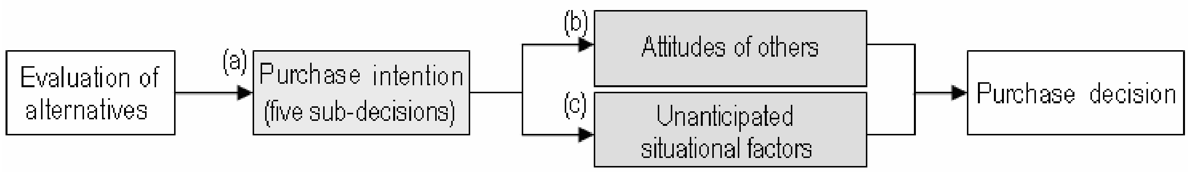

Figure 3.13: Steps between evaluation of alternatives and a purchase decision
Source: Kotler and Keller (2006: 197)

Firstly, as noted by Kotler and Keller (2006: 196), during the evaluation stage, a consumer forms preferences among brands in the choice set and may then also form an intention [see Figure 3.13 (a)] to buy the most preferred one. In doing so, the consumer may weigh up five sub-decisions, although these may not exist in all buying processes, which are (a) brand decision, for example Stellenbosch wine route; (b) quantity decision, a two-day visit; (c) timing decision, during the golden-week in May; (d) dealer decision, via the China Youth Travel Service (CYTS); and (e) payment decision, pre-paid by cash.

Secondly, before the purchase decision can be made, the consumer considers the attitudes of others, while at the same time his or her decision also depends on unanticipated situational factors (Sheth, 1974[1], as cited in Kotler and Keller, 2006: 197). In this regard, "attitudes of others" [see Figure 3.13 (b)] and "unanticipated situational factors" [see Figure 3.13 (c)] can each be seen as an intervening factor in purchase decisions, which are briefly introduced below.

[1] Sheth, J.N. 1974. An Investigation of Relationships among Evaluative Beliefs, Affect, Behavioural Intention and Behaviour. In J.U. Farley, J.A. Howard and L.W. Ring (eds). *Consumer Behaviour: Theory and Application* (89-114). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

The first intervening factor shows that the preference of consumer alternatives can be reduced or intensified by other people's attitudes. These people may be the salesperson, buying companions (such as travel parties) or family members, as well as other reference groups[1] of the consumer. This intervening factor should include two aspects (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 197):

(i) The consumer's motivation to comply with the other's wishes, for example, a person visited a wine route because he or she was accompanied by his or her friends; and
(ii) The intensity of others' negative attitudes towards this person's preferred alternative, for example, a person cancels a visit to a wine route because an experienced friend believes that it is not safe.

The second intervening factor includes unanticipated situational factors. These may erupt to change the purchase intention in terms of modifying, postponing or avoiding a purchase decision, which is heavily influenced by perceived risk (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 198). The major risks, which influence the purchase decision, can be divided into six types, namely:

◎ Functional risk, for example, a wine destination is not up to expectations;
◎ Physical risk, the destination is unsafe because of robbery or epidemic disease;
◎ Psychological risk because it is an unfamiliar destination and is not famous or well-known;
◎ Social risk, which refers to the use of a guide or translator because it is within a foreign country;
◎ Financial risk where a visit to the destination is not value for money; and
◎ Time risk, for example, a long-haul journey to the destination versus a shorter holiday.

The amount of perceived risk changes along with the amount of money at stake, the amount of attribute uncertainty and the amount of consumer self-confidence. In the buying process, consumers endeavor to decrease or avoid potential risk, whilst marketing organisations should understand the factors that induce a feeling of risk in consumers and provide information and support to reduce perceivable risk.

- **Postpurchase Behaviour**

The final stage in the consumer decision-making process is the postpurchase response. This response of postpurchase satisfaction involves a consumer's evaluation of the performance of a product or service once it has been bought, which may occur in one of three ways[2]: positively (satisfied/delighted), negatively (unsatisfied/disappointed) or neutrally (Rousseau, 2003:121). Depending on the satisfaction, consumers may respond by both verbal and behavioural actions, which are listed in Figure 3.14:

[1] Reference groups and family have been introduced earlier in Section 3.2.1.2.
[2] Or according a five-point rating scale, it may occur in one of five ways: most positively, positively, neutrally, negatively and most negatively.

	Satisfied/Delighted	Unsatisfied/Disappointed
Verbal	Positive diction or comment; recommended to others	Negative diction or comment; complaint or lawsuit; discourage or warn others' purchase
Behavioural	Purchase again or plan to purchase again	Stop purchase; return or exchange product and ask for refund or claim for compensation,

Figure 3.14: postpurchase response

Source: Kotler *et al.*, (2006: 222)

According to the above, marketing organisations, therefore, should regard postpurchase behaviour in terms of the marketing mission and tasks and does not end with the purchase. In the postpurchase stage, these tasks should include monitoring postpurchase satisfaction, postpurchase actions and postpurchase product uses in order to involve continuous marketing activities.

Overall, these mentioned theories of consumer behaviour, as general principles, can also be applied in tourism marketing, as well as in the sector of wine tourism, which include those various influencing factors, as well as buying decision-making and psychological processes. However, tourists have widely varying needs, tastes, perceptions, characteristics, behaviour and economic means to travel (Go, 1989) in terms of how they consume tourism offerings and possess the attributes of a general consumer (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 438). Therefore, these theories of consumer behaviour are further validated in order to clarify them specifically in tourism marketing, which can also provide more detailed groundwork to outline the behaviour of wine tourists, as discussed during the next chapter.

3.3 CONSUMER BEHAVIOURAL ASPECTS IN TOURISM MARKETING

In this section, within tourism marketing, tourist behaviour is modelled. This includes the characteristics of tourist behaviour, holiday decisions and the tourist buying process. Two tourist psychological factors, in the case of marketing Chinese tourists to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes, are emphasised, namely motivation and perception.

3.3.1 MODELLING TOURIST BUYING BEHAVIOUR

George (2004: 146) has pointed out that tourist behaviour is more complex, since no two individuals are exactly alike even though they have the same socio-cultural background. Essentially, the complexity of tourist behaviour is determined by the services characteristics and those specific features in tourism (as discussed earlier in Section 2.3.1.3), which also involves various tourism offerings and providers.

However, from a demand perspective, in comparison with other consumptive activities (especially versus fast-moving consumer goods), the complexity of consumer behaviour in the tourism buying process, may include (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 71-73):

(i) *"The high involvement in purchase decision and high consumer commitment*", which means that the behaviour patterns, during purchases, are not routine. Each purchase occasion may show different approaches, while, at the same time, the holiday buyer can be actively involved in the buying process and may spend a longer time to "look around" before reaching a decision;
(ii) Secondly, the intangible nature of tourism offerings means that the consumer can often have high levels of insecurity during the purchase phase. Therefore, in order to take advice and make decisions, the behaviour patterns may involve several people and agencies;
(iii) Thirdly, holiday and leisure activities implicate the acquisitions of joviality and spirits, which mean that the choice of tourism offering usually has considerable emotional significance for the buyer;
(iv) Furthermore, consumers are likely to be strongly influenced by other people during their decision-making process for tourism products and services;
(v) Fifthly, most decisions that individuals make about tourism products are made long in advance, which means that they may be in a completely different frame of mind when they make their purchase decisions; and
(vi) Finally, holiday buyers usually carry out an extensive information search in conjunction with individuals, groups, organisations and media reports before they make their final choice. This process of search and reflection means that the behaviour patterns are complex.

The decision to purchase a holiday (tourism offering) can also be seen as the outcome of the above complexities in a buying process. Therefore, a purchase decision should include some interdependent sub-decisions, which are mentioned by Swarbrooke and Horner (1999: 74) as:

◎ What destination such as country, region, resort;
◎ What travelling mode such as package tour or independent travel;
◎ What transportation mode such as scheduled air, rail or coach;
◎ How long is the holiday such as a weekend or two weeks;
◎ What travel agency if taking a package tour;
◎ How much travel cost could be budgeted;
◎ What type of accommodation will be used such as bed-and-breakfast (B&B), star hotel or self-catering room; and
◎ When or at which time of the year will the holiday be taken such as season or month.

These idiographic preferences within each of the above sub-decisions exhibit detailed consumer behaviour in the tourism buying process, which is also examined during this research in order to identify Chinese tourists' travelling behaviour and related preferences.

However, during this process, there are various factors (as discussed earlier in Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2), which can affect tourists with regard to holiday purchasing. These factors around "the holiday buying decision" can be repartitioned in terms of internal and external, as depicted in Figure 3.15.

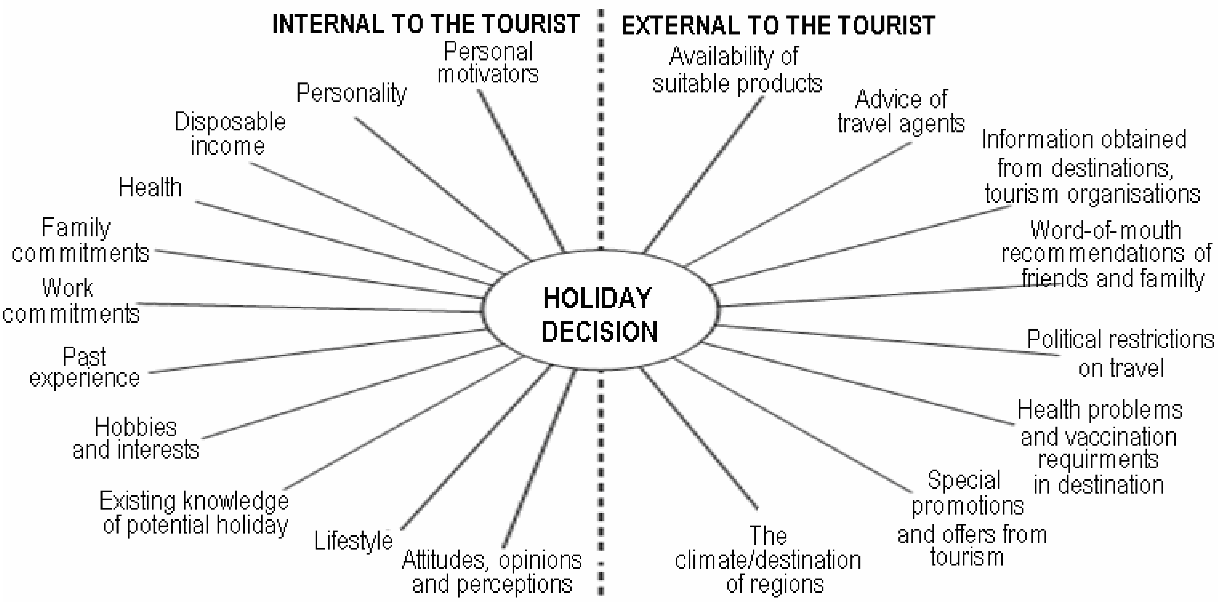

Figure 3.15: Factors influencing the holiday decision

Source: Horner and Swarbrooke (1996)[1] cited in Swarbrooke and Horner (1999: 74)

Once the influencing factors, with respect to holiday decision-making have been identified, the Schmoll's tourism consumer decision-making model can be considered (see Figure 3.16).

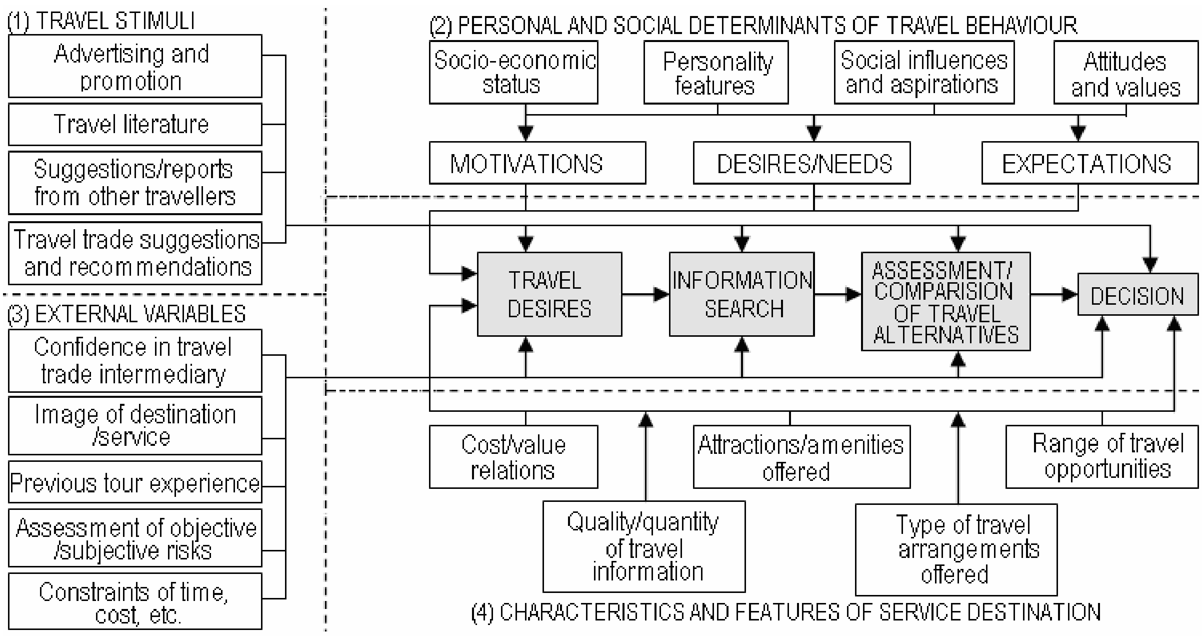

Figure 3.16: Tourism consumer decision-making model (Schmoll Model)

Source: Schmoll (1977)[2] cited in Gilbert (1993a: 28)

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[1] Horner, S. and Swarbrooke, J. 1996. *Marketing Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure in Europe*. Thomson: London.

[2] Schmoll, G.A. 1977. *Tourism Promotion*. London: Tourism International Press.

According to Schmoll's model in Figure 3.16, tourism decisions are shaped by integrating variables in four consecutive stages, namely: (1) travel stimuli; (2) personal and social determinants of travel behaviour; (3) external variables; and (4) characteristics and features of the service destination. These four stages and a buying decision process (refer to the highlighted portion in Figure 3.16) can form an intact model of consumer behaviour that essentially reflects Kotler and Keller's consumer behaviour model (Figure 3.1) specifically in tourism marketing.

(i) In Schmoll's model, stage (1) and (3) reveal the marketing mix of tourism destinations, positioning image and other stimuli;
(ii) Stage (2) includes consumer characteristics but more psychology (as illustrated in Figure 3.2);
(iii) Stage (4) can be seen as all sections of the tourism industry (such as the wine tourism industry) in a destination (refer to Figure 2.3) and its destination-mix (refer to Figure 2.30).

However, although the above model can emphasise several aspects with respect to decision making in tourism, two distinct disadvantages should be mentioned here, namely:

(1) This model is not regarded as a dynamic one because it lacks a feedback loop; and
(2) There is no provision for any input on attitudes and values since it does not indicate what forces can shape a consumer's attitudes and values (Schoeman and Mynhardt, 2005: 88).

Therefore, Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 66) have suggested a more dynamic model, as shown below in Figure 3.17, which may reveal tourists' holiday decisions in a more dynamic and efficient manner.

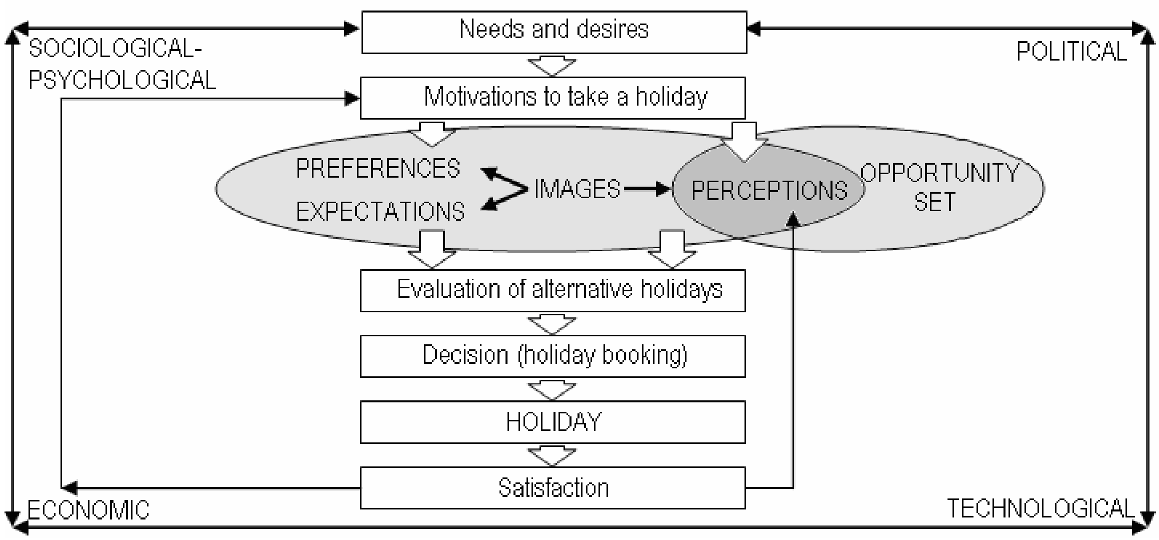

Figure 3.17: The tourist's holiday decision

Source: Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 66)

In Figure 3.17, four main aspects can be identified, which influence tourists' holiday decisions:

◎ The changing environment (economic, sociological-psychological, technological and political), which is dynamic and influences individual needs, aspirations and desires;

◎ The motivation factor, which stems from these needs and desires;

◎ Perceptions and images, which play an important role in decision making; and

◎ The decision-making process, which begins with a collection of information and ends with an assessment of the travelling experience (Schoeman and Mynhardt, 2005: 66).

Concisely, based on the previous two models (Figures 3.16 and 3.17), a facile and effective model of the tourist buying process, was developed by George (2004: 153). In this model, the process can be identified as having six stages, which are represented below in Figure 3.18.

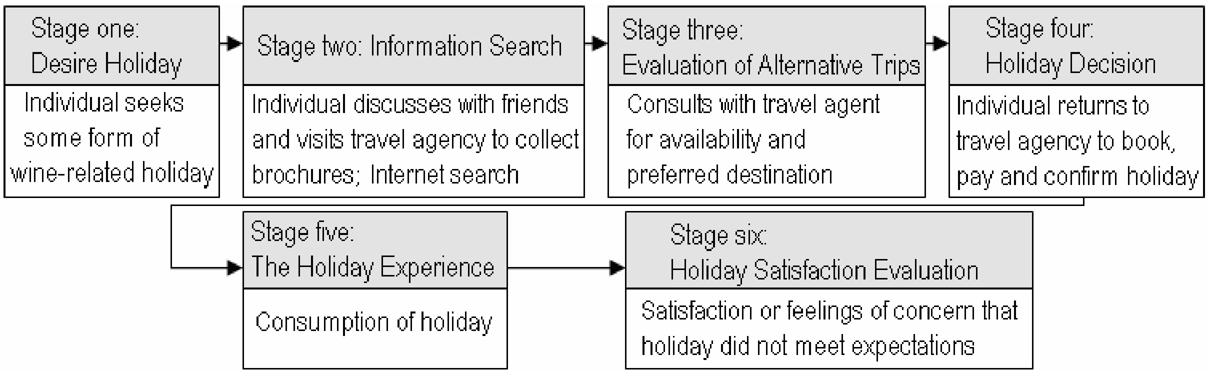

Figure 3.18: Six-stage model of the tourist buying process
Source: George (2004: 153)

Essentially, this six-stage model is an interpretation and evolvement of Kotler and Keller's five-stage model of the buying process (refer to Figure 3.11) in a specific tourism context. It shows that the assumption in the buying process is that tourists move through a number of push and pull factors or a process of stages, which lead to purchase within the tourism offering. These six stages are explained by George (2004: 154-153) as follows:

(1) It begins when a potential tourist recognises a desire for a holiday. This desire can be triggered once underlying motivations have been aroused by marketing activities, but its development rests more with the person's spare time and disposable income;
(2) The second stage is to search for more information about the destination and related offerings, which usually takes longer and involves several information sources;
(3) In the next stage, collected information is evaluated against the costs of alternative trips, as well as the attitude, which is built on price, convenience, recommendation, like and destination image, before the alternatives are ranked in order of preference;

(4) Before a holiday booking, the tourist chooses a destination, transport model, accommodation type and other activities or a package, which can also be affected again by time and money factors;
(5) Then the tourist experiences the holiday, which may involve more buying decisions in the destination such as meals, car rental, souvenirs or anything that was not arranged in advance; and
(6) In the final stage, the tourist uses information, which is received from the actual holiday experience in order to evaluate it, while the results of the evaluation will influence subsequent holiday decisions in terms of whether the tourist will purchase again and embark on a positive word-of-mouth exercise if they have a satisfactory experience.

Overall, in this section, the mentioned influencing factors, decision models and buying process within the tourism offering, provide specific insight with respect to tourist behaviour and can serve wine tourists. However, it should be noted that in this buying process, psychological factors are underlying and more complex in comparison with others. Therefore, grounded on the study of the tourist buying process, a further psychological study may provide a deeper understanding of tourist behaviour.

3.3.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN TOURISM

Psychological variables and diversities lead to tourist behaviour, which is complex in terms of a holiday purchase (Woodside, 2000: 3). As noted by Kotler *et al*. (2006: 212), it is significant to analyse psychological factors in order to study tourist behaviour. Although there are various psychological factors, the most important two, in terms of motivation and perception, are discussed here.

Gilbert (1993a: 20) notes that attitudes depend on people's perceptions of the world, while perceptions are mental impressions or images of such a destination or other awareness of travel information, but attitudes and perceptions, in themselves, do not explain why people want to travel. The foundational motivation theories in Section 3.2.2.1 have indicated that people's actions are initially needs-related and that once a need is aroused to a sufficient level, motivation can occur and propel people to action. This means that people's travel demands are initiated by their inner urges in terms of travel motivators. Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 66) have also mentioned that motivations are grounded in sociological and psychological norms, attitudes, culture and perceptions; once a travel motivator is in existence, the perceptions towards a destination or an offering can produce a related image, which will influence the motivation and, subsequently, affect the final selection of the destination or attraction.

The above interrelation confirms that motivation and perception are crucial in influencing holiday decision-making. This, therefore, is why this research emphasises motivation and perception in order to study Chinese visitors.

3.3.2.1 MOTIVATION IN THE TOURISM CONTEXT

In this section, the motivation study, particularly in the tourism context, introduces different approaches to classify travel motivators, as well as two models, which identify the typologies of motivators that relate to destinations. As a result, psychographics can be applied to a segmentation of tourists.

- **Classification of Tourist Motivation**

Essentially, travel is behaviour in response to what is lacking, yet desired, which means that tourists are motivated by the desire to experience different phenomena, compared with the home environment. In this regard, motivation can be seen as classified travel purpose within a broad category, in other words, to identify these motivational typologies, can internally reveal tourist behavioural typologies (Dann, 1981). In the following text, three approaches are introduced, which classify travel motivators.

Firstly, according to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999: 53-54), travel motivators can be either “non-destination-related” such as motivators for the person to take a holiday; or “destination-related”, which includes the motivators of the person to take a holiday to a specific destination at a particular time. As there are many potential motivators that could relate to either or both of these, the potential variability for each individual travel motivator makes these travel motivators more difficult to determine. In this regard, theorists have proposed a more detailed typology of travel motivators. This detailed typology includes (a) physical motivators; (b) cultural motivators; (c) emotional motivators; (d) status motivators; (e) personal development motivators; and (f) personal motivators. This typology and relevant examples of each type are depicted below in Figure 3.19.

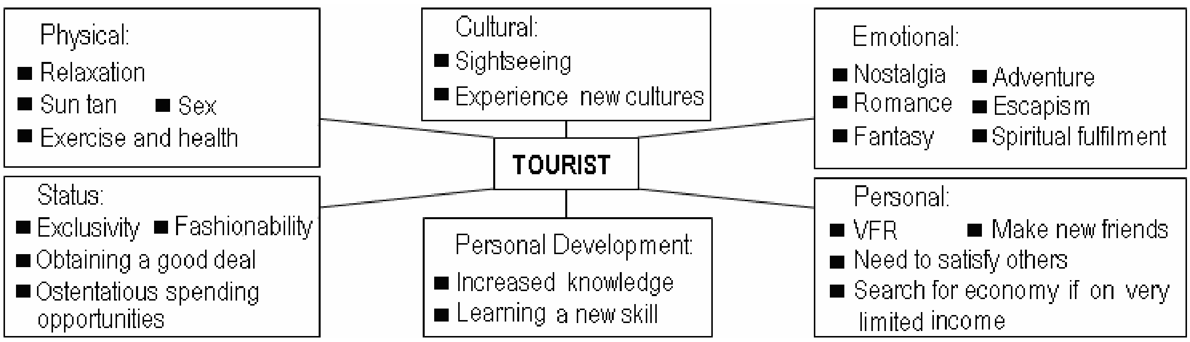

Figure 3.19: A typology of motivators in tourism

Source: Swarbrooke and Horner (1999: 54)

From the above mentioned, it is vital to realise that no tourist is likely to be influenced by merely one motivator, since a tourist would mostly choose a holiday by relying on his or her multiple motivations. In fact, most individuals’ holidays show a compromise between their multiple motivators, where either one motivation becomes dominant or a holiday is purchased, which ensures that all of the motivators can be at least partly satisfied (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999: 56).   .

McIntosh and Goeldner (1990: 131) have also provided a way to classify travel motivators into four categories. Similar to the above Swarbrooke and Horner approach, these four categories also include "physical", "cultural" and "status", however, their detailed contents have a little differentia, as well as an interpersonal category that has been added. These four categories are introduced below:

(1) Physical motivators are related to refreshment of the body and mind, health purposes, sport and pleasure, which are linked to activities that should reduce tension;
(2) Cultural motivators are identified by the desire to see and know more about other cultures and to find out about the natives of a foreign country, its lifestyle, music, folklore, architecture and historical relics, as well as experience of specific events such as wine festivals;
(3) Status and prestige motivators encompass a desire for the continuation of hobbies and education and learning, seeking business contacts and professional goals, conferences and meetings, as well as the desire to be able to talk to others about a trip for reasons of ego enhancement, self-esteem and sensual indulgence, in order to follow a trend toward a particular destination that is popular or as the first one to visit a new destination; and
(4) Interpersonal motivators comprise some sociable activities such as meeting new people, visiting friends or relatives and seeking new and different experiences.

Furthermore, Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 69) assert that the model that was proposed by Murphy (1991)[1], as shown below in Figure 3.20, also shows that travel motivators can be divided into four other groups, namely cultural, physical, fantasy and social, which are explained in the following text.

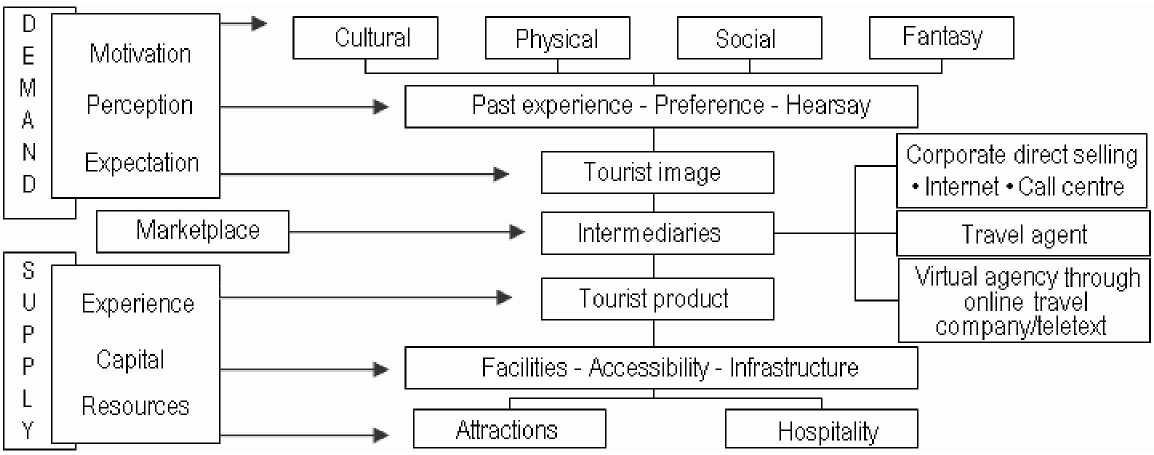

Figure 3.20: Components of the tourism market
Source: Murphy (1991) citied in Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 69)

[1] Murphy, P.E. 1991. *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Methuen.

(1) Cultural motivators, which are associated with a desire to learn about foreign countries, including their inhabitants, lifestyles, customs, art, music, dance, food, religion and history;
(2) Physical motivators, which relate to the revival of the body, soul or mind, sport, pleasure and health, which usually include those activities that are associated with reducing tourists' tensions;
(3) Fantasy motivators are basic needs for relaxation, pleasure, fun and romance, which can provide tourists with an escape from their present environment to act out psychic needs and the playing of certain roles, which could not be fulfilled at home; and
(4) Social motivators, which imply a desire to meet new people, visit friends or relatives and escape from routine or from current social relationships.

Overall, the above three typologies of travel motivators (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1990; Murphy,1991) can be integrated and re-classified into four types, namely:

◎ Physical, fantasy and emotional motivators, referred to as "physical";
◎ Cultural and history motivators, referred to as "cultural";
◎ Social, personal and interpersonal motivators, referred to as "social"; and
◎ Prestige, status and personal development motivators, referred to as "status".

However, the above mentioned travel motivators and typologies mainly rely on identifying those internal needs. There are two models, which classify those travel motivators by linking them to different destinations.

- **Interactional Models**

Interactional models emphasise the manner of interaction between visitor and destinations or between tourists who travel. In this regard, Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 77-78) have discussed two models, which are respectively developed by Cohen (1972)[1] and Smith (1997)[2].

In Cohen's model, tourists have been classified depending on the degree to which they seek familiar (for reasons of safety) or strange (for reasons of curiosity) settings and whether or not they are willing to be institutionalised (organised) when they travel. Based on this, a continuum of possible combinations of novelty and familiarity could be formed, which can bring out a fourfold classification of tourists, which are grounded in two main categories, namely:

(1) The non-institutionalised traveller: this includes the drifter or wanderluster (who searches for exotic and strange environments) and the explorer (who prefers to arrange their own trips and tries to get

[1] Cohen, E. 1972. Towards a Sociology of International Tourism. *Social Research*, 39 (1): 164-182.
[2] Smith, V. 1977. *Host and Guests: An Anthropology of Tourism*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

off the beaten track); and

(2) The institutionalised traveller, which comprises the individual mass tourist (who prefers to choose popular destinations through a travel agency) and the organised mass tourist (who likes to search for the familiar and, therefore, join group-tours).

A more detailed classification can be found in Smith's model, which divides tourists into seven groups, which are based on their numbers along with the implications of their impacts on the host environment:

- ◎ Explorers: they are a small group and travel almost as anthropologists;
- ◎ Elite travellers: they are experienced, frequent travellers and like expensive tailor-made tours;
- ◎ Off-beat travellers: they aim to get away from other tourists;
- ◎ Unusual travellers: they make side travels from organised tours to experience local culture;
- ◎ Incipient mass travellers: they visit established destinations where tourism is not yet dominant;
- ◎ Mass travellers: they expect the same things they are used to at home; and
- ◎ Charter travellers: they have little or no interest in unexpected experiences at the destination.

The above categories can also be depicted by a continuum. At the one end, explorers and elite travellers are a minority that requires little tourism infrastructure and are more interested in experiencing local customs and lifestyles. At the other end, charter travellers prefer secure tour-groups and prefer being in an organised and prepaid environment.

Furthermore, Smith's model has also been discussed by McIntosh *et al*. (1995: 197) on the basis of the types of travel experience that has been provided at various destinations. As a result, they identified six categories of tourism, which include (1) ethnic (for observing the cultural expressions and lifestyles of exotic people), (2) cultural, (3) historical, (4) environmental, (5) recreational and (6) business. However, tourists, in practice, may gain multiple tourism experiences from a single destination (referred to as multiple motivators) or may select from myriad destinations for the same basic type of experience in terms of Special Interest Tourism (SIT) such as wine-related travelling amongst different wine countries.

- **Cognitive-Normative Models**

Cognitive-normative models stress that motivations influence travel, in other words, this approach can be utilised to determine the underlying reasons for travelling. According to Weaver and Lawton (2006: 186), one of the widest models, in Figure 3.21, is developed by Plog (1991)[1], which assumes that every society has a central point and can use a polar psychographic continuum to explain tourist behaviour.

[1] Plog, S. 1991. *Leisure Travel: Making it a Growth Market-Again!* Chichester, UK: John Wiley.

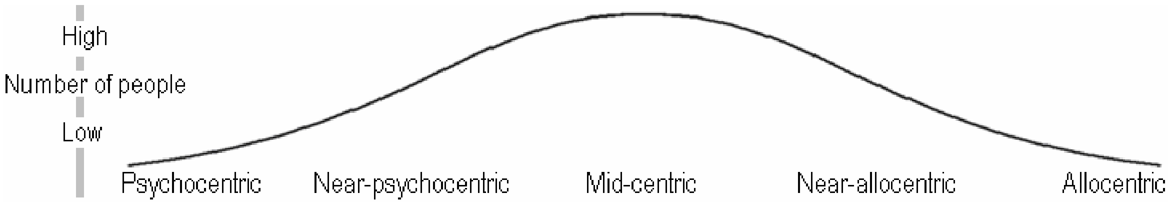

Figure 3.21: Plog's psychographic model

Source: Weaver and Lawton (2006: 186) adapted from Plog (1991)

As illustrated in Figure 3.21, tourists can be categorised into "psychocentrics (self-centred)" and "allocentrics (varied in form)". Weaver and Lawton (2006: 185-186) have argued this continuum, as:

(i) Psychocentrics are less adventurous, inward-looking travellers who tend to prefer the familiar and have a preference for resorts, which are already popular, as well as enjoy commonplace and usually join mass tour groups;

(ii) Allocentrics, on the other end, are outward-looking and self-confident travellers who like to take risks and seek more adventurous holidays. They focus on independent and varied vacation experiences, as well as tend to prefer new and exotic destinations; and

(iii) Between the above two extremes, a few intermediate categories such as "near-psychocentrics", "mid-centrics" and "near-allocentrics" can be used to identify tourists, while among all of these five categories, most tourists belong to the range of mid-centrics.

Furthermore, as discussed in Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 79-80), Plog's psychographics also suggest that different types of tourists are attracted to visit different destinations depending on where they are placed on the continuum between allocentrics and psychocentrics in terms of linking the types of tourists and destinations realistically, which is only possible by studying each individual trip and the motivational reasons for that specific trip. As illustrated in Figure 3.22, the relationships between tourist types, travel motivators and the types of destinations preferred are exhibited, as well as two methods of linkages, which are further explained.

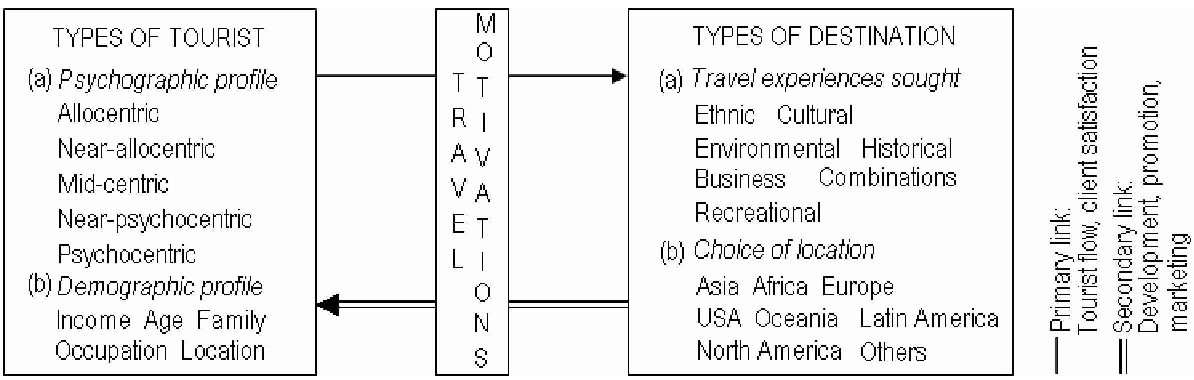

Figure 3.22: Types of tourist, travel motivations and types of destination

Source: Schoeman and Mynhardt (2005: 80)

In the above Figure 3.22, the primary method links tourist flow and customer satisfaction, which is based on experiencing the most suitable destination: the correct selection of destination can fulfil the needs, which, in return, results in a satisfactory experience. In other words, tourism organisations should have extensive knowledge of the potential tourist's demographic and psychographic characteristics. The secondary method is to market destinations towards a specific target market, which includes the development of the product and of communication material, which is directed at a specific target market. Therefore, the knowledge and awareness of travel motivations for a specific market, can provide guidelines for the content of marketing tourism offerings (Schoeman and Mynhardt, 2005: 79).

3.3.2.2 TOURIST PERCEPTIONS OF THE DESTINATION

As mentioned in Sections 3.2.2.1 and 3.3.2.1, tourists are triggered by motivators to travel, while the motivators, as the internal force (push), should be responded to by the pull of the destination or attractions (such as perception, in Section 3.2.2.2) (Dann, 1981). In other words, tourists travel because of motivations, but evaluating and choosing alternative destinations and offerings, as well as the actual holiday decision, implicate their perceptions (Ateljevic, 2000: 196; George, 2004: 153).

Essentially, tourists' perceptions towards a destination rely on its images (Ateljevic, 2000: 197) and can change over time with their experiences in different stages: pre-travel, during-travel (holiday or on-site) and post-travel (George, 2004: 149; King and Woodside, 2001: 92).

- **Perceptions in Developing**

"Pre-travel stage" means that a perception can be developed before the holiday experience, at that time, which is based on past experiences, held knowledge, searched information and consultation with others. In other words, potential toruists' perceptions can be influenced by the destination image if it is positive and coincides with their preferences and expectations, while the buying process is the next stage in destination choice (Reisinger and Turner, 2003: 148). This is represented earlier in Figure 3.17.

Bennett and Mynhardt (2005a: 13) also claim that pre-travel perceptions are important in practice. In their opinion, tourism marketing organisations should use promotions to narrow the gaps between the destination image and the perceptions of the target consumers. Once the perception is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity, it will become a belief and then the positive or negative perception will bring like or dislike attitudes towards the holiday decision.

However, it is not only perception that develops before the decision, but the whole holiday might be changed by the holiday experience, which will ultimately influence the holiday satisfaction evaluation in terms of post-travel perceptions (Ateljevic, 2000: 197). The total holiday experience occurs from the time travellers leave home until they return to it (Bennett and Strydom, 2005a: 11) and is mainly determined by two factors at two levels (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 118; Bresler, 2005: 117; Cooper, 1993a: 78):

(1) Physical setting (macro-environment), which is shaped by environmental forces such as competitive, demographic, economic, natural, technological, political and social factors, which can directly influence the perceptions and experiences of tourists; and
(2) The tourism and service infrastructure, which involves a variety of services such as accommodation, transportation, restaurants and other facilities, while their attributes and effects substantially influence the perceptions of quality and value in a traveller's experience.

The holiday perception is important in the evaluation of holiday satisfaction and can further influence the next buying decision for both the tourists and their reference groups. Conversely, the holiday perception (on-site) is based on sufficient experience or more knowledge towards the tourism destination or offerings, which may provide an appropriate time to measure tourist perceptions.

- **Perception and Image Creation**

The perception of a destination is a term from the demand perspective, which relies on and reflects the destination image[1]. As shown below in Figure 3.23, image can also be seen as the link between personal perception and the destination or other tourism offerings (Sussmann and Unel, 2000: 213), which is constructed within the person's mind by a wide range of information sources and is the sum of ideas and belief about a destination.

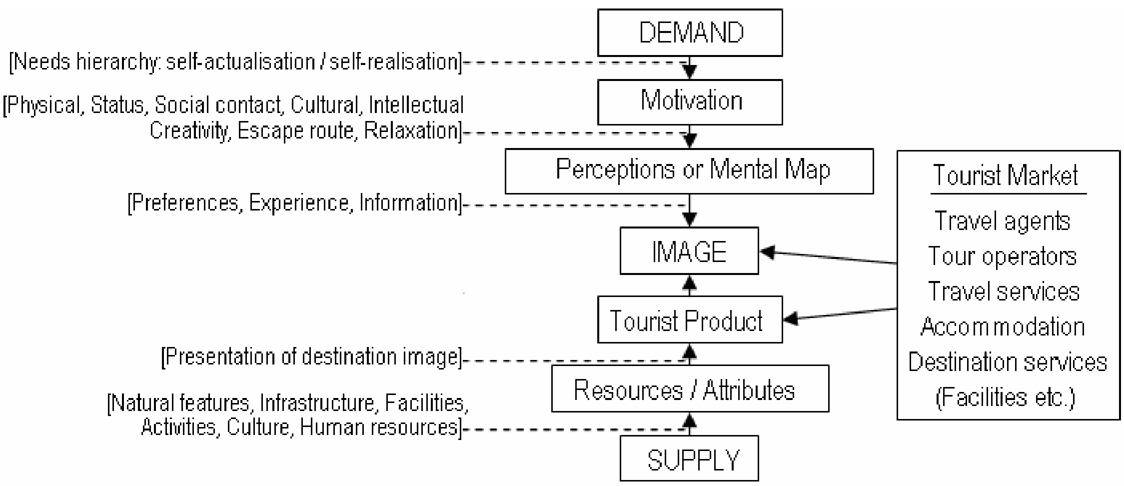

Figure 3.23: Image links perception and tourism offering

Source: Stabler (1988: 135) adapted from Murphy (1983)[2]

[1] The destination image has been discussed in the previous chapter, see "destination marketing" in Section 2.3.4.
[2] Murphy, P.E. 1983. Perceptions and attitudes of decision-making groups in tourist centres. *Travel Research*, 21(3): 8-12.

Ateljevic (2000: 198) has explained the image formation process as evolving through three stages: (1) organic: organic images are based primarily upon general sources of information such as general media, education and word-of-mouth; (2) induced: this includes tourist-directed information such as travel agents and brochures; and (3) complex: impressions that are gained by visiting the destination, which produce the complex image. Generally, the complex image (holiday or post-travel perception) implicates most on-site experiences of the destination and differs from the organic and induced image (pre-travel perception) owing to the enriched experience.

Peter and Austin (1985) have summarised that "*perception is all there is*" to further show how significant perceptions can be. Even though a perception of a destination may not necessarily be correct and factual, it affects tourists' behaviour substantially (Sussmann and Unel, 2000: 208). Therefore, one of the major tasks of tourism marketing organisations is to sustain, alter or develop destination images, which would be positive in terms of perceptions and entice them to visit the destination.

As introduced by Bennett and Strydom (2005a: 10), perceptions are mainly formed by communications, previous or on-site experiences of the destination, word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, family or other reference groups, and the prospective tourist's immediate needs. These four aspects can provide effectual marketing means to shape destination images and to influence tourist perceptions.

3.4 CONCLUSION

The principles of tourism and marketing were introduced at a macro level during the previous chapter, while this chapter generally discussed the theories of consumer behaviour, as well as their detailed applications, specifically within the tourism context. These include consumer characteristics (cultural, social and personal factors) and major psychological processes (motivation, perception, learning and memory), as well as added psychological factors (attitudes and beliefs), while under these influencing variables, a general buying decision process was also discussed. Finally, by modelling tourist behaviour, these influencing factors and the buying process have been studied in tourism marketing. During the consumer behavioural study, most of the psychological theories have concentrated on motivation and perception because this research intends to understand Chinese tourists by considering their underlying psychological profiles.

In summary, the consumer behavioural theories studied in this chapter, together with the tourism and marketing principles outlined in Chapter Two, further reinforce and detail the theoretical framework, which can be used as groundwork for the literature study of Wine Tourism in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR: WINE TOURISM

Following the literature review of tourism and marketing in Chapter Two, as well as consumer behaviour in Chapter Three, this chapter's focus turns to a specific wine tourism study. All reviewed theories within these three chapters, together, seek to structure a final theoretical framework for this research.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As mentioned earlier in Section 2.2.3, wine tourism belongs to the scope of Special Interest Tourism (SIT). Although this Special (wine) Interest Tourism (SIT) market is widely recognised (Bruwer, 2003: 423; Hall and Mitchell, 2001: 308), wine tourism remains a "new tourism phenomenon" (Derrett, 2001: 3). However, this sector represents and highlights sustainable dynamics not only for the "experiential" tourism industry, but also for correlative industries (such as wine promotion) and the destination economy (Sharples, 2002: 643; Getz and Brown, 2006: 81).

The literature study in this chapter covers general theories of wine tourism in both supply and demand. Firstly, in order to provide a general understanding to the background of this topic, a history of wine and vine is reviewed within a global perspective. Secondly, a theoretical framework of wine tourism, including the concepts of wine tourism, its characteristics and evolvement, as well as a basic system of wine tourism, is established. The chapter then focuses on wine tourist behaviour, which includes a profile of general wine tourists, motivations of wine tourists and experiences in wine tourism behaviour, as well as a model of consumer behaviour, which focuses on the buying process within a wine holiday. Finally, from an industrial perspective, implications of wine tourism in destination marketing are introduced, which discusses wine tourism on two levels in terms of attraction and sub-destination. As a result, all these theories can clarify and support a specific study field in this research.

4.2 A HISTORY OF WINE AND VINE

Although this study is based on a "pure tourism perspective", wine tourism has a viniculture background, which implicates the attributes of history, culture, geography and religion, therefore, a brief review of a history of wine and vine may provide a basis to understand wine tourism within a global perspective.

The history of winemaking dates back some 8,000 years BC to ancient Persia [present-day Iran], from where it spread southwest to Assyria, south to Babylon and then to Egypt. Thereafter, Phoenicians, seafarers from Tyre and Sidon [in modern Lebanon] introduced vine to Mediterranean shores. By the year 2,000 BC, the ancient Greeks had begun to make wine (they planted vines in their colonies in Sicily and southern Italy); as had the Cretans, followed by the Romans. On the mainland of Italy, the

Etruscans, migrants from Asia Minor, were already wine-drinking people; wine-making would, therefore, have been a natural heritage of the Romans and where they had conquered and colonised, the culture of the vine followed them. In this way, viniculture spread to Germany and France, as well as Hungary, England and the Iberian Peninsula (Cape Wine Academy, 2005: 5).

Winemaking was kept alive In Europe in monasteries, since the collapse of the Roman Empire and the Advent of the Dark Ages. This brought most of its development to a virtual standstill, and with the spread of Christianity, monasteries emerged, while the church became a principle producer of wine, since it was required for both sacrament and sustenance (Cape Wine Academy, 2005: 5).

During the 12th century, wine export became an important trade from the Mediterranean to Northern Europe. By 1518, the world began to open up to a wave of adventurous explorers who had travelled from Portugal and Spain to America and the East and transported casks of wine and brandy on their ships for consumption as part of the crew's daily diet. At the same time, European migrants planted vines whenever they entered overseas territories. During the 16th century, the Portuguese carried European viticulture and viniculture to Brazil, as did the Spaniards to Argentina, Chile, Peru and Mexico. Later, during the 17th century, the Dutch brought vine to the Cape of Good Hope [the Western Cape, South Africa] and in 1788 the British introduced viticulture to Australia and later to New Zealand (Cape Wine Academy, 2005: 5).

As a result of this spread, there is a widely recognised "Old-New World" system, which can be used to classify the above-mentioned wine countries. Western European countries, with a long established wine-producing history, are usually collectively described as the "Old World" such as France, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Germany and Austria. Contrarily, other wine countries, with a wine-producing history since the 1500s, are called the "New World" such as the United States, Canada, Brazil, Chile, Argentina, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand (Bisson, Waterhouse, Ebeler, Walker and Lapsley, 2002).

Furthermore, there are other wine countries, which do not form part of the Old-New World, but have rapidly growing wine industries such as China, Turkey and Russia. In comparison with the Old-New World wine countries, these can be regarded as "emerging wine countries". Within these emerging wine countries, China is notable, since it has had a correspondingly independent vine-planting and wine-producing history for thousands of years[1] (Eijkhoff, 2000). The modern wine industry in China had begun since European viniculture had been introduced to them at the end of the nineteenth century.

[1] Generally, according to literature records, China has a 6,000 year history of grape growing and a 2,000 year history of winemaking, since vines were introduced from the Middle East to the Turpan area in the Xinjiang Province (western China) (Eijkhoff, 2000:3); according to chemical analyses from archaeological findings by the University of Pennsylvania (US) (2004), the history of grape winemaking in the Henan Province (central China) is more than 9,000 years, approximately the same time that grape wine was made in the Middle East.

Until 2005, its vineyards' acreage, wine production and consumption were each ranked in the top 10 in the world [International Organisation of Vine and Wine (VIO), 2006: 46].

Statistics that are depicted in Table 4.1 below provide a glance of the global top 10 wine-producing countries in 2005, which also includes the global top 10 tourism countries that have the largest inbound and outbound tourism. These statistics do not mean that there is a direct causality between the two industries within each country, but it is evident that these major global wine-producing countries are also main tourism destinations or international tourist source-markets. In addition, these main wine and tourism countries also depict a global profile of wine tourism in terms of major international wine tourism destinations and original wine tourists. In the following context, after clarifying the conception of wine tourism, these major wine tourism destinations and their evolvement, are further introduced.

Table 4.1: Top 10 wine-producing countries and international tourism countries in 2005

Wine-Producing Countries				Rank	Tourism Countries	
Planted Vineyards	Wine Production	Total Consumed	Wine Exports		Inbound Tourists	Outbound Tourists
Spain	Italy	France	Italy	1	France	Germany
France	France	Italy	Spain	2	Spain	UK
Italy	Spain	US	France	3	US	US
Turkey	US	Germany	Australia	4	China	China
China	Argentina	Spain	Chile	5	Italy	Japan
US	Australia	UK	US	6	UK	Italy
Iran	China	Argentina	Germany	7	Russia	Canada
Portugal	Germany	Russia	South Africa	8	Mexico	France
Romania	South Africa	Portugal	Portugal	9	Turkey	Netherlands
Argentina	Chile	China	Moldavia	10	Germany	India

Source: Data from VIO (2006: 7, 46, 51) and SAT (2006a: 2-3)

4.3 A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF WINE TOURISM

From the above historical background to the conception of wine tourism, a theoretical framework of wine tourism comprises four aspects, namely the definition of wine tourism (and wine routes), its evolvement and characteristics, as well as a basic wine tourism system that outlines both the demand and supply sides, which clearly conceptualise wine tourism.

4.3.1 DEFINITION OF WINE TOURISM WITH WINE ROUTES

There are not many definitions of wine tourism, however, one, which is popular for wine tourism, is that of Hall's (1996)[1], as cited in Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 3), which reads:

"*visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine region, are the prime motivating factors for visitors*".

Essentially, this definition sketches a model of wine tourism, which is based on a special interest in "wine", motivated by the wine-related activities, the destination (wine region) or both (Macionis, 1996).

Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 4) have further argued that the above definition identifies key locations in which wine-related tourism exists and, evidently, differentiates that visits may be motivated by "grape wine" specifically or, more generally, "the attributes of a grape wine region", which is referred to as the "wine routes" in this research. Since there is no statement in terms of the length of a visitor's stay within the above definition, "wine tourism" can be recognised to include recreational activities, excursions, day-trips and overnight stays.

Similarly, two issues with the above definition are also raised by Johnson (1998). The first issue concerns to the relevance of the grape wine region to wine tourism and the second concerns whether the "motivating factors" reveal on a definition that is too restrictive. Johnson (1998) has argued that people visit a grape wine region for reasons that may be quite unrelated to tasting or purchasing wine (such as landscape and events). Motivations for visiting a wine region may be more than mere wine consumption. Once the wine region is regarded as a self-existent tourist destination, its attractions are formed by all tourism resources within this region.

Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 4) have further pointed out that wine tourism destinations can provide "a set of aesthetic and regional attributes", which appear attractive for visitors in its own right. Indeed, not only wine can be used as a physical tangibility, but also attributes of the cultural atmosphere, which attract visitors to both the wine regions and country, as a destination, in general. As introduced in Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 4), de Blij (1983: 4-5)[2] also observes:

"The cultural landscape of viticulture is embellished by the situation, architectural qualities, layout and general ambience of the towns, villages, chateaux and more modest wineries that are the foci of viniculture and the wine trade; the tangible attributes of this special cultural landscape are further complemented by a particular atmosphere, an appealing environment that is part of the reason why wine regions the world over attract endless streams of visitors who come not just to sample the wines".

[1] Hall, C.M. 1996. Wine Tourism in New Zealand. In *Proceeding of Tourism Down Under II: A Tourism Research Conference* (109-119). University of Otago.

[2] de Blij, H.J. 1983. Wine: A Geographic Application. Madrid: Rowman and Allanheld.

It should be noted that much of the wine tourism exists in winelands, while some wine-motivated visitations, such as wine exhibitions or wine festivals, may be launched in urban areas, as well as in several wine farms, wineries and even vineyards, which are surrounded by suburbs and urban sprawl (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 4), for example, particularly the winelands in the Western Cape.

Based on the above definition, Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 5) have further suggested that visitors to wine farms or wineries have wine-related motivations and that the scopes of wine tourists and wine tourism, are co-extensive. Visitors to wineries, wine farms or wine regions differ in their interests and expertise with regard to wine such as an artist who looks for inspiration from "romantic" grapes. Similarly, a more sophisticated wine visitor may also be motivated by activities other than wine tasting such as the collection of aged wine. Furthermore, motivations within groups may differ, for example, a wine lover whose interest is primarily to visit a wine farm, may be accompanied by a family member who does not hold or share the same passion for wine. In this research, however, wine tourism excludes work-related visitations in terms of business wine tourism and emphasises recreational activities that are associated with wine tourism.

It is clear that wine tourism is always implicated in geography in terms of wine regions, winelands or winescapes. A wine region can simply be regarded as a single wine route or a combination of wine routes, which deliver wine tourism value. Weaver and Lawton (2006: 140) have defined a wine route as:

"a cultural landscape significantly influenced by the presence of vineyards, wineries and other features that are associated with viticulture and wine production, which can offer wine-focused tourism".

In fact, the term wine route, within a touristic context, is, therefore, far more than a geographic concept such as the wine region, since wine routes extend and embody the contents of wine tourism. Destination organisations in both the wine and tourism industries, in the form of wine routes, can establish associated attractions, regions and wine producers in order to increase the value of viticulture within the economy through tourism (Hall and Macionis, 1998).

Cambourne and Hall *et al*. (2000: 36-37) recommend a methodological model to build successful wine routes, which is highly dependent on the management and cooperation of a range of participants that also provide operational means that help individual wine route "actors" to maximise their participation. This model is divided into five sections, namely:

(1) "Wine travellers/visitors" in order to provide generic survey tools to help wine route participants to investigate the market, which identifies the characteristics of wine tourists, as well as their motivations and needs;

(2) "Wine routes", which provide details of minimum standards or requirements that are expected of wine routes and individual participants within the industry;
(3) "Wine route support", which discusses and documents regulatory requirements that are involved in rural development including building, transport, tourism, trade and environmental issues, which also cover a range of tools that can be used by wine tourism participants to develop their activities and businesses and cover skills such as finances, management and marketing;
(4) "Wine route actors", which identify different wine route participants and highlight their roles, responsibilities and training demands, as well as assistance that may be available to various sectors including wine farms, public organisations, restauranteurs, agritourist enterprises, hoteliers and caterers, travel agencies and tour operators, product distributors, academic institutions and other teaching establishments, complementary service providers and several associations relating to tourism, recreation, environment, culture, sports, nature and gastronomy; and
(5) "Marketing", which offers assistance with wine-related tourism marketing activities and provides communication tools and details of distribution, as well as information that relates to marketing strategies and joint or partnership business opportunities.

4.3.2 EVOLVEMENT OF WINE TOURISM

In order to further understand the development and actuality of wine tourism, following the above historical review and wine tourism concept, its evolvement within a global perspective, will presently be outlined. It began in Europe, although within European countries, which have a long established wine-producing history, wine tourism and the active development and marketing of wine tourism products, is a relatively recent phenomenon. According to Hall and Macionis (1998), visitations of vineyards have been a part of organised travel at least since the time of the Grand Tour and, likely, even since the eras of ancient Greece and Rome; however, it was not until the mid-nineteenth century that wine began to emerge as a specific travel interest or reason for visitation. There were three major influencing factors, which emerged at the time of forming early wine tours (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 2):

(1) The transport revolution engaged the development of railways that enabled greater ease of access;
(2) A social revolution arose in terms of a growing new middle class who began to seek quality wine along with the aristocracy; and
(3) The publication of the "Classification of the Wines Gironde"[1] in 1885, which, for the first time, explicitly and officially, provided a destination identity for wine and wine-growing regions.

[1] This classification, which had government sanction of the wines of Bordeaux, was a result of recommendations made by the Syndicate of Bordeaux Wine-brokers for use during the Paris Exhibition of 1855.

Although Eastern Mediterranean countries such as Israel and Greece have more than 4,000 years of wine-making history (Kolpan, Smith and Wiess, 1996), their wine routes, as a modern tourism product, have not been established. During the modern age, wine routes became a part of the tourism industry in Germany since the 1920s and there is an association of wine routes in Europe, which coordinates activities among its member countries (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 2). In order to introduce and sell wine, Germany's eleven wine regions established their own wine routes by the end of the 1970s, while during the 1980s, wine-related tourism was first considered in France as a result of declining rural economic conditions, which led several wine-growers to consider direct sales to tourists in order to expand and diversify their incomes (Cambourne and Hall *et al*., 2000: 38). More recently, some Eastern European countries such as Hungary, began to establish wine routes in order to attract Western European tourists (Kolpan *et al*., 1996).

In the Old World wine countries, with their wine-producing history, social and economic development, heritage and culture, wine-related tourism has largely been developed in the form of official wine routes, particularly in France, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Germany and Austria (Cambourne and Hall *et al*., 2000: 36). Ideally, the Old World wine countries possess famous brands and images with regard to their wine and wine tourism, since cultural elements and specific attractions of the country enrich and strengthen their destination attractiveness and further attract international tourists. For example, the Burgundy area in France attracts more than five million tourists each year (Wang *et al*., 2006).

In the New World, for a couple of centuries since the 1500s, their viticulture and viniculture have developed well, but their wine routes, as mature tourist products or tourist destinations, emerged after 1990, especially in the United States (US), New Zealand and Australia, where the development and participation of wine tourism has attracted international visitors and has highlighted the branding destination image (Cambourne and Hall *et al*., 2000: 55-65). For example, California's Napa Valley also attracts many tourists annually and the total number of wine tourists in California reached nearly eleven million in 2004 (O'Neill and Palmer, 2004).

In addition, the Global Network of Great Wine Capitals, as an international organisation of wine tourism destinations, comprises some well-rounded wine tourism destinations in the world, which include Melbourne in Australia, Bordeaux in France, San Francisco-Napa Valley in the United States (US), Bilbao-Rioja in Spain, Porto in Portugal, Florence in Italy and Mendoza in Argentina, as well as Cape Town and the Cape Winelands in South Africa (namely the Western Cape Wine Routes) (www.greatwinecapitals.com).

Wine tourism has also become a phenomenon in emerging wine countries. A typical example is in China, in Yantai City [the Jiaodong Peninsula of the Shandong Province], which has been named the "International Vine and Wine City" since 1987 by the International Organisation of Vine and Wine (VIO); at the same time, the Yantai area was also identified as one of the largest seven winegrowing coasts[1] in the world. In 2005, this area received more than two million wine tourists (Li *et al*., 2005; Wang *et al*., 2006), while, in 2007, the First Yantai International Wine Festival (23rd September – 7th October) attracted more than 300,000 visitors (both international and domestic) (www.jiushui.net.cn).

The above reviewed evolvement shows that, although as a new phenomenon, the wine tourism industry developed a wide extension within the world, which is based on factors such as agriculture, transport, economy and several others. As a result, an international wine tourism market has also emerged.

4.3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF WINE TOURISM

From the above discussion, it is evident that wine, as a background element of tourism, means more than mere drinking and eating. The phenomenon of wine-related tourism also relates to various issues such as culture, history, status, religion, lifestyle, education, production, consumption, geography, agriculture, ecosystem and others. Furthermore, as mentioned by Hall (2003: xiii-xiv), wine tourism is significant to both academics and business research, not only in order to understand the manner in which tourism is part of a wider economic, socio-cultural and environmental system, but it may also contribute to tourism marketing strategies at a level of both the destination and the firm.

Moreover, in terms of the preceding discussion relating to wine tourism, more characteristics can be summarised in order to further clarify the nature of wine tourism. These characteristics include:

(i) Wine tourism, as a Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market, based on specific travel purposes, which means that its target market should not be mass-based (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 3); in terms of an alternative segment, it should be identified by particular consumer studies;

(ii) Furthermore, similar to Special Interest Tourism's (SIT) labour-intensive nature, it tends to employ expert personnel within the wine tourism industry (Derrett, 2001: 3). This means that both wine-related services and the staff that engage with it, are professional;

(iii) Although the emergence of wine tours can be traced back many years, it is only recently that, as a separate market segment, it has been recognised by governments and related industries (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 1). Therefore, the wine tourism market remains a

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[1] They are the West Coast in France, the Mediterranean Coast in Italy, California in the US, the Western Cape in South Africa and the South Pacific Coast in Chile, as well as the South-West Coast in Australia (Shao, 2005).

considerably “new” market and, within a specific region, governmental policies are important in the development of wine tourism such as marketing promotion (Hall and Mitchell, 2001: 318);

(iv) Wine-related activities have typical western cultural attributes, therefore, wine tourism is a fresh concept for consumers in countries such as China, which has started to westernise their economic and socio-cultural lifestyles (Kotler, 2004);

(v) Wine tourism intimately connects and contributes to both the wine and tourism industries, while, at the same time, “*some mistrust and misunderstandings perhaps still exist in terms of how the two industries can provide positive contributions to each other, as well as the regions within which they coexist*” (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 5);

(vi) For the tourism industry, not only is wine-related phenomenon a part of the destination culture, which forms an important component of its attractiveness, but it is also a part of tourism promotion in terms of the image of the destination (Hall and Mitchell, 2001: 301);

(vii) Wine tourism implicates both attraction and destination because wine-related activities and events are always linked to geographical applications (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 3), in other words, not only can wine-related phenomenon be developed as attractions for destination tourism (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 140; Bruwer, 2003: 423), but wine regions (winelands, winescapes, wine routes, wine roads or wine trails) can also be developed to become self-existent tourist destinations or destination components (Getz and Brown, 2006: 79); and

(viii) Wine tourism has natural attributes (such as visitation to landscapes and vineyards), as well as socio-cultural attributes (such as tasting, festivals, shows, education, business, arts and correlative history and heritage) (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 140), which means that there are different motives amongst tourists who engage in wine tourism or visit wine destinations.

The above summarised characteristics show that wine tourism can be both complicated and dynamic. In order to further identify wine tourism within a marketing perspective, a basic system of wine tourism is introduced in the following text, which outlines and integrates both the supply and demand sides within this Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market.

4.3.4 SYSTEM OF WINE TOURISM

According to Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 7), a basic system to identify and analyse wine tourism within a marketing perspective, is provided in Figure 4.1.

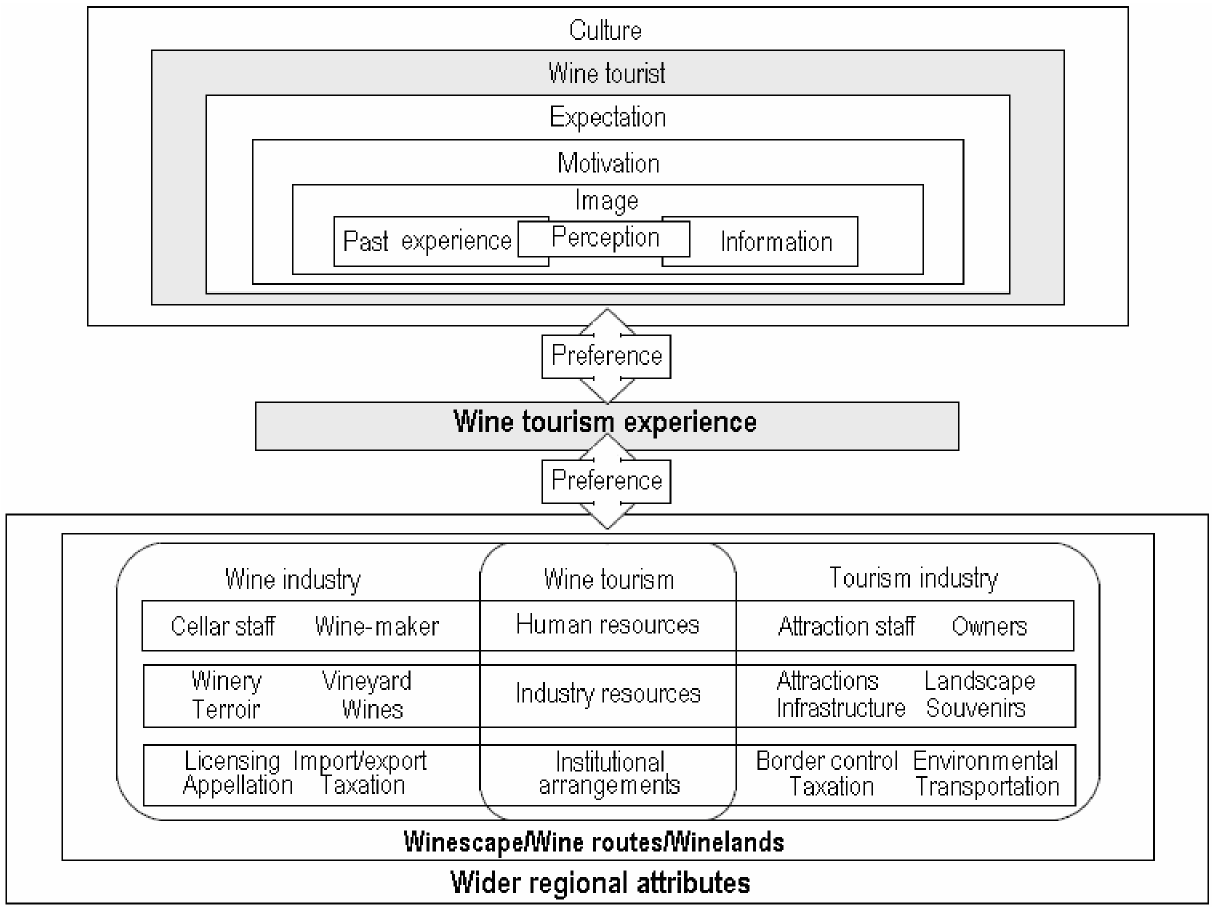

Figure 4.1: The wine tourism system

Source: Hall, Johnson, Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 7)

The above model not only tries to integrate demand and supply of wine tourism, but also identifies internal relationships of each side within the system. A focal point of this system is the experience of wine tourism that the wine tourists have while they interact with elements that comprise wine tourism offerings such as vineyards, cellars, festivals and, of course, wine and food. However, desired experiences by tourists will be different between individuals owing to their different conditions. More details, which verify tourist behaviour within a wine tourism context, are reviewed during a later section of this chapter. However, different components of the system are briefly introduced below.

4.3.4.1 DEMAND OF WINE TOURISM

As shown above in Figure 4.1, wine tourism demands consist of wine tourists' motivations, perceptions, previous experiences and expectations. Motivations, which influence wine tourism, are different. For example, some people have a desire to buy wine as the only reason for visiting a wine farm or winery; many may enjoy social aspects/features of a wine tour; for others, they may want to learn more knowledge about wines and wine-making in terms of an educational motivation; while there is also an increasing motivation that concerns health issues, which is a significant reason for wine consumption or wine visitations for some people (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 6).

In the same vein, as per the discussion in the previous chapter, tourism motivations cannot be the same for a person throughout his/her life, since motivations can change according to past experiences and stages in life, while they may also shift or become greater factors owing to promotion campaigns, which may generate certain perceptions towards potential attractions and destinations.

As referred to in Figure 4.1, three different elements are comprised in respect of the perceptions of tourists, namely past experiences, preferences and information. Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 7) have pointed out that the choice of wine tourism destinations or wine routes can be affected by an individual's previous experiences and their enjoyment; "preferences" mean individual priorities, which often reflect personality in searching for satisfaction of particular needs or desires; "information" can come from several sources such as mass media, travel agencies, tourism information centres and brochures, the Internet, as well as reference groups, particularly by word-of-mouth.

Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 8) have noted that:

> [In a wine tourism marketing perceptive,] "*Motivations and perceptions combine to construct each individual's image of* [a wine tourism] *destination and attractions and the associated series of expectations regarding the experience at the* [wine tourism] *destination*".

Image creation is of utmost importance in the tourism context because the appeal of attractions arises largely from the image that is conjured up, some from direct or related experiences and others from external sources and influences. Destination images are not necessarily the same for each visitor. Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 8) have further indicated that image plays a significant role in both wine and tourism industries, particularly in terms of selling the romance of wine, wine making and other wine-related products. Therefore, design and promotion of the image are important tasks for wine tourism organisations in terms of marketing the wine routes. Most of the literature, which specifically relates to image within a tourism context, has been discussed in Section 3.3.2.2.

4.3.4.2 SUPPLY OF WINE TOURISM

As referred to in the wine tourism system in Figure 4.1, the supply side of wine tourism, in terms of the wine tourism industry, involves all the resources, which are used by tourists for the purpose of wine tourism, as well as institutions and businesses, which transform those resources into a wine tourism offering. Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 9) have summarised those resources as: (1) some resources from the wine industry include wineries, vineyard amenities, wine exhibitions and festivals; (2) other resources from the tourism industry include transport, accommodation and associated sectors such as hospitality, restaurants and catering industries; (3) human resources include wine makers and other viticultural and oenological workers/staff, as well as tour operators; (4) resources surrounding environment include physical environment, scenery, infrastructure, regional cuisine and social and cultural components of the winelands; and (5) resources from institutional arrangements, which affect wine tourism, include not only all levels of government, but also that of policies, regulations and planning frameworks.

It is distinctly recognised that wine tourism contributes to the tourism business of a region, since the embrace of the wine and tourism industries, which include aspects such as destination attraction, destination tourism branding and destination atmosphere, as well as a self-existent tourist destination or destination component. Conversely, wine tourism is also significant to wine business because not only can it be a point of increased profits to wineries, but it is also an important component of the wine marketing mix such as promotional and sales approaches. Therefore, the development of wine tourism should gain certain responsibilities and investments from the wine industry within the region.

As an example of the significance of wine tourism in the wine industry, Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 11) have mentioned some advantages of wine tourism in contributing to wine wineries' business profitability, as well as disadvantages, which are summarised below in Table 4.2:

Table 4.2: Advantages and disadvantages of wine tourism for wine businesses

Advantages
·*Increased consumer exposure* to product and increased opportunities to sample product;
·*Brand awareness and loyalty* built through establishing links between producer and consumer, and purchase of company-branded merchandise;
·*Increased margins* through direct sales to consumers, where the absence of distributor costs is not carried over entirely to the consumer;
·An *additional sales outlet* or, for smaller wine producers who cannot guarantee volume or constancy of supply, the only feasible sales outlet;
·*Marketing intelligence on products*. Wine producers can gain instant and valuable feedback on the consumer's reaction to their existing products, and are able to trial new additions to their product range;
·*Marketing intelligence on consumers*. Visitors to the winery can be added to a mailing list, which can be developed as a customer database to both target and inform customers;
·*Educational opportunities*. Visits to wineries help create awareness and appreciation of wine and the wine industry, knowledge and interest generated by this can be expected to result in increased consumption.
Disadvantages
·*Increased costs and management time*. The operation of a tasting room may be costly, particularly when it requires paid staff. While the profitability gap is higher on direct sales to the consumer, profit may be reduced if wineries do not charge for tasting;
·*Capital required*. Suitable facilities for hosting visitors may be prohibitively expensive;
·*Inability to substantially increase sales*. The number of visitors a winery can attract is limited and if a winery cannot sell all of its stock, it will eventually need to use other distribution outlets.

Source: Hall, Johnson, Cambourne *et al*. (2000: 11)

Overall, wine tourism embraces and contributes to both tourism and wine industries, while each have substantial implications for regional environments, economies and lifestyle and have been long entwined. The wine tourism concept rests with a special interest in wine, which is motivated by the destination and the activity. The term wine route, as a concrete tourism offering, is more inclined to a geographic region, but involves all wine tourism participants in the region and management activities. A focal point of tourists and the wine tourism industry is the tourism experience, which, along with elements from the demand and supply sides, can compose an integrated wine tourism system.

4.4 CONSUMER BEHAVIOURAL ASPECTS IN WINE TOURISM

As referred to above in the wine tourism system, consumer behaviour studies, with regard to wine tourism, include both supply (study of wine tourists inferred from a perspective of the industry) and demand (direct study of wine tourists themselves) sides. Hence, in this project, the study focuses on a direct understanding of how Chinese tourists consider the Western Cape Wine Routes as a destination component of South Africa their holiday destination choice; meanwhile, an industrial reflection is also probed.

Chapter Three pointed out that the study of consumer (tourist) behaviour is crucial in order to understand all (tourism) marketing activity, which aims to develop, promote and sell (tourism) products and services, which include an understanding of consumer (tourist) buying decision-making and their psychological characteristics. Mitchell, Hall and McIntosh (2000: 118) have also pointed out that tourist consumer behaviour studies are important for wine tourism marketing organisations because it helps to provide important insights into:

5.3.1 Who wine tourists are;

5.3.2 What motivates them to visit a wine tourism destination or a wine route, take a cellar tour, attend a wine exhibition or festival; and

5.3.3 Why, thus allowing marketing operators to effectively segment, target and develop markets.

In brief, the research of wine tourist behaviour can provide a significant and useful picture of their characteristics, lifestyles, motivations and perceptions, as well as preferences in taking a wine holiday. Therefore, this following context, which clarifies a theoretical understanding of consumer behaviour in wine tourism, includes an identification and profile of wine tourists, their motivations and experiences (implicated in perceptions), as well as a model of wine tourist behaviour within the buying process.

4.4.1 PROFILE OF GENERAL WINE TOURISTS

In spite of the significance of wine tourists, there is little published research about their characteristics, motivations and behaviour (Macionis, 1997: 29; Frochot, 2000: 78), while in respect of Chinese wine tourists, related research is more limited (Wang *et al.*, 2006). In order to obtain a basic understanding of wine tourists, a profile of general wine tourists should be clarified.

According to Johnson (1998), a wine tourist can simply be identified as "*one who visits a vineyard, winery, wine festival or wine show for the purpose of recreation*". However, this identification excludes business tourism and indicates little about who the wine tourist is, what they do and why they do it. Moreover, Johnson (1998) also ignores much of the extension of wine tourism such as its historical context, "romance" of the grape and educational purposes, as well as wider attributes of the grape/wine regions.

For a practical research of wine tourism, a general approach, as suggested by Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 120), can be applied in order to uncover and describe a profile of wine tourists, which includes both demographic and psychological details. Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 122) have noted that a demographic profile includes elements such as gender, age, income, occupation and origin, which can all provide a simple but useful insight into who the wine tourist is, while it can also provide a basis for simple segmentation of wine tourist markets. While psychographic data such as motives, lifestyles, perceptions, interests, values, preferences and attitudes can provide a deep profile of the wine tourist that cannot easily be captured by demographic data, it can further fractionise wine tourist market segments (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997: 141).

Furthermore, Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 123) have argued some general dimensions in order to describe the lifestyles of wine tourists, which are summarised below:

(i) Most wine tourists have strong wine interests and are "*regular consumers of wine, have an intermediate to advanced knowledge of wine and visit wineries or wine regions several times a year*" (Johnson, 1998);
(ii) Although they have at least an intermediate level of wine knowledge, it is not a necessary or conclusive characteristic of a wine tourist;
(iii) Wine tourists have a desire to taste wine and acquire wine knowledge in a friendly, social and unthreatening atmosphere, which also shows that wine education plays "a fundamental role" in the development of the wine industry (Hills, 1998);
(iv) Wine tourists have wine consumptive habits, since they are wine drinkers or wine buyers and have a certain consumption per month; and

(v) As "symbolisation", wine plays an important part in consumer lifestyles because it is more than merely a beverage but also a lifestyle product, which complements food, hospitality, entertainment, the arts and tourism. In other words, wine tourists tend to become part of a group who are fashion leaders, opinion leaders, a new generation with disposable income and who are health conscious (Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 304).

As introduced in Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 125-126), the Movimento del Turismo del Vino (1995)[1] has further recommended a lifestyle approach, which divides wine tourists into four types, namely:

◎ The professional;
◎ The impassioned neophyte;
◎ The hanger-on; and
◎ The drinker.

These four types are described in Table 4.3 below. It should be pointed out that even though this approach has been adopted in Italy, it may also be referred to as a universal study of wine tourists in other regions.

Table 4.3: Four types of wine tourists (in Italy) by their lifestyles

The Professional
30-40 years old: knows wines and the wine world, and can discuss the fine points of wines with the wine-maker and can competently judge a wine's virtues and faults. Always interested in new things and willing to devote considerable time and energy to their discovery.
The Impassioned Neophyte
25-30 years old: well off, likes wines and sees them as a vehicle through which to cement friendships, enjoys food and explores the countryside. Generally travels with friends, some of whom may be professionals and always has a wine guide handy. Eager to learn, but less serious about wine than the professional.
The Hanger-on
40-50 years old: wealthy, attracted to wine because knowing something about them is a mark of distinction. Is satisfied with knowledge of the basics and is more easily swayed by the comments of others than those belonging to the previous categories. Is also drawn to famous names and more easily impressed by appearances. Sometimes asks for discount.
The Drinker
50-60 years old: visits wineries as part of a group on Sundays, treating them as an alternative to a bar, gulps the wine and asks for more, also asks to buy in bulk, sometimes pulling a tank or demijohn from the back of their car.

Source: Movimento del Turismo del Vino (1995), cited in Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 125-126)

Based upon research, which was conducted in Australia, by combining demographic (age, gender and socio-economic background) and psychographic (tastes, values, beliefs, attitudes and opinions) data and grouping people who share similar characteristics, the Roy Morgan Holiday Tracking Survey

[1] Movimento del Turismo del Vino. 1995. http://ulysses.ulysse.s.it/mtv

identified a series of life-cycle "value segments" of Australian tourists. Cambourne and Macionis (2000: 92) then developed a "wine tourism market portfolio", which examines the percentage of those "value segments" that visit wineries. Based on this, Cambourne and Macionis categorised those wine visitors and note that four groups comprise a majority of Australian wine tourists and would appear as the most appropriate target markets for domestic wine tourism. These four groups have been denominated, and are listed below:

- ◎ "Visible achievers";
- ◎ "Socially aware";
- ◎ "Traditional family"; and
- ◎ "Young optimists".

Although the above categories of wine tourists were identified via research in Australia, they can also be used when studying universal wine tourists. As identified by Cambourne and Macionis (2000: 90-92), the profile of each category of wine tourist, is shown below in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Wine tourism market portfolio (in Australia)

Visible Achievers
Around 40 years old, this group comprises wealth creators: work for financial reward and job stimulation, seek recognition and status for themselves and their families; world of "good living" such as travel, recreation, other evidence of success; respond to clever, unusual and special advertising or marketing appeals, aspirational lifestyle should be considered sceptical about claims or offers.
Socially Aware
Tertiary educated people in top jobs, the most educated segment of the community: avid arts goers, with no real money worries, tend to be wealth managers; experiential tourists who pursue a stimulating lifestyle, both in their homes and leisure activities, very green and progressive; respond to stylish, tasteful and intelligent marketing appeals, concepts and ideas are important, they reject hype.
Traditional Family Life
The over 50, empty nest and mostly retired version of middle class: strong commitment to traditional roles and values, cautious of new things; time for new interests and to get away to nice places; concerned about their life; respond to practical advertising ideas and clear communication.
Young Optimists
The student generation, active, trendy, outgoing: often the children of "visible achievers" or "socially aware", while they see themselves as very progressive; young singles or couples of 40-50 years old, wealthy, attracted to wine because knowing something about them is a mark of distinction. Are satisfied with knowledge of just the basics and are more easily swayed by the comments of others than those belonging to the previous categories. Are also drawn to famous names and more easily impressed by appearances. Sometimes ask for discounts.

Source: adapted from Cambourne and Macionis (2000: 90-92)

Although the above introduction provides a basic understanding of wine tourists, however, it still rests on an exterior profile. In order to further understand wine tourists and why they take a wine holiday or visit a wine region, their motives are probed and analysed during the following text.

4.4.2 MOTIVATIONS OF WINE TOURISTS

According to the literature study of motivation in the previous chapter (see Sections 3.2.2.1 and 3.3.2.1), a motive can be described as an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates an individual's behaviour. Cambourne and Macionis *et al*. (2000: 304) have noted that there is a multiplicity of motivations for engaging in wine-related tourism.

Johnson (1998: 34) has asserted that by studying internal motivations, wine tourism operators can understand tourist demand and then identify new products and services in order to fulfil the same basic needs; studies of internal motivations can also uncover similarities in, and differences between, general tourist demand and wine tourist demand within different wine tourism market segments. In addition, Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 126) have also identified that external motives, as pull factors, are those that draw tourists to wine farms or wine routes and are, in general, features, events or sites of the wine tourism destination such as buying, tasting and dining services.

Based on several wine tourism studies in Australia and New Zealand, Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 127) have identified some motives of wine tourists. These, as listed in Table 4.5, can be analysed to reveal wine tourism motivations that are rooted more deeply in the beliefs, values and attitudes of tourists. Mitchell *et al*. note that, for many, "wine tasting" and "learning about wine/winemaking" is a way to increase their experience and knowledge so that they can make more informed decisions about wine, as a way to reduce risk when buying wine; "a day out" and "relaxation", as motives, represent a need to escape from daily routines; and "meeting the wine-maker or owner", which shows elements such as passion and believability, which are associated with wine interpretation and, therefore, raises issues of authenticity.

Table 4.5: Motivations ranking for visiting wineries

	Victoria (n=1552)	Canberra (n=85)	Canberra (n=13)	New Zealand (n=82)	Internal/ External
Tasting wine	1	1	1=	1	External
Buying wine	2	2	1=	2	External
A day out	-	3	7	3	-
Socialising	3	-	6	7	Internal
Learning about wine	4	6	5	4	Internal
Relaxation	-	-	3	5	Internal
Winery tour	6	-	9	6	External
Meeting wine-maker	7	5	4	8	Internal
Eating at winery	5	-	-	11	External
Picnic/BBQ	9	-	10	10	External
Entertaining	8	-	-	-	-
Rural setting	-	4	-	-	External

Source: Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 127)

Johnson (1998: 15) suggests a basic typological approach to wine tourists, which is based on their motivations and can be divided into:

(1) General wine tourists, namely *"those who visit a vineyard, winery, wine festival or wine show for the purpose of recreation"; and*
(2) Specialist wine tourists, namely *"those who visit a vineyard, winery, wine festival or wine show for the purpose of recreation and whose primary motivation is a specific interest in grape wine or grape wine-related phenomena*".

However, Johnson (1998: 15) has also noted that the above definition neglects the tour accompanier whose key motivation was certainly not wine per se, but the need to have a relaxing day out.

Cambourne and Macionis (2000: 86) further identified that primary wine tourism motivations are wine related, namely tasting or purchasing wines and; many peripheral or secondary motivations that will be integral to the total experience of wine tourism. These wine-related motivations, citied in Cambourne and Macionis (2000: 86), are summarised below:

◎ Wine related (tasting, buying quality);
◎ Attending wine-related events and festivals;
◎ Socialising with friends or enjoying a day out;
◎ Enjoying the country setting or vineyard;
◎ Meeting the wine producer;
◎ Learning about wine or wine-making (education);
◎ Eating at a winery restaurant, picnic or BBQ (food and wine link);
◎ Cellar tours or winery visits (education);
◎ Visiting or experiencing other attractions and activities in the wine region; and
◎ Entertainment.

In a wider context, in Getz and Brown's (2004) research, twenty-seven attributes of a wine tourism destination were examined, which can be regarded as underlying motives of wine tourists who visit this destination. On a five-point scale, the five top-ranked attributes are (with means): (1) the wineries are visitor friendly (4.15); (2) there is a lot to do in the region (4.11); (3) attractive scenery (4.01); (4) winery staff are knowledgeable about wine (3.99); and (5) group tours of the wineries are offered (3.84).

Furthermore, by an exploratory factor analysis, Getz and Brown (2004) provide a 7-factor solution, which indicates logical grouping of wine destination attributes in terms of these motives for wine-related travel:

◎ Factor 1: core wine product. This includes (i) familiarity with one or more wineries; (ii) wine festivals; (iii) knowledgeable winery staff; and (iv) visitor-friendly wineries;

◎ Factor 2: core destination appeal. This reflects (i) the climate; (ii) well signposted wine trails; (iii) moderately priced accommodation; (iv) easy-to-obtain information; and (v) scenery;

◎ Factor 3: the cultural product. This consists of (i) traditional wine villages; (ii) unique accommodation with regional character; and (iii) group tours of wineries;

◎ Factor 4: variety. This includes only (i) excellent sport facilities; and (ii) a wide range of opportunities for outdoor recreation;

◎ Factor 5: tourist-oriented. This comprises (i) popularity of the destination; (ii) famous wines; (iii) a large number of wineries to visit; and (iv) group tours of wineries;

◎ Factors 6 and 7 are non-named, which include mostly unimportant attributes with low means.

Similarly, Sparks (2007) has also identified broad wine tourism motivations by a factor analysis. This is an 8-factor solution, which includes (1) destination experience; (2) personal development; (3) core wine experience; (4) food and wine involvement; (5) emotional attitude; (6) normative influence (recommended by or heard from friends/family); (7) control influence (time or money); and (8) past attitudes to wine holidays. Sparks (2007) further noted the first three factors, which appear below:

◎ Destination experience is reflective of potential feelings that arise as a result of interacting with the destination. This factor includes (i) real/genuine experience; (ii) beautiful surroundings; (iii) opportunities for escaping from routine/stresses of daily life; (iv) indulgent experiences; (v) regional produce unique to destination; and (vi) an unusual/undiscovered destination;

◎ Personal development is a dimension of the wine tourism experience that provides an opportunity for growth. This factor comprises (i) opportunity to feel enlightened; (ii) an experience that allows one to develop as a person; and (iii) opportunity to feel inspired; and

◎ The core wine experience reflects an opportunity to engage with wine testing or purchasing itself. There are four items in this factor: (i) excellent wine-tasting opportunities; (ii) talking with winemaker and wine staff; (iii) opportunities to purchase rare and expensive wines that are not available elsewhere; and (iv) opportunities to purchase wine at a reasonable price.

Finally, conversely, Getz and Brown (2004) noted several motives that prevented people from visiting a wine-producing region. These barriers, from a consumer perspective, are (1) the cost was too high; (2) I had insufficient time; (3) there was no suitable tour package; (4) I had insufficient knowledge about the region; (5) other destinations were more appealing to me; (6) other destinations were more appealing to my family/friends; and (7) I was concerned about drinking and driving.

All of the above mentioned wine tourism motives and analyses clarify the underlying psychological profile of wine tourists. At the same time, these also provide an outline for wine tourism operators in terms of what the wine tourism destination should be. Additionally, during identification of these motivations, it was noted that the wine tourism experience is important from a consumer perspective. Therefore, after studies of wine tourists' demographics and their motivations, an experiential insight into wine tourist behaviour can further provide a temporal and spatial understanding of the consumption of wine tourism.

4.4.3 EXPERIENCES IN WINE TOURISM BEHAVIOUR

Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 129) have noted that an "experiential view" has been recognised in consumer behaviour research in terms of the special nature of wine-related products and services that have a hedonic component such as wine and food or leisure activities. In other words, when people consume these offerings, their decision-making is not always based on problem-solving, since they are often a result of "primary process thinking", including "fantasy, fun, amusement, arousal and sensory stimulation".

From an "experiential view", the study of consumer behaviour in wine tourism has also emerged in relevant literature, for example, Dodd and Gustafson (1997) have proposed an experiential approach for the study of wine tourism. Dodd and Gustafson's (1997) work applies some of the principles of an experiential approach and provides some useful information of the attributes of wine tourists and how wine tourism products and staff may influence behaviour and attitudes. It should be pointed out that this approach overlooked the role of individual visitors in shaping their own experiences and their experiential approach falls short of providing a thorough appraisal of the experience.

Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 130) have indicated that experiences in wine tourism are "*not only the sensuous nature of wine but also its romantic and lascivious nature experiences*". In other words, there is more to wine and wine tourism than the simple consumption of a beverage or that this experience is limited to the senses and emotions that are associated with the wine alone. In practice, wine tourism experiences, similar to most tourism experiences, are much more abundant than this, relying on the characteristics of the individual, the setting in which they occur, socialisation with the personalities of wine and interaction with other elements of the experience such as food, accommodation and other visitors. Bieder, Campbell and Williams (1997) have also suggested some experiences of wine tours, which relate to good wine and food, happiness with friends, meeting winemakers and joyful people, a lazy picnic, beautiful scenery, healthy walks in vineyards and sunny days and cool nights within a comfortable climate. All these "experiential views" are the elements, which form an image for a winery, a wine region or a national destination, which will further influence wine tourists' perceptions and attitudes.

In order to provide a visual representation of the winery experience, Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 131-132) have illustrated a bunch of grapes as a metaphor that Figure 4.2 shows, which includes (1) winery attributes (at its core); (2) experience from the wider region; and (3) wine experiences from outside the region, while each of them is presented to give the experience its unique "flavour". "*Interspersed throughout, the grapes (like natural occurring yeast), are the active ingredients of the experience (represented by the green globes) – the personal traits of tourists*".

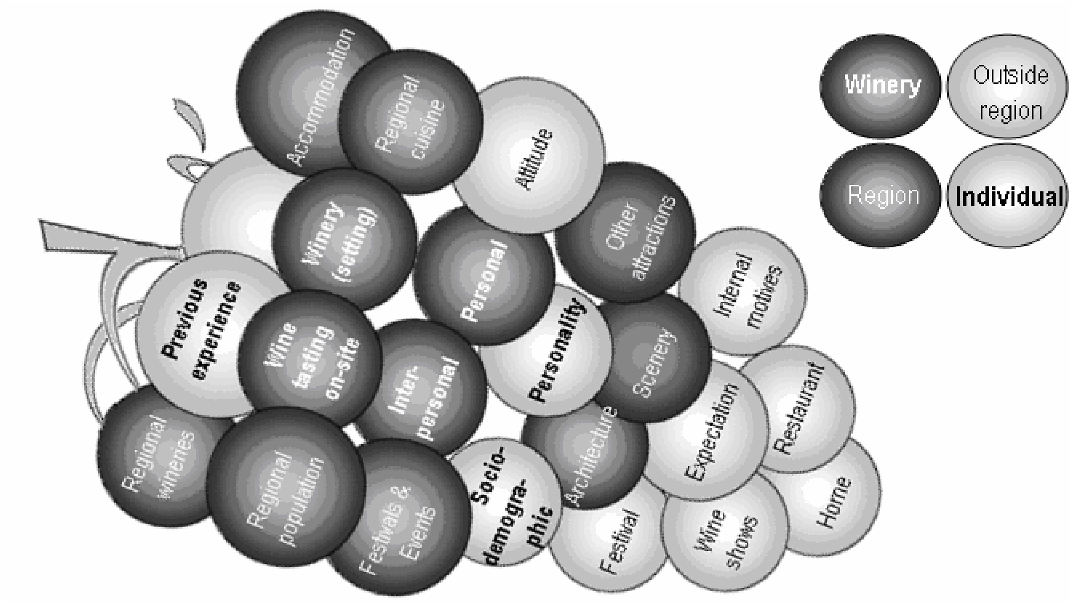

Figure 4.2: The winery experience

Source: Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 132)

Similar to the above model, Getz and Brown (2004) identified three vital features of wine tourism experiences from a consumer perspective, which have also been mentioned during discussion of wine tourism motivations (see Getz and Brown's 7-factor solution in Section 4.4.2). These three features are presented in Figure 4.3 below:

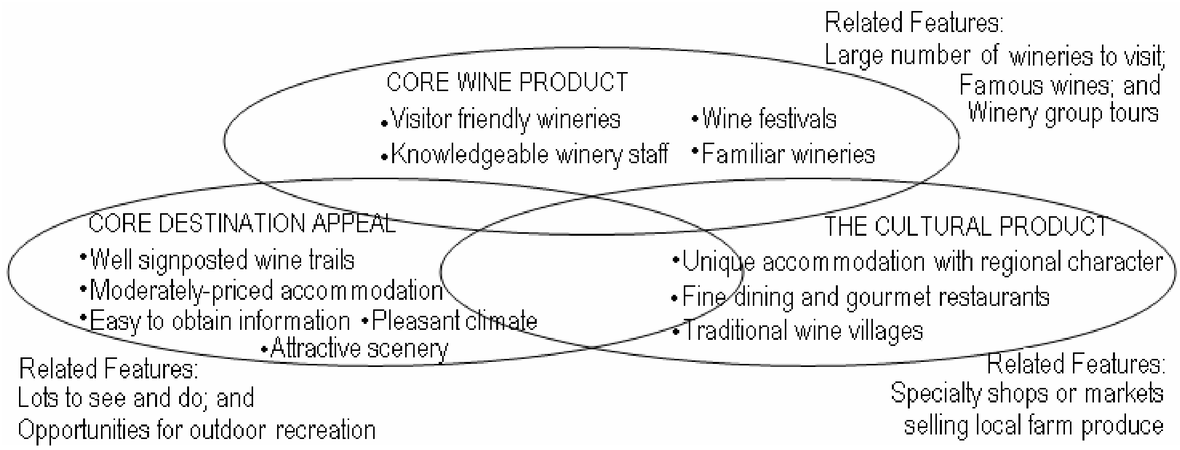

Figure 4.3: The wine tourism experience from a consumer perspective

Source: Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 132)

Tourism experiential studies tend to be limited both in their temporal and spatial scope, while, according to Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 131), a five-stage model (pre-visit, travel to, on-site visit, travel from and post-visit experience), is widely accepted in this area. The issue of temporal and spatial scope of experiential studies in terms of the five-stage model, can also be applied to wine tourism (refer to Table 4.6) because wine tourism has a geographical application (wine region), which is also a tangible, transportable and durable product that can be experienced in some locations before, during and after the on-site winery experience that tends to be less tangible, transportable and durable. Therefore, Mitchell *et al*. (2000) believe that "*wine tourism provides an opportunity to study the on-site tourist experience within a wider temporal (pre- and post-visit) and spatial (experiences at home and of the wider regional tourism) context*".

Table 4.6: Stages of travel experience in wine tourism

Wine experience	*Opportunities*
Stage 1: Pre-visit (anticipation)	
·Wine from destination/winery at home or restaurant.	·Distribution in main origin areas for regional tourism.
·Previous experience at winery/wine region.	·Positive on-site experiences (past).
·Previous experience at other wineries.	·Promotional material that uses place/wine attributes.
Stage 2: Travel to	
·Wine en route (at restaurant or on airline).	·Wine on airlines or major stopping points en route.
·Airline in-flight video/magazine about destination/wine.	·Promotional videos and magazine articles.
Stage 3: Destination / on-site visit	
·Winery experience (Tasting; Education/interpretation; Service; Setting; Activities and Food)	·Positive winery experience.
·Wine at hotel, restaurant or café in region.	·Wine in local hotels, restaurants and cafés.
Stage 4: Travel from	
·Wine en route home (at restaurant or on airline).	·Wine on airlines or major stopping points en route.
Stage 5: Post-visit (reminiscence)	
·Wine from destination/winery at home or restaurant.	·Distribution in main origin areas for regional tourism.
·Previous experience at winery/wine region.	·Positive on-site experiences (past).
·Previous experience at other wineries.	
·Promotional material/advertising for winery/wine region.	·Promotional material that uses place/wine attributes.
·Photos and souvenirs.	·Souvenirs.
·Wine purchased at cellar door.	
·Mail order/newsletter.	·Mail order/newsletter.

FUTURE BEHAVIOUR

Source: Mitchell *et al.* (2000: 128)

Furthermore, Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 133) have proposed a three-dimensional model (Figure 4.4) in order to provide a framework that outlines a holistic view of the wine tourism experience, which combines spatial ("setting") and temporal ("stage of travel or time") dimensions of the wine-related tourism experience with the "activity" of tourism. In Figure 4.4, these three individual elements show the overall wine tourism experience, while some various types of wine experiences have also been used to illustrate how this model can be applied to the wine tourism experience. Mitchell *et al*. (2000) have explained that a pre-visit experience in a familiar place, for example, drinking wine at home before the wine route visit, is placed at the "familiar/pas/real" end of each dimension (bottom left foreground); at the other end, the reminiscence of the experience takes place at another location ("post-visit/imagined/remote").

Mitchell *et al*. (2000: 134) have further explicated that, outwardly, the elements of the experience such as anticipation at home, on-site experience or recollection, are discrete; connections occur between elements that are unique to the individual who constructs a unique (subjective) experience depending on their beliefs, values, personality and attitudes, along with their own perceptions, experiences and knowledge of the world. As shown below in Figure 4.4, Mitchell *et al*. (2000) have also suggested three phenomenological dimensions of the tourism experience:

(1) "Experiential environment" (environments as perceived and acted upon by people);
(2) The "phenomenon" itself (tangible and intangible tourist activities); and
(3) "Human constructs of time" (concepts such as past, present, future, reminiscence and anticipation).

This holistic view of the wine tourism experience may not only gain a better understanding of wine tourists, but also uncovers how the experience influences further behaviour.

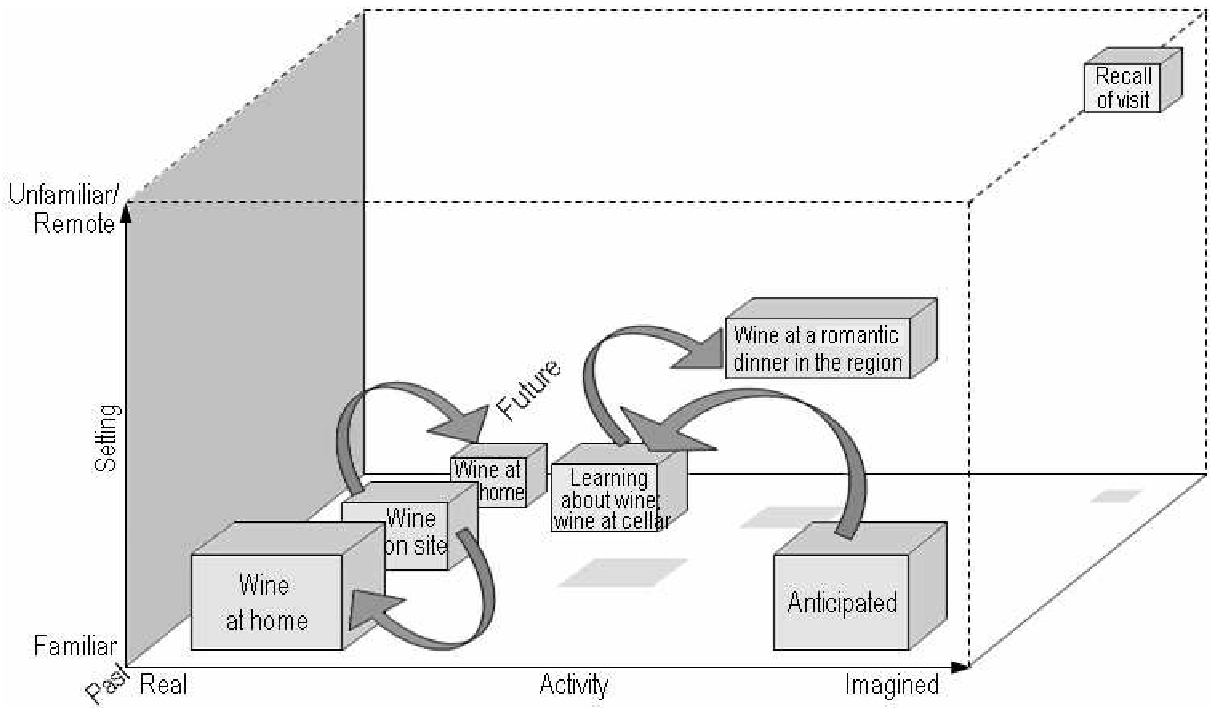

Figure 4.4: Dimensions of wine tourism experience

Source: Mitchell *et al.* (2000: 133)

4.4.4 A MODEL OF WINE TOURIST BEHAVIOUR IN THE BUYING PROCESS

With the exception of characteristics (demographic, motivations and experiences) of wine tourists, some environmental factors, service elements and marketing activities (these have been discussed during Chapters 2 and 3), also influence wine tourist behaviour in the purchasing process of a wine tour/holiday. In Figure 4.5, a model of consumer behaviour, within the buying process of wine tourism is illustrated (Dodd, 2000: 143), which provides a stream of antecedents and outcomes, as well as some direct influencing factors that are displayed. Essentially, this model is the practical application of general consumer behaviour theories (as shown in Figures 3.1 and 3.10) in wine tourism.

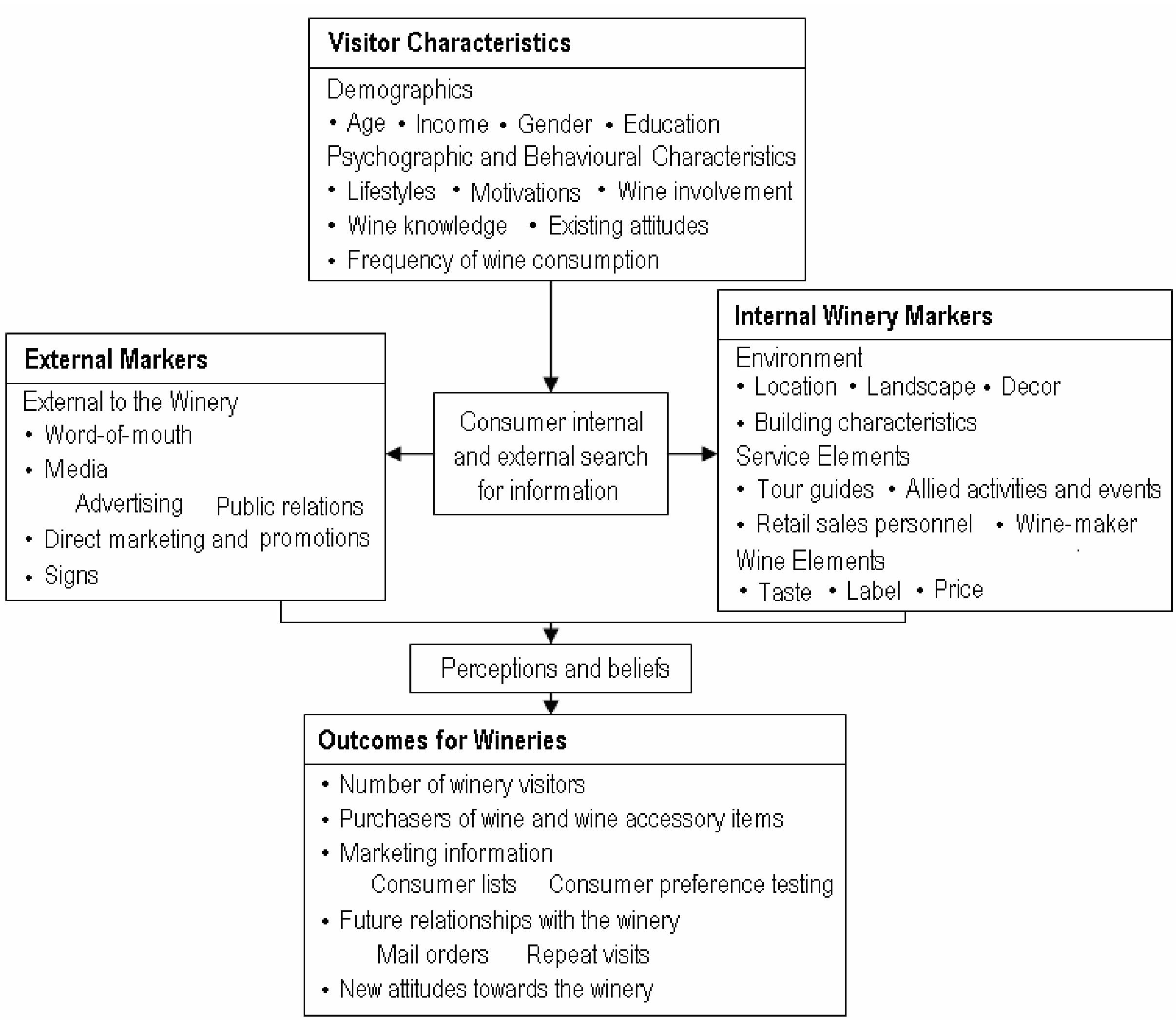

Figure 4.5: Consumer behaviour in wine tourism

Source: Dodd (2000: 143)

As shown in the above model, the wine tourist may have a specific motive to participate in wine tours, but the decision of a wine tourism destination choice will rely on his/her perceptions and beliefs, however, people have different perceptions, which depend on their different demographic and psychographic characteristics and are shaped during internal and external information searching.

4.5 WINE TOURISM IN DESTINATION MARKETING

Following a study of wine tourists, the following context discusses wine tourism in destination marketing from an industrial perspective. This includes wine-related attractions and wine destination, since wine and wine-related activities, events and sites not only mean important attractions in a tourism destination, but a wine region can also be regarded as a self-existent tourism destination or a sub-destination (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 3; Getz and Brown, 2006: 79). Furthermore, more than a tangible and physical component, wine and wine-related attributes also play other important roles such as within amenity, ambience and image, as well as in destination marketing, particularly for wine countries' tourism development.

4.5.1 WINE-RELATED ATTRACTIONS

Wine-related attractions, as a Special Interest Tourism (SIT) product, can play a positive and significant "pull role (factor)" to attract tourists to visit a specific destination (Hall, Johnson and Cambourne *et al*., 2000: 4). The attractiveness of wine tourism implicates areas such as agriculture, production, scenery, history, culture, religion, sport, entertainment, education, business and food and beverage. These implications are mostly complex in reflecting the travel motivations of wine tourists, but they can be idiographic and can also be classified based on the "four categories of tourism attractions"[1] (Weaver and Lawton, 2006: 129), namely:

- ◎ Natural sites such as rural landscapes or vineyard scenery;
- ◎ Natural events such as grape picking;
- ◎ Socio-cultural sites, which include wine heritage and wine museums; and
- ◎ Socio-cultural events such as wine shows, wine education and wine festivals.

It should be pointed out that tourists might have a complex motivation to visit a destination when they consider wine tourism as the primary attraction.

Moreover, wine tourism can also combine with other local attractions such as irrelevant heritage, landscape, sport, universities and townships, which would enrich and strengthen the attractiveness of a destination. Sometimes, within this combined relationship, wine tourism is a primary attraction, which forms a main motivation for tourists taking a trip, while, at other times, wine tourism is a secondary or subsidiary attraction as a tourism byproduct within a tourist's holiday (Frochot, 2000: 70).

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[1] The four categories of tourism attractions as presented earlier in Figure 2.4.

4.5.2 ROLES OF WINE TOURISM IN THE DESTINATION-MIX

Wine-related attractions or products can be an important sector of the "destination-mix"[1] (George, 2004: 399), while wine-related attributes also play more intangible roles in the destination-mix such as amenities and ambience.

(i) Firstly, as amenities, wine and wine-related attributes can directly or indirectly offer and support entertainment (wine tasting or grape harvesting), retail (wine sale), restaurants (wine and wine-farm restaurants) and accommodation (wine-farm lodge) during a holiday at a destination; and
(ii) Secondly, as an ambience creator, wine and wine-related phenomena can benefit a positive and attractive "atmosphere" at a destination because it implicates lifestyle, which has gentle, qualitative, healthy, romantic, spiritual, cultural and historical attributes (Hall, Longo, Mitchell and Johnson, 2000: 159; Hall, Johnson and Mitchell, 2000: 197).

Due to the above attractiveness in destination marketing, wine and wine-related attributes can be used to brand a destination or shape the destination's image in order to promote the destination (Macionis and Cambourne, 2000: 233).

4.5.3 WINE TOURISM DESTINATION

As mentioned earlier, wine tourism is implicated in geography. Hall, Johnson and Mitchell (2000: 196) have noted that both wine and tourism are differentiated on the basis of regional identity. In the same way, wine tourism is markedly identified by its geographical scope, while a wine region can be regarded as a self-existent wine tourism destination or a sub-destination of a country for tourists.

In practice, tourism can be increasingly recognised as a tool, which encourages regional and national economic development and employment generation (Wilson, 1999), as well as a feature of the wine industry that has a capacity to attract tourists and boost activity in regional tourism ventures (Scales, Croser and Freebairn, 1995: 73) so that tourism development of a winegrowing region may take full advantage of wine-related tourism towards position, brand, promotion and marketing the destination. Wine and wine-related tourism will be the primary attraction when the wine region (routes) is regarded as a self-existent tourism destination. For example, Stellenbosch, as the "most famous wine tourism destination in South Africa" (Preston-Whyte, 2000: 109), is a typical wine tourism destination, where all tourism resources and attractions are synergised by surrounding or linking wine and wine-related attractions. People take trips to visit Stellenbosch for wine tasting, golf, township touring or other

[1] The tourism destination-mix includes attractions, accessibility, amenities and ambience, which have been introduced earlier in Figure 2.30.

purposes, but wine and wine-related motives feature uppermost in their consideration of Stellenbosch as a destination. Correspondingly, a self-existent wine tourism destination usually has a small geographical scope and, at a regional destination level, a self-existent wine tourism destination is also seen as a tourist product or a destination component of a country's tourism industry.

Overall, wine-related tourism, whether as an attraction or self-existent destination, has a life cycle. Based on the model of the (tourism) product life cycle (PLC) as shown in Figure 2.23 (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 338), a development model of wine tourism (destination) is suggested by Skinner (2000: 291), which can be divided into six or eight evolutionary stages of the product life cycle (PLC) (see Table 4.7). These stages provide a model of wine tourism, which permit wine regions or sites to identify position in the evolutionary continuum and to recognise changes that occur in the destination, as well as to clarify characteristics of a wine tourism product in its different development stages.

Table 4.7: Description of eight stages of wine tourism development

Stage 1: Exploration (Product Development)
·Viticulture introduced. Appellation established. Rural residence. Little or no tourism.
·Three to five years to crop viability. Wineries may buy grapes from other vineyards to make wine in the interim.
·Wineries built on site. Production begins. Pioneering wine enthusiasts begin making contact by tasting wines.
Stage 2: Involvement (Introduction)
·Successful production. Slow growth of viticultural ventures.
·Wine writers take note. Award-winning wines bring recognition.
·Number of tourists showing a significant increase. Addition of tasting facilities to some wineries.
·Outsiders looking for rural, wine country lifestyle begin purchasing vineyards and building homes.
Stage 3: Development (Growth)
·Increased growth of viticulture.
·Area included in most guidebooks and wine maps. Pronounced seasonal tourism cycle.
·Tries to attract tourists successfully. Number of accommodation establishments marketing the wine country experience increases.
·Tasting rooms, whether on-site, off-site, or collectives, now part of all wineries.
·Immigration of workers and entrepreneurs increase as tourism infrastructure and economic opportunities improve.
·Pioneer tourists avow the area.
Stage 4: Consolidation (Maturity Prophase)
·Viticulture becomes an area hallmark. Streets and businesses take on wine country names.
·Guidebooks published exclusively about the area. Introduction of mass tourism.
·Established wineries grow, planting new acreage and increasing tourism development. Some smaller ventures sell out to larger wineries or developers.
·Tourism brings in substantial revenue. Tourists' overwhelming infrastructure. Locals frustrated with traffic, noise, pollution, crowding. Some locals move away. City council holds hearings for solutions.
·Tourism development and subdivisions removing agricultural lands from production.
·Land prices increase so that only wealthy individuals can afford to buy homes or new land for vineyards.

Stage 5: Stagnation (Maturity Anaphase)
·Viticulture loses ground to urban development, pushed to outer fringes of regions.
·Tourism still substantial, but moving to alternative attractions. Infrastructure improvements ease ingress.
·Corporate ventures look for cheaper areas to farm. More locals move away to escape urban sprawl.
Stage 6: Decline
·Decline of wine tourism. Shift to new industry or tourism attraction.
·Area character now completely urban. Viticulture no longer practiced.
·Some wineries may still produce wines with grapes purchased from other regions.
·Wine tourism may continue on a small scale if some wineries or tasting rooms remain in the urban area.
·Names of streets and local businesses may be the only remaining indications of former industry.
Stage 7 (alternative): Cooperation
·Agricultural preserves established. Viticulture maintained. Development curtailed by city planners.
·Wineries develop collective tourism plan to deal with substantial numbers of tourists.
·Infrastructure improvements and alternative wine routes ease the pressures of tourist traffic.
·Resident/visitor conflicts reduced through communication links between residents, tourism industry and local government. Some locals may still move away.
Stage 8 (alternative): Conservation
·Viticulture in equilibrium with urban area, maintaining positive association with tourist trade.
·Viticultural region recognised internationally. Wine region's cultural traditions preserved over time.

Source: Skinner (2000: 290-291)

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter's literature study has focused particularly on wine tourism. Primarily, a brief historical development of vine and wine was reviewed within a global perspective. This also introduced an Old-New World (wine countries) system and a few emerging wine countries such as China. A framework provided a theoretical understanding of wine tourism, which conceptualised terms, namely wine tourism and wine routes, introduced the evolvement and characteristics of wine tourism, as well as a basic system of wine tourism that integrates both supply and demand. Based on this wine tourism system, wine tourists (demand side) and wine tourism in destination marketing (industrial side), were discussed separately. A discussion of wine tourists represented and analysed characteristics (demographics and motivations) of wine tourists and the wine tourism experience from a consumer perspective, as well as a behavioural model of wine tourists, was outlined. Finally, this chapter has summarised the roles of wine tourism in destination marketing, including both the level of attraction and self-existent destination, which implicates the creation of destination image and branding.

Summarily, the literature study of wine tourism in this chapter, along with theoretical studies of tourism and marketing in Chapter Two and consumer behaviour in Chapter Three, have provided an integrated theoretical framework and a detailed foundation, which supports this research.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Based on the literature studies in the previous chapters, the fieldwork of the research was designed to focus on Chinese tourists, which along with the research methodology, are introduced in this chapter. Presently, limited studies have been conducted in respect of South Africa as a destination in the Chinese tourist market, while none of them have distinguished and identified the importance and worthiness of South Africa's tourism offerings, respectively, in this market such as wine-related tourism in the form of the Western Cape Wine Routes. This means that the methodology in this research may not be restricted or suggested by a complete relevant study. Therefore, a study orientation was adopted, which is based on psychographics of Chinese tourists and their travel behaviours in the destination in order to evaluate the practicability of the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market.

As Rudman (2007) has noted, it is a dominant paradigm that empirical research is used to uncover business and management phenomena, as well as in tourism marketing. Therefore, by way of literature reviews in the study field, this "exploratory research" (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G2) captured a structured methodology in an empirical study to focus on the tourist side in order to formulate a holistic solution that meets the research objectives. In other words, this chapter presented a framework of the fieldwork that introduced the research strategy, design and methodology, as well as instruments of data collection and processing, while the research limitations were also covered.

5.2 RESEARCH STRATEGY

In the fieldwork, the primary data was captured by way of combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches, since the measurement of psychological and behavioural attributes is more complex and difficult (Assael, 1995: 376; McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 79) and, in this way, can provide a highly accurate and significant account of the phenomenon under study, particularly in terms of the psychographics and behavioural preferences of Chinese tourists towards the Western Cape Wine Routes. Additionally, in order to acquire comparable information from Chinese tourists in relation to the Western Cape Wine Routes such as wine tourism motivations, perceptions and habits, as well as demographic profiles, the experienced and non-experienced Chinese visitors to the Western Cape Wine Routes were regarded as two different sources.

Overall, the above mentioned research strategy provided evidence that could form a triangulation, as shown in Figure 5.1, which has improved the construct validity of the research design.

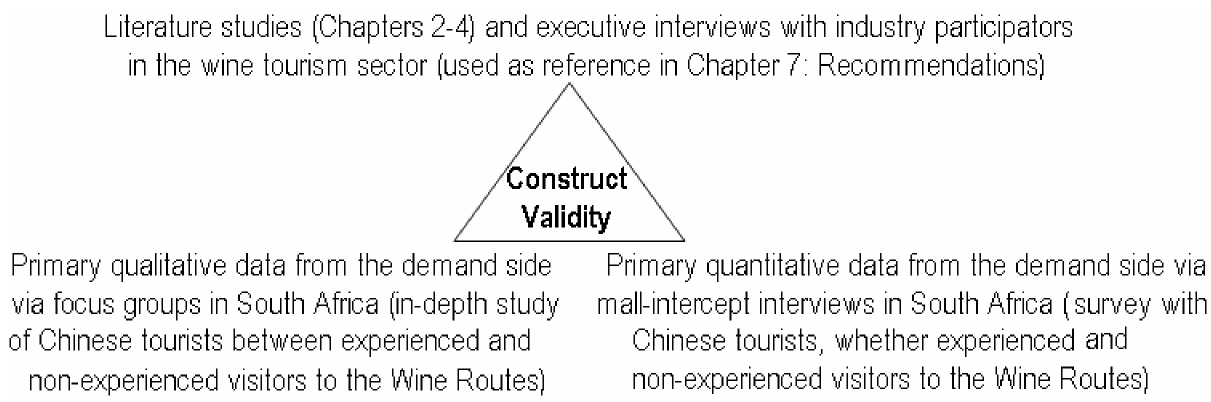

Figure 5.1: A triangulation of construct validity in the research design

Source: Adapted from Welman, Kauger and Mitchell (2005: 143)

As shown above in Figure 5.1, the two sub-fieldworks of the research, in respect of Chinese tourists with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes, in terms of (1) a qualitative study (focus group interviews) and (2) a quantitative survey (mall-intercept interviews), are further designed and introduced separately in the following context. Meanwhile, ethical considerations are also mentioned.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research fieldwork focuses on behavioural and psychological attributes of Chinese tourists, especially their motivations and perceptions. As noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (1997: 109), motivation research is usually able to determine underlying motives, both conscious and unconscious, with regard to consumers. On the other hand, perception research, within tourism marketing, focuses mainly on measurement of the feelings and beliefs of respondents about the object, event, person and other tourism offerings (Reisinger and Turner, 2003: 157). Meanwhile, behaviour study, which concern product, service or brand usage, can be ideal to use in the development of new ideas or concepts such as the launch of a new offering or entrance into a new market (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997: 109). Furthermore, this research also collected demographic data in order to describe a profile of Chinese wine tourists. Therefore, in this regard of broad and deep-seated data of Chinese tourists, the research fieldwork was designed by combining a qualitative study, as well as a quantitative survey.

5.3.1 DESIGN OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

This qualitative study was designed into several focus groups. As McDaniel and Gates (2006: 81) and Zikmund and Babin (2007: 141) have noted, a focus group can be regarded as an unstructured, free-flowing group-interview, which includes 6 to 12 participants (or 3-5 participants for a mini-group interview), led by a moderator in an indepth discussion on one particular topic or concept. Practically, focus groups can be used in almost any situation that requires some preliminary insight. However, some specific advantages of the group interviews, which were considered as usage motivations in this study, are presented below (Brink, 2006b: 142; Parasuraman, Grewal and Krishnan, 2007: 191):

(1) Focus groups have features of indepth interviews, since consumers [participants] are encouraged to talk freely in unstructured dialogue and their responses are interpreted to reveal their deep-seated motives and potential buying inclinations or embarrassments;
(2) Focus groups can provide richness of data more than merely a series of individual depth interviews, since a discussion comprises group dynamics [interaction], where a participant's comment may trigger a stream of new ideas from others;
(3) There is an ability during group interviews to study special respondents in respect of a new or specific concept such as the insights of Chinese tourists towards wine tourism;
(4) Focus groups can avoid limitations of a sample size because the limited number of Chinese tourists in South Africa resulted in difficulties with the study, based on a large sample size; and
(5) Focus groups can provide multiple perspectives and a high degree of scrutiny, which allow more detailed descriptions in the data analysis.

In addition to the above advantages, some disadvantages of group interviews were also considered at the same time, which included: (1) "lack of generalisability" (Parasuraman *et al*., 2007: 189) because of the limited sample size and homogeneous group compositions; (2) "possibility of misuse" (Parasuraman *et al*., 2007: 189) during the interview and data analysis; and (3) "high cost" (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 81) because of the complex operation and facility requirements. These were also reasons why this combined tourist investigation also included a quantitative survey in the next stage. Moreover, some embarrassments of recruiting participants were also considered in the research design such as:

(i) There was a limited number of Chinese tourists who could be interviewed in the Western Cape area;
(ii) The introvert personalities of Chinese [tourists] and their defensive attitudes in an unfamiliar destination, as well as a high crime image of the country, caused distrust and hesitation; and
(iii) Most Chinese tourists visited South Africa in tour groups, while their inflexible routing and time at the destination, made focus group interviews difficult at times.

5.3.2 DESIGN OF THE QUANTITATIVE SURVEY

As mentioned earlier, group interviews, as a qualitative technique, probed deep-seated and underlying information from participants [Chinese tourists], but it was limited to obtain broad samples at lower costs, and lacked a mathematical analysis. Therefore, in the second stage of the tourist investigation, a quantitative survey was conducted in the form of mall-intercept interviews, while an "interview schedule" (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: G5), in terms of questionnaires, was also used.

According to Zikmund and Babin (2007: 187), not only can one collect general data from a relatively large sample size, but some other advantages of surveys were considered in this research design, which showed that this quantitative approach can provide a quick, inexpensive, efficient and accurate method of assessing data regarding the target population, although their collected data may be relatively simple and surface. McDaniel and Gates (2006: 123) noted a relatively simple survey approach, in terms of mall-intercept interviews, which is a popular survey method for conducting personal interviews. As listed below in Table 5.1, its specific attributes (advantages and disadvantages), are summarised.

Table 5.1: Specific attributes of mall-intercept interviews

Item	Description
Speed of data collection	Fast
Geographic flexibility	Confined, possible urban bias
Respondent cooperation	Moderate to low
Versatility of questioning	Extremely versatile
Questionnaire length	Moderate to long
Item non-response rate	Medium
Possibility for respondent misunderstanding	Low
Degree of interviewer influence on answer	High
Supervision of interviewers	Moderate to high
Anonymity of respondents	Low
Ease of callback or follow-up	Difficult
Cost	Moderate to high

Source: Zikmund and Babin (2007: 231)

However, in this research, a practical condition has also been considered for designing the intercept survey, which is that a low incidence of Chinese tourists to South Africa, in particular to the Western Cape area[1], was confined to the maximum allowed interviews. Therefore, a high season and frequented loci of Chinese visitors, as well as face-to-face interviews, were used to improve the number of total allowed interviews and their response rate (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 176), in terms of the reasons why mall-intercept interviews were used.

5.3.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

During the research, ethical codes were implemented to undertake the “Code of Conduct” of marketing research by the Southern Africa Marketing Research Association (SAMRA) (2004), which is presented as follows.

[1] As a calculated result, an average number of Chinese tourists who visited the Western Cape area, approximated 2,000 monthly in 2006 (refer to Figure 1.1 and Table 1.3).

Obligations to the sponsor and readers:

(1) The authenticity of the data gathering and processing, as well as data, per se, is promised;
(2) All the data gathering from informants were not derivational; and
(3) The methods of data collection are described in this repost.

Responsibilities to informants (interviewee/participant/respondent):

(1) Safe/secure/cozier situations/loci were assured to ensure that interviews could be conducted;
(2) Except for related socio-demographic information, the identities of interviewed Chinese tourists were kept confidential;
(3) Before each interview, the research was explained to informants;
(4) Informants participated voluntarily in the interviews and could exit at any time if they wished to;
(5) As mentioned in the research delimitations (in Section 1.4), informants who were under the age of 18 years, were excluded because this research has an implication of alcohol law; and
(6) Questionnaires were translated into Chinese because, as an interview schedule, which adhered to intercept surveys, they were showed to the respondents at times.

5.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Following the research design, the research methodology is introduced within each sub-fieldwork, which includes focus group interviews and mall-intercept interviews. However, a common requirement, namely the target population in both focus group interviews and mall-intercept interviews, is defined below:

(1) All Chinese tourists (except from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan) who travel to the Western Cape;
(2) His/her age should not be less than 18 years; and
(3) All genders, areas of residence, income levels; education and occupation backgrounds.

5.4.1 FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

According to the research design, a qualitative study, in the form of group interviews, was conducted to investigate Chinese tourists in October and December 2007. Because of the high season of Chinese tourists who travel overseas for holiday purposes, it occurs near China's National Day [1 October][1] and New Year holiday. With regard to cost effectiveness, operations, feasibility and flexibility, there were four focus groups, each including 3-4 participants, in terms of mini-focus groups, in undertaking this qualitative study. In order to obtain a possibility of a comparison between different experiences of the Western Cape Wine Routes, four focus groups were further designed into two types, as presented below in Table 5.2.

[1] This is one of three China's "Golden Weeks" [holiday].

Table 5.2: Design of focus groups

Group	Type	Description (*)
One	Non-wine-route visitors	(i) Three participants [Chinese tourists] were invited from two tour groups in Cape Town; (ii) who had no plans to visit the Wine Routes during their visit to South Africa; (iii) on 3 October 2007, they were interviewed as a group at a Chinese restaurant (**)[considered a safe/homelike locus/situation].
Two	Wine-route visitors (experienced visitors)	(i) Four participants [Chinese tourists] were invited from a tour group in Cape Town; (ii) after they visited the Wine Routes and returned to Cape Town; (iii) on 28 December 2007, they were interviewed as a group at a Chinese restaurant (***) at the V&A Waterfront shopping centre [considered a safe/homelike locus/situation].
Three	Wine-route visitors (pre-onsite-post visitors)	(i) Three participants [Chinese tourists] were invited from a tour group in Cape Town; (iii) followed them during their visit to the Wine Routes in a one-day trip (5 October 2007); (iii) they were interviewed in a group while on their tour coach and at a Chinese restaurant (***).
Four	Wine-route visitors (pre-onsite-post visitors)	(i) Three participants [independent Chinese tourists] were recommended to visit the Wine Routes; (ii) followed them during their visit on a one-day trip (21 December 2007); (iii) they were interviewed as a group in the [researcher's] private car and at a Chinese restaurant (**).

* The first two groups were each completed within 50 minutes, but the times of the last two groups were unlimited.
** This restaurant, "Taiwan City", is a major Chinese restaurant in Cape Town that most Chinese tourists visit.
*** This restaurant, "Sea Palace", is a major Chinese restaurant in Cape Town that most Chinese tourists visit.

The notion of non-probability was used to recruit the focus group participants, since it is cost-efficient (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 303). Chinese tourists were sought and invited to two Chinese restaurants, as shown in Table 5.2, since most Chinese tourists visited these during their stay in Cape Town. However, before they were recruited, their qualifications were determined by a few scanning questions (see the section of research instruments and Appendix A-1). Additionally, considering that Chinese tourists are usually self-restrained and constrained, particularly in an unfamiliar environment, safe/secure and cozy loci/situations (as shown in Table 5.2), were chosen as venues to conduct these group interviews.

Meanwhile, during the process of group interviews, certain facilities were used such as [wine tourism] brochures, a recorder and a motor car, as well as drinks [a treat] and the moderator's guideline (Appendix A). Except for scanning questions in Appendix A-1, this moderator's guideline also included a semi-structured discussion guideline (Appendix A-2), as a research instrument, which is introduced later in this chapter. The moderator, namely the researcher/author, and a research assistant, were also present.

5.4.2 MALL-INTERCEPT INTERVIEWS

As introduced in the research design, a quantitative survey, by way of mall-intercept interviews, was conducted during eight months [October 2007 to May 2008]. It covered three "Golden Weeks", namely China's National Day [1 October 2007], Chinese Lunar New Year [7 February 2008] and May Day [2008], as well as the New Year holiday, in other words, the high season for Chinese tourists to travel overseas, were considered.

Undertaking the population definition as mentioned earlier, a non-probability sampling approach, in terms of judgment sampling, was adapted to capture the respondents [Chinese tourists], since this is widely applied in exploratory researches such as mall-intercept surveys for testing new products, which can keep fieldwork costs low. Meanwhile, as non-probability samples, judgment samples can be gathered more quickly than probability samples can and may be reasonably representative of the population (McDaniel and Gates, 2006: 303; 314).

For a quantitative survey, a large sample size may be ideal for data processing. However, in this practical survey, some situations should be considered, since they have restricted samples in terms of the maximum:

(1) The maximum allowable interviews were limited by the low incidence of Chinese tourists to South Africa and Cape Town (as mentioned earlier in Section 5.3.1);
(2) Most Chinese tourists participated in a tour group during their visit to Cape Town in order to increase the sampling representativeness. There were not more than five interviewees from the same tour group and they were not family memberships; as a result, it also reduced the allowable samples;
(3) Another limiting factor was that there were only 2-3 hours each day that could be used to conduct intercept interviews because no one allowed an interview during the visit; in other words, these interviews were only conducted between 18:00 and 21:00, namely before or after the dinner; and
(4) Furthermore, the maximum allowable interviews were also confined by the time and budget.

Therefore, besides 23 invalid interviews in terms of respondents who dropped out, there were 275 valid responses, while the final used samples comprised 210 non-wine-route visitors [who had no plans to visit wine routes/farms/cellars] and 65 wine-route visitors [who visited wine routes/farms/cellars]. In order to improve the response rate and safety/security, during this fieldwork, two high frequency loci for Chinese tourists, namely “Sea Palace” at the V&A Waterfront shopping centre and “Taiwan City” in the Canal Walk shopping centre (refer to the notes under Table 5.2), were used as the main sampling places. In addition, several intercept interviews were conducted at two hotels (Garden Court and Holiday Inn) in Cape Town and a couple of wine farms in the Stellenbosch area.

Meanwhile, although this survey was conducted by face-to-face interviews in order to improve the response rate and reduce the self-restrained attributes of the [Chinese] respondents, questionnaires were designed in a self-administered and structured format in order to obtain their cohesive understanding and usage. As one of the research instruments, the content and development of the questionnaire is introduced in the following context, while a questionnaire model is enclosed in Appendix B-1 [English edition] and Appendix B-2 [Chinese edition].

5.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The instruments, including a moderator's guideline and an intercept interview questionnaire, were divided into several stages, which ranged from formulation, construction, language translation, pilot testing and implementation, to statistical processing and dialectic discussion.

5.5.1 MODERATOR'S GUIDELINE

During the qualitative study of Chinese tourists, a moderator's guideline was used to organise and conduct focus group interviews, which comprised three screening questions (Appendix A-1) and a discussion guideline (Appendix A-2), as introduced below.

Primarily, three questions were developed and used to screen the qualification of participants before the group interview. In this preparation stage, Chinese tourists who were under 18-years of age were eliminated, while the adepts/professionals of group interviews and/or this particular topic were also excluded.

A discussion guideline was then developed, which included two sections: (1) warm-up and explanation of focus groups (for group dynamics); and (2) discussion. The latter section was composed of ten sets of questions, which intended to probe and discover different aspects within a psychological and behavioural understanding of Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes. Each set of questions with its sub-questions or open-ended questions, and their usages, are introduced as follows.

As shown below in Table 5.3, the first three sets of questions aimed to discover how Chinese tourists considered outbound tourism and their habits to visit South Africa/Cape Town, as well as their buying process and any wine-related implication in the process. This information was more general and did not focus on the Wine Routes, but provided a background understanding of Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes and further warmed up group discussions for the rest of the questions.

Table 5.3: Probe general background of Chinese tourists

1. Outbound tourism
What experiences do you look for when travelling? What are your destination evaluations in comparison to South Africa? What is the ideal length in a country (days)? Why? What is your preferred accommodation?
2. South Africa as a long haul tourist destination
Why did you choose South Africa/Cape Town? What highlights (concentrate/experiences) can you comment on?
3. Choosing South Africa as a long haul tourist destination
Where did it all start? Who did you contact? Probe reference groups such as family or information sources considered. What other destinations were considered? Why South Africa? What were the processes? The role of the travel agency: did the travel agency mention anything with regard to wine? Was the Wine Routes mentioned or picked up anywhere?

The next step was a word-association test that was designed, which, as a significant measuring means, can be especially useful in uncovering people's feelings about new concepts, products or services, brand names and any key words considered for business and academic understanding (Parasuraman *et al*., 2007: 199). In this research, there are four key words in respect of the study, which were tested in order to capture first impressions from respondents [Chinese tourists], which are (1) "South Africa"; (2) "Cape Town"; (3) "Stellenbosch"; and (4) "wine route".

After the word-association test, three sets of questions, which are listed below in Table 5.4, were designed to probe the wine route experiences of Chinese tourists and their wine education background and attitudes.

Table 5.4: Probe experiences of the Wine Routes and wine education

5. Wine route experiences
What were your expectations? Were you met (highlights/dislikes/likes)? What would you change? Would you return?
6. The ideal wine route
By location and scenery. By experiences. By activities.
7. Wine education
Have you joined any wine course before? Would you like to join a wine course? Would you like to pay for a short wine course? Why or why not? If yes, how long and how much (cost) would you like to pay? Any certificate or papers required?

In reference to Table 5.4, the expectations towards the Western Cape Wine Routes and the factual experiences after they visited the Wine Routes, such as highlights, dislikes and likes, as well as recommendations and attitudes of revisit, were probed. The group discussion was led to describe an ideal wine route from the perspective of Chinese tourists; before their comments, several dimensions, including location/scenery, experiences and activities, were suggested as references. Furthermore, as a significant part of wine tourism (Hills, 1998), wine education was also discussed in order to reveal the wine-experience backgrounds of participants, as well as for purposes of product development.

In order to probe the perceptions and attitudes of non-wine-route visitors in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes, there was another project test, in terms of brochure evaluation, which was conducted within the first focus group. During this test, two wine tourism brochures had firstly been shown to the participants and then they were asked to make comments on these brochures, whether considering to visit a wine route [such as Stellenbosch] after they read brochures and what reasons they mention. Two wine tourism brochures were used in this test, namely (1) "*Cape Winelands*[1]" and (2) "*Stellenbosch wine routes*[2]", which refer to Appendix C.

[1] Appendix C-1: "*Cape Winelands: a thousand things to do and then some wine tasting*", 2007 edition.
[2] Appendix C-2: "*Wine Capital of South Africa: Stellenbosch and its wine routes*", 2007 edition.

Finally, as listed below in Table 5.5, two sets of questions were designed to probe the marketing and positioning of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China.

Table 5.5: Probe the marketing and positioning of the Wine Routes

9. Marketing of a wine route
How should wine routes be marketed? What would motivate a Chinese tourist to visit the Wine Routes?
10. Positioning of wine routes (world wide)
Role play: Assume that you have to recommend a long haul holiday to a friend or family. The holiday should involve a wine route. What factors do you take into account when choosing a wine route?

In reference to Table 5.5, participants were asked to place themselves in the position of wine route marketers, while the discussion then led to marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in China and probing possible stimuli. Similarly, in the following stage, participants were also asked to accomplish a role play, where they had to recommend a wine route as part of a long haul holiday to a friend or family. As a result, factors that had to be taken into account when they chose a wine route were determined, which may be used in positioning the Western Cape Wine Routes world wide.

5.5.2 INTERCEPT SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES

Another instrument that was used in the fieldwork, questionnaires, which were used for mall-intercept interviews in order to generate quantitative data from wider samples. As claimed by McDaniel and Gates (2006: 259), questionnaires play pivotal roles in every form of survey research, since:

(1) It can translate the survey objectives into a form that is understandable to respondents and "pull" requisite information from them;
(2) Meanwhile, it can also recover their responses in a form that can be easily tabulated and translated into findings and recommendations; and
(3) It also means lower survey costs.

In reference to Appendix B-1 [English edition] and Appendix B-2 [Chinese edition], this questionnaire was designed in a self-administered and structured manner in order to maintain a logical flow in their operation process, as well as a transcript that was translated into Chinese. In the questionnaire layout, except for a [dichotomous-alternative] screening question in order to determine qualified respondents [who were not under 18-years], twenty questions were covered in four sections (Sections A-D), most of which were designed as closed-ended questions. The question flow, in the questionnaire structure, is illustrated below in Figure 5.2.

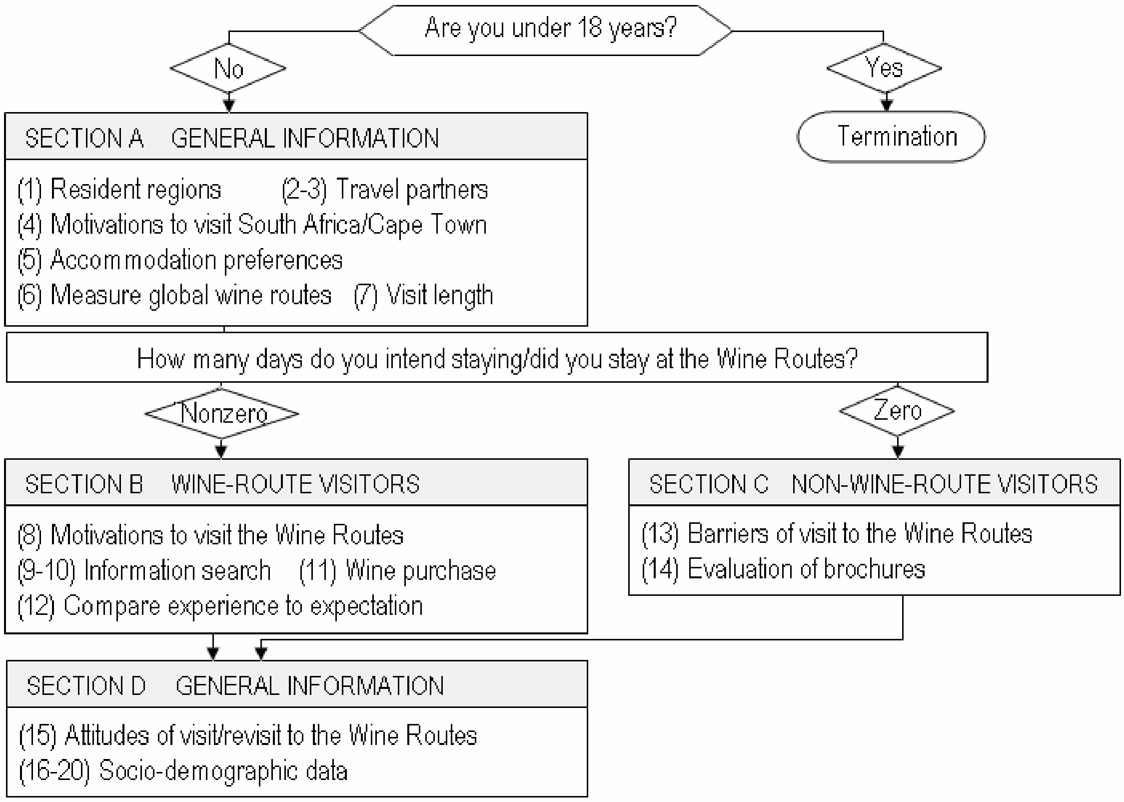

Figure 5.2: Flow of questions in structure of the questionnaire

There are seven questions (Questions 1-7) in Section A that were designed to collect general data from all respondents, namely [closed-ended] Question 1: the resident regions; [closed-ended] Question 2a-b: how many travel partners with him/her; [multiple-choice] Question 3: who is/are his/her travel partner(s); [multiple-choice] Question 4: their motivations to visit South Africa; and [multiple-choice] Question 5: accommodation preferences. As shown below in Figure 5.3, [multiple-choice] Question 6a-c intended to explore wine tourism destinations worldwide by three key dimensions [awareness, visit experience and preference], which provided rich and meaningful data in respect of the respondents with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes in a global perspective.

6(a). Which of the following wine tourism destination(s) are you aware of? (*)
6(b). Which of the following wine tourism destination(s) have you ever visited? (*)
6(c). Which of the following wine tourism destination(s) would you prefer to visit? (*)

1 Australia, Melbourne	X 6(a)-1	X 6(b)-1	X 6(c)-1
2 France, Bordeaux	X 6(a)-2	X 6(b)-2	X 6(c)-2
3 USA, San Francisco-Napa Valley	X 6(a)-3	X 6(b)-3	X 6(c)-3
4 Spain, Bilbao-Rioja	X 6(a)-4	X 6(b)-4	X 6(c)-4
5 Portugal, Porto	X 6(a)-5	X 6(b)-5	X 6(c)-5
6 South Africa, Cape Town/Stellenbosch Wine Routes	X 6(a)-6	X 6(b)-6	X 6(c)-6
7 Argentina, Mendoza	X 6(a)-7	X 6(b)-7	X 6(c)-7
8 Italy, Florence	X 6(a)-8	X 6(b)-8	X 6(c)-8
9 China, Shandong Yantai/Yunnan/Xinjiang/Hebei	X 6(a)-9	X 6(b)-9	X 6(c)-9
10 Other (SPECIFY):	X 6(a)-10	X 6(b)-10	X 6(c)-10
11 None	X 6(a)-11	X 6(b)-11	X 6(c)-11

****more than one response is permissible*

Figure 5.3: Evaluation of major global wine tourism destinations (Question 6a-c)

Lastly, within Section A, the visit length in the country, Cape Town and the winelands/Wine Routes, were also probed by [closed-ended] Question 7a-c. Meanwhile, by answering Question 7c, respondents were divided into (1) "wine-route visitors" (who have visited or will visit the Western Cape Wine Routes during this holiday); and (2) "non-wine-route visitors" (who have no plans to visit the Wine Routes). Following this (as also noted in Figure 5.2), "wine-route visitors" continued to answer Section B, followed by Section D; whilst, "non-wine-route visitors" proceeded to Section C, followed by Section D.

Section B includes five questions (Questions 8-12), which particularly surveyed the wine-route visitors. [Scaled-response] Question 8 was designed to probe the motivations of Chinese tourists to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes. As shown in Table 5.6, it listed twenty-six statements, which covered almost all of the motivations[1] in respect of general wine tourism and the uniqueness of the Western Cape Wine Routes, which may motivate tourists to visit. Following each motivation statement, a five-point rating scale was used, where respondents were presented with statements in which they were asked to indicate their accepted degree on a scale ranging from "Most Definitely 5" to "Definitely 4" to "Neutral 3" to "Definitely Not 2" to Most Definitely Not 1" (Malhotra, 1993: 295).

Table 5.6: Motivation statements in Question 8

Question 8: Which of the following would you say were the reason(s) for your visit to the Western Cape Wine Routes [Cape Town/Stellenbosch]?	
a. to taste wine	n. to visit a historical/cultural attraction in the area
b. to buy wine	o. to visit a wine route and its surrounding area by stop overs
c. to have a day out	p. to buy wine related gifts/souvenirs
d. to socialise with friends and family	q. to participate in outdoor recreational activities
e. to learn about wine and wine making	r. to enhance my South Africa holiday experience
f. to rest and relax	s. because South African wine is famous
g. to do a wine tour	t. part of tour group/South Africa tour
h. to be able to talk to the wine maker/wine farmer	u. to learn more about SA people and their culture
i. to wine and dine at the winery/in the immediate area	v. it allows me to do many things within close proximity
j. to have a picnic/BBQ	w. have been to a wine route before
k. to be entertained	x. stay overnight in a wine area
l. to enjoy the beautiful surrounds/ vineyard climate	y. was recommended to visit a wine region
m. to attend a wine-related festival or event	z. there are a large number of wineries that can be visited

Also in Section B, [Multiple-choice] Questions 9-10 intended to ascertain how they learned about the Western Cape Wine Routes, which included most of the traditional media and major websites. [Closed-ended] Question 11 revealed their habits in respect of wine purchases at the destination. Moreover, in order to compare the respondents' experiences of the Wine Routes with their expectations, the last question in this section was combined with (1) a scaled-response portion (Question 12a), which

[1] These motivation statements are concluded from wine tourism literature study, see Sections 4.4.2 and 4.4.3.

included a five-point rating scale, as shown in Table 5.7; and (2) an open-ended portion (Question 12b), which followed as a supplementation to probe deep-seated reasons.

Table 5.7: Five-point rating scale in Question 12a

Alternative	Original scale	Rating Scale
[Experience was] Much better than expected	5	5
[Experience was] A little better than expected	4	4
[Experience was] As expected (more ore less)	3	3
[Experience was] A little worse than expected	2	2
[Experience was] Much worse than expected	1	1
Had no expectations	0	As missing data

Two questions (Questions 13-14) in Section C were designed in order to understand why these respondents (non-wine-route visitors) did not visit the Western Cape Wine Routes and what their perceptions in respect of the Wine Routes were. In reference to Table 5.8, Question 13 provided twenty-one statements of specifically "no visit reasons", in terms of the barriers of visiting the Western Cape Wine Routes, and then respondents were asked to choose certain ones multinomially.

Table 5.8: Barriers of visiting the Western Cape Wine Routes (*)

Question 13: For what reason(s) did you not visit the Wine Routes during your stay in South Africa?
1. It is too expensive to visit the wine route
2. Insufficient time during holiday to visit wine farm
3. No suitable tour package was available
4. I do not have enough information about the wine routes
5. I was unaware of the wine routes
6. I prefer Cape Town (and other South African attractions) more
7. Many other South African attractions were more appealing to my friends and family
8. I was concerned about drinking and driving
9. I do not drink wine
10. I am not interested in wine tourism, e.g. wine tours, talks, etc.
11. I was not informed by the travel agency about the wine routes
12. The Wine Routes is not part of the travel itinerary
13. I cannot freely visit South Africa because of poor foreign language ability
14. Someone told me that the wine routes were boring/dull
15. I cannot change travel plans because I am part of a tour group
16. Uncertain what there is to do there
17. The Wine Routes are too far from my place of accommodation
18. I had a bad experience on a wine route before
19. I think that wine routes are only for [certain types] of people
20. I have been to South Africa's wine route before
21. I have been on a wine route tour before (anywhere in the world)

* Three more alternatives listed in the questionnaire are (22) Uncertain; (23) Cannot Comment; and (24) Specify.

Furthermore, an open-ended question [Question 14] was used as a technique, namely a projective test. During this test, two wine route brochures were shown to respondents (non-wine-route visitors) and then they were asked to comment on their first impressions, as well as relevant interpretations. Appendix C shows that the used brochures are the same as those that were evaluated earlier in group interviews.

Finally, in Section D, the last six questions (Questions 15-20) were completed by all respondents. [Scaled-response] Question 15a and [open-ended] Question 15b were designed to ascertain whether respondents would visit the Wine Routes when they next visited South Africa in the near future. In the scaled-response question, a five-point rating scale was applied, as presented below in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Five-point rating scale in Question 15a

Alternative	Original scale	Rating Scale
Most definitely [to re-visit]	5	5
Definitely [to re-visit]	4	4
Maybe [to re-visit]	3	3
Definitely not [to re-visit]	2	2
Most definitely not [to re-visit]	1	1
Uncertain	0	As missing data

The last five questions in Section D were designed to collect socio-demographic information of the respondents, which covered (1) gender; (2) age; (3) occupation; (4) education levels; and (5) monthly personal income. As a result, these data not only described a demographic profile of all the respondents, but also proposed a general profile of Chinese wine tourists, which also provided valuable variables in the process of data analysis.

Furthermore, in order to justify the validity of the questionnaire, a small-sized pilot test (five questionnaires) was conducted between 15 and 20 September 2007 at the V&A Waterfront shopping centre, Cape Town. This test targeted Chinese tourists who were asked to complete the questionnaire and to provide opinions or suggestions on the context, format and flow of the questionnaire, which had been replaced as a final edition questionnaire. At the same time, a time requirement was attained that these questionnaires were completed successfully in an average time of 20-25 minutes.

5.6 DATA PROCESSORS

Relevant to the application of data collecting methods, a combined approach was used in the process of data analysis. As presented and discussed in Chapter Six, the results of the research fieldwork are divided into two sections, namely:

(1) Dialectic discussion of qualitative group interviews; and
(2) Quantitative analysis of the survey questionnaire.

In the first section, qualitative data was interpreted into English-language narration or citation and the findings are mentioned with some caution and use, since they are insights into the nature of behaviour rather than conclusive and definitive answers to the research problem. However, in order to preserve anonymity, respondents' names were removed during the results' presentation.

The quantitative data analysis, in the second section of Chapter Six, included measuring and frequencies, mean comparisons, index analysis, cross tabulations, diagrammatic presentations and descriptive statistics, as well as significant differences were also tested, by ways of z-test, t-test or one-way analysis of variables (ANOVA), amongst the responses in order to measure the difference of wine tourism motivations based on rescaled demographic variables. During the quantitative analysis process, the Statistical Package for Social Science programme (SPSS v12) was used to generate certain results, as well as Microsoft Excel as an assistant tool.

5.7 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

Firstly, it should be noted that, in this study, the target population was defined as Chinese tourists who travel to the Western Cape, which means that the data collection of Chinese tourists was limited by a geographical demarcation.

Another limitation is the maximum allowable measured samples of Chinese tourists, which were limited by the low incidence of Chinese tourists who visit South Africa and Cape Town, as well as the given time and the budget of the research, which resulted in an imperfect sample size that was used and restricted the data processing for the quantitative survey.

Furthermore, the recruitment of participants for group interviews was impacted by the introverted personalities of Chinese tourists and their self-protection attitudes in an unfamiliar destination, as well as their inflexible scheduling of tour groups during their visit to the Western Cape area.

Finally, a limitation arose from the concept of wine tourism, as it is mostly defined as a tourism sector. In other words, this practical study, in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes and Chinese tourists, is limited within the tourism industry but lost sight of a combination with the wine industry, since wine tourism is also a significant means of marketing or exporting wine produce for South Africa's wine industry, in particular to China.

5.8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, in this chapter, the research strategy, research design, research methodology and instruments, as well as data processing and research limitations, were clarified. Firstly, undertaking the research objectives and the data requirements, a research strategy in terms of a mixed approach was adopted, since the research fieldwork combined both qualitative and quantitative methods and was aimed at both wine-route and non-wine-route visitors amongst Chinese tourists. The research design was respectively introduced into two sub-fieldworks, namely: (1) a qualitative study by group interviews and (2) a quantitative study by mall-intercept interviews. Following the research design in each sub-fieldwork, research instruments were developed and presented, and are enclosed in Appendices A-B, which included (1) the moderator's guideline (screening questions and discussion guideline) and (2) survey questionnaires, while, the data analysis was also introduced in brief. Finally, the research limitations were noted, which relayed some recommendations for future studies, as mentioned in the last chapter.

Overall, this chapter has described the research design and methodology and has provided a logical and detailed framework within the research fieldwork. Dependent on this framework, the research fieldwork was conducted and its results are represented and discussed during the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As introduced early in research design (Section 5.3), the fieldwork, which investigated Chinese tourists, included group interviews and a questionnaire survey. Therefore, correspondingly, the data analysis in respect of Chinese tourists below was divided into two stages. In the first stage, some deep-seated and visual qualitative insights from group interviews are presented and discussed. In the second stage, precise and comparable quantitative data from valid questionnaires are also analysed. The result of the analysis in this chapter has provided meaningful and useable knowledge in respect of Chinese tourists, which also answered the research questions which are listed in Section 1.6.2.

6.2 QUALITATIVE INSIGHTS FROM CHINESE TOURISTS

In reference to the research methodology in Section 5.4, these qualitative insights were captured from four mini-group interviews, each comprising three or four participants. In order to provide a clear background for the qualitative analysis, the focus groups and their participants are primarily described in this section. A presentation and discussion of the results focused on the insights of Chinese tourists, in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes, was probed by the group interviews.

However, it should be noted that this data was collected from a small number of the target population, which was interpreted into English narration and the findings are mentioned here with some caution and use, as they are insights into the nature of behaviour rather than conclusive and definitive answers to complex problems. Moreover, in order to preserve anonymity, the names of respondents were removed.

6.2.1 FOCUS GROUPS AND THEIR PARTICIPANTS RECRUITED

With regard to the fieldwork, in order to collect comparable data between experienced and non-experienced wine route visitors, four focus groups were conducted as one non-experienced group, one experienced group and two pre-onsite-post visit groups, which are presented below with the identifications of their participants.

- **Group One: Non-Experienced Visitors**

In this group, three participants did not visit the Western Cape Wine Routes until the interviews and had no plans to visit during their travel in South Africa. Two of them were from an official tour group that visited South Africa for leisure purposes and stopped in Cape Town for three days and seemed bureaucratic and were cautious to talk about themselves although they had more interest to ask about

South Africa and Cape Town, in its entirety, rather than tourism only. The other person was from a pure leisure tour group, who cooperative. Table 6.1 presents a coded description of these participants.

Table 6.1: Description of participants in group one

Number	Inhabitancy	Gender	Age	Occupation	Contraction
NG-1	Liaoning	Male	51-55	Governmental officer	NG-1, Liaoning, M, 51-55 years, officer
NG-2	Liaoning	Male	45-50	Governmental officer	NG-2, Liaoning, M, 45-50 years, officer
NG-3	Sichuan	Female	40-45	High school teacher	NG-3, Sichuan, F, 40-45 years, teacher

- **Group Two: Experienced Visitors**

In the second group (Table 6.2), participants were part of a tour group that departed from Shanghai and stayed in South Africa for ten days, six of which were in Cape Town. It was their first time to visit this country and all were sponsored by a Shanghai-based company, with three of them being colleagues and the male is a client. Notably, they were younger and more fashionable than the participants that were interviewed in the fist group, but were rested in impressionability, egotism and egodefense.

Table 6.2: Description of participants in group two

Number	Inhabitancy	Gender	Age	Occupation	Contraction
EG-1	Guangdong	Male	32-36	Business owner	EG-1, Guangdong, M, 32-36 years, owner
EG-2	Shanghai	Female	26-30	White collar	EG-2, Shanghai, F, 26-30 years, white-collar
EG-3	Shanghai	Female	28-33	White collar	EG-3, Shanghai, F, 28-33 years, white-collar
EG-4	Shanghai	Female	32-36	Manager	EG-4, Shanghai, F, 32-36 years, manager

- **Group Three: Pre-Onsite-Post Visitors**

This group included three participants who were in a travel group that departed from Beijing. They stayed in South Africa for seven days, including four days in Cape Town. During their pre-visit, onsite and post-visit to the Wine Route by a one-day trip, they were accompanied and interviewed by the researcher. This trip included the town of Stellenbosch and two wine farms [Boschendal and Overgaauw Estate]. The three participants included a newspaper reporter, a marketing manager [in a counselling company] and a law office clerk. They were younger than the participants in the first two groups, and were conversable and easy-going. Table 6.3 lists their descriptions and codes.

Table 6.3: Description of participants in group three

Number	Inhabitancy	Gender	Age	Occupation	Contraction
PG-1	Beijing	Male	22-26	Newspaper reporter	PG-1, Beijing, M, 22-26 years, reporter
PG-2	Beijing	Female	25-30	Manager	PG-2, Beijing, F, 25-30 years, manager
PG-3	Sichuan	Female	22-26	White collar	PG-3, Sichuan, F, 22-26 years, white-collar

- **Group Four: Pre-Onsite-Post Visitors**

Finally, another pre-onsite-post group also included three participants. As independent visitors, they were recommended and accompanied by the researcher to visit the Wine Routes for a one-day trip. During this trip, they visited Stellenbosch and Franschhoek, as well as several wine farms [Waterford, Boschendal, Cabriére and L'ormarins] in the area.

As shown in Table 6.4, one of the three participants was from Beijing, and stayed in Cape Town for three days for leisure purposes. The other male was with friends in a fourteen-day holiday to South Africa, and visited the Garden Route. The female was with her parents and stayed in the country for a seven-day holiday, including four days in Cape Town. In general, in comparison with interviewees in other focus groups, they were sociable, modernistic and well-spoken.

Table 6.4: Description of participants in group four

Number	Inhabitancy	Gender	Age	Occupation	Contraction
PG-4	Beijing	Male	25-30	IT Engineer	PG-4, Beijing, M, 25-30 years, engineer
PG-5	Shanghai	Male	29-34	Manager	PG-5, Shanghai, M, 29-34 years, manager
PG-6	Zhejiang	Female	24-28	White collar	PG-6, Zhejiang, F, 24-28 years, white-collar

As described above, by identifying the participants' social and status factors, an understanding of their general background is provided. Furthermore, the contracted descriptions of the participants, as shown in Tables 6.1 to 6.4, were also used for the causal presentation of data analysis in the following text, which covers all the discussion questions as listed in Appendix A-2: Discussion Guideline.

6.2.2 OUTBOUND TOURISM

A set of probing questions[1] were used in group interviews in order to obtain a basic understanding of the participants in respect of considering outbound tourism, as well as that related to South Africa. In terms of these general questions, there was no distinct difference in the discussions between the different groups. According to their responses, a few key words were used in high frequency, which included "*seeing a different world*", "*cultural and historical heritage and sites*", "*scenery or landscape*", "*to increase knowledge and experience*" and "*to relax*". These words showed that the respondents tended to be sightseeing tourists. However, they also emphasised that their experiences depended on what the destination offered. For example, they visit West Europe such as France, Germany and the UK for "*culture and history*"; Hong Kong would be for "*shopping*" and South Africa has "*beautiful, natural*

[1] Question 1 in Appendix A-2: What experiences do you look for when travelling overseas? What is your destination evaluation of South Africa? What is the ideal length in a country? What is your preferred accommodation?

environment" and "*African culture*". In other words, some specific experiences that they look for when travelling, depend on what they want to fulfill and what the destination has to offer; the latter is determined by their held information and knowledge about the destination.

Furthermore, according to them, the ideal length in a country could be "*one to two months*" or "*as long as possible*" because "*it will be more relaxed and we can do many things then*". However, they also believe that the ideal length actually rested on the maximum number of holidays that they have, while usually a long haul or overseas holiday was between seven to fourteen days. According to the holiday regulation in China, before 2008, besides normal weekends, minority/regional holidays and non-statutory vacations with pay, comprised 21 statutory holidays in China nationwide, including three Golden Weeks (refer to Section 2.3.1.4). From 2008, vacation with pay was statutorily changed to 5 days at least or more, according to one's length of service, while statutory holidays have also been extended to 29 days, including two Golden Weeks and three "short Golden Weeks" (State Department, Peoples Republic of China, 2008).

In terms of preferred accommodation, most of them chose standard hotels, which are 3-Star or more and the primary conditions that they considered included safety/security, neatness, comfort and reasonable price. They also mentioned "*happy to stay over in specific places such as farm lodges and camping*", which is decided by their travelling models. For example, most Chinese tourists who travel overseas, do so in groups, which give them less holiday flexibility and options at the destination.

6.2.3 SOUTH AFRICA AS A LONG HAUL TOURIST DESTINATION[1]

In addition to a few who visited the country for official or business purposes primarily, most participants went purely for leisure holiday purposes. As summarised below, their comments can be classified into three aspects, which may profile motivations to visit South Africa, as well as Cape Town.

Firstly, some participants visited South Africa because of its unique attractions in the country such as natural landscapes, wildlife, heritages and African exoticism, as well as other excellences. Some of these comments are quoted below[2]:

"…I want to visit the country, since many years ago…I learned about the Cape of Good Hope, Cape Town and Mandela at school when I was a sixth-grade student [primary school]…which impressed a good image in my mind…" ***PG-1, Beijing, M, 22-26 years, reporter***

"…the Cape with the two oceans, Sun City, diamonds and gold, as well as wild animals…this is why we came here…" ***PG-5, Shanghai, M, 29-34 years, manager***

[1] Question 2 in Appendix A-2: Why do you choose South Africa as a long haul tourist destination, as well as Cape Town? What is the highlight (s) of your experiences?

[2] All quotative comments were translated from Chinese to English and were them edited.

In addition, some respondents who visited the country may have been motivated by internal stimuli or the recommendations of reference groups, such as those mentioned below:

"I have visited European countries, as well as Japan, Canada and…while, South Africa is the place that I must come because I dream to travel around the world…" ***PG-2, Beijing, F, 25-30 years, manager***

"South Africa is one of the furthest places from China…it takes more money and time to get here…but this is also why I would to travel here because I believe a Chinese proverb: 'read ten thousand books and travel ten thousand miles[1]'… " ***PG-4, Beijing, M, 25-30 years, engineer***

"…my friends told me here [South Africa] is so beautiful…" ***EG-4, Shanghai, F, 32-36 years, manager***

Other motivations can be referred to as "sponsored travel", since respondents visited South Africa/Cape Town because of their sponsors rather than their own decisions, plans or demands. The sponsor may be his/her company, a business partner or the government. These sponsored visitors also visited the country for leisure purposes or for a combination of business and leisure.

Furthermore, in addition to some of the highlights that they experienced during their visit to South Africa as mentioned above, there are also others as listed below. However, it should be noted that most participants from the last three groups mentioned the Wine Routes or wine-related issues within their stated highlights.

"In my mind before I arrived, this place [South Africa] meant poor, aboriginal, natural and mysterious… similarly with most African countries…but now it's changed…I mean this huge inexpectancy is my biggest highlight during this visit" ***NG-2, Liaoning, M, 45-50 years, officer***

"I feel that this country [South Africa] is not very safe…our guide warned and taught us a lot to keep safe since we landed in Johannesburg…I was a bit of nervousness... I don't dare shop around alone as though I was in Tokyo or London…" ***EG-3, Shanghai, F, 28-33 years, white-collar***

"*Here [South Africa] is very different compared with other places…something here must to see such as the Cape of Good Hope, Table Mountain, Sun City and lions…I enjoy the ambience here [Cape Town] and the hotel, city and music… this university town [Stellenbosch] is the most peaceful and beautiful place in the country. It is the 'Europe of Africa'…*" ***PG-1, Beijing, M, 22-26 years, reporter***

"We visited the Garden Route [from Port Elizabeth to Cape Town], which is an amazing routing…we have also been to Cape Aghulas, which is 'the world's end'…I also enjoy the wine and I bought a bottle of age-wine that was produced in 1981…" ***PG-2, Beijing, F, 25-30 years, manager***

"Highlights…yes, I was impressed with the jacarandas in Pretoria, which makes the city looks like its under a purple could…I like Sun City, Cape Town's flea-market and also enjoyed the view from Table Mountain…oh, yes, Stellenbosch and Franschhoek are wonderful... it's surprising that HIV/Aids is so prevalent here. We also passed by a poor community …" ***PG-6, Zhejiang, F, 24-28 years, white-collar***

[1] In Chinese proverb: "读万卷书 行万里路".

6.2.4 CHOOSING SOUTH AFRICA AS A LONG HAUL DESTINATION

Although there was a set of probing questions[1] that intended to outline a holiday choice process, for reasons unbeknown to the researcher, respondents of all groups were reluctant to engage in detail how they chose South Africa as a destination, in particular. However, as presented below, several issues are summarised from their limited responses.

It was mentioned that "national reputation or its public image" by way of "word-of-mouth" was influential when respondents considered any overseas destination, as well as South Africa. It also showed that, in choosing South Africa, the reference groups, especially family members, friends or colleagues, played an important role. During the discussions, although South Africa was not the first destination they chose, most of the participants considered South Africa as one of the must-visit places, usually after Western Europe, North America and some Southern Asian countries or regions.

With regard to the buying process, it generally depended on whether it was sponsored or self-funded travel. Since sponsored travel is popular in China, especially within governmental sectors or some corporations, these travel purposes are usually a combination of official/business with leisure, or, per se, are part of welfare premium for employees [in pure leisure purposes]. In general, sponsored outbound travellers only need to confirm which destination(s) to visit, or whether to visit; but for non-sponsored travellers, they have to do more by themselves, from search for information about prospective destinations, to negotiate with the travel agency. In fact, a vast majority of participants who visited South Africa did so via travel agencies, similarly with most Chinese outbound tourists who visit a long haul destination. This shows that the travel agency plays a key role in the Chinese outbound tourism market.

Moreover, as mentioned by participants in Groups Two and Three, they visited Stellenbosch wine routes because their travel agencies offered some related information/introductions or an itinerary option. Those participants who visited the Western Cape Wine Routes knew about South African wine or its wine routes from channels such as the Internet, family/friends/colleagues or the tour group before or during their visit to the country.

In summary, by probing the above aspects, a general understanding, in respect of the participants considering outbound tourism and South Africa as a destination, was provided. These described South Africa and Cape Town, but there were more descriptions by respondents with regard to wine tourism/route, which were revealed and are presented in the following texts.

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[1] Question 3 in Appendix A-2: Where did it all start? Who did you contact? Was any reference group such as family or information sources considered? What other destinations were considered? What were the processes? Did the travel agency mention anything with regard to wine? Was wine route mentioned or picked up anywhere?

6.2.5 WORD-ASSOCIATION TEST

During group interviews, participants were asked to engage in a word association, short comments or phases with the following words: "South Africa", "Cape Town", "Stellenbosch" and "wine route". As a result, their primary association offered several sets of visual and laconic images to the tested objectives [words], which are summarised below in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Word-association test

South Africa	
Non-wine-route visitors (Group 1)	*"Faraway"; "black continent"; "beautiful environment"; "diamonds and gold"; "Mandela"; "Sun City"; "wild animals"; "high crime"; "Aids/HIV" and "lifeless"*
Wine-route visitors (Groups 2-4)	*"Faraway"; "black continent"; "hospitality"; "beautiful environment"; "diamonds and gold"; "the rainbow country"; "Cape Town"; "the world's end"; "the Cape of Good Hope"; "Mandela"; "Sun City"; "wild animals"; "University of Cape Town"; "the history of East Indian Company"; "the history of apartheid and the anti-apartheid movement"; "dangerous city: Johannesburg and many Chinese [businessmen] were killed there"; "Aids/HIV" and "poor and undeveloped [before the visit]"*
Cape Town	
Non-wine-route visitors (Group 1)	*"the Cape of Good Hope"; "Table Mountain"; "seafood: abalone and lobster"; "African penguin" and "beautiful scenery"*
Wine-route visitors (Groups 2-4)	*"A name in the [history/geography] textbook"; "the Cape of Good Hope"; "two oceans"; "the world's end"; "Table Mountain"; "the history of East Indian Company"; "fair city"; "University of Cape Town"; "Stellenbosch: university town"; "special wine"; "wine farms"; "beautiful coasts and beaches"; "seafood: abalone and lobster"; "African craft"; "African penguin"; "nice weather"; "hospitality"; "much safer compared with other places in the country" and "good for living"*
Stellenbosch	
Non-wine-route visitors (Group 1)	*"What [where] is it?"; "I do not know this place" and "as though heard of it"*
Wine-route visitors (Groups 2-4)	*"University town"; "wine and many wine farms"; "beautiful and peaceful"; "small town"; "history and culture"; "European atmosphere"; "nice streets and shops"; "would stay there for a month" and "study at the University"*
Wine route	
Non-wine-route visitors (Group 1)	*"Western lifestyle"; "wine drinking"; as well as "I don't know what you said"; "what can I do there" and "not interested there"*
Wine-route visitors (Groups 2-4)	*"Culture"; "West Europe"; "French Bordeaux"; "Italian wine"; "[China Shandong] Yantai and [Xinjiang] Tulufan"; "visit wineries"; "learn wine-making process"; "interesting"; "classy lifestyle"; "beautiful environment" "romantic"; "healthy" and "seek aged wine"*

As shown above in Table 6.5, most images of South Africa/Cape Town are positive, while some negative images were also mentioned such as "crime" and "Aids/HIV". However, there was a distinct difference between non-wine-route and wine-route visitors in their associations of Stellenbosch and wine routes, which shows that those non-wine-route visitors were short of awareness of the Wine Routes.

6.2.6 EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF THE WINE ROUTES

After the word-association test, the expectations and experiences of the Western Cape Wine Routes were probed by a set of probing questions[1], while an ideal wine route was also assumed. The following collected data are from the last three focus groups.

Although some of respondents planned in advance to visit wine farms/wineries or Stellenbosch, they still had no clear or exact expectations of the Wine Routes before their visit, even of a wine farm/winery. Hence, their visits were purely co-accidental. Examples of a few typical comments, which show their opinions, are listed below:

"…expectations? I'm not sure 100%…I just want to have a look because my friends told me it [Stellenbosch] is beautiful…I think I will learn how to make wine…many large oak wine barrels in cellars…I really cannot say more…" ***EG-1, Guangdong, M, 32-36 years, owner***

"Me too, before this visit, I was also not 100% sure what I can experience there [wine routes]. But I thought that I can visit some wine farms/wineries and their cellars…to test South African wine and may find one or two bottles of old wine for collection…of course, I enjoy the vineyard scenery…" ***PG-1, Beijing, M, 22-26 years, reporter***

"…right hand plays golf and left hand holds a glass of wine…that's perfect…" ***PG-5, Shanghai, M, 29-34 years, manager***

Most of the activities that respondents participated in included wine tasting and cellar tours. However, other highlights were enjoyed such as the vineyard scenery and its rural nature, visiting the university town [Stellenbosch] and its European-styled streets and buildings, Franschhoek and its restaurants, as well as golf courts and the atmosphere in the Winelands. However, participants were also probed about their "dislikes" with regard to their wine route experiences, which are presented as below:

(1) Wine route information in Chinese was lacking which have made the visit more inconvenient;
(2) There are many wine farms, which are small and do not have much entertainment or facilities, except for wine tasting; and
(3) Tour guides seem to have no interest to introduce the Wine Routes to them and did not suggest that they stay longer in Stellenbosch.

When probed with regard to return visits, a vast majority mentioned that they "*would visit the Wine Routes again*", while two respondents stated that they "*will see*" or were "*not sure*". Furthermore, some participants who would visit the Wine Routes again mentioned that the Wine Routes should be part of

[1] Questions 5-6 in Appendix A-2: What were your expectations towards the Western Cape Wine Routes? What were your experiences (highlights, dislikes and likes)? What would you change? Would you return? In your mind, what is the ideal wine route (location and scenery; experiences; and activities)?

the destination and that they are willing to pay for a two or three day wine route visit, while others would stay longer in order to discover the Wine Routes in particular. The following comment is appropriate in this regard:

"…this visit was too short…I would arrange another holiday of one or two weeks to stay in Stellenbosch or Cape Town…enjoy the peaceful university town and its nightlife as a local not as the tourist…based in [Stellenbosch or Cape Town]. I would also visit more wine farms/wineries and surrounding areas such as the West Coast and Garden Route…of course, if possible, I will also visit other wine routes such in France or Italy…" ***PG-1, Beijing, M, 22-26 years, reporter***

With regard to mind-mapping the ideal wine route, the participants had little to say about their ideal wine route. In fact, the following two statements illustrate that wine tourism/route is still a fairly new concept to them.

"…I've no idea about what is the ideal wine route is…but this [Western Cape Wine Routes] is good although it is far from China…" ***EG-1, Guangdong, M, 32-36 years, owner***

"…I didn't visit more wine tourism destinations, so I cannot comment more…but I think the ideal wine route primarily rested with the destination country or its surrounding areas…" ***PG-3, Sichuan, F, 22-26 years, white-collar***

In summary, as presented above, the expectations and experiences of the Wine Routes were unfolded, although the respondents may not have provided as much information, for example, as sophisticated wine visitors would have.

6.2.7 WINE EDUCATION

The literature study in Chapter Four showed that education was always implicated in wine tourism or can be referred to as a "fundamental role" in the growth of the wine industry (Hills, 1998), while the description of a wine education background can also be used to identify wine tourists, as well as wine education, which may motivate people to visit a wine destination or a winery. In other words, by probing wine education during the group interviews[1], it was hoped that three aspects would be achieved:

(i) To further understand the respondents' background, in particular wine-related information;
(ii) To understand their attitudes towards wine education in order to probe for the feasibility of developing related tourism offerings such as wine courses, training or workshops; and
(iii) To discover that there is an available approach to promote the Western Cape Wine Routes and its wine reputation/popularity in China by using wine education.

[1] Question 7 in Appendix A-2: Have you joined any wine course before? Would you like to join a wine course? Would you like to pay for a short wine course? Why or why not? If yes, how long and how much (cost) would you like to pay? Any certificate or papers required?

Three participants from all the discussion groups mentioned that they attended a wine course, while others affirmed that they would like or have interests to join a wine course. In order to map a visual and meaningful picture, the statements of the three wine-course-attendees are quoted below:

"…I have a certificate from a part-time wine course, which I did for one and half month…it was offered by a wine training centre in Shanghai…I paid CNY2 000 for six lectures and two testing training; these were evening classes… I'm interested in wine and would like to know more about it such as its history, variety, quality and producing processes, as well as how to drink correctly…I thought this knowledge would be useful in my job such as for business reception, or daily living…in China, it's always enviable if you are accomplished in wine…" ***EG-4, Shanghai, F, 32-36 years, manager***

"…during my visit to Chang Yu [Winery] in Shandong, I completed a short wine course, only for one hour and it was combined within a winery tour, it's a free course…last month I registered in a wine education programme that was provided by an Australian wine organisation in Beijing…if I pass its first phase I will get an opportunity to visit Australia for the next phase, which is funded by the Australian wine industry…I know that it is a project of Australian wine promotion…" ***PG-2, Beijing, F, 25-30 years, manager***

"…I joined a wine course for three lectures without wine testing, which was organised by my company [an IT company]…I mean it was in-house training for our employees…I just wanted to learn more and I believe wine knowledge is always useful…many of my colleagues also joined this wine course…for their interests mostly…also to increase personal knowledge and social skills…" ***PG-4, Beijing, M, 25-30 years, engineer***

As summarised from all participants' responses, the following reasons were stated why they would be interested in a wine course:

(i) In order to increase specific knowledge in a special field;
(ii) In order to satisfy personal interests/favourites towards wine and wine-related things;
(iii) For pure, practical and utilitarian reasons, since wine knowledge may be used in jobs or daily living;
(iv) In favour of a western lifestyle because wine is exotic and represented European culture; and
(v) By learning a specific skill to strengthen or improve personal competition because wine is not only a sociable means but a qualification can also be obtained.

In fact, these reasons not only answered their interests towards wine education, but also covered wine per se and all wine-related issues and activities. Additionally, most of them would welcome a short wine course during their visit to South Africa/Cape Town, while they expressed that if the wine course offered an official certificate, it would be an achievement and the best souvenir.

There was no definite price for a wine course, but they all agreed to pay because "*no pay no gain*", if only "*a reasonable price*". Some also suggested that a short wine course, which included a certificate, can be an option packaged within the itinerary of a visit to South Africa, while the price can also be involved in the total travel cost, which is charged by the agency. Finally, several respondents further proposed that a South African wine course or programme can be launched in China such as in Shanghai, Beijing, Chengdu and Guangzhou, which would be welcome.

6.2.8 EVALUATION OF WINE ROUTE BROCHURES

The non-experienced participants were asked to evaluate two existing wine route brochures in terms of "*Cape Winelands*[1]*"* and "*Stellenbosch wine routes*[2]*"*. In summary, most respondents' impressions were centred on comments such as "*looks nice*", "*beautiful [winelands]*", "*why no Chinese introduction?*" and "*cannot read English*". The following statement may represent the overall sentiment of respondents:

> *"…they look nice but I cannot understand well every because of my poor English…I'm also not sure I will visit if the brochures are in English only…* ***NG-3, Sichuan, F, 40-45 years, teacher***

As a result of the evaluations, it showed that brochures are only secondary to the winelands/wine lands experiences.

6.2.9 MARKETING AND POSITIONING THE WINE ROUTES

Finally, some direct implications for marketing and positioning the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market were also probed. In the discussion of marketing the Wine Routes[3], respondents emphasised that foreign marketers [South African wine route marketers] should firstly understand Chinese consumers such as their cultures, thought patterns and behaviours. The following comments are summarised from responses, which may reveal some psychologies of Chinese tourists in considering their overseas destinations, and can be regarded as groundwork for their wine-related tourism.

As most participants agreed, in modern China, people learn more western science, technologies and political system as well as lifestyle, but most of them remain impacted by traditional cultures and maintain Chinese-style thoughts. They are proud of own historical and cultural heritage and also respect other ancient civilisations in the world. Therefore, some countries such as Egypt, Greece, Italy and France were mentioned as their favourite overseas travelling destinations, as well as some South American countries even though many of them are not approved by the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system. The US, Germany, the UK, France, Japan and Russia are also preferred destinations because of their developed society and economy, as well as different lifestyles, since which are the objects that China/Chinese are learning during the near 150 years.

[1] Appendix C-1: "*Cape Winelands: a thousand things to do and then some wine tasting*", 2007 edition.
[2] Appendix C-2: "*Wine Capital of South Africa: Stellenbosch and its wine routes*", 2007 edition.
[3] Question 9 in Appendix A-2: How should wine routes be marketed [respondents were asked to place themselves in the position of South African wine route marketers with relatively little to spend]? What would motivate a Chinese tourist to visit the Wine Routes?

Others were also stated in discussions as a supplement to the above mentioned, which has been noted in Chinese history, there were many literates/poets, philosophers and officeholders who dreamed to experience all "famous mountains and great rivers[1]" in the world. They had written many poems, prose and other literature in order to admire the great nature and beautiful landscapes, usually, which have historical and cultural sites such as ancient cities, palaces, pavilions, temples or other heritages, or are related to some famous people or stories. This is why Chinese tourists prefer to visit famous sites and beautiful sceneries during overseas holidays, and is also why Chinese outbound tourists are usually called as "sightseers".

As quoted below, there was another comment, which reviewed Chinese culture and linked it to wine relations. As a result, a deep and specific insight/psychological metaphor can be shown:

"…I know that the history of grape-wine in China is more than thousand years old but is different to 'white jiu[2]', since it belonged to royal and noble or notabilities, not for populace…within traditional Chinese culture, grape-wine meant rich, rare and noble, as well as exotic…people think that wine was introduced from certain Western Asian countries such as Persia [Iran] because in China the earliest and most famous vine-growing and wine-producing area is in the Xinjiang Province that borders on Pakistan and Afghanistan…there were many ancient poems about wine/white jiu in China, one of them related to wine, war and life that may show a visual understanding in respect of Chinese ageist:

'Fine wine within goblets of jade and twinkling in the night,
Starting drink, starting sing, starting lute strum, but be roused by trumpet calls and braying steeds.
Please do not laugh me if I was drunk, died in the battlefield,
In the wars since a thousands years, how many soldiers ever return home?[3]'

— H. Wang, T'ang (AD 618-907)

…nowadays, in China, grape-wine already belongs to the common people and has become popular…accordingly, wine and wine-related activities have also been endued new meanings such as rich, healthy, elegance, sentiment [romanticism and love], vogue and status, as well as a pronoun of European [French, Austria or Italian] culture, which is why I'm saying that wine-related tings must be good, qualitative, cultural…" ***PG-1, Beijing, M, 22-26 years, reporter***

In addition, by placing themselves in the position of South African wine route marketers, many participants, in terms of wine-route visitors, recommend some more valuable viewpoints or ideas in order to market the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, which are summarised as follows:

(1) It was widely mentioned that the popularity of South African wines should be improved in China;

(2) The brand name "Western Cape Wine Routes" was not preferred; instead "Cape Town Wine Routes", "the Cape Wine Routes", "Stellenbosch" or "Franschhoek" were recommended;

(3) In terms of meeting the favours of Chinese tourists, more wine tourism offerings should be provided such as age-wine collection or short wine courses, while wine courses can even be moved to China;

[1] *In Chinese words: "名山大川".*

[2] A sort of Chinese traditional high alcohol liqueur brewed by grain, also the most popular alcohol-drink in China.

[3] In Chinese verse: "葡萄美酒夜光杯 欲饮琵琶马上催 醉卧沙场君莫笑 古来征战几人回— 王翰 唐 (618-907) ".

(4) New wine tourism offerings should also be created such as launching some special tour programmes such as “*winelands honeymoon*”, “*Cape wine meets Chinese food*” and “*travel around the global wine capitals: Cape Town”*;

(5) It was indicated that the Wine Routes should be promoted/advertised in China by multiple, especially Chinese favourite media such as television, popular magazines and the Internet;

(6) Most of the respondents claimed that there was a lack of Chinese language whether on wine route brochures or in other communication materials, as well as cellar staff;

(7) Chinese travel agencies were mentioned as an important role in this Special Interest Market (SIT), which should be stimulated to promote the Wine Routes to Chinese tourists, while local guides who serve Chinese tourists should also be encouraged to actively introduce the Wine Routes; and

(8) Respondents also pointed that South Africa, as a destination in China, should improve its national reputation, while ideally, wine-related elements should be combined within the country’s image.

Furthermore, in order to probe the positioning of wine routes, all participants were asked to role play and recommend a wine route to their friends or family members[1]. Being reluctant to engage in the activity, merely, eight of the thirteen respondents expressed that they would recommend the Western Cape Wine Routes to their friends or family and also mentioned some influencing factors when they considered a wine route as a holiday destination. These factors are summarised below:

◎ Safety/security at the destination;
◎ Price/cost;
◎ Distance and means of transportation;
◎ Total holiday can be spent;
◎ Perceptions of the destination country (destination country’s public image);
◎ The reputation of the destination/wine route;
◎ Others’ recommendations or opinions;
◎ Held information and knowledge of the destination;
◎ How about the surrounding areas? Are there any other attractions that they can visit by the way?
◎ The travel agency’s services; and
◎ Language barriers (demand Chinese guide).

Finally, in terms of the above influencing factors, all participants were asked to rank nine global wine routes with their visit priorities. These wine routes have been introduced earlier in Section 4.3.2. As a result, the positions of these global wine routes are provided. However, although these influencing

[1] Question 10 in Appendix A-2: [Role play] Assume that you have to recommend a long haul holiday to a friend or family and it involves a wine route, what factors should be taken into account when choosing a wine route? How do you rank main international wine routes based on your mentioned these factors?

factors had been reminded before their responses, participants might continue to depend on their impressions to rank these wine routes. Another factor that should also be noted is that many respondents showed their choices from both ends, since they chose their most favourite wine routes firstly, and then their "dislikes", while lastly they ranked others optionally in the middle positions. This means that the blurred choices might be in the centre of their ranking and might also be last. As illustrated in Table 6.6, all the statistic responses and the positions of these wine routes are presented:

Table 6.6: Positioning global wine routes (n=13)

Rank/scale(*) / Wine Route/Frequency	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	Overall Score (**)
	9.0	8.0	7.0	6.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	
France, Bordeaux	9	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	8.231
Italy, Florence	1	7	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	7.538
Australia, Melbourne	2	1	5	2	0	0	3	0	0	6.308
China, Shandong Yantai etc.	0	1	1	4	1	1	1	2	2	4.385
US, San Francisco-Napa Valley	1	0	3	1	1	2	0	3	2	4.385
Portugal, Porto	0	0	0	2	4	4	2	0	1	4.231
South Africa, Western Cape	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**4**	**4**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**3.923**
Spain, Bilbao-Rioja	0	0	0	2	2	2	3	4	0	3.615
Argentina, Mendoza	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	3	6	2.385

* Original ranks 1-9 are evaluated into rating scales 9.0-1.0
** Overall score= [(9.0 X frequency) + (8.0 X frequency)... + (1.0 X frequency)] /n

Although the results, as shown above in Table 6.6, has less creditability since it is based on thirteen respondents, it nonetheless provided an indication of preference, as well as some inferential issues, which may be proposed:

(1) France and Italy were favourites because of their perceived traditional wine culture;
(2) Australia was also preferred because (a) it is close to China, and (b) it has promoted its wine and wine tourism in China earlier than many other countries;
(3) China, the US, Portugal, South Africa and Spain were ranked at a medium level and their overall scores are close, which may implicate various reasons but can be divided into a group;
(4) Argentina was the least choice because it is perceived as the furthest destination from China; and
(5) The destination country and its wine-related attributes are vital when they choose a wine route.

Overall, this qualitative study with regard to Chinese tourists revealed deep-seated information, which provided a visual and meaningful picture in order to profile and explain the psychologies of Chinese tourists, as well as some related marketing implications of the Wine Routes. Following this study, a quantitative survey, comprising intercept interviews, was also analysed and is presented in order to further understand Chinese tourists, based on large samples and a series of numerical models.

6.3 ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

After the presentation of the focus groups, the quantitative data was analysed in the following context. Refer to the research methodology in Chapter Five, which was collected by way of intercept interviews with a number of Chinese tourists at the destinations, in terms of a questionnaire survey.

By a filtering edit, 275 valid questionnaires were used in this analysis, which were sufficient in terms of the designed sample size. As mentioned earlier in the previous chapter, it was difficult to access experienced respondents who have visited the Western Cape Wine Routes, therefore, there were only 65 respondents who had visited or would visit the Wine Routes, while 210 were non-wine-route visitors who had no plans to visit the Wine Routes. A breakdown is shown below in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Experiences of the Wine Routes (n=275)

How many days did you intend to stay at the Wine Routes?	Classification	Number	Percentage
I have visited / I will visit the Wine Routes	Wine-route visitors	65	23.6
No, I have no plans to visit the Wine Routes	Non-wine-route visitors	210	76.4

Furthermore, in order to sketch the logic of this quantitative data analysis, a presentation framework is provided below in Figure 6.1:

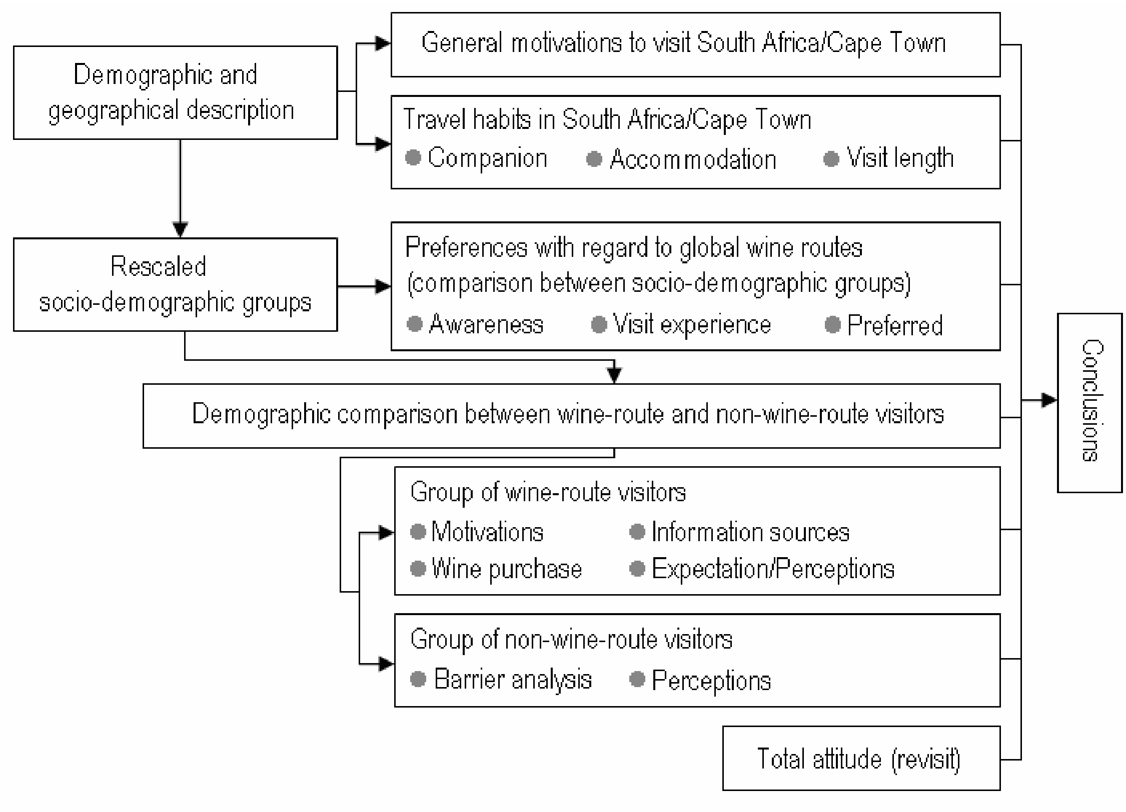

Figure 6.1: Framework of presentation

6.3.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTIONS

In order to profile the respondents, their socio-demographic characteristics are described below in Table 6.8. In addition to the division of wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors (as listed in Table 6.7), the home geographic profiles of the respondents are also presented in this section.

Table 6.8: Description of intercepted respondents (n=275)

Socio-Demographic Variables	Percentage
Experiences of the Wine Routes	
Wine-route visitors	23.6
Non-wine-route visitors	76.4
Gender	
Male	51.3
Female	48.7
Age	
18 - 25	11.3
26 - 34	43.6
35 - 50	36.4
51 - 65	8.7
> 65	0.0
Personal Income Monthly (CNY[1])	
> 30,000	2.5
20,000 – 30,000	4.4
15,000 – 19,999	4.7
12,000 – 14,999	10.5
8,000 – 11,999	28.7
5,000 – 7,999	36.7
2,001 – 4,999	9.8
< 2,000	2.5

Socio-Demographic Variables	Percentage
Education Level	
Doctor's degree or higher	1.1
Master's Degree	16.7
Up to 16 years (university B-degree)	44.4
Up to 15 years (junior college)	16.7
Up to 14 years (junior college)	10.5
Up to 12 years (technical school)	7.3
Up to 12 years (high school)	3.3
Up to 9 years (compulsory education)	0.0
Occupation	
Professional / Technical	16.0
Business owner / Self-employed	17.8
Managerial position	19.6
Government official	14.5
White collar / Clerk	26.9
Blue collar / Worker	0.4
Housewife	1.8
Retired	0.7
Student	2.2

As shown in Table 6.8, there were 275 valid questionnaires from all respondents in the Cape Town and Stellenbosch areas. A total of 23.6% of the respondents had visited or would visit the Western Cape Wine Routes during their holiday in South Africa, which amounted to a fraction of the respondents. The random scale of gender was almost evenly distributed among the respondents, most of whom were between the ages of 26 to 50 years. The data shows that more than 89.4% of the respondents have a university diploma, degree or a higher qualification, while most have a bachelor's degree[2] (44.4%). A total of 65.4% of the respondents fell into a group with a monthly income of between CNY5,000-11,999. The occupation distribution of the respondents in frequency included "white collar and clerk", "managerial position", "business owners and self-employed" and "professional and technical", as well as "governmental official". There may have been a few warps on those distributing infinitesimals such as "age older than 65" (0.0%), "educated up to 9 years" (0.0%) and "blue collar and worker" (0.4%), since only 275 valid questionnaires were captured.

[1] CNY1=ZAR1.107; ZAR1=CNY0.894 (Yahoo Finance, 18 July 2008)
[2] In the system of Chinese higher education, all bachelors are four-year degrees at least.

The respondents were from twenty-four provinces and cities/municipalities[1], whose home geographic distribution is shown in Figure 6.2. Three major regions included Beijing (14.2%) and Shanghai (12.4%) and Guangdong (9.5%), in answer to South African tourism's target markets in China, as mentioned earlier in Figure 2.14. Therefore, a pair of valuable variables was generated by dividing the respondent sources, namely (i) Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong[2] (36.0%) and (ii) other regions (64.0%).

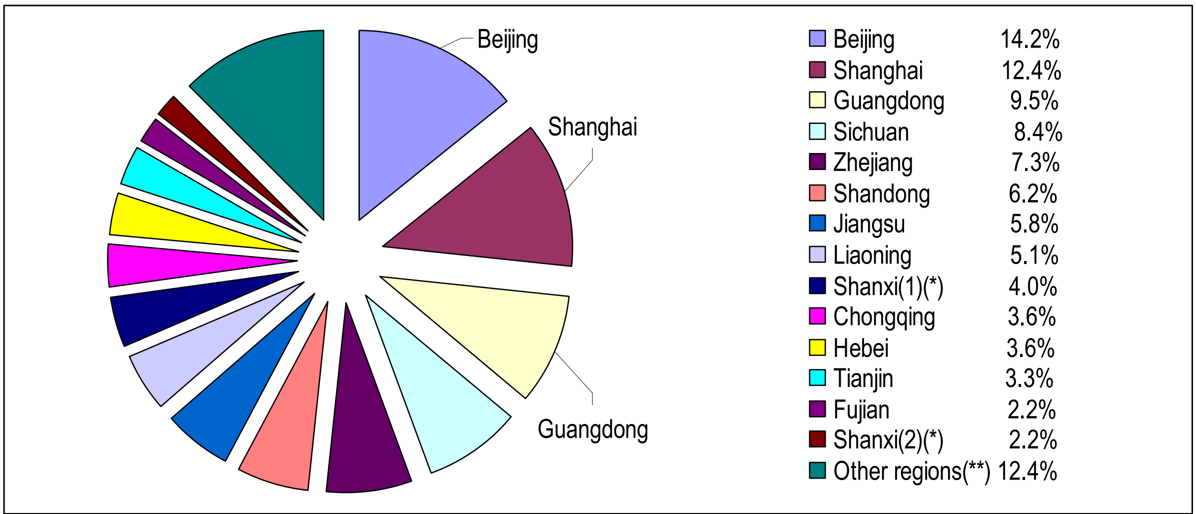

Figure 6.2: Sources of respondents (n=275)

* Shanxi (1) is (山西) the province its capital is Taiyuan; Shanxi (2) (陕西) is the province its capital is Xi'an.
** This 12.4% included ten provinces, namely: (1) Heilongjiang; (2) Jilin; (3) Neimenggu (Inner Mongolia); (4) Henan; (5) Guangxi; (6) Hainan; (7) Jiangxi; (8) Yunnan; (9) Xinjiang; and (10) Guizhou, each all less than 2%.

Similarly, in order to provide effective and meaningful variables in the process of statistical analysis to the obtained data between groups, all socio-demographic groups were rescaled, as shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Description of rescaled seven socio-demographic groups (n=275)

Socio-Demographic Variables	Percentage
Visit of the Wine Routes	
Wine-route visitors	23.6
Non-wine-route visitors	76.4
Gender	
Male	51.3
Female	48.7
Age	
18 – 25 (Age-group 1)	11.3
26 – 34 (Age-group 2)	43.6
35 – 50 (Age-group 3)	36.4
> 50 (Age-group 4)	8.7
Education Level	
Postgraduate	62.2
Undergraduate	27.2
Lower (up to 12 years)	10.6

Socio-Demographic Variables	Percentage
Home geographic distribution (24 provinces)	
Beijing, Shanghai & Guangdong	36.0
Other regions	64.0
Occupation	
Professional / Technical	16.0
Business owner / Self-employed	17.8
Managerial position	19.6
Government official	14.5
White collar / Clerk	26.9
Other s occupations	5.1
Personal Income Monthly (CNY)	
> 11,999 (Income-group 1)	22.2
11,999 – 8,000 (Income-group 2)	28.7
7,999 – 5,000 (Income-group 3)	36.7
< 5,000 (Income-group 4)	12.4

[1] Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin and Chongqing are municipalities directly under the jurisdiction of the Central Government of China.
[2] As noted earlier in Figure 2.14, these three regions are also targeted by South African Tourism's (SAT).

Following the socio-demographic descriptions, which are presented above, the respondents' motivations to visit South Africa/Cape Town and their travel habits at the destination, are analysed.

6.3.2 MOTIVATIONS TO VISIT SOUTH AFRICA/CAPE TOWN

In order to understand why Chinese tourists visit South Africa/Cape Town, in general, twenty-seven travel motivators were measured by way of multiple-choice questions. Based on their frequencies, nineteen statements, as the main motivations of the respondents, are presented below:

Table 6.10: Ranking of travel motivations to South Africa/Cape Town (n=275) (*)

Rank	Statements of Travel Motivations	Frequency	Percentage
1	For sight-seeing beautiful (natural) landscapes	254	92.4
2	For famous landmarks such as Table Mountain or Cape Point	210	76.4
3	For an exotic experience	188	68.4
4	To get a South African experience	185	67.3
5	For shopping opportunities (gold, diamonds or others)	169	61.5
6	For a pure leisure holiday (escape from daily routine)	154	56.0
7	To visit cultural and historical heritage sites	129	46.9
8	To experience wildlife	128	46.5
9	Travel or holiday by sponsor (sponsor chooses destination)	86	31.3
10	To get an African experience	82	29.8
11	To fulfill the recommendations from my friends or family	72	26.2
12	To visit famous universities	64	23.3
13	Visit friends and/or relatives (VFR)	40	14.5
14	This place is a popular destination	34	12.4
15	For wine-related reasons	30	10.9
16	Meeting, business or official travel	28	10.2
17	Visit surrounding places via Cape Town/South Africa	25	9.1
18	It is good value for money	17	6.2
19	To accompany friends who want to visit here	16	5.8
20	Others (**)	55	20.0

* More than one answer is possible
** These are (1) for to sports/adventure (5.1%); (2) South Africa's good national image (4.0%); (3) this is a mystic destination (3.3%); (4) study or scholar visit (2.9%); (5) to attend events such as festivals, concerts or sport events (2.5%); (6) past experiences (1.1%); (7) for medical treatment (0.7%); and (8) I am familiar with this place (0.4%).

As shown in Table 6.10, these major motivations (1-19) are ranked in sequence and have been divided into three levels according to their frequencies by all respondents, which ranged from 92.4% to 5.8%. Within the top level, "for sight-seeing beautiful (natural) landscapes" had a high rate (92.4%), while the other five statements followed, which mostly implicated "sight-seeing" and all rated more than 50%. This showed that the respondents had strong inclinations to "sightseers", or, in other words, the respondents visited South Africa because of its beautiful, natural scenery and landscapes. An item in the top group was "for shopping opportunity", in particular for gold and diamonds, which accounted for 61.5%.

Six motivation statements within the second level rated from 46.9% to 23.3%, which mostly belonged to external stimuli and also implicated sight-seeing. Another seven motivation statements were rated in the next level, which involved specific travel purposes such as "visit friends and/or relatives (VFR)" (14.5%), "wine-related reasons" (10.9%) and business travel (10.2%). In general, in comparison with the earlier mentions in qualitative analysis in this chapter, the above findings correspond accordingly. However, there were also another eight statements referred to as "others", which had low frequencies that ranged from 5.1% to zero, which may reflect some secondary reasons to visit South Africa.

6.3.3 TRAVEL HABITS IN SOUTH AFRICA/CAPE TOWN

After the motivation analysis, respondents' travel habits in South Africa/Cape Town were also discovered, which included travelling partners, preferred accommodation and visit length. Their correlative analyses, as presented below, added towards understanding Chinese tourists.

6.3.3.1 TRAVELLING PARTNERS

With the use of multiple-choice options, the respondents' travel modes, in terms of travelling partners in South Africa/Cape Town, were identified and are shown below in Figure 6.3.

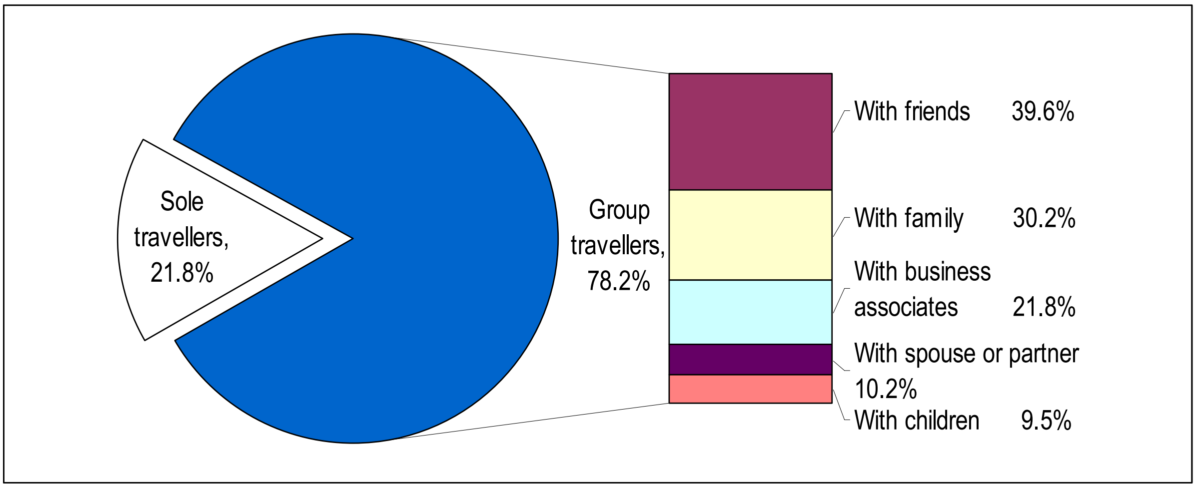

Figure 6.3: With whom do you travel while visiting South Africa/Cape Town? (n=275) (*)
* More than one answer is possible

In reference to Figure 6.3, 21.8% of the respondents visit South Africa/Cape Town alone and 78.2% with travel partner(s), while, amongst all respondents (n=275), 39.6% with friend(s), 21.8% with business associate(s) and 30.2% with family, as well as 10.2% with spouse or partner and 9.5% with child/children who were under the age 16 years. Further statistics showed that a third of the family accompanied respondents' visit to the country along with child/children, which included twenty-one with one child and another five with two children.

6.3.3.2 PREFERRED ACCOMMODATION

As mentioned in the literature study, accommodation is a major component of the tourism industry. Hence, the preferred accommodation was probed in the survey, which included twenty options with seventeen types of accommodation.

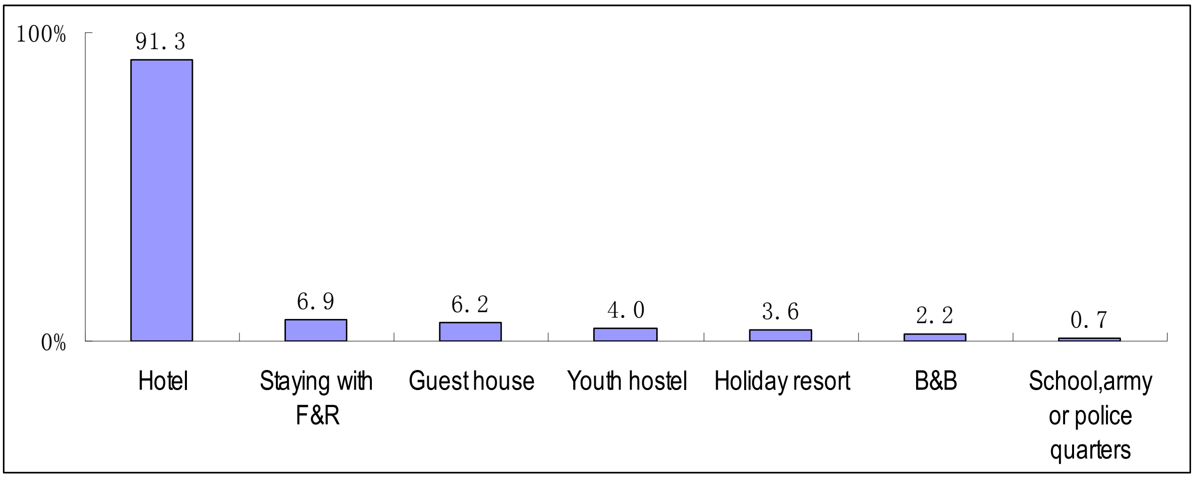

Figure 6.4: Which type of accommodation would/did you use in the Cape Town area? (n=275) (*) * More than one answer is possible

As illustrated in Figure 6.4, seven types of accommodation were chosen by the respondents, while most (91.3%) concentred on "hotel" and others all remained in low scales. It should be noted that although the respondents were asked to respond to accommodation within the Cape Town area, they may have considered accommodation types throughout South Africa, considering the multiple-choice options.

However, the results do not denote that Chinese tourists are fond of or only favour hotels as holiday accommodation. Here, "preferred accommodation" means "most used accommodation". One consequence is that hotels can accommodate larger numbers of guests simultaneously more than other types of accommodation and usually Chinese visitors take the form of tour groups. However, once this group-travel model is broken by, for example, loose visa regulations [of South African embassy in China] and the new Chinese holiday system from 2008 (refer to Section 6.2.2), the number of independent tourists and small sized groups will be increased, which may cause accommodation choices to diversify, as was mentioned by a participant during group interviews (refer to Section 6.2.2).

Furthermore, in order to provide more general information on this sector, the types of accommodation that had not been chosen include (a) apartments; (b) camping; (c) motels; (d) time share; (e) caravans; (f) water related accommodation; (g) vehicle related accommodation; (h) rented houses/house exchange; (i) holiday houses/owned property; and (j) lodges/chalets/bungalows.

6.3.3.3 VISIT LENGTH

Another habit that was measured among all respondents is the visit length, where its scope parameters include South Africa, Cape Town and the Winelands/Wine Routes. Because this had specific implications, which related to wine routes, few comparisons were applied between wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors. The statistics that deal with visit length are displayed below in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Statistics of respondents' visit length (days)

Scope and Content	All respondents (n=275)	Wine-route visitors (n=65)	Non-wine-route visitors (n=210)
Average in South Africa	6.0	7.2	5.7
Minimum in South Africa	2.0	3.0	2.0
Maximum in South Africa	14.0	14.0	12.0
Most concentrative length in South Africa	5.0–7.0 (75.3%)	7.0 (36.9%)	5.0-6.0 (61.9%)
Average in Cape Town	3.0	3.9	2.7
Minimum in Cape Town	1.0	2.0	1.0
Maximum in Cape Town	7.0	7.0	6.0
Most concentrative length in Cape Town	2.0–4.0 (88.4%)	3.0–4.0 (73.8%)	2.0-3.0 (76.7%)
Average in winelands/routes	0.2	0.9	-
Minimum in winelands/routes	0.0	0.5	-
Maximum in winelands/routes	2.0	2.0	-
Most concentrative length in winelands/routes	0.0(76.4%);1.0(15.6%)	0.5(32.3);1.0(66.2%)	-

As shown in Table 6.11, the visit length in each [geographic] area included four statistic items, namely average, minimum and maximum days, as well as the most concentrative distributed length. In the following text, these findings are further presented based on the above statistics, in terms of all respondents' visit length and a comparison between "wine-route visitors" and "non-wine-route visitors.

- **Length of all Respondents' Stay at the Destinations**

In reference to the first column [all respondents, n=275] in Table 6.11, the average length of all respondents' stay in South Africa was 6 days, which averaged 3 days in Cape Town and 0.2 days in the Wine Routes. Amongst respondents, the minimum visit in the country was 2 days and the maximum visit was 14 days, while 75.3% of them stay between 5 to 7 days. Meanwhile, because this survey was conducted in the Western Cape area, they stayed for at least one day in Cape Town, while the maximum visit length was 7 days and most (88.4%) stayed in the area between 2-4 days on average.

As shown in Table 6.11, 76.4% of the respondents were non-wine-route visitors, in other words, 23.6% have visited or intended to visit Stellenbosch, Constantia or any other wine route or wine farm/winery in the Western Cape during their holiday in South Africa. Amongst wine-route visitors (n=65), their minimum visit length in the Wineland/Wine Routes was a half day, maximum length was 2 days and an average length was 0.9 days. It should be noted that although the statistics showed that 66.2% of them stayed there for one day, almost all wine-route visitors had not stayed over [overnight] in the Winelands/Wine Routes. Possibly, the respondents considered the minimum length unit as one day when they answered this open-ended question.

- **Visit Length in South Africa/Cape Town between Wine-Route and Non-Wine-Route Visitors**

As shown in Table 6.11, the comparison of visit length in both the country and Cape Town was analysed amongst respondents between wine-route and non-wine-route visitors. Evidently, the disparities existed within all the compared items such as the visit length, minimum and maximum length. Moreover, a further calculation showed that most (66.2%) of the wine-route visitors stayed in the country between seven to fourteen days, which was markedly more than the scale of non-wine-route visitors (22.4%). Similarly, 78% of the wine-route visitors visited Cape Town for three to four days, which were also distinctly longer than non-wine-route visitors who visited this area. Inferentially, these differences of the visit length may result from or cause one or several of the following:

(i) Only those respondents who have had longer or sufficient holidays, may visit the Wine Routes;
(ii) Once in the country/Cape Town, they will visit the Wine Routes if they have sufficient time to do so;
(iii) The Wine Routes might be a reason/stimulus to extend their visit length in South Africa/Cape Town;
(iv) If they decide to visit the Wine Routes, they may extend their visit length; or
(v) All or some of the above four statements are rejected.

After the analysis of the above travel habits, the respondents' awareness, preferences and experiences towards the major global wine routes, were also analysed. As a result, these can be used to understand their related background and knowledge of wine tours/routes, as well as to uncover a current position of the Western Cape Wine Routes within the Chinese market.

6.3.4 AWARENESS, EXPERIENCE AND PREFERENCE OF GLOBAL WINE ROUTES

According to an international wine tourism perspective within the literature study (refer to Section 4.3.2), nine main wine routes/wine tour destinations, globally, including the Western Cape Wine Routes, were used in this set of measures. Meanwhile, another two options were also added in the questionnaire, in terms of an open-ended option (named *"other"*) and a denial option (named *"none"*). During each measure of aware, preferred or visited wine tour destinations, respondents were asked to provide multiple choices from the eleven given options. In this section, all responses within frequency statistics are illustrated, integrated and analysed by socio-demographic groups.

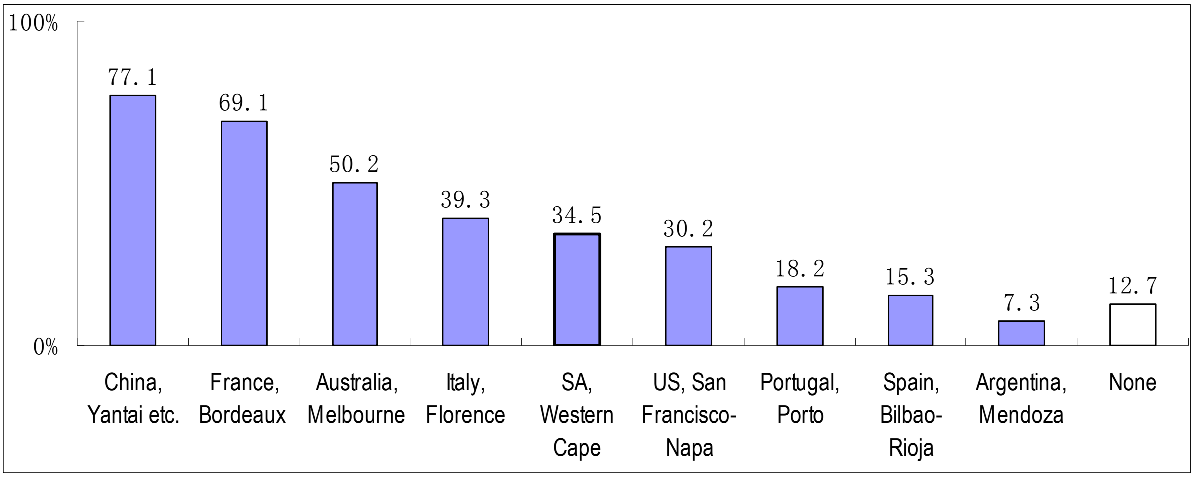

Figure 6.5: Which of these wine tour destinations are you aware of? (n=275) (*) (**)

* More than one answer is possible

** A understanding bias may exist in responses, since "aware" means "familiar" or "just know or heard of" and in the Chinese-language questionnaire, "aware" is replaced by "知道" that also means "familiar" or "just know or heard of" but more tends to "just know or heard of"

As shown in Figure 6.5, the most well-known foreign wine tour destination is France's Bordeaux (69.1%), followed by Australia's Melbourne (50.2%) and then Italy's Florence (39.3%). South Africa's Western Cape [Cape Town/Stellenbosch] took fifth place at 34.5%. This scale of 34.5% means that there might be a more limited number of respondents who had known or had heard about the Western Cape Wine Routes before they made the decision to visit South Africa. Figure 6.5 also showed that 12.7% of the respondents were not aware of any wine route, or had no knowledge of the concept of wine tourism.

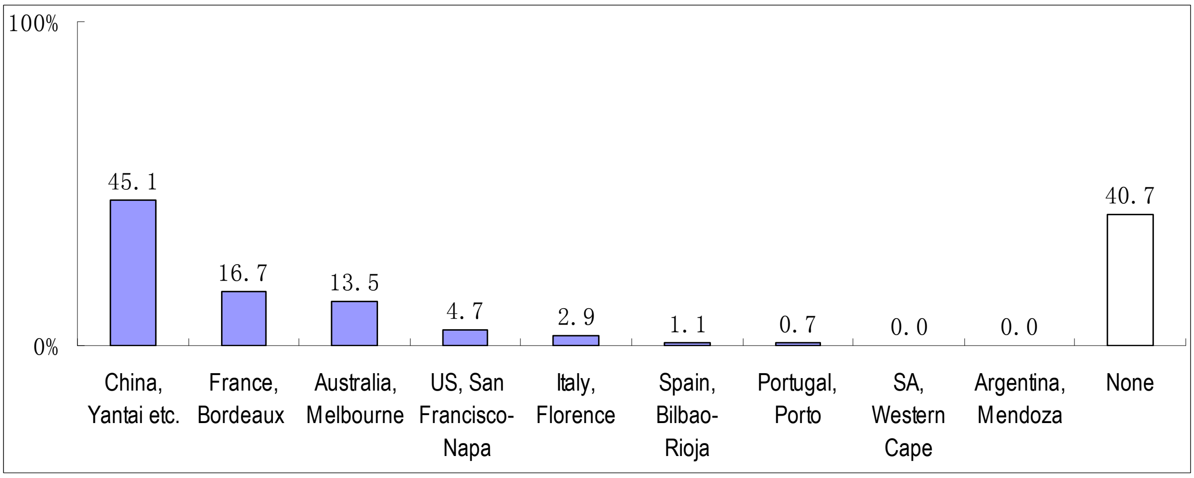

Figure 6.6: Which of these wine tour destinations have you ever visited? (n=275) (*)

* More than one answer is possible

As shown in Figure 6.6, nearly a half of the respondents visited the [China] domestic "wine routes" at Yantai or other regions such as Yunnan, Xinjiang or Hebei. France's Bordeaux (16.7%) and Australia's Melbourne (13.5%) were in second and third positions respectively. Figure 6.6 also showed that before this visit to South Africa, there was none who had visited the Western Cape Wine Routes (0.0%), as well as Argentina's Mendoza (0.0%).

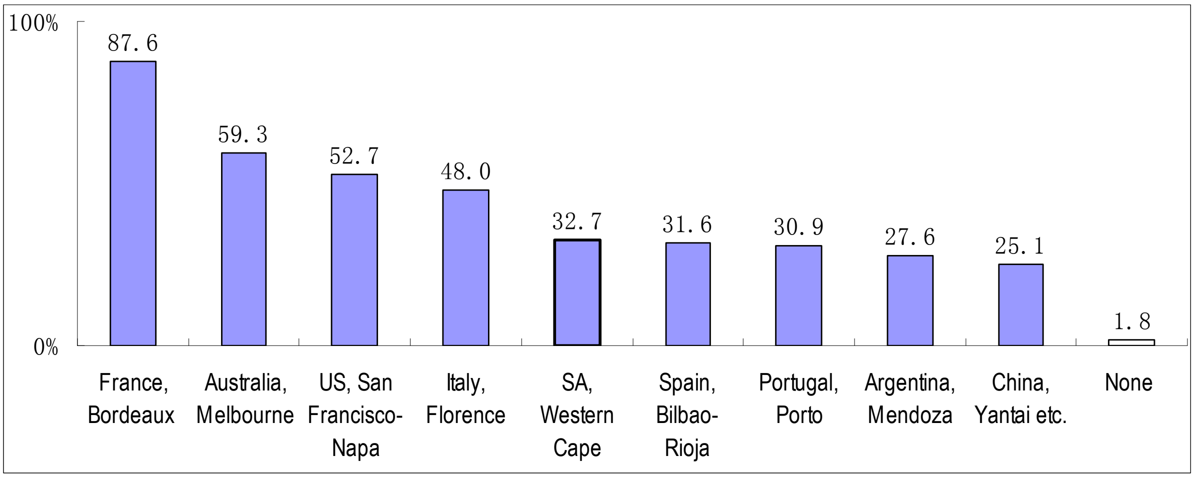

Figure 6.7: Which of these wine tour destinations would you prefer to visit? (n=275) (*)
* More than one answer is possible

In comparison with Figure 6.6, the data in Figure 6.7 exhibited much higher frequencies. France's Bordeaux (87.6%), Australia's Melbourne (59.3%) and the US's San Francisco-Napa Valley (52.7%), respectively, ranked in first, second and third position. Only a total of 1.8% respondents would not visit any wine tourism destination, which means that "wine tourism/routes", as a tourism offering, is not exclusive from most Chinese tourists. Although the Western Cape Wine Routes was the fifth among the nine, it still held 32.7% as the adherent. It should be noted that the [China] domestic "wine routes" ranked near the bottom in Figure 6.7, which means that the [wine] destination country might play a crucial role when these respondents consider or choose given wine routes, since foreign destinations, especially France, Australia, the US and Italy, were favoured by Chinese tourists and this phenomenon is also in accordance with a finding early in group interviews (refer to Section 6.2.9).

Other phenomenon that should also be noted is that a comparison between Figure 6.7 and Figure 6.5 shows that all foreign wine tourism destinations showed their "preferred frequencies" higher than "aware frequencies", which might result from some reasons, as concluded below:

(1) Although some respondents are not aware of a specific wine route, they may still want to visit if they have good or positive perceptions in respect of the destination country/area that this wine route is in, since as used in the questionnaire, all the wine tourism destinations, including both the country and the wine region, were listed and showed to the respondents;
(2) This also doubly confirmed the earlier findings (see the above text), since many Chinese tourists consider/choose a wine route to visit usually depending on the image of the wine destination country/area that they held, and not the exact information or knowledge of the wine route; and
(3) Except for visit experience, other preferences, particularly the choice of "preferred wine tourism destinations", might be influenced by the personal subjectivity of the respondent when they provide multiple answers, in terms of what might be more possible.

In total, as shown below in Table 6.12, by integrating Figures 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7, two sets of average indexes are produced, namely A/V/P Index and Destination Index. They are balanced and can be used to show interaction between respondents' awareness, experiences and preferences towards all the given wine routes, as well as provide an evaluation of their acceptance degree of each wine route.

Table 6.12: Comparisons of global wine tourism destinations (n=275) (*)

	Wine Tourism Destination	Aware (%)	Previously Visited (%)	Preferred (%)	**Destination Index (%) (***)**
1	France, Bordeaux	69.1	16.7	87.6	**57.8**
2	China, Yantai etc.	77.1	45.1	25.1	**49.1**
3	Australia, Melbourne	50.2	13.5	59.3	**41.0**
4	Italy, Florence	39.3	2.9	48.0	**30.1**
5	US, San Francisco-Napa Valley	30.2	4.9	52.7	**29.3**
6	SA, Western Cape	34.5	0.0	32.7	**22.4**
7	Portugal, Porto	18.2	0.7	30.9	**16.6**
8	Spain, Bilbao-Rioja	15.3	1.1	31.6	**16.0**
9	Argentina, Mendoza	7.3	0.0	27.6	**11.6**
--	**A/V/P Index (%) (**)**	**37.9**	**9.4**	**43.9**	**30.4 (****)**
--	None	12.7	40.7	1.8	18.4

* More than one answer is possible in each [aware, previously visited and preferred] column
** Awareness Index=$\sum$ (Aware $_{1...n}$)/n; Visit Index=$\sum$ (Visited $_{1...n}$)/n; and Preferred Index=$\sum$ (Preferred $_{1...n}$)/n
*** Indication of the acceptance degree of a specific wine route: Destination Index=(Aware+Visited+Preferred)/3
**** This is a Total Index (30.4%) of all respondents [Chinese tourists] in respect of global wine routes, which can be used in comparison with other, or between groups, but this index is not applied in this research.

Firstly, in reference to Table 6.12, from a holistic perspective, an A/V/P Index was used as an indicator to compare the interaction between the awareness, experiences and preferences of respondents [Chinese tourists] in respect of all the global wine routes, namely "aware", "visited" and "preferred" columns in the above Table 61.2. According to this Index [Aware Index: 37.9%, Visited Index: 9.4% and Preferred Index: 43.9%], the respondents can be described as: some of them were aware of these wine tourism destinations and many of them preferred at least one to visit, although only a small number of them have had related experiences, in particular, foreign wine routes.

Secondly, as listed in Table 6.12, by calculating the average of aware, visited and preferred frequencies, while each wine tourism destination was evaluated by an index in the last column and then ranked in order of this Destination Index. In comparison to all the wine routes by their Destination Indexes, except for the [China] domestic wine routes in the second row, respondents exhibited higher degrees of acceptance towards France's Bordeaux (57.8%), Australia's Melbourne (41.0%) and Italy's Florence (30.1%), as well as the US's San Francisco-Napa Valley (29.3%), which were higher than or close to an average in terms of 30.4%. However, this Destination Index might be influenced by the scale of the wine-route or non-wine-route visitors amongst all respondents, hence, in Figure 6.8 the Destination

Index was used to compare the difference degree of acceptance of each international wine route, as well as the Western Cape Wine Routes between them.

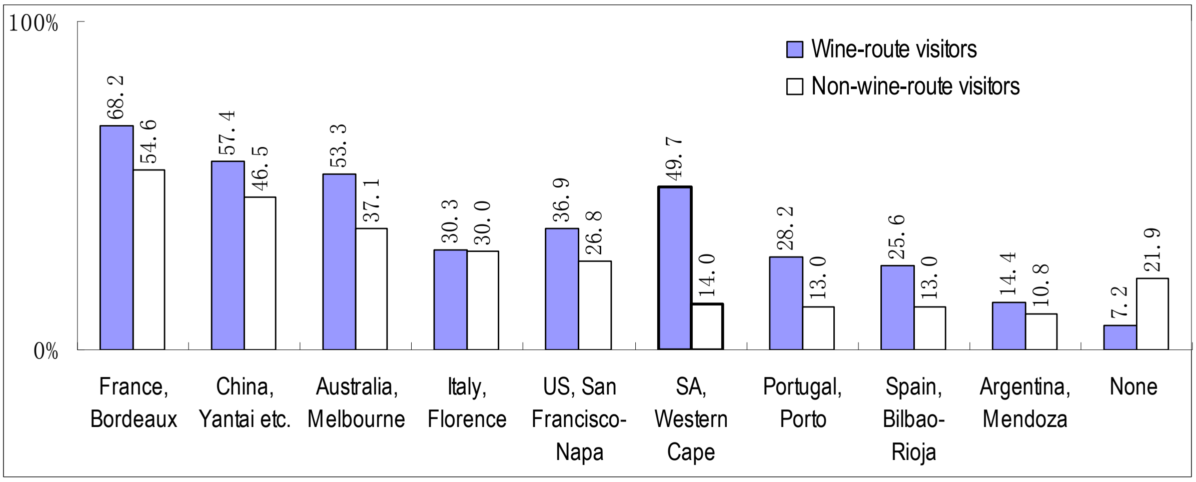

Figure 6.8: Cross tabulation by wine-route visitors (n=65) and non-wine-route visitors (n=210): Destination Index

In Figure 6.8, wine-route visitors showed a higher degree of acceptance towards all the nine given wine tourism destinations than non-wine-route visitors, while a marked lower frequency in comparison of "none", which meant "disinterest/indifference/repellency". While, a z-test (95% confidence level, critical Z value=1.96 and calculated Z value=9.30), showed that there is a significant difference in the acceptance degree between wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors, in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes. Although it might be implicated in the survey location, similar significant differences still exist within other wine routes: Portugal's Porto with a calculated Z value is 4.34; Australia's Melbourne with a calculated Z value is 3.98; Spain's Bilbao-Rioja with a calculated Z value is 3.70; France's Bordeaux with a calculated Z value is 3.50; China's Yantai etc. with a calculated Z value is 2.69; and the US's San Francisco-Napa Valley with a calculated Z value is 2.60. However, as a further demographic comparison, between wine-route and non-wine-route visitors, is completed and presented later in this chapter.

Furthermore, based on the Destination Index, in the following context, the acceptance degrees of global wine routes are also compared between demographic groups, which can provide a profile of general Chinese wine tourists. These used variables are chosen from Table 6.9, namely:

- ◎ Home geographic distribution (residence region);
- ◎ Gender;
- ◎ Age;
- ◎ Education level;
- ◎ Occupation; and
- ◎ Personal income.

As shown below in Figure 6.9, the respondents who were from Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong held higher acceptance degrees for all given wine tourism destinations than the respondents who had come from other twenty-one cities/provinces, in particular, evidently, the Western Cape Wine Routes. Meanwhile, with regard to the frequency on the comparison of “none”, the first three regions [Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong], were a little lower than the latter.

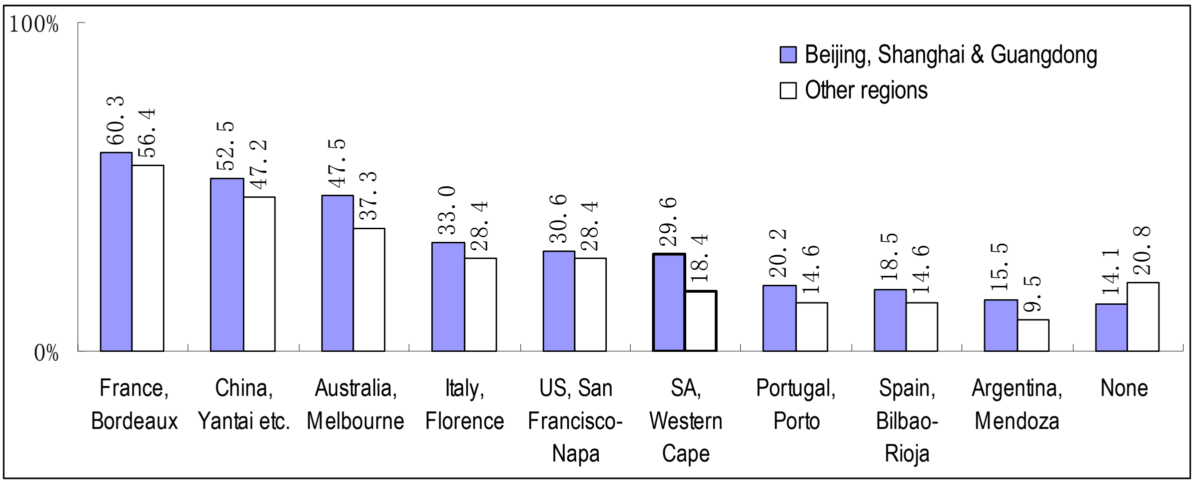

Figure 6.9: Cross tabulation by respondents’ home geographic areas (n1=99 and n2=176): Destination Index

In reference to Figure 6.10, in comparing the Destination Index between the gender groups, the female respondents exhibited higher acceptance degrees than the males on almost all wine tourism destinations. At the same time, the females also had a lower “disinterest/indifference/repellency” than the male respondents in respect of these wine tourism destinations.

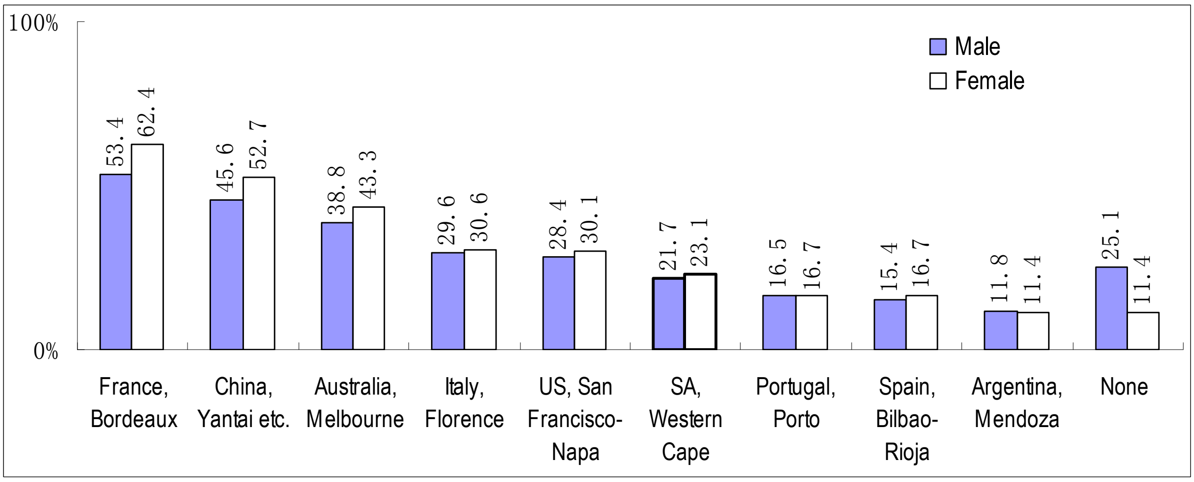

Figure 6.10: Cross tabulation by male respondents (n=141) and female respondents (n=134): Destination Index

In reference to Figure 6.11, it shows that, among the respondents, the first three age-groups, from 18 to 50 years old, all presented high and similar acceptance degrees towards these given wine tourism destinations. The age-group 2 (26 to 34 years old) retained the most highlighted position on the nine wine routes and also fell into the lowest position amongst a comparison of the “none”. By contrast, the last group (age older than 50 years) showed the most high “disinterest/indifference/repellency” with regard to these wine tourism destinations.

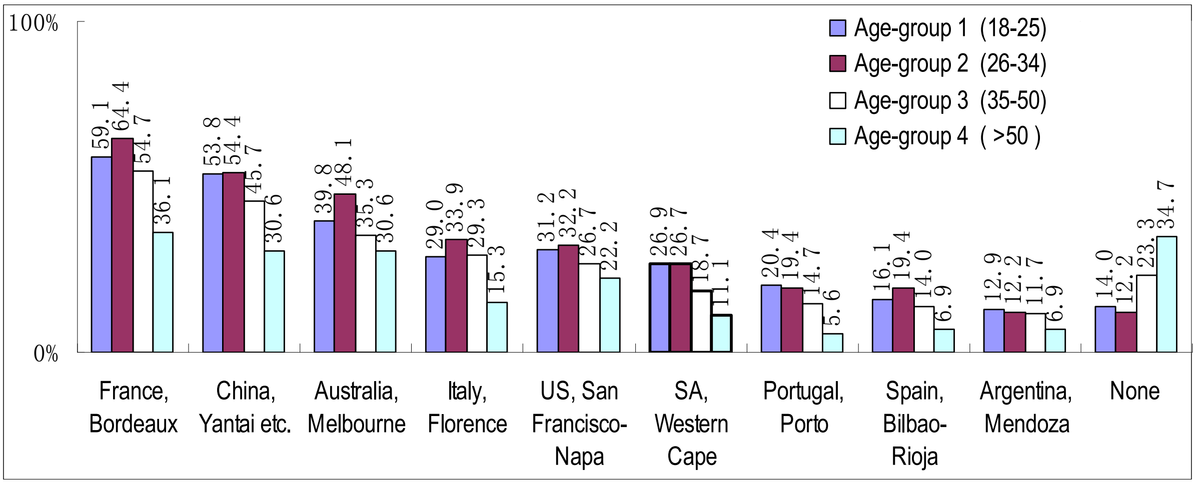

Figure 6.11: Cross tabulation by respondents’ age groups (n1=31, n2=100, n3=120 and n4=24): Destination Index

As illustrated below in Figure 6.12, the comparison of Destination Index between respondents by different education backgrounds showed a clear and even proportional relation, in terms of (i) the higher educated respondents have a higher acceptance degree towards these wine routes than those who had a lower education background; and (ii) the respondents who have lower education background presented more “disinterest/indifference or repellency” towards wine tourism than the higher educated respondents.

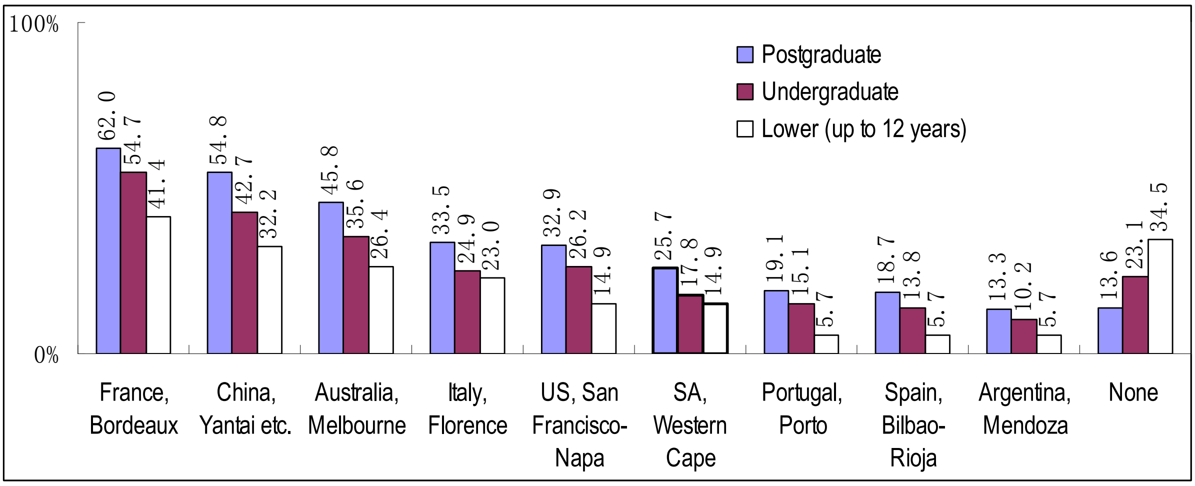

Figure 6.12: Cross tabulation by respondents’ education background (n1=171, n2=75 and n3=29): Destination Index

In Figure 6.13, the comparison between occupational groups was not inerratic, although several groups such as “professional or technical”, “managerial position” and “white collar or clerk”, were notable. In fact, within each of the given wine tourism destinations, all groups exhibited similar acceptance degrees, but “governmental officials” topped the position in the option of “disinterest/indifference/repellency”.

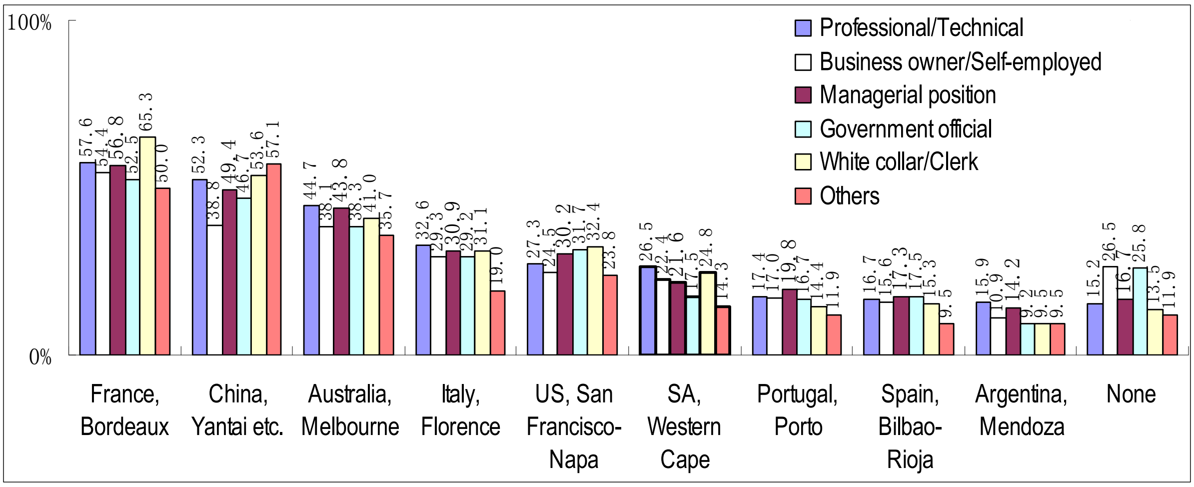

Figure 6.13: Cross tabulation by respondents’ occupation groups (n1=44, n2=49, n3=54, n4=40, n5=74 and n6=14): Destination Index

As shown below in Figure 6.14, four income groups were not normally distributed in each option. Within all options, the second income-group (CNY11,999-8,000) was most highlighted and others held approximate scales within each wine route. This distribution here might be a reflection of Figure 6.11, namely the younger age-groups (18 to 34 years) with comparative lower personal income, which, accordingly, represented high acceptance degree towards these wine tourism destinations.

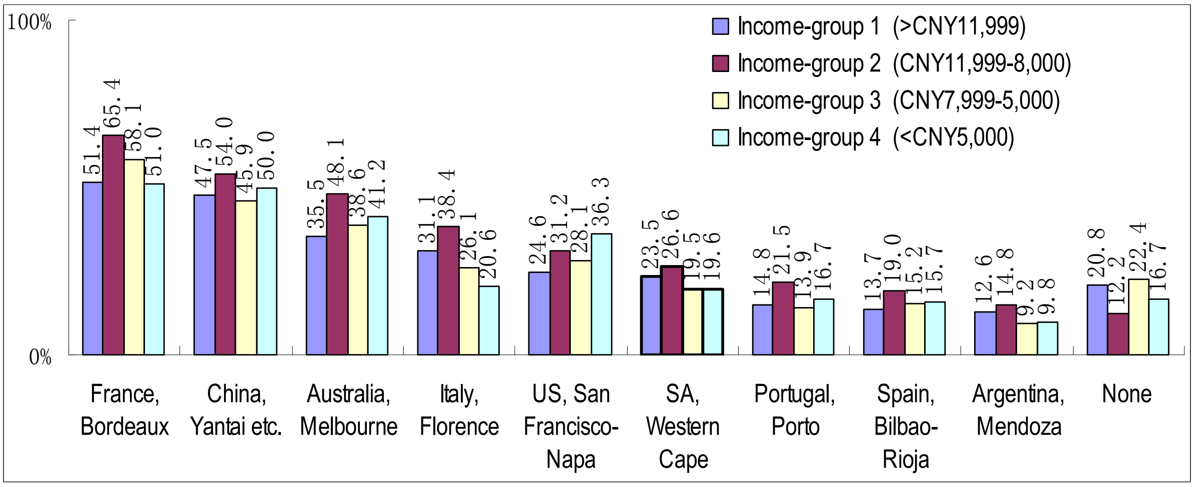

Figure 6.14: Cross tabulation by respondents’ personal monthly income (n1=61, n2=79, n3=101 and n4=34): Destination Index

As summarised, the above analyses from Figures 6.8 to 6.14, a demographic profile of general Chinese wine tourists has been proposed, which is displayed below in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Description of the general Chinese wine tourist by socio-demographic data

Variable	Description
Gender	Both of them, while females hold stronger enthusiasm than males
Age	26 to 50 years should be considered based on their favourite and financial situation
Education background	Have well-educated background: up to more than 14 years at least or higher
Occupation	All well-paid occupations such as white collar/clerk, professional/technical and managerial positions
Income levels	Higher income level; and the group (CNY8,000-11,999) should be regarded as priority
Home geographic area	Shanghai, Beijing and Guangdong are the most highlighted
Wine tour experience	Interested in wine or have more or less wine-related knowledge

After the presentation of the preferences of global wine tourism destinations among all respondents, the wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors, respectively, are analysed in the following text.

6.3.5 DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTIONS OF WINE-ROUTE VISITORS AND OTHERS

In the first stage, based on rescaled socio-demographic groups in Table 6.11, a comparison between wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors was conduced and presented below in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Cross tabulation by wine-route and non-wine-route visitors: demographics

Socio-Demographic Variables	Wine-Route Visitors (n=65) (%)	Non-Wine-Route Visitors (n=210) (%)	Differentia (%)
Home geographic area			
Beijing, Shanghai & Guangdong	56.9	29.5	+ 27.4
Other regions	43.1	70.5	- 27.4
Gender			
Male	36.9	55.7	- 18.8
Female	63.1	44.3	+ 18.8
Age			
18 – 25 (Age-group 1)	16.9	9.5	+ 7.4
26 – 34 (Age-group 2)	58.5	39.0	+ 19.5
35 – 50 (Age-group 3)	20.0	41.5	- 21.5
> 50 (Age-group 4)	4.6	10.0	- 5.4
Education Level			
Postgraduate	72.3	59.0	+ 13.3
Undergraduate	21.5	29.0	- 7.5
Lower (up to 12 years)	6.2	12.0	- 5.8
Occupation			
Professional/Technical	18.5	15.2	+ 3.2
Business owner/Self-employed	18.5	17.6	+ 0.8
Managerial position	18.5	20.0	- 1.5
Government official	9.2	16.2	- 7.0
White collar/Clerk	32.3	25.2	+ 7.1
Others	3.1	5.7	- 2.6
Personal Monthly Income (CNY)			
> 11,999 (Income-group 1)	24.6	21.4	+ 3.2
11,999 – 8,000 (Income-group 2)	29.2	28.6	+ 0.6
7,999 – 5,000 (Income-group 3)	35.4	37.1	- 1.7
< 5,000 (Income-group 4)	10.8	12.9	- 2.1

In reference to Table 6.14, the intuitionistic contrast, between wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors within each socio-demographic variable and its groups, shows:

(1) A half of the wine-route visitors were from Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong, which was greater than the number from the other regions and had 27.4% greater than the scale of non-wine-route visitors who come from the three regions. This answered the finding in Figure 6.9, in terms of the three regions [Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong], which may comprise the major segment in the Chinese tourist market for the Western Cape Wine Routes;
(2) Although the females and males were approximate within the comparison of the Destination Index of the Western Cape Wine Routes (refer to Figure 6.10), it is obvious in Table 6.14 that the females were the majority of the wine-route visitors and had a greater 18.8% than the female non-wine-route visitors, which means that the females may be more interested in the Western Cape Wine Routes;
(3) The age group of 26-34 is a highlighted sector, which not only took the majority of the wine-route visitors, but was also greater (19.5%) than its scale among the non-wine-route visitors. It intensifies the result, as presented earlier in Figure 6.11 that the 26 to 34 years Chinese tourists, can be regarded as the major segment for the Western Cape Wine Routes. However, this does not means that older tourists can be ignored because of their higher personal financial situations, although those Chinese tourists who are older than 50 years, may not be included;
(4) Similarly to the normal distribution of the comparison of Destination Index among all respondents by their education levels in Figure 6.12, the comparison of education background between wine-route and non-wine-route visitors further validated an ordinal relation, in terms of the higher educated Chinese tourists who had more favour towards the Western Cape Wine Routes than the lower educated Chinese tourists. It also means that, for the Western Cape Wine Routes, the lower education group (up to 12 years), can be ignored;
(5) In the comparison of occupations, “white collar/clerk” took the highest position among both the groups, but among the wine-route visitors, it was greater (7.1%) than non-wine-routes visitors. While, “professional/technical”, “managerial position” and “business owner/self-employer” all remained in sizable and were similar in comparison between wine-route and non-wine-route visitors; and
(6) Although the personal incomes were different between the wine-routes visitors and non-wine-route visitors, they were not distinct. Similarly to proposed Chinese wine tourists, as shown in Table 6.13, these respondents who visited the Wine Routes were distributed in higher income groups.

Finally, as synthesised the in above socio-demographic comparisons between the wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors, as well as the earlier proposed profile of the general Chinese wine tourist (see Table 6.13), a highlighted segment of Chinese wine tourists, specifically for the Western Cape Wine Routes, can be identified below as the bold sectors in Table 6.15:

Table 6.15: Segmenting Chinese wine tourists for the Western Cape Wine Routes (n=65)

Demographic Variables	Percentage	Demographic Variables	Percentage
Gender		*Home geographic distribution (24 provinces)*	
Male	36.9	**Beijing, Shanghai & Guangdong**	**56.9**
Female	**63.1**	Others	43.1
Age		*Occupation*	
18 – 25	16.9	**O1: Professional/technical, managerial position and white collar/clerk**	**69.3**
26 – 34	**58.5**	O2: Business owner/self-employ and government official	27.7
35 – 50	**20.0**	O3: Others	3.1
>50	4.6		
Education Level		*Monthly Personal Income (CNY)*	
Postgraduate	**72.3**	**> 11,999**	**24.6**
Undergraduate	21.5	**11,999 – 5,000**	**64.6**
Lower	6.2	< 5,000	10.8

Following the above socio-demographic comparison, the wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors are respectively analysed in the following text, which identified visit motivations and barriers, as well as their perceptions, attitude and preferences, in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes.

6.3.6 ANALYSIS OF WINE-ROUTE VISITORS

This analysis of wine-route visitors included a detection of their motivations to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes, their information search channels and wine purchasing habits, as well as a comparison of their experiences and expectations in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes.

6.3.6.1 MOTIVATION ANALYSIS

There were twenty-six general motivation statements in respect of wine-related tourism, which had been measured in equally weighted terms. The wine-route visitors were asked to respond, in the format of a rating scale as shown in Table 6.16, as to what extent they agreed with the motivation statements.

Table 6.16: Extent of agreement in rating scale

Extent of agreement	Most definitely	Definitely	Neutral	Definitely not	Most definitely not
Original code	5	4	3	2	1
Score in rating scale	5	4	3	2	1

Based on the above setting, these wine tourism motivations were analysed in specific sections, although a factor analysis could not be applied because of the limited sample size (65 wine-route visitors). These specific analyses included (i) a mean ranking in order to compare all statements, in priority; (ii) t-test, respectively, for measuring the differences among home geographic categories and gender groups; and (iii) the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to measure the differences among other socio-demographic categories.

- **Mean Ranking of Wine Tourism Motivations**

The given twenty-six statements included internal, external and ambiguous/bilateral motivations [refer to Section 4.4.2 (Mitchell *et al.*)], which covered almost all motivators for both general wine tourism and the Western Cape Wine Routes, specifically. Depending on the mean scales and standard deviations of these motivation statements, they are ranked below in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Ranking of motivations to visit the Wine Routes (n=65)

Rank	Motivation Statement	In/External	Mean	Std D
1	To taste wine	Internal	4.523	0.562
2	To do a winery or wine cellar tour	External	4.308	0.660
3	To rest and relax	Internal	4.246	0.613
4	To visit a historical/cultural attraction in the area, e.g. wine museum	External	4.215	0.893
5	To learn more about South African people and their culture	Internal	4.185	0.808
6	To buy wine	Internal	4.169	0.627
7	To enhance my South Africa holiday experience	Internal	4.138	0.704
8	To enjoy the beautiful surrounds and climate of the vineyards	External	4.123	0.673
9	Part of tour group/South Africa tour	External	4.077	0.478
10	There are a large number of wineries to choose from and visit	External	4.015	0.739
11	To learn about wine and wine making	Internal	3.831	0.858
12	To buy wine related gifts/souvenirs	Internal	3.831	0.782
13	Was recommended to visit a wine region	External	3.662	0.834
14	To have a day out	Internal	3.646	0.694
15	To wine and dine at the winery/in the immediate environment	External	3.462	0.903
16	To be entertained	-	3.338	0.940
17	To socialise with friends and family	Internal	3.323	0.970
18	Because South African wine is famous	External	3.185	1.198
19	To visit the wine route and surrounding area by accident/stop over	-	3.138	0.998
20	To participate in outdoor recreational activities, e.g. golf, hiking	External	2.908	0.843
21	To attend a wine-related festival or event	External	2.662	0.834
22	It allows me to do many things in close proximity	External	2.615	0.823
23	Stay overnight in a wine area	-	2.508	0.850
24	To be able to talk to the wine maker/wine farmer	Internal	2.477	0.903
25	To have a picnic/BBQ	-	2.015	0.875
26	Have been to a wine route before	-	1.785	0.718

In reference to Table 6.17, all the motivation statements can be divided into four levels by mean scales. Firstly, the mean values of the first ten statements lay between “4-5”, representing “definitely to most definitely [agreement]”, which showed that the major reasons they [wine-route visitors] visited the Western Cape Wine Routes. These ten statements included five internal and five external motivators, wherein, as a most popular and usual wine-related motivator “to taste wine (4.523)” ranked in the top position, while a typical motivator of wine visitors was also “to do a winery tour (4.308)”. Moreover, except for “to rest and relax (4.246)”, the first level also included four, which were motivated by the Wine Routes specifically and other four, which were motivated by the destination country. The mean of the next nine motivations (statements 11-19) lay between “3-4”, representing “neutral to definitely [agreement]”, wherein, the motivation statements from 14 to 11 highly tended to “definitely [agreement]”, which ranked between “3.646-3.831”. The following six motivations (statements 20-25) occurred in the level of “neutral to definitely not [agreement]” and ranked between “2.908-2.015”. Lastly, the “most definitely not agreed” motivation statement for did not visit the Wine Routes is that “have been to a wine route before (1.785)”.

Furthermore, as shown below in Table 6.18, by using rescaled groups of Chinese wine tourists in Table 6.15, the ten strongest motivations from Table 6.17 were compared among the wine-route visitors:

Table 6.18: Cross tabulation by rescaled-demographic groups: ten strongest motivations to visit the Wine Routes (n=65)

Rank	Geographic area n=37; 28		Gender n=24; 41		Age (*) n=11; 38; 13		Education n=47; 14; 4		Occupation(**) n=45; 18; 2		Personal income n=16; 42; 7	
M 1 4.523	B/S/G Others	4.649 4.357	M F	4.417 4.585	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.545 4.553 4.462	Post Under Lower	4.553 4.429 4.500	O1 O2 O3	4.600 4.389 4.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.563 4.548 4.286
M 2 4.308	B/S/G Others	4.432 4.143	M F	4.417 4.244	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.182 4.395 4.231	Post Under Lower	4.298 4.357 4.250	O1 O2 O3	4.333 4.278 4.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.625 4.214 4.143
M 3 4.246	B/S/G Others	4.378 4.071	M F	4.208 4.268	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.273 4.211 4.385	Post Under Lower	4.277 4.214 4.000	O1 O2 O3	4.333 4.000 4.500	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.313 4.262 4.000
M 4 4.215	B/S/G Others	4.378 4.000	M F	4.250 4.195	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.000 4.316 4.077	Post Under Lower	4.213 4.143 4.500	O1 O2 O3	4.311 3.944 4.500	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.438 4.119 4.286
M 5 4.185	B/S/G Others	4.297 4.036	M F	4.208 4.171	18-25 26-34 35-50	3.727 4.263 4.385	Post Under Lower	4.255 4.000 4.000	O1 O2 O3	4.156 4.278 4.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.375 4.143 4.000
M 6 4.169	B/S/G Others	4.243 4.071	M F	4.250 4.122	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.182 4.132 4.154	Post Under Lower	4.170 4.000 4.750	O1 O2 O3	4.111 4.278 4.500	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.313 4.119 4.143
M 7 4.138	B/S/G Others	4.243 4.000	M F	4.000 4.220	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.364 4.053 4.231	Post Under Lower	4.085 4.357 4.000	O1 O2 O3	4.067 4.222 5.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.188 4.024 4.714
M 8 4.123	B/S/G Others	4.135 4.107	M F	4.000 4.195	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.091 4.105 4.231	Post Under Lower	4.128 4.143 4.000	O1 O2 O3	4.222 3.889 4.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.125 4.143 4.000
M 9 4.077	B/S/G Others	4.027 4.143	M F	4.125 4.049	18-25 26-34 35-50	3.909 4.105 4.231	Post Under Lower	4.128 4.000 3.750	O1 O2 O3	4.111 4.000 4.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	4.000 4.119 4.000
M 10 4.015	B/S/G Others	3.946 4.107	M F	4.042 4.000	18-25 26-34 35-50	4.273 4.000 4.000	Post Under Lower	4.043 4.071 3.500	O1 O2 O3	4.000 4.056 4.000	>11,999 11,999-5,000 <5,000	3.813 4.071 4.143

* The last age-group (n=3), namely age older than 50 years, is eliminated in this cross tabulation
** O1: white collar/clerk, professional/technical and managerial position; O2: business owner/self-employ and government official; and O3: others

Furthermore, in order to identify significant differences of wine tourism motivations amongst wine-route visitors, by using the t-test and the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), all the motivation statements were tested between socio-demographic groups which were also quoted from Table 6.15.

- **Significant Difference of Wine Tourism Motivations within Socio-Demographic Groups**

In order to probe the significant difference of the twenty-six wine tourism motivations, [as listed in Table 6.17], among the wine-route visitors, their means were compared within socio-demographic groups. In reference to Table 6.15, the used demographic groups were rescaled according to the Chinese wine tourists at the Western Cape Wine Routes. Firstly, by using the sampling statistics, a t-test was respectively conducted within (1) home geographic categories and (2) genders. Two Null Hypotheses are set below, which both used the 95% confidence level and the critical value T=2.000:

(1) Null Hypothesis 1(1-26): there were no significant differences in the motivations of the wine-route visitors to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes between those who come from (i) Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong, as well as (2) other areas. Amongst all the calculated T values (as referred to in Appendix E: Table 2), the following were found:
   - ◎ "To taste wine" (T=2.127) is greater than the critical T value, while Null Hypothesis 1(1) was rejected;
   - ◎ "To rest and relax"(T=2.048) is greater than the critical T value, while Null Hypothesis 1(3) was rejected;
   - ◎ "To have a picnic/BBQ" (T=2.339) is greater than the critical T value, while Null Hypothesis 1(25) was rejected; and
   - ◎ "Have been to a wine route before" (T=2.164) was greater than the critical T value, while Null Hypothesis 1(26) was rejected.

(2) Null Hypothesis 2(1-26): there were no significant differences in the motivations of the wine-route visitors to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes between the male and female respondents. Amongst all the calculated T values (as referred to in Appendix E: Table 4), "to have a day out" (T=2.940) is greater than the critical T value, while Null Hypothesis 2(14) was rejected.

The significant difference was also tested amongst other demographic categories by using the one way analysis of variables (ANOVA). Four null hypotheses are set out below with the 95% confidence level:

(1) Null Hypothesis 3(1-26): there were no significant differences in the motivations of the wine-route visitors to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes in terms of age categories. All the calculated F values (as referred to in Appendix E: Table 5) were less than the critical F value (2.76), while Null Hypothesis 3(1-26), were all accepted.

(2) Null Hypothesis 4(1-26): there were no significant differences in the motivations of the wine-route visitors to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes in terms of education categories. All the calculated F values (as referred to in Appendix E: Table 6) were less than the critical F value (3.15), while Null Hypothesis 4(1-26), were all accepted.

(3) Null Hypothesis 5(1-26): there were no significant differences in the motivations of the wine-route visitors to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes in terms of occupation categories. Amongst all the calculated F values (as referred to in Appendix E: Table 7), "to socialise with friends and family" (F=5.738) is greater than the critical F value (3.15), while Null Hypothesis 5(17) was rejected.

(4) Null Hypothesis 6(1-26): there were no significant differences in the motivations of the wine-route visitors to visit the Western Cape Wine Routes in terms of personal income categories. Amongst all the calculated F values (as referred to in Appendix E: Table 8), it was found that:

◎ "To taste wine" (F=4.100) is greater than the critical F value (3.15), while Null Hypothesis 6(1) was rejected; and

◎ "To wine and dine at the wine winery/in the immediate environment" (F=5.400) is greater than the critical F value (3.15), while Null Hypothesis 6(15) was rejected.

The above motivation analysis has provided an understanding why respondents visit the Western Cape Wine Routes. In the following text, some habits of the wine-route visitors, in respect of the Wine Routes, are analysed, which include information search channels (both general and online) and wine purchase, as well as a comparison between their experiences and expectations.

6.3.6.2 GENERAL INFORMATION CHANNELS

As shown in Figure 6.15, ten of the thirteen given media are ranked based on their frequencies, which were the preferred information channels of the wine-route visitors to seek information about the Western Cape Wine Routes. Moreover, a further three media, which were used in the survey, namely "previous experience", "newspapers" and "radio", all scored zero.

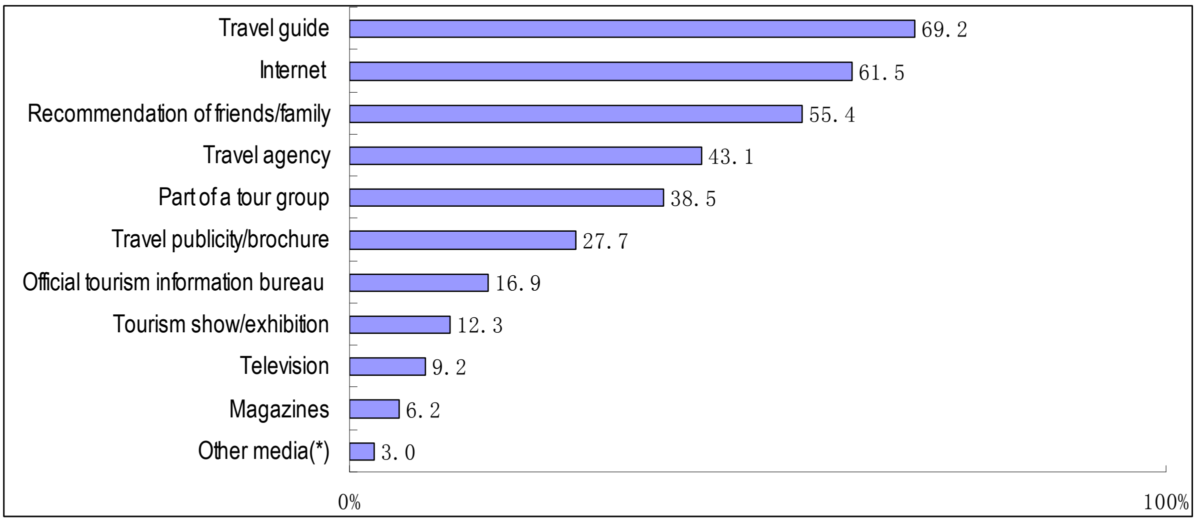

Figure 6.15: How did you find out about the Western Cape Wine Routes? (n=65) (**)

* Other media included (1) newspapers (1.5%); (2) previous experience (1.5%); and (3) radio (0.0%).

** More than one answer is possible

In reference to Figure 6.15, the most used information channels in finding out about the Western Cape Wine Routes included four, which were all greater than 40%, except for the Internet (61.5%) as mass communication[1], another three, namely travel guides (69.2%), recommendations (55.4%) and travel agencies (43.1%), are only applicable to limited audiences. On the contrary, as mass media, television, magazines and newspapers, had low frequencies. This showed that the Western Cape Wine Routes appeared less in the major and popular media in China.

6.3.6.3 THE INTERNET

The Internet, as an effective, convenient and popular channel, was highly used among the thirteen given media (in Figure 6.15). In order to analyse it in detail, forty respondents amongst the wine-route visitors who chose "Internet" during the previous question (in Figure 6.15), were asked to further indicate their used online website/search-engine from eleven given options. As listed in Table 6.19, the most favourite five were ranked by their frequencies, which rated from 50.0% to 40.0%. Moreover, another six included Google.com, Baidu.com, travel agencies' websites, CNTA.gov.cn (China National Travel Association), Tengxun QQ and MSN, which were all less than 30%.

Table 6.19: Preferred online channels in finding out about the Wine Routes (n=40) (*)

Rank	Website/Search engine	Category	Percentage
1	Destinations' tourism websites	Tourism/Destination specifically	50.0
2	Yahoo.com.cn	General website	42.5
3	Chinese tourism trade websites	Tourism specifically	42.5
4	Sina.com.cn	General website	40.0
5	Sohu.com	General website	40.0
6	Other channels (**)	---	67.5

* More than one answer is possible
** These channels included (1) Google.com (27.5%); (2) Baidu.com (15.0%); (3) Travel agencies' websites (15%); (4) CNTA.gov.cn (7.5%); (5) Tengxun QQ (2.5%) and (6) MSN (0.0%).

6.3.6.4 WINE CONSUMPTION

In this quantitative survey, wine consumption, as a typical habit of the wine tourist, was also measured amongst the wine-route visitors. Except for three non-wine buyers, by calculating the responses of 62 wine-route visitors, the total number of their purchased/would purchase wine was 114 bottles and an average is 2 bottles per person, wherein, the maximum and minimum was, respectively, 3-4 bottles and 1 bottle. While, the most of them purchased/would purchase 2 bottles, which occupied 64.5% of all the wine buyers.

[1] Until 2007, China has 182 million Internet users (82% were Wide Band users), which was the second largest in the world, only less than the US (China DCCI, 2008).

6.3.6.5 COMPARISON BETWEEN EXPERIENCE AND EXPECTATION

As reviewed during the literature study, expectation is an important psychological feature in tourists considering a destination, particularly in wine tourism destination choice. Therefore, as an evaluation dimension on the Western Cape Wine Routes, a comparison between the overall experience of the wine-route visitors and their expectations was conducted and is shown below in Figure 6.16.

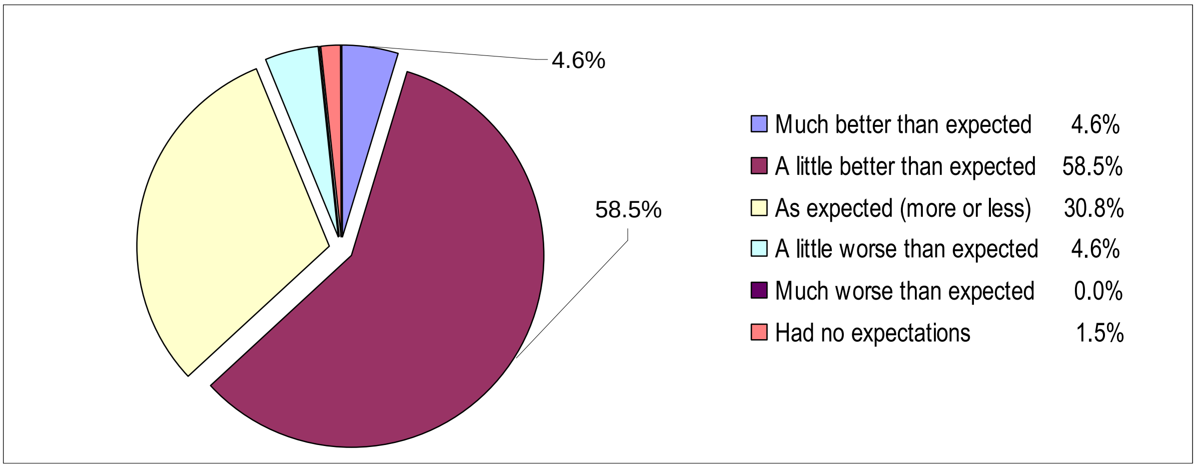

Figure 6.16: How has your overall experience of the Western Cape Wine Routes been compared to your expectations? (n=65)

As shown above, more than 60% of the respondents felt "much better than expected" (4.6%) or "a little better than expected" (58.5%). [During answer a open-ended question,] some of the respondents further commented on why they considered it so, which, in an overview, can be summarised, by the following typical quotes: (a) "*I did not really know Stellenbosch and other [local] wine routes before this visit to the country*"; (b) "*Stellenbosch and its wine routs is a special place in the country, even in the continent*"; and (c) "*its [Stellenbosch] atmosphere feels like in a small European town in Africa with fair wine*".

There were also 30.8% of the respondents who expressed "as expected", although few explanations were offered "*[the length of] this visit [in the Western Cape Wine Routes] was too short*". However, 4.6% of the respondents felt "a little worse than expected" and 1.5% had no expectations, but they had no comments.

Finally, a rating scale, as displayed below in Table 6.20, was also applied in comparing experience and expectations. Except for a response, which "had no expectation", as the missing data, another 64 valid responses were accepted to be calculated. As a result, a mean (3.641) with a standard deviation (0.651) was produced, which represented these 64 respondents' overall experience of the Western Cape Wine Routes, which was between "as expected" to "a little better expected".

Table 6.20: Extent of attitude in rating scale (*)

Extent of attitude	Much better than expected	A little better than expected	As expected (more or less)	A little worse than expected	Much worse than expected
Original code	5	4	3	2	1
Score in rating scale	5	4	3	2	1

* "Had no expectations" (code 0) was referred as missing data

6.3.7 ANALYSIS OF NON-WINE-ROUTE VISITORS

In this section, the non-wine-route visitors were also analysed in order to provide more insight into understanding how Chinese tourists considered the Wine Routes. Firstly, the barriers for non-wine-route visitors considering the Wine Routes as an attraction or destination were probed, while a brochure test followed in order to reveal their first impression/perception towards the Western Cape Wine Routes.

6.3.7.1 THE ANALYSIS OF VISIT BARRIERS

In order to probe why respondents did not visit the Wine Routes, by using multiple choices, twenty-one hypothetical barriers within twenty-three given options were measured, while thirteen major barriers are ranked below in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21: Ranking of hypothetical barriers (n=210) (*) (**)

Rank	Barrier Statement	In/External	Frequency	Percentage
1	Unaware of the wine routes	Internal	136	64.8
2	Do not have enough information about the wine routes	Internal	120	57.1
3	Insufficient time during holiday to visit wine farm	Internal	113	53.8
4	Not part of the travel itinerary	External	110	52.4
5	Was not informed by the travel agency about the wine routes	External	108	51.4
6	Part of tour group: cannot change travel plans	External	73	34.8
7	No suitable tour package was available	External	66	31.4
8	Cannot freely visit SA because of poor foreign language ability	Internal	43	20.5
9	Uncertain what there is to do there	Internal	26	12.4
10	Many other SA attractions were more appealing to my friends/family	-	25	11.9
11	Prefer Cape Town (and other SA attractions) more	Internal	17	8.1
12	Do not drink wine	Internal	12	5.7
13	Not interested in wine tourism e.g. wine tours, talks, etc.	Internal	12	5.7
16	Others (***)	-	32	15.3

* For what reason(s) did you not visit the Western Cape Wine Routes during your stay in South Africa?
** More than one answer is possible
*** Other ten options were (1) wine route is only for [certain type] of people (3.8%); (2) someone told me that the wine routes were boring/dull (3.3%); (3) it is too expensive to visit the wine route (2.9%); (4) wine route too far from place of accommodation (1.4%); (5) had been on a wine route tour before (anywhere in the world) (1.4%); (6) concerned about drinking and driving (1.0%); (7) had been to [SA] wine route before (0.5%); (8) uncertain (0.5%); (9) cannot comment (0.5%); and (10) had a bad experience at a wine route before (0%).

As shown in Table 6.21, these major barriers were divided into three levels based on their frequencies, which rated from 64.8% to 5.7%. Within the top level, all three internal and two external barriers had high frequencies between 64.8% to 51.4%, which showed the main reasons why the respondents did not visit the Wine Routes during their holiday in South Africa. In brief, these reasons can be summarised as "no time, no information or no plan in itinerary"; in other words, they did not visit the Wine Routes not because they would not like to visit them, but because there was a less awareness or stimulant. This means that these major barriers in the first level can be terminated by marketing approaches.

The following eight statements (6-13) distributed in the second and third levels, which rated from 34.8% to 5.7%, mostly belonged to internal barriers. Wherein, some barriers may be ineradicable in marketing the Wine Routes such as "not interested in wine tourism" (5.7%) and "do not drink wine" (5.7%) and some can be easily changed such as "no suitable tour package was available" (31.4%) and "cannot freely visit here because of poor foreign language ability" (20.5%).

6.3.7.2 BROCHURE TESTING

After probing the visit barriers, a brochure test was conducted in order to discover the non-wine-route visitors' impression/perception with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes. Similar to the brochure evaluation in focus groups (refer to Section 6.2.8), two wine route brochures[1] were shown to the respondents and then they were asked to make evaluations. As a result, 134 visitors have made short comments, which accounted for 63.8% of 210 non-wine-route visitors. As a result, their comments are summarised and classified, as presented below in Figure 6.17.

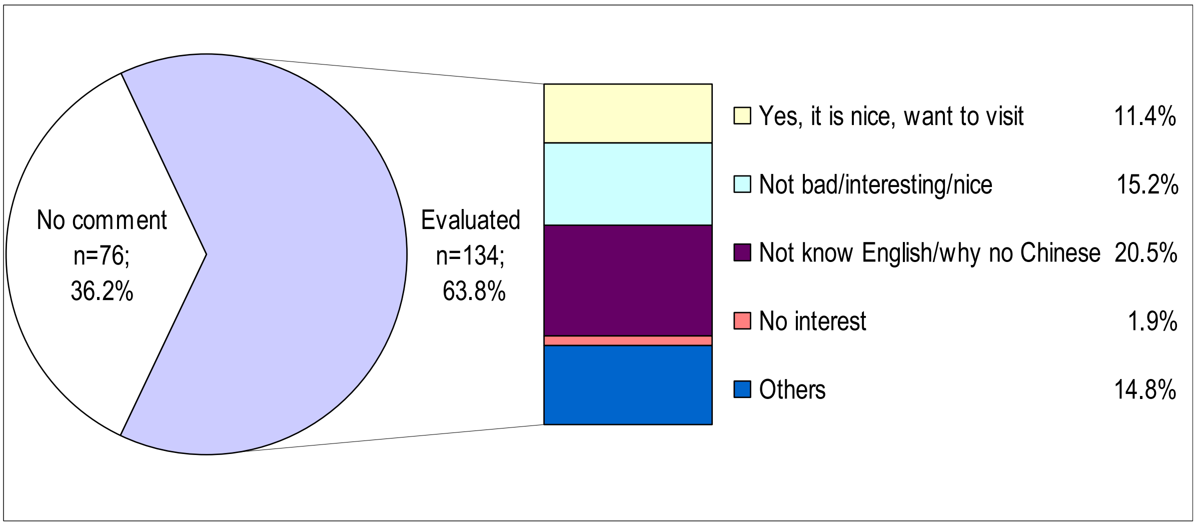

Figure 6.17: Evaluations of wine route brochures among non-wine-route visitors (n=210)

[1] The two brochures are same to the focus groups used, namely (1) Appendix C-1: "*Cape Winelands: a thousand things to do and then some wine tasting*", 2007 edition; and (2) Appendix C-2: "*Wine Capital of South Africa: Stellenbosch and its wine routes*", 2007 edition.

6.3.8 ATTITUDE OF VISIT/REVISIT THE WESTERN CAPE WINE ROUTES

After an analysis respectively to the wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors, in order to capture an overall perspective, the attitudes of all respondents in considering the Western Cape Wine Routes [Stellenbosch] as a destination or attraction to visit or revisit, were presented in the last section.

As shown in Figure 6.18, the attitudes of the respondents to re-visit the Western Cape Wine Routes were illustrated. Wherein, more than 60.0% of the respondents expressed "most definitely" (7.6%) or "definitely" to visit/revisit (54.9.0%), while 28.7% lay on an adiaphorous position and 5.4% responses were negative.

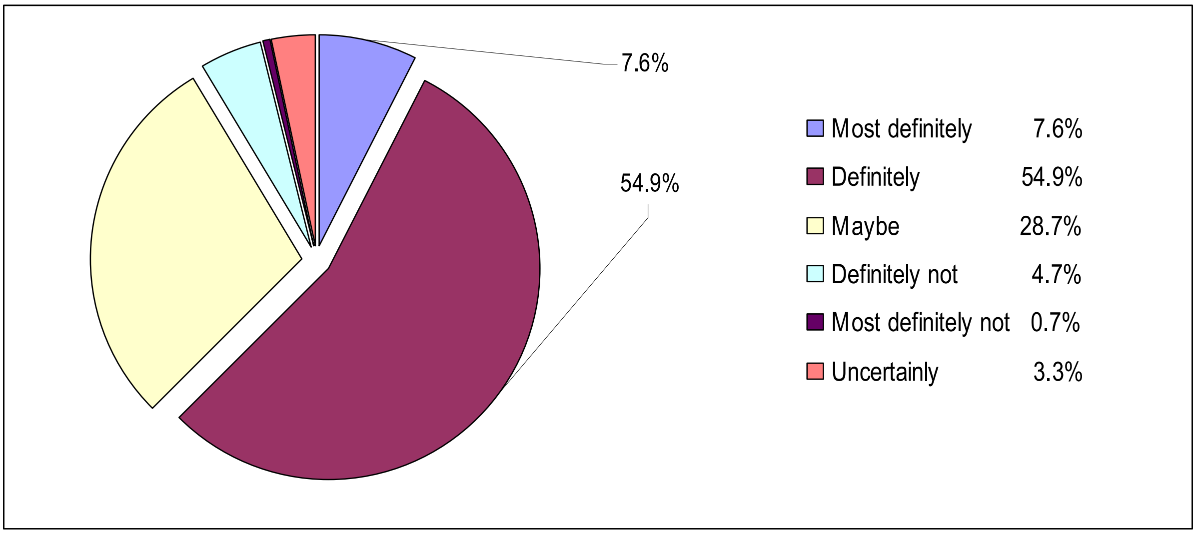

Figure 6.18: If you visited South Africa again in the near future, would you like to visit Stellenbosch/Cape Town wine routes again? (n=275)

Furthermore, a rating scale, as listed below in Table 6.22, was used to calculate a mean value (3.662) with a standard deviation (0.726) of the total attitude of the respondents (valid n=266 and missing n=9), which indicated that their visit/revisit tendency was between "maybe" to "definitely".

Table 6.22: Extent of attitude in rating scale (*)

Extent of attitude	Most definitely	Definitely	Maybe	Definitely not	Most definitely not
Original code	5	4	3	2	1
Score in rating scale	5	4	3	2	1

* "Uncertain" (code 0) was referred as missing data

Finally, an open-ended question was used in order to further probe the deep-seated reasons of their visit/revisit attitudes, although only 38.9%, namely 107 respondents, had commented. These reasons are summarised below in Table 6.23, which were under "extent of attitude", by quoting the typical comments of the respondents.

Table 6.23: Reasons to visit/revisit the Wine Routes (n=107)

Attitude	Valid n	Comment
Most definitely	12	*"This holiday in South Africa was too short; I will visit the wine route next time".*
Definitely	51	*"This holiday in South Africa was short and too busy";* *"If it [wine routes] is a part of the tour group's itinerary, I will go";* *"Next time, I will stay there [Stellenbosch] for 1-2 weeks";* *"Yes, I will visit there [wine route] but I need a Chinese guide";* *"Before I did not know the Wine Routes in South Africa";* and *"Why not, this [the Wine Routes] is a part of Cape Town and the country".*
Maybe	30	*"[The Wine Routes seems] not bad";* *"Will see";* *"I missed it this time";* *"I will go if my tour group arranges";* and *"If safe and with a Chinese guide, I will visit".*
Definitely not	6	*"I am not interested in wine";* *"No interest there [the Wine Routes]";* and *"I do not know what I can do there [wine route].*
Most definitely not	1	*"South Africa is not safe".*
Uncertain	7	*"I will not come [to South Africa] again, because I feel here is a dangerous place";* *"I do not really know what is a wine tour";* and *"If have a Chinese guide and it must be safe [I will consider]".*

6.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has analysed field data from both the group interviews and quantitative survey in respect of Chinese tourists. During the analysis of qualitative data, the structure of each focus group and its participants were firstly described, followed by six major aspects in understanding Chinese tourists with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes, which has provided meaningful and qualitative insight. These six aspects included:

(1) Outbound tourism;
(2) South Africa as a long haul tourist destination;
(3) Choosing South Africa as a long haul tourist destination;
(4) Word-association test: South Africa, Cape Town, Stellenbosch and wine route;
(5) Expectations and experiences of the Wine Routes;
(6) Wine education;
(7) Evaluation of wine route brochures; and
(8) Marketing and positioning the Wine Routes in China.

An analysis of quantitative data in this chapter comprised a series of mathematical formulae that outlined the respondents' psychologies and preferences towards the Western Cape Wine Routes. Firstly, the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents were described and rescaled into useful groups.

Following this, their motivations to visit South Africa/Cape Town and general travel habits in the country, were analysed. These included their travel partners, preferred accommodation and the visit length at destinations. A detailed analysis in respect of major global wine tourism destinations/wine routes was completed, which combined three evaluating dimensions (awareness, experience and favourite) and compared by an integrated Destination Index amongst rescaled demographic groups. As a result, a general profile of the Chinese wine tourist was identified.

Before the wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors were respectively analysed, their demographic differences were compared, which not only provided a basic understanding of their demographics, but also identified a specific segment of the Chinese wine tourist for the Western Cape Wine Routes. During the analysis of the wine-route visitors, their motivations and habits, specifically, towards the Western Cape Wine Routes, were presented. Conversely, the non-wine-route visitors' motivations, in terms of the barriers of their visit the Wine Routes, were also identified. Lastly, the attitudes of the respondents to visit/revisit the Western Cape Wine Routes were also analysed.

In total, the data analyses in this chapter revealed a broad and deep understanding of the Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes, which, as principal evidence, are used in the research recommendations, which are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Based on the presentation and discussion of the research results in Chapters Six, as well as literature studies in Chapters Two, Three and Four, this chapter concludes with recommendations regarding strategic marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes within the Chinese tourist market. Furthermore, academic recommendations for future recommended research are also proposed in this chapter.

7.2 BUSINESS RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the literature review in respect of strategic marketing in Chapter Two, a framework, as illustrated below in Figure 7.1, was used to project business recommendations. This framework includes a vision and strategic marketing directions, market and competitive analysis, as well as responded strategies and complementary strategic resources.

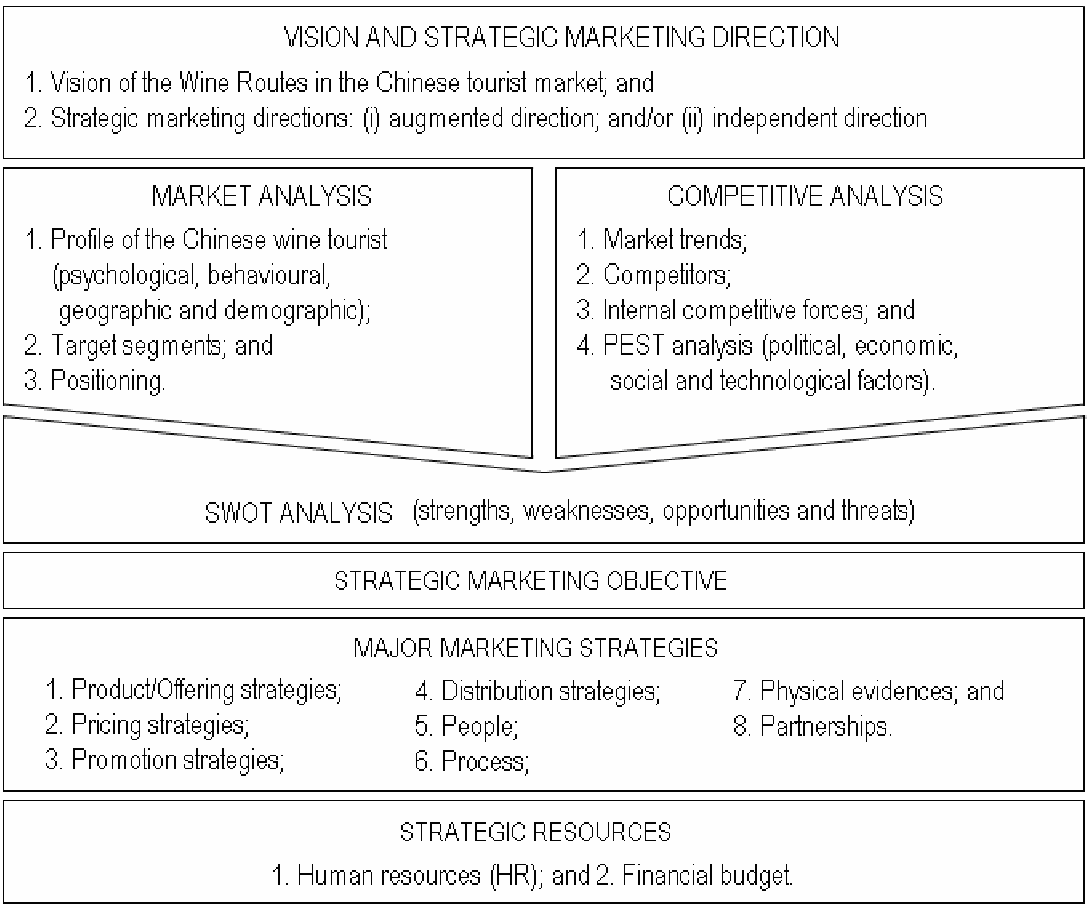

Figure 7.1: Framework for the presentation of business recommendations

Based on: the value of delivery process in Figure 2.10 (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 36); the business unit strategic-planning process in Figure 2.11 (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 51); market positioning strategy in Figure 2.15 (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2004: 67); marketing-mix strategy in Figure 2.18 (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 19); consumer behaviour in wine tourism in Figure 4.5 (Dodd, 2000: 143); Lenovo's (2001) corporate planning model

7.2.1 VISION AND STRATEGIC MARKETING DIRECTION

Strategic marketing direction of the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market is an "overall strategy" (Nelson, 2006) that responds to the South African Tourism Strategy (SA TGS) 2005-2007[1]. In other words, within this specific Chinese tourist market, the Western Cape Wine Routes should undertake the mission and objectives of South African Tourism (SAT) in it own focused ways, namely:

(1) To enrich and strengthen the attractiveness of South Africa as a tourism destination in China;
(2) To attract more Chinese visitors to South Africa, in particular the Western Cape Wine Routes; while
(3) To extend their visit length, geographic spread and expenditures within the country.

The afore-mentioned ways can also be regarded as the mission of marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in China within a tourism context. Based on this, two strategic directions can further be identified in order to market the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, which are introduced below.

- **Augmented Strategic Marketing Direction**

This is the primary strategic direction, which asserts that the Wine Routes should consciously be integrated into the holistic destination marketing of South Africa in China, by including wine tourism in South African Tourism's (SAT's) overall strategy in the Chinese tourist market. The Wine Routes/wine tourism can directly enrich the country's destination atmosphere, images and offerings in terms of the quality and diversity of the destination. Meanwhile, in this direction, the Western Cape Wine Routes can also utilise the existent and mature operational system of the National Tourism Organisation (NTO) to promote and market within China, which, ideally, is cost-saving and efficient. However, there is still a challenge, as Brower (2007) has noted that the National Tourism Organisation (NTO), in terms of South African Tourism (SAT), should realise and accept the Wine Routes as a major destination component in marketing South Africa within China. This implies another strategic marketing direction of the Western Cape Wine Routes, since it is unattached from the National Tourism Organisation (NTO).

- **Independent Strategic Marketing Direction**

This should be considered as a secondary direction, which would promote and market the Western Cape Wine Routes directly in China and be independent of South African Tourism (SAT) to a certain extent. Although this direction implicates higher marketing costs, especially in the beginning stage, promoters or operators of the Western Cape Wine Routes, such as the Wines of South Africa (WOSA), can progressively and independently operate this business in China. This direction does not mean that a

[1] The South African Tourism Growth Strategy (SA TGS) 2005-2007 is introduced earlier in Section 1.3.1.

symbiosis with the Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) is ignored, but rather that it be inhibited from the passivism and uncertain recognition of South African Tourism (SAT). In fact, this direction is more founded on a wine exporting consideration or strategy[1] that is within a context of the wine industry, rather than the tourism context, since wine tourism can also be used as an approach to promote and export South Africa's wine products to China (WOSA, 2005a). However, as a result of this independent strategic direction that will attract more Chinese tourists, their visit length, geographic spread and expenditures can also be extended in South Africa.

Strategically, it is recommended that the above two directions should be considered and adopted simultaneously. On the one hand, marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes by including it into the national destination marketing in China is a convenient and ultimate approach. On the other hand, it is also allowed to develop, promote and market the Wine Routes independently in China since this can provide more flexibility of business operations for marketers of the Western Cape Wine Routes. However, both strategic directions are impacted by an ambiguous/vague relationship between tourism and the wine industry. In other words, they rely on a clear responsibility and sufficient cooperation between the National Tourism Organisation (NTO) and the wine industry under government mandates (Brower, 2007). Meanwhile, as Special Interest Tourism (SIT), the complexity of the practical business operation in wine tourism marketing, also means that a more detailed market analysis is required.

7.2.2 MARKET ANALYSIS

Modern marketing philosophy is market-oriented (Kotler *et al*., 2006: 27), which means that customer study is a central task within the marketing context, as is this tourist study within tourism marketing. This market analysis, hence, has provided recommendations in respect of Chinese tourists with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes, as well as South Africa/Cape Town, since the study of Chinese tourists is mostly focused on in this research. In reference to the framework in Figure 7.1, recommendations in this section include a profile of the Chinese wine tourist, target segment and value positioning.

7.2.2.1 PROFILE OF THE CHINESE WINE TOURIST

Based on the literature study and research findings in the previous chapter, a set of psychological profiles of Chinese tourists in respect of South Africa, wine tourism and the Western Cape Wine Routes, are concluded in the following context, while their travelling behaviours and socio-demographic profiles are also profiled.

[1] In an exploratory study at a conference of the South African wine industry, namely Cape Wine 2006 at the Cape Town International Convention Centre (CTICC) during 4-6 April 2006, its catalogue showed that more than 60% of South African wine producers seek business partners or sales channels in China, while wine tourism has been recognised as a step towards exporting wines to the Chinese market (WOSA, 2005a).

- **Psychological Profile of South Africa**

According to results that are presented in Section 6.2.9 and South African Tourism (SAT) (2007c: 64), in considering long-haul overseas destinations, Chinese tourists prefer to visit developed countries or where there are strong historical and cultural backgrounds or natural scenery and famous landmarks. However, results in Section 6.3.2 showed that Chinese tourists exhibited an obvious tendency towards the feature of “sightseers” in South Africa, since they visited the country because of its natural environment, landmarks and wildlife. Moreover, images such as “diamonds and gold”, “rainbow nation”, “the world’s end” and “Mandela”, also added to the country’s attractiveness (refer to Tables 6.5 and 6.10). In other words, this gap between the demand of Chinese outbound tourists who are drawn to culture and history, and South Africa, has been strongly referred to as a natural and scenical destination.

In fact, as pointed out by Fan (2006) and Duan (2007), certain places that have high expectations such as the “Kruger National Park” and “Sun City”, were disappointing because many Chinese tourists did not see a lion during their day-tours at the Kruger National Park, while Sun City was seen as “an aquatic park” and a similar theme park [without the casinos] can easily be found in many cities in China. Furthermore, it should be noted that “wildlife tourism” may mostly be focused on by inbound tourism operators, but it cannot effectively differentiate South Africa with other African countries such as Botswana or Kenya.

On the other hand, although the colonial history, anti-apartheid movement and Dutch cultural heritage, as well as famous universities, are not dominant in promoting South Africa in China, many Chinese tourists still showed strong interests towards them (Lee and Wang, 2005; Duan, 2007). This means that, as the National Tourism Organisation (NTO), South African Tourism (SAT) should develop and provide new tourism offerings, which are implicated in more historical and cultural attributes for the Chinese market. This also means that wine-related tourism offerings are valuable and meaningful in this market because of their remarkable historical and cultural attributes (refer to Sections 2.2.4.1; 4.3.3 and 4.4.3), while these historical and cultural attributes of wine tourism have also been recognised by Chinese tourists (refer to Sections 6.2.7 and 6.2.9).

- **Psychological Profile of Wine Tourism/Routes**

Results, which are listed in Tables 6.5 and 6.10 showed that, although wine routes or wine-related stimulus were not mentioned as a primary image or reason that motivated Chinese tourists to visit South Africa/Cape Town, wine-related concepts in China are prevalently linked within culture and history, as well as a quality and classy lifestyle, which means that wine-related tourism [wine route] cannot only enrich a destination’s tourist offerings, but can also upgrade the destination’s image quality. In other words, this issue, therefore, may conversely reason out two logical propositions, namely:

(1) Chinese wine tourists belong to a group that has a higher education and cultural background, well-paid occupations and who are in pursuit of a quality lifestyle, which relates to the Chinese middle class. In other words, wine-related tourism offerings such as the Wine Routes can attract Chinese tourists from up-market segments. In fact, this was validated by the socio-demographic analysis in the previous chapter; and

(2) When Chinese tourists choose to visit a wine route, they are highly influenced by their perceptions of the destination countries, which are usually wine-producing countries[1] that are developed and/or have strong cultural or historical features. The group discussions [in Table 6.6] and the analysis of the Destination Index [in Table 6.12] have provided related evidences, which also showed an interaction between a wine route and its destination country.

Furthermore, within the analysis of the A/V/P Index [in Table 6.12], major global wine routes have been ranked by three dimensions, namely awareness, visit experience and visit preference, which not only provided a perceptual mapping of Chinese tourists in respect of these wine routes, but also proved the following: some Chinese tourists were aware of these wine tourism destinations, although only a small number of them have had visit experiences of, in particular, foreign wine routes, while many of them had at least one visit. This means that:

(1) As Special Interest Tourism (SIT), wine-related tourism remains immature in China, in terms of the Chinese wine tourism market that has merely begun although some wine regions and some wine tourism operators have established the services of wine tourism (Dai, 2007; Qu, 2007);

(2) Although they are short of wine-tourism-related knowledge and experiences, many Chinese tourists want to visit a wine route, which shows a large potential source-market of wine tourists; and

(3) The Chinese wine tourist market should be more educated, while, “first enter, first gain”.

- **Psychological Profile of the Western Cape Wine Routes**

The Destination Index presented that the Western Cape Wine Routes was ranked average amongst all given global wine routes, since it lacks awareness in China and almost no one visited the Wine Routes before this visit to South Africa. However, most Chinese tourists hold positive perceptions and evaluations towards the Western Cape Wine Routes. Furthermore, by using the Destination Index, a Z-test showed that there was a significant difference in the acceptance degree of Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes between wine-route visitors and non-wine-route visitors. Therefore, in the following text, the motivations of Chinese tourists’ visit to the Western Cape Wine Routes are concluded.

[1] Major wine-producing countries in the world are listed in Table 4.1.

In reference to Section 6.3.6.1, the analysis of wine tourism motivations showed that there were no major significant differences between the demographic groups of Chinese tourists in respect of their visits to the Western Cape Wine Routes. As listed below, their major motivations to visit the Wine Routes are:

- ◎ To taste wine, “4.523”;
- ◎ To do a winery or wine cellar tour, “4.308”;
- ◎ To rest and relax, “4.246”;
- ◎ To visit a historical/cultural attraction such as a wine museum, “4.215”;
- ◎ To learn more about South African people and their cultures, “4.185”;
- ◎ To buy wine, “4.169”;
- ◎ To enhance my South Africa holiday experience, “4.138”;
- ◎ To enjoy the beautiful surrounds and climate of the vineyards, “4.123”;
- ◎ As part of tour group/South Africa tour, “4.077”;
- ◎ There are a large number of wineries to choose from and visit, “4.015”;
- ◎ To learn about wine and wine making, “3.831”; and
- ◎ To buy wine-related gifts/souvenirs, “3.831”.

In addition, two highlighted activities were identified from group discussions in terms of “wine collection” [looking for aged wines] and “wine education” [certificated short wine course], which can be added to the above major wine tourism motivations. Due to the fact that there were 65 wine-route visitors within this research, a factor analysis was not applied because in order for it to be significant, samples of at least 100 respondents are needed (Kline, 1994: 49, 73). However, based on Getz and Brown’s 7-factor solution and Sparks’s 8-factor solution in Section 4.4.2, as well as Mitchell’s model in Figure 4.3, the above listed major wine tourism motivations can still be divided into four categories, namely:

(1) Core wine-related experience, which included: (i) “to taste wine”; (ii) “to do a winery or wine cellar tour”; (iii) “to buy wine”; (iv) “to enjoy the beautiful surrounds and climate of the vineyards”; (v) “to learn about wine and wine making”; (vi) “to buy wine-related gifts/souvenirs”; (vii) “wine collection”; and (viii) “wine course”;

(2) Core destination appeal, which included: (i) “to visit a historical/cultural attraction in the area such as a wine museum”; (ii) “to learn more about South African people and their cultures”; (iii) “to enhance my South Africa holiday experience”; (iv) “to enjoy the beautiful surrounds and climate of the vineyards”; and (v) “as part of tour group/South Africa tour”;

(3) Personal development, which included: (i) “to rest and relax”; (ii) “to enhance my South Africa holiday experience”; (iii) “to learn about wine and wine making”; and (iv) “wine course”; and

(4) Others, which included: (i) “there are a large number of wineries to choose from and visit”.

Furthermore, according to the theories in respect of the identification of wine tourists, which are reviewed in Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2, some attributes of Chinese wine tourists are concluded from the analysis of wine tourism motivations, which are listed as follows:

(1) Chinese wine tourists have a strong appeal for destination experience;
(2) They have a strong cultural appeal;
(3) They have a strong appeal for personal development;
(4) They have a strong social appeal;
(5) They have a strong [western] lifestyle appeal;
(6) They are drinkers;
(7) They are not necessarily wine lovers but are fanatical about anything that is wine-related; and
(8) They are not professional in respect of wine and wine knowledge.

On the other hand, five major barriers, from a tourist perspective, are the major reasons why Chinese tourists do not visit the Western Cape Wine Routes. These are listed below, which are supplemented by the psychological profiles of Chinese tourists in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes.

◎ Unaware of the Western Cape Wine Routes, 64.8%;
◎ Do not have enough information about the Western Cape Wine Routes, 57.1%;
◎ Insufficient time during holidays to visit wine farms, 53.8%;
◎ Not part of the travel itinerary, 52.4%; and
◎ Was not informed by the travel agency about the Western Cape Wine Routes, 51.4%.

Two further aspects can be added to the above barriers, namely: (1) an unawareness of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, which means that more promotions are required, in particular advertisements of the Wine Routes in China is paramount; and (2) the Wine Routes have not been combined, as a principle offering of South Africa’s destination marketing in China, however, a local tour guide in Cape Town, Li (2007), commented that, if introduced, the Wine Routes or a wine tour for Chinese visitors, would be welcome. In addition, as noted by Fan (2006) and Duan (2007), as well as during group interviews, two other factors also prevent Chinese tourists from visiting the Wine Routes, namely: (1) some negative images/reputations of the country such as low safety/security and HIV/AIDS; and (2) poor language communication between Chinese tourists and destination staff/personnel.

Furthermore, in an overall perspective, 63.1% of the wine-route visitors expressed that their experiences of the Western Cape Wine Routes were better than their expectations, while 62.5% of the total respondents would like to visit/revisit the Wine Routes when they revisit the country, which have reflected the total attitudes of Chinese tourists with regard to the Western Cape Wine Routes.

- **Travelling Habits**

In terms of travel preferences or habits of Chinese tourists, generally during their visit to South Africa and Cape Town, or specifically to the Western Cape Wine Routes, the following profiles or suggestions may be concluded:

(1) In terms of seasonality that, introduced in Section 2.3.1.4, China's two Golden Weeks, which refer to the Chinese New Year [between February and March] and China's National Day [the first week of October] are high seasons for Chinese tourists to travel overseas, in particular, to take long-haul trips. In addition, three festivals, namely Tomb-sweeping Day [in March or April], Dragon Boat Festival [in June or July] and Mid-autumn Festival [in September or October], which each combine with a weekend, may also be used for long-haul trips;

(2) Currently, the average visit length of Chinese tourists in South Africa is six days, three of which are spent in Cape Town, while less than half a day is spent in the Wine Routes, although Chinese wine tourists spend almost a day in the Wine Routes and many of them expressed that they "would like to stay longer at the Wine Routes";

(3) Presently, most Chinese leisure tourists travel overseas by taking tour groups. Usually, they travel overseas with at least one companion/partner such as friends or colleagues, but less with family, particularly children, when they visit South Africa;

(4) Some Chinese tourists showed an interest in guest houses/farm lodges, but most of them chose to stay in standard hotels [higher than 3-star grades] during their visit in South Africa and Cape Town;

(5) Most Chinese tourists visit South Africa by airplane between cities and use coaches within the cities because they travel mostly in groups;

(6) As noted by Fan (2006) and Duan (2007), although some Chinese toruists showed an interest towards western-style food, most of them chose Chinese restaurants in South Africa because of the language barrier, as well as "these [Chinese restaurants] are more familiar and relaxed" and "local food does not cater for all tastes, particularly for a large tour group";

(7) It is clear that [Chinese] travel agencies play important roles in the Chinese outbound market;

(8) Four general communication channels should be regarded, namely "travel guide", "Internet", "recommendation of friends/family" and "travel agency", since they were mostly used by Chinese tourists to find out about the Wine Routes, as well as the destination's tourism websites on online channels. However, mass media such as television and magazines were less used, which means that the Western Cape Wine Routes has not been sufficiently promoted in China;

(9) In terms of the language barrier, Chinese tourists are not accustomed to English-language brochures;

(10) As general wine visitors, most Chinese wine tourists like to purchase bottles of wine (per 750ml bottle), however, this could be restricted by limitations of air travel companies;

(11) Wine education, in terms of a short wine course, which issues a certificate, would be welcome; and
(12) South Africa's "diamonds", "golf tours" and "education tours" (Fan, 2006; Duan, 2007) are favoured by Chinese tourists and have also been included by Chinese travel agencies, which may be combined with the Wine Routes or wine tourism.

- **Socio-Demographic Profiles**

According to the research findings and South African Tourism (SAT) (2006a: 55; 2007c: 48), three cities or provinces can be targeted as the Chinese wine tourist market, particularly for the Western Cape Wine Routes, namely Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong [Guangzhou and Shenzhen]. These regions, as a priority market segment, have also been targeted by South African Tourism (SAT). Meanwhile, this market segment provides more than 12 million potential outbound tourists from their total population (approximately 45 million), refer to Figure 2.14. Moreover, there are some other regions in the Chinese mainland, which should also be regarded by the wine route marketers, and this includes Sichuan, Zhejiang, Shandong, Jiangsu, Tianjin and Chongqing (refer to Figure 6.2).

According to the demographic analysis in the previous chapter (refer to Figures 6.13, 6.14 and 6.15), Chinese wine tourists can be profiled by major demographic dimensions, which are described below:

(1) Gender: females have stronger enthusiasm for wine tourism than males;
(2) Age: 26 to 50 years should be considered based on their travel interests and favourable financial status;
(3) Education: have well-educated backgrounds, which is up to more than 14 years at least or higher;
(4) Occupation: all well-paid occupations such as white collar/clerks, professional/technical and managerial positions; and
(5) Monthly personal income: higher income level, which amounts to at least more than CNY5,000.

7.2.2.2 TARGET SEGMENT

As presented in Table 7.1, a target market segment of Chinese wine tourists, specifically towards the Western Cape Wine Routes, is proposed. This market segment is identified and described by mixing geographic, demographic, psychographic and behavioural data. In fact, this recommended target segment is "the pick of the basket" of market segments that have been targeted by South African Tourism (SAT) among the Chinese outbound tourist market. It also means that the Western Cape Wine Routes has a unanimous target population with the holistic national destination marketing of South Africa in China, while they interact positively.

Table 7.1: Target segment of Chinese tourists for the Western Cape Wine Routes

Home Geographic Distribution
Beijing (Population: 14.0 million); Shanghai (Population: 16.0 million); and Guangdong (Guangzhou and Shenzhen) (Population: 14.6 million)
Socio-Demographic Profile
Gender: both male and female, while females are dominant; Age: between 26 to 50 years old; Education: well educated background, up to more than 14 years at least or higher; Occupation: well paid occupations such as white collar/clerks, managerial positions and professional/technical; Personal monthly income: more than CNY5,000; Social class: middle class or upper; and Lifestyle and value: apt to western lifestyle and wine-related culture
Motivations to Visit South Africa
Sight-seeing beautiful (natural) landscapes and famous landmarks such as Table Mountain and Cape Point; for an exotic experience, in particular, a South African experience; and for a pure leisure holiday (escape from daily routine)
Motivations to Visit the Western Cape Wine Routes
Core wine-related experience; Core destination appeal; and Personal development
Barriers to Visit the Western Cape Wine Routes
An unawareness of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China; the Wine Routes is not combined as a principle offering of South Africa's destination marketing in China; concerns about safety and security and HIV/AIDS; and language barrier
Visit Length
In South Africa: between 3 to 14 days (average 8 days); in Cape Town: between 2 to 7 days (average 4 days); and at winelands: between 0.5 to 2 days (almost average 1 day)
Preferences or Habits in South Africa
Seasonality: February/March and September/October, as well as March/May and June/July; Travel model: mostly taking tour groups via travel agency, usually with friends/colleagues/family but less with children; Accommodation: hotels (higher than 3-star); Transport at the destination: mostly by airplane and coach tours; Food: interest in western style food and restaurants, but mostly eat at Chinese restaurants; Information search channel: travel guides, Internet, recommendations of friends/family and travel agencies; Information online channel: destination's tourism websites, Yahoo and Chinese tourism trade websites; and Shopping: wine purchase (average of 2 bottles, 750ml per bottle) and diamonds
Wine-Related Knowledge and Experience
Have more or less wine-related knowledge, but may not have done wine tours/route experience
Preferences towards Global Wine Tourism Destinations
Awareness: domestic wine routes, Bordeaux, Melbourne, Florence and Western Cape Wine Routes; Visit experience: domestic wine routes, Bordeaux, Melbourne, San Francisco-Napa Valley and Florence; and Preferred: Bordeaux, Melbourne, San Francisco-Napa Valley, Florence and Western Cape Wine Routes

7.2.2.3 VALUE POSITIONING

Based on the above market analysis and segmentation, as well as the wine tourism features in Section 4.3.3, the market value of the Western Cape Wine Routes may be positioned at two thrusts within the Chinese outbound tourist market, namely middle and top markets, while a lower market is not appropriate for the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, from a brand image perspective and long-term profits.

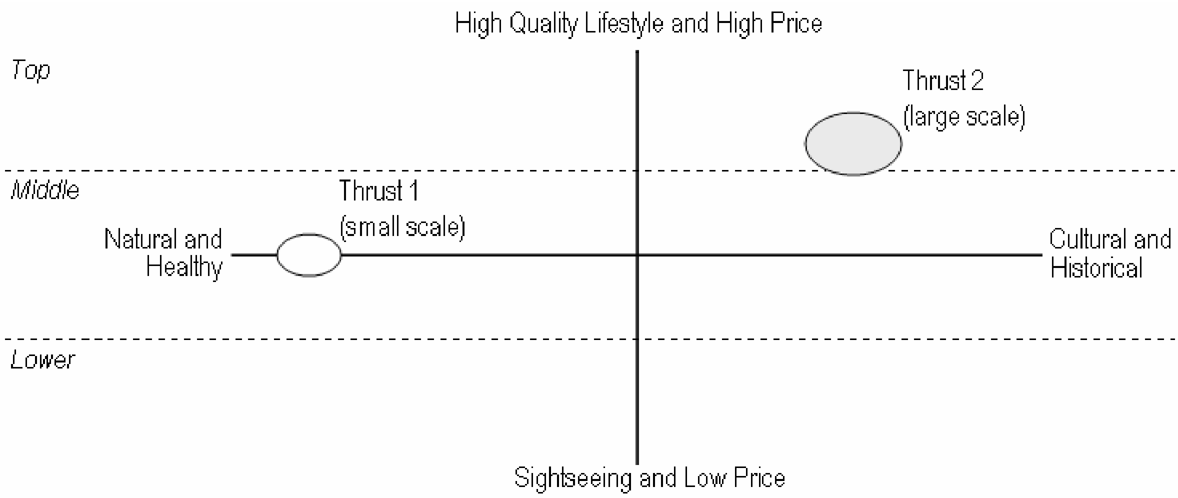

Figure 7.2: Conceptual image, price and segment scale in positioning the Wine Routes in China

As shown in Figure 7.2, two sets of product characteristics or brand images are applied, namely “nature and health” and “culture and history” on the horizontal axes. “Nature and health” are resident in the essentials of vine and wine, as well as in the brand of “biodiversity” of South African wines (WOSA, 2005e). Hence, thrust 1 would meet the basal demand of wine-drinkers and also a specific demand of Chinese tourists who consider South Africa’s beautiful scenery and landmarks. However, in comparison to the other thrust, thrust 1 should be regarded as being in a secondary value position to the Wine Routes.

At a higher level, a greater segment (thrust 2) may appear. It is close to the “cultural and historical” features of both wine and destination appeals, which can meet a favour of Chinese tourists towards the destination’s culture and history[1]. In Figure 7.2, thrust 2 also shows that in a long-term consideration, the position of the Western Cape Wine Routes should squint towards higher price with a high quality lifestyle, which means an up-market tourist segment. This position is not only reflected the wine-related perceptions/images from a Chinese perspective, but is also answered in the socio-demographic analysis of the target population, as mentioned earlier, such as high income and education, well-paid jobs and a younger age, as well as home geographic distribution and social class and lifestyle.

[1] Not only has this been proved by an analysis of the group discussions, but it was also reported by South African Tourism (SAT) (2007c: 64) that 71% of Chinese outbound tourists considered “experience foreign culture/food” as one of the five top reasons to travel overseas, while 96% considered “taste local food” and 95% considered “visit cities” as two of the five main activities in foreign countries.

7.2.3 COMPETITIVE ANALYSIS

Following the above analysis in respect of Chinese tourists, some recommendations that are implicated in market competition, are concluded. However, before considering a competitive analysis of the Wine Routes, a proposition of the national destination competitiveness, it should be noted that South Africa should differentiate itself from other countries in the world by its African features and should further differentiate itself from other African countries by its own European heritages such as the Wine Routes. In this section, the analysis included four sections, namely market trends, competitors, internal competitive forces and environmental factors, which relate to the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China.

7.2.3.1 MARKET TRENDS

An evaluation of market trends contains two levels, namely a general tourism market and a specific wine tourism market. In the following text, three main market trends with regard to Chinese outbound tourism and specific wine tourism markets are concluded:

(1) As a major tourist source-market in the world, China's outbound tourist market continually grows (detailed figures are listed in Section 1.3.2), which profits from its political stability and economic expansion, as well as a rising middle class and increasing holidays. However, along with this growth, more than 135 ADS-approved destination countries/regions (CNTA, 2008a) bid for this market, while more and more Chinese outbound travellers have become sophisticated;

(2) In a global perspective, although wine tourism is an ambiguous concept between tourism and the wine industry, it has represented sustainability and dynamism to destination tourism marketing in the form of green/ecological tourism and Special Interest Tourism (SIT) (see Section 4.1). China, as one of the major wine-producing countries in the world[1], its wine-related tourism or wine routes, has also emerged and has developed along with its booming tourism and an increasing wine market and a rising middle class and shifting consumer lifestyle (refer to Section 1.3.6); and

(3) South Africa is one of the major overseas destinations, which has been focused on by Chinese tourists[2], however, the current number of Chinese tourists who visit South Africa, has remained at a low and in a fluctuating state, which also missed an expectation of South Africa's tourism authorities although they have paid attention to this market since 2003 (refer to Section 1.3.3). Considering the current situation of South Africa as a tourist destination in China, a market opportunity has fallen on the development of new tourist offerings that are aimed at the Chinese market such as the Western Cape Wine Routes, which should answer these market trends.

[1] In 2005, China had the fifth largest planted vineyards and the seventh largest wine production in the world and was the tenth in wine consumption (VIO, 2006: 7, 46, 51); also refer to figures in Table 4.1.

[2] An online survey, using an integrated index in 2006, showed that South Africa, as a tourist destination, is ranked in eighth position among all preferred destination countries in the world (Sohu Travel, 2006).

7.2.3.2 MARKET COMPETITORS

In evaluating market competitors of the Western Cape Wine Routes, this study has focused on members of the Global Network of Great Wine Capital, as well as China's domestic wine routes. Firstly, as cited in the previous chapter, based on different evaluation dimensions, two rankings of these global wine routes are respectively presented below in Tables 7.2 and 7.3.

Table 7.2: Ranking of global wine routes by multi-variables (*) (**)

Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Wine Route	France, Bordeaux	Italy, Florence	Australia, Melbourne	China, Yantai etc.	US, San Fracisco-Napa Valley	Portugal, Porto	South Africa, Western Cape	Spain, Bilbao-Rioja	Argentina, Mendoza
Score	8.231	7.538	6.308	4.385	4.385	4.231	3.923	3.615	2.385

Source: Cited from Table 6.6
* These multi-variables included (1) safety/security; (2) price/cost; (3) distance and means of transportation; (4) total holiday can be spent; (5) destination perception/image; (6) reputation of the wine route; (7) others' opinions; (8) held specific information; (9) surrounding areas; (10) travel agency's services; and (11) language
* Score ranked from 1.0 to 9.0

As shown above in Table 7.2, by taking these eleven influencing factors into account, major global wine routes were ranked favourably, while the Western Cape Wine Routes held a low position. However, all these influencing factors were summarised after the group interviews, since they may not have been fully considered by the respondents when they provided a ranking. In fact, these factors implied a general destination rather than a specific a wine tourism destination. Furthermore, as these results are merely based on thirteen respondents, it might be based on instinctive reverberation. Therefore, based on 275 responses and three inflexible dimensions, another ranking is displayed below in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3: Ranking of global wine routes by Destination Index (%)

Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Wine Route	France, Bordeaux	China, Yantai etc.	Australia, Melbourne	Italy, Florence	US, San Fracisco-Napa Valley	South Africa, Western Cape	Portugal, Porto	Spain, Bilbao-Rioja	Argentina, Mendoza
Aware	69.1	77.1	50.2	39.3	30.2	34.5	18.2	15.3	7.3
Visited	16.7	45.1	13.5	2.9	4.9	0.0 (*)	0.7	1.1	0.0
Preferred	87.6	25.1	59.3	48.0	52.7	32.7	30.9	31.6	27.6
D-Index	57.8	49.1	41.0	30.1	29.3	22.4	16.6	16.0	11.6

Source: Cited from Table 6.12
* Excluding current visit in terms of "previously visited"

A comparison of the above two rankings, among foreign wine tourism destinations, four competitors of the Western Cape Wine Routes appeared, which are further identified as follows:

(1) France's Bordeaux and Italy's Florence can be regarded as the top favourite overseas wine routes for Chinese tourists, since they have the most popular tourism destinations and have famous and traditional wine-related cultures and reputations;
(2) Australia's Melbourne followed, whose wine tourism has a systematic layout and governmental recognition, as well as active strategies, particularly in China; and
(3) San Francisco-Napa Valley benefited from the general attractiveness of the US as a destination, while its advantages are augmented, since the US obtained Approved Destination Status (ADS) in 2008.

There are two advantages that can render the Western Cape Wine Routes more competitive, namely:

(1) South Africa's wine routes is an exclusive wine tourism destination on the African continent; and
(2) In comparison to other wine routes, the Western Cape Wine Routes can combine with local unique tourist attractions such as Cape Town, Cape Point and Table Mountain, as well as a mature infrastructure of the tourism industry.

Furthermore, two constructive variables were taken from Table 7.3, namely "awareness" and "preference", to construct a cross axle, as shown below in Figure 7.3. Within this cross axle, the current position of the Western Cape Wine Routes, amongst major global wine tourism destinations, and a strategic means to reach an ideal position via a midway position, are suggested.

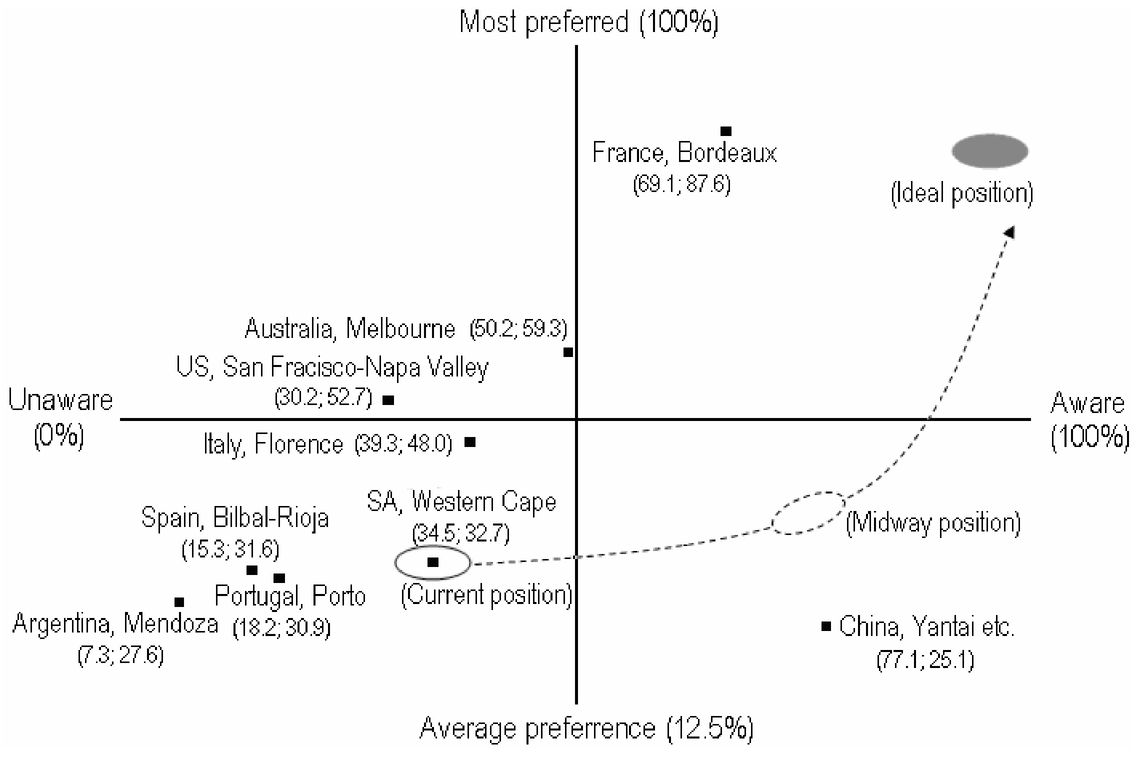

Figure 7.3: Western Cape Wine Routes amongst global wine tourism destinations

Source: Based on the data in Table 7.3 ("aware" and "preferred" rows)

As shown in Figure 7.3, a broken line suggests that the Western Cape Wine Routes should employ strategies in order to move to an ideal position from its current position. This means that the Western Cape Wine Routes should firstly be fully promoted in China in order to establish its reputation before it can reach an ideal position.

7.2.3.3 INTERNAL COMPETITIVE FORCES

The following text describes major competitive forces of the Western Cape Wine Routes, which are both positive and negative, with regard to the Chinese tourist market.

- **Positive Side**

(1) South Africa's growing wine industry is a basic competitive force in respect of the Wine Routes;
(2) The diversity of wine-related and non-wine-related tourism resources within the Wine Routes/Cape Winelands are primary advantages of such internal forces;
(3) The matured tourism infrastructure within the Western Cape Wine Routes and a sound operation of the wine tourism business, are also major advantages; and
(4) Tourism infrastructure and unique tourism resources of surrounding areas such as Cape Town, the broader Cape Peninsula, the Western Cape and the country, as well as the continent, can be combined with the Western Cape Wine Routes as important competitive forces.

- **Negative Side**

(1) Cooperation between South Africa's National Tourism Organisation (NTO) and its wine industry is weak within the wine tourism sector. Brower (2007) has noted that South African Tourism (SAT) is not really interested in incorporating wine as a major feature and leaves the wineries and the [Western Cape] province to market themselves because this is apparently an industry, which benefits white people;
(2) There are no clear and executionable strategies currently in South Africa to develop or market its wine tourism or wine routes, not only specifically for the Chinese tourist market, but also for other mature markets such as the UK, Germany or the US;
(3) Marketers and operators of wine tourism/routes in South Africa are short of not only research and budgets specifically towards the Chinese market, but also lack sufficient expert personnel and information, provided in the Chinese language, which specifically caters for Chinese tourists (Waterford, 2005; Viljoen, 2005b; Harrison, 2005; Frater, 2006; Morgenthal, 2006, 2007); and
(4) Some general negative issues such as the crime rate and HIV/AIDS, which have damaged the country's reputation as a tourist destination.

7.2.3.4 ANALYSIS OF ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

A PEST analysis, namely political, economic, social and technological factors, as major environmental factors, which may impact on the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, is concluded.

- **Political Factors**

Firstly, political factors mentioned below may directly or indirectly impact on marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market.

(1) At a macro level in China, the stability of its political system provides a basic condition for its overseas tourism sector;
(2) Another macro political factor is the fact that, along with the "2007 Beijing Summit and Third Ministerial Conference of Forum on China-Africa Cooperation", Africa, as well as South Africa, have become focal points for Chinese investors and travellers;
(3) Although South Africa has been approved as the twenty-forth overseas tourism destination in the Chinese market since 2003, more than 135 countries/regions in the world have also been granted Approved Destination Status (ADS) until 2008. It means that this political advantage of South Africa against other destination countries in the Chinese tourist market, is lost;
(4) Complex visa regulations from the South African Embassy in China has limited independent Chinese tourists who travel to South Africa;
(5) Since China's holiday system was changed in 2008, its citizens presently have more flexible holidays, which may further stimulate its outbound market, especially for independent tourists;
(6) There are no airline companies in either country that directly links Cape Town and any cities in the Chinese mainland. This means that all Chinese tourists who visit the country have to use Johannesburg as their terminal airport, which increases their travel costs; and
(7) Some general safety/security and healthy issues such as crime and HIV/ADIS have resulted in the Chinese government cautioning its citizens when travelling to the country. For example, the Ministry of Education of China (2007) and the National Tourism Administration of China (CNTA) (2008b) usually caution Chinese citizens who choose South Africa as a study destination or a holiday destination.

- **Economic Factors**

China's rapid economy[1] and its increased personal discretionary spending[2] have accelerated its outbound tourism sector, which has provided opportunities for the global tourism market, as well as for

[1] China's 2007 GDP reached USD3.4 trillion and ranked fourth in the world.
[2] China's average personal discretionary spending [in urban areas] was CNY13,786 in 2007, which increased 17.2%; CNY17,831 in Shanghai, CNY16,553 in Beijing and CNY13,405 in Guangdong (SSBC, 2008b).

South Africa's inbound tourism. Meanwhile, the exchange rate of Chinese Yuan (CNY) has remained within revaluation since 2005 (People's Bank of China, 2008) and appreciated approximately 57.9% in comparison with the South African Rand (ZAR)[1] from January 2005 (as shown below in Figure 7.4), which will further stimulate Chinese outbound tourists to choose South Africa as their holiday destination.

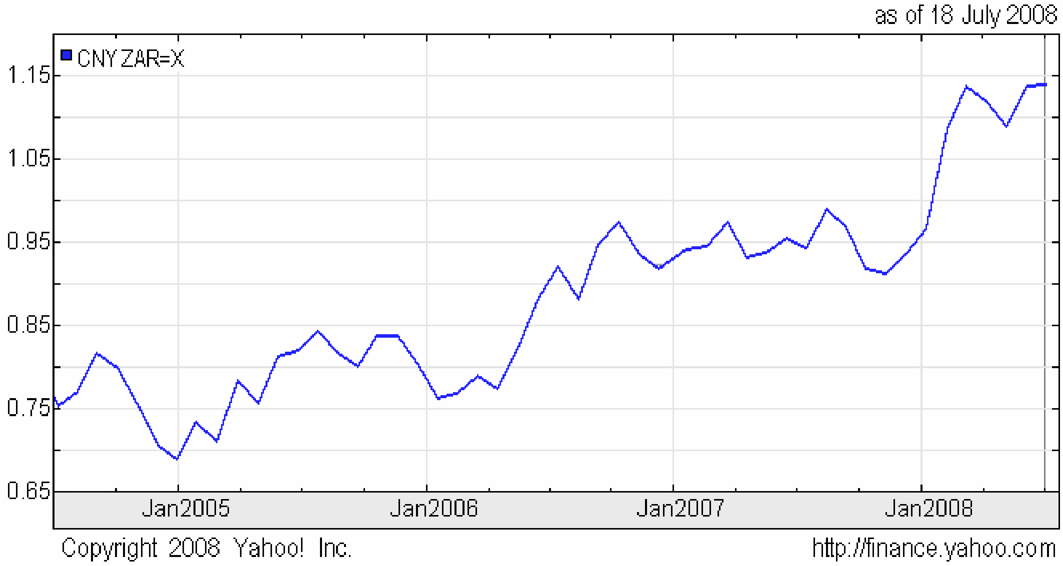

Figure 7.4: Exchange rate of Chinese currency during the past four year

Source: Yahoo Finance (2008)

- **Social Factors**

Along with China's rapid economy, a Chinese middle class has emerged, particularly in the large cities. This middle class not only has a strong purchasing power, but also advocates a western lifestyle such as wine consumption and overseas holidaying, which, as a social shift, may further stimulate the growth and development of the Chinese wine tourist market. In fact, this Chinese middle class has overlapped the targeted Chinese wine tourist market, as mentioned earlier.

- **Technological Factors**

Lastly, a technological factor, in terms of the Internet or IT (Information Technology), can also impact on the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese market, since:

(1) South Africa, as a long-haul destination, can be broadly accessed via the Internet, which provides potential Chinese tourists with valuable information; and

(2) As mentioned earlier, the Internet is widely used in China[2].

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[1] CNY1=ZAR0.701 (18 January 2005); CNY1=ZAR1.107 (18 July 2008) (Yahoo Finance, 2008).

[2] According to China Internet Network Information Centre (CNNIC) (2008), until 31 December 2007, the total number of Internet users in China was 210 million, as well as 122 million users of Broad Band.

7.2.4 SWOT ANALYSIS

In order to conclude the above internal and external analysis, as well as the Chinese tourist market, the following SWOT analysis provides a description of the total conditions of the Western Cape Wine Routes, within an evaluation formulation, with regard to its marketing in the Chinese tourist market.

Table 7.4: SWOT analysis to market the Western Cape Wine Routes in China

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
● South Africa/Cape Town is one of the most famous tourist destinations in the world; ● South Africa is a major wine-producing country with a unique wine history; ● South Africa has had Approved Destination Status (ADS) for several years; ● The Western Cape Wine Routes has rich and diverse wine-related tourism resources; ● The Western Cape Wine Routes has a well-developed tourism infrastructure; ● There are rich and unique tourism resources and well-developed tourism infrastructure in surrounding areas, which can be used to combine with the Wine Routes; ● The business operating system of the Western Cape Wine Routes is currently mature; ● Cape Town is a member of the Global Network of the Great Wine Capitals; and The South African wine industry boosts and promotes its Wine Routes internationally.	● South Africa is not regarded as a traditional wine country with a rich wine-related culture or history in China, while Chinese people are not aware of the Western Cape Wine Routes; ● There is a weak cooperation between the National Tourism Organisation (NTO) and the wine industry in the wine tourism sector in South Africa; ● There are no sound strategies for wine tourism, especially for the Chinese market; and ● The Western Cape Wine Routes is short of resources for the Chinese market such as specific market research, financial support and human resources (HR).
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
● China provides a huge outbound tourist market, which continues to grow; ● South Africa's National Tourism Organisation (NTO) regards China as an important tourist source market; ● More and more Chinese tourists visit South Africa albeit at a slow pace; ● The expanding wine market in China may stimulate wine-related tourism in China; ● Wine tourism/routes have emerged in China and are getting stronger; ● The Western Cape Wine Routes may enrich South Africa's tourism offerings in China; ● Wine tourism may upgrade South Africa's tourism brand/image/atmosphere; and Wine tourism provides an added approach to promote South Africa's wine in China.	● Wine destination countries such as Australia, the US and France consciously promote their wine tourism/routes in China, not only for tourism, but also for wine exporting; ● More and more African countries such as Kenya, Zambia and Mozambique have been granted Approved Destination Status (ADS) by China's tourism authority, which means that South Africa faces more competitors from the continent; and ● The reputation of the Western Cape Wine Routes, as well as South Africa as a tourist destination in China, has been damaged by some general safety/security and health issues.

7.2.5 STRATEGIC OBJECTIVE

Based on the conclusion in respect of Chinese wine tourists, market competition and environment, a strategic objective of marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in China in a current introduction stage[1], can be determined in a non-parameterisation form, namely:

> By shaping appropriate wine-related tourism offerings for Chinese tourists and integrating them into South Africa's image and overall tourism marketing strategy in China, especially taking full advantage of the communication mix to enhance the awareness of South African wine tourism in the market to attract more Chinese tourists to visit the Wine Routes, as well as South Africa.

In fact, the above proposed strategic marketing objective involves three ability objectives on offering, partnership and communication, and a non-numerical market objective. However, the particular marketing strategies, which undertake the above objectives of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, are recommended below.

7.2.6 RECOMMENDED MARKETING STRATEGIES

The recommended marketing strategies, as solutions for the opportunities and challenges of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, covered eight aspects in the tourism business field in terms of the 8Ps of the tourism marketing mix, namely offering, pricing, promotion (communications) and distribution, as well as process, people, physical evidence and partnerships (refer to Section 2.3.3).

7.2.6.1 OFFERING STRATEGY

In this specific case, offering strategy implies two levels. Firstly, from a national destination perspective, the Wine Routes, as a geographic-based attraction, is one of South Africa's major tourism offerings that should be added to the standardised holiday package of South Africa for Chinese tourists.

Table 7.5: A reformed holiday package of South Africa for the Chinese tourist market

Day 1	Depart to Johannesburg, South Africa
Day 2	Sightseeing in Johannesburg; visit the Gold Mine city and watch the mining process
Day 3	Leave for Sun City; enjoy a day amongst the wildlife at Pilanesburg; try luck at casino at night
Day 4	Visit the Lion Park and then head for the Museum after lunch; visit diamond mining in the afternoon
Day 5	Arrive in Cape Town in the morning; go to Table Mountain; stop at ostrich farm and eat ostrich lunch
Day 6	Visit Seal Island; sightseeing at the Cape of Good Hope; visit penguin beach; back to Cape Town
Day 7	**A day tour at wine routes and overnight at Stellenbosch town**
Day 8	Shop at V&A shopping centre and head for the airport after lunch
Day 9	Arrive in China the next day

Source: Adapted from South African Tourism (SAT) recommended holiday package for Chinese tourists in Table 1.4.

[1] Refer to the PLC model in Figure 2.23 and the eight stages of wine tourism development in Table 4.7.

On the other hand, there are also multiform wine-related and non-wine-related tourism offerings within the Western Cape Wine Routes where the term "wine routes" is referred to as a geographic destination (see winelands map in Figure 1.3). As shown below in Table 7.6, a matrix that is based on the motivation categories of Chinese wine tourists[1] and two sets of win tourism characteristics[2] classifies and exhibits major wine-related offerings in the Western Cape Wine Routes for Chinese tourists.

Table 7.6: Offerings of the Western Cape Wine Routes for Chinese tourists

	Nature and health attributes	History and cultural attributes
Core wine-related offerings	1. Wine tasting; 2. Vineyards; 3. Harvesting grapes; and 4. Joyrides at winelands	1. Cellar tours; 2. Wine courses; 3. Food and wine/restaurants; 4. Wine museums/wine farm museums; 5. Aged-wine collections; 6. Wine festivals; and 7. Wine-related souvenirs
Core destination-related offerings	1. Winelands spas (Cedarberg/Worcester); 2. Outdoor adventures at winelands; 3. Winelands golfing; and 4. Whale watching (Hermanus, Walk Bay)	1. Hotels/farm lodges; 2. Township visiting (Stellenbosch, Franschhoek); 3. Diamond factory; 4. Stellenbosch University; 5. Diverse farms (brandy/cheese/cherry/strawberry); 6. Nightlife experiences (Stellenbosch Town); and 7. Heritages such as Rock Art or Freedom Road

Overall, as illustrated below in Figure 7.5, the Western Cape Wine Routes can further be shaped into a three-level model, which provides wine-related experiences as the core value.

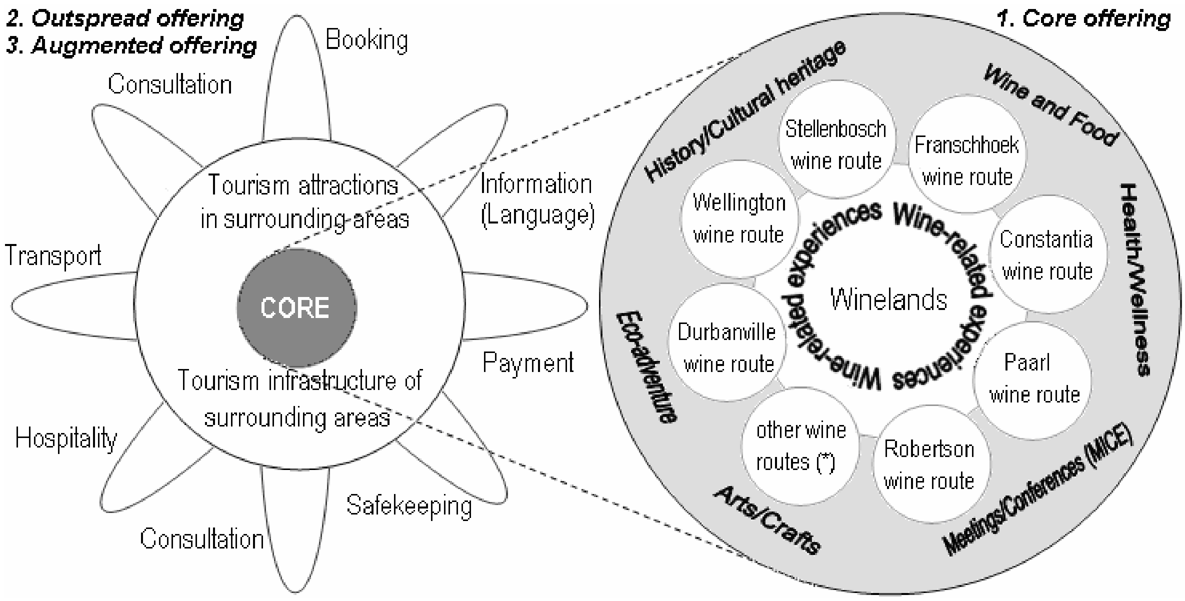

Figure 7.5: Shaping the Western Cape Wine Routes as a tourist offering

Based on: Lovelock and Wirtz' (2004: 103) model in Figure 2.20; George's (2004: 189) model in Figure 2.21; and Cape Winelands District Municipality's (2003: 6-7) Tourism Marketing Strategy

(*) Fifteen wine routes in the Western Cape are listed in Figure 1.4 (each of them is a geographic-based offering)

[1] Refer to the psychological profile of the Chinese wine tourist in page 200.

[2] Refer to the value positioning of the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market in Figure 7.2.

The right side of Figure 7.5 shows that the core offering of the Wine Routes is both tangible and intangible and integrates all tourism attractions and infrastructure in the geographic winegrowing areas. In nature, this core offering supplies the central problem-solving benefits that Chinese tourists need. At this level, based on the psychological profile of the Chinese wine tourist in Section 7.2.2.1, some core offerings of the Wine Routes are proposed to recommend to Chinese tourists, which include (i) wine tasting and cellar tours; (ii) wine courses or short wine courses, which provide official certificates; (iii) wine collection such as aged-wine collection; (iv) [Stellenbosch] university visiting; (v) shopping at the Wine Routes (wine, cheese, arts/crafts, diamonds and other souvenirs); and (vi) nightlife in Stellenbosch.

Refer to the left side of Figure 7.5, the outspread offering is also both tangible and intangible, as it includes tourism attractions and infrastructure in its surrounding areas, which can be combined or used by the Wine Routes. In this specific case, the surrounding areas such as Cape Town should be made use of, not only for its tourism resources such as Table Mountain, but mostly because of its infrastructure such as hotels and airports. In fact, most Chinese tourists were Cape Town-based to visit the Stellenbosch or Constantia wine routes. In Figure 7.5, the augmented offering includes facilitating services such as information, bookings and payment, as well as enhancing services such as transportation, safekeeping and hospitality. At this level, two aspects, namely information [language] and safekeeping should be noted. Firstly, language is a huge barrier for Chinese tourists, which means that there is a need to provide sufficient and multiform information of the Wine Routes to them, not only at the destination, but also in China. Secondly, a safety image of the destination, or at least a safety image for the Western Cape Wine Routes, should be widely proclaimed.

Finally, as an important issue for branding the Wine Routes, the name “Western Cape Wine Routes” should be replaced by “Cape Town Wine Routes”, since the name “Cape Town” is more famous in China than the name “Western Cape”, while Cape Town and the Winelands are intertwined geographically. Another brand name that can be used is “Stellenbosch Wine Routes” because it has strong historical and cultural attributes, and also implicates a wine-related background.

7.2.6.2 PRICING STRATEGY

South Africa, as a long-haul tourist destination in China, maintains its prices at a high level. However, this does not mean that the pricing strategies of the Western Cape Wine Routes should be at a low-price level in China since its market value has been positioned within the levels of middle and up-market (refer to value positioning in Figure 7.2). Practically, based on the offering lines in Table 7.6, a two-section-pricing strategy, in respect of marketing the Wine Routes in China, is recommended. The first section of pricing, including some basic offerings such as wine tasting and cellar tours, can be packaged into the fixed costs of Chinese tourists prepaid to the travel agency, since most of them take part in group tours. The second section is unfixable and flexible, which depends on what offerings they choose when they visit the Wine Routes.

7.2.6.3 PROMOTION STRATEGY

As mentioned earlier in Section 2.3.3.3, not only is marketing promotion an effective way to influence the target market, but its activities can also create a demand for the offerings. In this case, promotion, or the mix of communications, is a key strategy, since the low awareness degree of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China is the biggest challenge. In other words, the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market remains in an introduction or awareness stage and solving this problem is a primary task of marketing promotion in its communication process (refer to ATR model in Section 2.3.3.3). Furthermore, as shown earlier in Figure 7.3, promotion is also a way to move the Western Cape Wine Routes to an ideal position from its current position in the Chinese tourist market.

However, in this case in particular, as a foundation for promotion strategies, the basic elements of the communication process (refer to Figure 2.24), are identified below:

(1) The source, namely South Africa's wine tourism promoters such as Wines of South Africa (WOSA), may also include the National Tourism Organisation (NTO) in terms of South African Tourism (SAT);
(2) Receiver or audience, namely the Chinese wine tourist, refer to the target market in Table 7.1;
(3) The message involves multitudinous and complex content but can be encoded by the brand name of the Wine Routes, namely "Cape Town Wine Routes" or "Stellenbosch Wine Routes", which should combine associations/images such as "wine and wine-related lifestyle, history, culture, nature, health, beauty, romanticism, quality, leisure and African experience". However, based on major influencing factors that Chinese tourists considered to choose a wine tourism destination (refer to Section 6.2.9), the message is grouped and illustrated below in Figure 7.6:

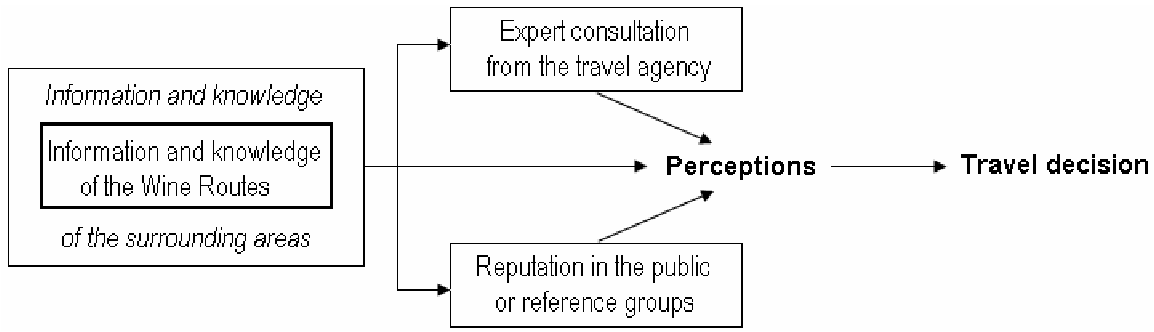

Figure 7.6: The message with message sources

(4) Media or communication channels, in this case, should assume a combined means; and

(5) Noise, in this case, points to (a) doubt/questions towards South Africa as a famous wine country; (b) some negative images such as safety/security issues; and (c) a lack of Chinese information.

Furthermore, based on the literature study of the marketing communication mix for services (refer to Section 2.3.3.3) and the research findings in the previous chapter (refer to Sections 6.3.6.2 and 6.3.6.3), the communication tools or channels that can be used to promote the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, are recommended below:

(1) Advertising should be regarded as a primary technique to promote the Wine Routes in China, particularly by television, the Internet and magazines, since (i) mass communication channels are effectual in the awareness stage of new tourism offerings; (ii) these channels can provide visual and vivid interfaces for tourism offerings. However, it should be noted that, presently, there is almost no advertising or other promotional activities of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China by the mass media (as verified in Figure 6.15). In addition, for a cost consideration, regional television stations or magazines can be prioritised, especially in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong;

(2) Sales promotions, in terms of travel agencies (both in China and in South Africa), can play a key role in promoting the Western Cape Wine Routes in China because most Chinese tourists travel overseas via travel agencies and, as an insider consultant, the travel agency usually influences the destination choice or the determination of a concrete holiday itinerary;

(3) Annual or irregular tourism trade shows or exhibitions are also meaningful ways to promote the Western Cape Wine Routes in China. Other Public Relations (PR) means to promote South African wine tourism or the Wine Routes may include special television programmes or attendance at events such as the Yantai Wine Festival;

(4) Within instructional materials, the destination's websites and travel guides, as well as wine route brochures and Compact Discs (CDs), are also important to promote the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, which should be provided in the Chinese language as well; and

(5) Lastly, personal communication channels should not be ignored. For example, a South African wine course can be provided in China, not only as education for South Africa's wine market, but also to promote the Wine Routes. Additionally, as part of sales promotion, local guides should be encouraged to introduce the Wine Routes to Chinese visitors in South Africa. Once these visitors return to China, more communication may take place at home by "word-of-mouth" with others.

Finally, based on the Push and Pull strategy in promotion (refer to Figure 2.25) and the distributing channels of South Africa's tourism in China (refer to Figure 2.27), several approaches, as illustrated in Figure 7.7, can be used separately or combined to promote the Western Cape Wine Routes in China.

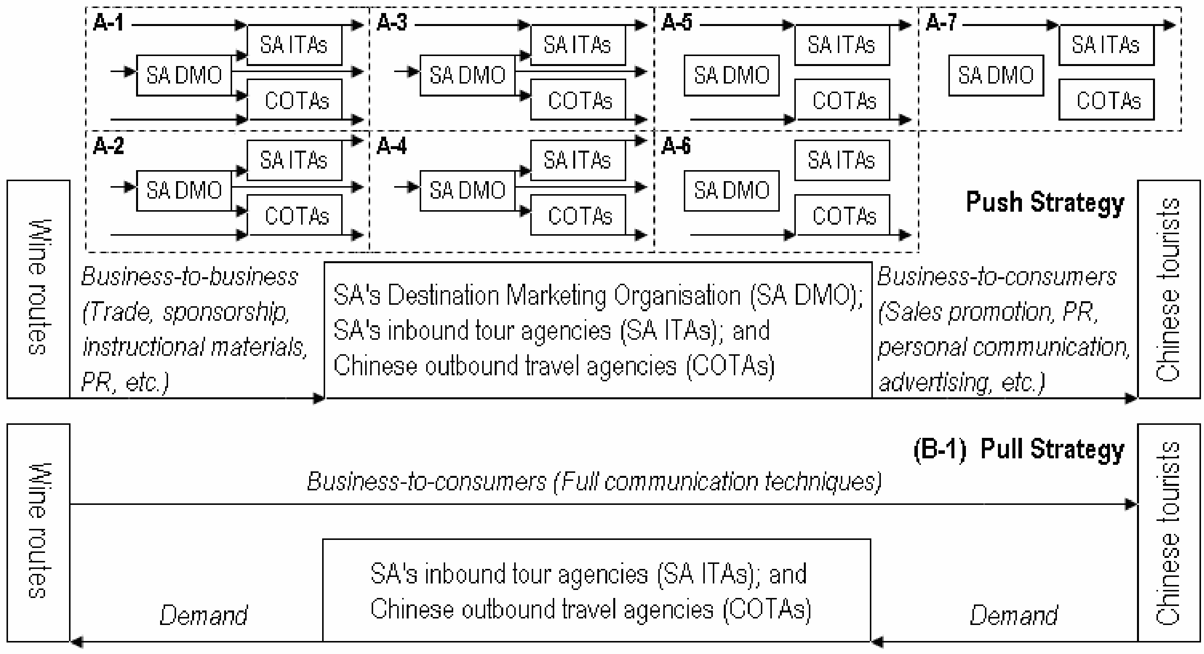

Figure 7.7: Push and Pull strategy to promote the Western Cape Wine Route in China

As shown in Figure 7.7, the Push strategy implicates seven approaches, based on the intensities, which are ranged from A-1 to A-7:

- ◎ A-1: full Push strategy;
- ◎ A-2: push South African Tourism (SAT) and directly connect with Chinese travel agencies;
- ◎ A-3: push South African Tourism (SAT) directly by via local travel agencies;
- ◎ A-4: fully push South African Tourism (SAT);
- ◎ A-5: Push strategy without the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO);
- ◎ A-6: directly stimulate Chinese travel agencies; and
- ◎ A-7: small-scale Push strategy within the destination.

Meanwhile, the Pull strategy (B-1, in Figure 7.7) provides a possibility to apply all the communication techniques directly to the Chinese tourist market. However, in this case, a combined strategy in terms of both push and pull strategy, which integrate flexible communication techniques, would be suggested to promote the Western Cape Wine Routes in China.

7.2.6.4 DISTRIBUTION STRATEGY

According to Section 2.3.3.4, any distribution strategies in the Chinese outbound tourist market, not only for the Wine Routes, but also for South Africa, are restricted by the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system and other China's outbound travel regulations, as well as South Africa's specific inbound visa regulations.

Nevertheless, from the position of wine route marketers, three distribution strategies can be applied to market the Western Cape Wine Routes in China. Firstly, the existing distribution system of South Africa's tourism in China, as presented earlier in Figure 2.27, can directly be used via the National Tourism Organisation (NTO) for efficiency, effect and cost purposes. However, this way mostly depends on the recognition of South African Tourism (SAT) towards the value of the Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market and a symbiosis between the wine and tourism industry.

Furthermore, based on the existing distribution channels of South African Tourism (SAT) for the Chinese tourist market, the operators of the Western Cape Wine Routes can also establish own distribution channels in both South Africa and China for Chinese tourists, but this implies high costs and a complex operation. According to Appendix D, 19 ADS-approved South African inbound tour operators and the top 20 Chinese outbound travel agencies in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong, are listed. Lastly, as a direct marketing strategy, the Internet should be considered because not only can it play an assistant role for general distribution channels, but it can also directly market an increasing number of independent Chinese tourists.

7.2.6.5 PEOPLE, PROCESS AND PHYSICAL EVIDENCE

As outlined earlier in the literature review in Section 2.3.3.5, people, process and physical evidence are also major strategies in the tourism marketing context. Therefore, some relevant recommendations are provided in the following text.

Firstly, with regard to Chinese visitors who are already in the Western Cape area, local tour guides, as advisers, who are usually Chinese speakers and are from ADS-approved South Africa's inbound tour operators/agencies, play an important and meaningful role, since they can easily influence the concrete schedule and routing of Chinese visitors within the destination. Local tour guides also play an important role in the personal promotion of the Western Cape Wine Routes among Chinese visitors at the destination. In other words, they should be trained and encouraged to introduce and show the Wine Routes to Chinese visitors who are already in South Africa.

Secondly, based on strategic marketing directions, the task of process or blueprinting the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market, may involve two levels, namely:

- ◎ At a national level, as an offering or a destination component, the Wine Routes should be programmed into a holistic layout of the destination marketing of South Africa in China; and
- ◎ Within the Western Cape Wine Routes, an internal self-layout is also needed. This should include tourism resources scanning, offerings formulating and marketing operations.

In fact, the physical evidence is a broad context. However, in this case, wine and the geographic winegrowing area should be regarded as primary physical evidences. Information materials such as websites, travel guides, brochures and video Compact Discs (CDs), are basic physical evidences to promote the Wine Routes in China, but they should also be available in the Chinese language. Moreover, other physical evidences may include certificates for wine courses, townships, architecture, staff, hotels and restaurants, as well as diamonds or other gifts and souvenirs.

7.2.6.6 PARTNERSHIPS

Finally, as a strategy for tourism marketing, partnerships are significant in the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, except for internal partnerships within the Western Cape Wine Routes, while some cooperation or business alliances may include:

(1) Cooperation between South Africa's National Tourism Organisation (NTO) and its wine industry;
(2) Cooperation between the operators/marketers/promoters of the Western Cape Wine Routes and Chinese outbound tourism agencies (refer to Appendix D-1);
(3) Cooperation between the operators/marketers/promoters of the Western Cape Wine Routes and ADS-approved South Africa's inbound tour operators (refer to Appendix D-2);
(4) A partnership between the Western Cape Wine Routes and Chinese wine routes such as Yantai;
(5) Cooperation between operators/marketers/promoters of the Western Cape Wine Routes and Chinese media; and
(6) Within a global perspective, a greater wine tourism alliance can be formed or based on the Global Network of the Great Wine Capital, which cannot only generate some new wine-related tourism offerings, but also improve the reputation of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China.

7.2.7 COMPLEMENTARY STRATEGIC RESOURCES

In order to implement the above recommended strategies, complementary strategic resources, in terms of human resources (HR) and financial budgets for marketing the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, should also be considered. Firstly, as part of marketing strategies, the Western Cape Wine Routes should employ competent personnel or experts that are particularly aimed at the Chinese market because of different cultures and language barriers. Then, as a basic marketing resource, the financial resources are most important, especially to develop this new market. However, it seems that South Africa's wine route promoters are short of financial budgets for the Chinese market.

7.3 ACADEMIC RECOMMENDATIONS

Furthermore, some academic recommendations are presented below, which warrants further research within this study field, particularly because of the demarcations and limitations of this research:

(1) This research has only focused on Chinese tourists at the destination, in terms of the Western Cape, but, perhaps more detailed and valuable information of Chinese wine tourists can be obtained in China, especially amongst China's wine tourism destinations such as the Yantai area;
(2) The sample size of Chinese wine tourists [wine-route visitors] was 65, which led to a factor analysis of the wine tourism motivations being useless. Therefore, a deep-seated motivation study of the Chinese wine tourism of factor analysis techniques should be conducted based on larger samples;
(3) The introverted personalities and self-protection traits of Chinese tourists and their inflexible group tour scheduling during their visit to the Western Cape area, restricted the recruitment of focus group participants. This means that there is a possibility for future research in this field, since group interviews can be conducted with more flexible time and sufficient financial support; and
(4) Future studies in respect of the marketing of the Western Cape Wine Routes in China, may reside not only in tourism, but also in the wine industry.

7.4 CONCLUSION

Based on the literature study and results from the research fieldwork, this chapter has concluded the business recommendations in a formulated strategic framework, which included the mission of the Wine Routes and its strategic marketing directions in the Chinese tourist market, the market and competition analysis, a SWOT analysis and current strategic marketing objective, as well as major marketing strategies and resources. In practice, this strategic framework can be used to market the Western Cape Wine Routes in the Chinese tourist market, while it has also contributed to relevant knowledge bodies of wine tourism. Finally, in an academic sense, this chapter has also provided some suggestions for future research in respect of the Western Cape Wine Routes and/or Chinese wine tourists.

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APPENDIX A-1: MODERATOR'S GUIDELINE: SCREENING QUESTIONS (For identifying appropriate focus group participants)

Group	Description
Group 1	Chinese tourists in Cape Town who do not visit the Western Cape Wine Routes
Group 2	Chinese tourists in Cape Town who have visited the Western Cape Wine Routes
Group 3	Chinese tourists who follow their pre-onsite-post visits with to the Western Cape Wine Routes
Group 4	Same as Group 3

---

1. Are you under 18 years?

   CIRCLE

   Yes 1 → (Thank you and terminate)

   No 2 → (Continue)

2. When was the last time you participated in

   ______a GROUP INTERVIEW with two or more participants

   ______ (List any other type of research you might consider inappropriate)

   (If within the LAST SIX MONTHS, thank you and terminate)

3. What were the topics of all of the group interviews in which you have participated?

____

____

(If the topic of WINE TOURISM is mentioned, thank you and terminate)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

APPENDIX A-2: MODERATOR'S GUIDELINE: DISCUSSION GUIDELINE

I. WARM-UP AND EXPLANATION OF FOCUS GROUP/RULES (2-3 MINUTES)

A. Explain focus groups.

B. No correct answers – only your opinions. You are speaking for many other people like yourself.

C. Need to hear from everyone.

D. Audiotapes – because I want to concentrate on what you say – so I do not have to take notes.

E. Please – only one person may speak at a time. No side discussions because I am afraid I may miss some important comments.

F. Do not ask me questions because what I know and what I think is not important. It is what *you* think and how *you* feel that is important. That is why we are here.

G. Do not feel bad if you do not know much about some of the things we will be talking about – that is OK and important for me to know. Do not be afraid to be different. We do not expect everyone to agree on something unless they really do.

H. We need to cover a series of topics, so I will need to move the discussion along at times.

I. *Any questions*?

II. PROBE QUESTIONS TO COVER

1. Outbound tourism

What experiences do you look for when travelling?
Destination evaluation (compared to South Africa).
Ideal length in a country (days)? Why?
Preferred accommodation.

2. South Africa as a long haul tourist destination

Why South Africa? Why Cape Town?
Highlights (concentrate on experiences).

3. Choosing South Africa as a long haul tourist destination

Where did it all start?
Who did you contact? Probe reference groups such as family or information sources considered.
What other destinations were considered? Why South Africa?
What were the processes?
The role of the travel agency: did the travel agency mention anything with regard to wine?
Was wine route mentioned / picked up anywhere?

4. Word association test

South Africa and Cape Town.
If wine is not mentioned – does wine not fit into the image of Cape Town and South Africa?
Stellenbosch – is wine mentioned here?
Wine route.
If internet was used – which sites, key words?

5. **The wine route experience**
What were the expectations? Where you met?
Highlights.
Dislikes and likes.
What would you change? Would you return?

6. **The ideal wine route**
By location and scenery.
By experiences.
By activities.

7. **Wine education**
Have you joined any wine course before? Would you like to join a wine course?
Would you like to pay for a short wine course? Why or why not?
If yes, how long and how much (cost) would you like to pay? Any certificate or papers required?

8. **Evaluation of a brochure**
If brochure is mentioned – let them evaluate the brochure.
Would you now consider going on a wine route (such as Stellenbosch)? Why or why not?

9. **Marketing of a wine route**
How should wine routes be marketed?
What would motivate a Chinese tourist to visit the Wine Routes?

10. **Positioning of wine routes (world wide)**
Role play:
Assume that they have to recommend a long haul holiday to a friend or family. The holiday should involve a wine route.
What factors do they take into account when choosing a wine route?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

OFFICE USE ONLY
Questionnaire number: | | | |

APPENDIX B-1: WINE TOURISM QUESTIONNAIRE MODEL

All information will be used for research purposes and will be anonymous and confidential

Instructions: (1) Please place an "X" in the appropriate boxes; (2) question 1, 2, 7, 11, 12b, 14, 15b should be completed.

SQ: Are you under 18 years?	Yes	1	End of the questionnaire. (Thank you).
	No	2	Proceed to the next question.

SECTION A (all)

1. Which region (Chinese province/city) are you from? ______________________

2(a). How many people are in your travelling party (children inclusive) NOT tour group? [ ]
2(b). How many children under the age of 16 are in your travelling party NOT tour group? [ ]

3. With whom do you travel with? (*)

1 Sole traveller	X	3-1
2 Spouse or partner	X	3-2
3 Family	X	3-3
4 Friends	X	3-4
5 Business associates	X	3-5
6 Other (SPECIFY):	X	3-6

**more than one response is permissible*

4. Why did you come to South Africa/Cape Town? (*)

1 For a pure leisure holiday (escape from daily routine)	X	4-1
2 Travel or holiday by sponsor (sponsor chooses destination)	X	4-2
3 Visit friends and/or relatives (VFR)	X	4-3
4 For an exotic experience	X	4-4
5 To experience wildlife	X	4-5
6 For sports/adventure	X	4-6
7 For wine-related reasons	X	4-7
8 To get a South African experience	X	4-8
9 For famous landmarks such as Table Mountain or Cape Point	X	4-9
10 To attend an event such as a festival, concert or sport event	X	4-10
11 For medical treatment	X	4-11
12 To accompany friends who want to visit here	X	4-12
13 This place is a popular destination	X	4-13
14 South Africa's good national image	X	4-14
15 To visit famous universities	X	4-15
16 To get an African experience	X	4-16
17 For shopping opportunities (gold, diamonds or others)	X	4-17
18 To fulfill the recommendations from my friends or family	X	4-18
19 It is good value for money	X	4-19
20 This is a mystic destination	X	4-20
21 Meeting, business or official travel	X	4-21
22 I am familiar with this place	X	4-22
23 Past experiences (I have visited here before)	X	4-23
24 Visit surrounding places via Cape Town/South Africa	X	4-24
25 Study or scholar visit	X	4-25
26 To visit cultural and historical heritage sites	X	4-26
27 For sight-seeing beautiful (natural) landscapes	X	4-27
28 Other (SPECIFY):	X	4-28

**more than one response is permissible*

5. Which type of accommodation will/did you use in the Cape Town area? (*)

1 Apartment	X 5-1	11 Hostel/youth hostel	X 5-11
2 Bed and Breakfast	X 5-2	12 Lodges/chalets/bungalow	X 5-12
3 Camping	X 5-3	13 Motel	X 5-13
4 Caravanning	X 5-4	14 School/army or police quarters	X 5-14
5 Staying with Friends and Relatives	X 5-5	15 Time share	X 5-15
6 Guest house	X 5-6	16 Vehicle related accommodation	X 5-16
7 Holiday resort	X 5-7	17 Water related accommodation	X 5-17
8 Hotel	X 5-8	18 Don't know/uncertain	X 5-18
9 Holiday house/owned property	X 5-9	19 None –en route	X 5-19
10 Rented house/house exchange	X 5-10	20 Other (SPECIFY)	X 5-20

**more than one response is permissible*

6(a). Which of the following wine tourism destination(s) are you aware of? (*)
6(b). Which of the following wine tourism destination(s) have you ever visited? (*)
6(c). Which of the following wine tourism destination(s) would you prefer to visit? (*)

1 Australia, Melbourne	X 6(a)-1	X 6(b)-1	X 6(c)-1
2 France, Bordeaux	X 6(a)-2	X 6(b)-2	X 6(c)-2
3 USA, San Francisco-Napa Valley	X 6(a)-3	X 6(b)-3	X 6(c)-3
4 Spain, Bilbao-Rioja	X 6(a)-4	X 6(b)-4	X 6(c)-4
5 Portugal, Porto	X 6(a)-5	X 6(b)-5	X 6(c)-5
6 South Africa, Cape Town/Stellenbosch Wine Routes	X 6(a)-6	X 6(b)-6	X 6(c)-6
7 Argentina, Mendoza	X 6(a)-7	X 6(b)-7	X 6(c)-7
8 Italy, Florence	X 6(a)-8	X 6(b)-8	X 6(c)-8
9 China, Shandong Yantai/Yunnan/Xinjiang/Hebei	X 6(a)-9	X 6(b)-9	X 6(c)-9
10 Other (SPECIFY):	X 6(a)-10	X 6(b)-10	X 6(c)-10
11 None	X 6(a)-11	X 6(b)-11	X 6(c)-11

****more than one response is permissible*

7(a). How many days do you intend staying / did you stay in South Africa? [ ]
7(b). …in the Cape Town area? [ ]
7(c). …in the [SA] winelands / routes? [ ] → **if "0" (NO STAY), go to Question 13**

SECTION B (Wine-route visitors)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

8. Which of the following would you say were the reason(s) for your visit to the Western Cape Wine Routes [Cape Town/Stellenbosch]?

		Most Definitely	Definitely	Neutral	Definitely Not	Most Definitely Not
a. to taste wine	A	5	4	3	2	1
b. to buy wine	B	5	4	3	2	1
c. to have a day out	C	5	4	3	2	1
d. to socialise with friends and family	D	5	4	3	2	1
e. to learn about wine and wine making	E	5	4	3	2	1
f. to rest and relax	F	5	4	3	2	1
g. to do a winery or wine cellar tour	G	5	4	3	2	1
h. to be able to talk to the wine maker / wine farmer	H	5	4	3	2	1
i. to wine and dine at the winery / in the immediate environment	I	5	4	3	2	1
j. to have a picnic / BBQ	J	5	4	3	2	1
k. to be entertained	K	5	4	3	2	1
l. to enjoy the beautiful surrounds and climate of the vineyards	L	5	4	3	2	1
m. to attend a wine-related festival or event	M	5	4	3	2	1
n. to visit a historical/cultural attraction in the area, e.g. wine museum	N	5	4	3	2	1

o. to visit the wine route and surrounding area by accident / stop over	O	5	4	3	2	1
p. to buy wine related gifts / souvenirs	P	5	4	3	2	1
q. to participate in outdoor recreational activities, e.g. golf, hiking	Q	5	4	3	2	1
r. to enhance my South Africa holiday experience	R	5	4	3	2	1
s. because South African wine is famous	S	5	4	3	2	1
t. part of tour group / South Africa tour	T	5	4	3	2	1
u. to learn more about South African people and their culture	U	5	4	3	2	1
v. it allows me to do many things in close proximity	V	5	4	3	2	1
w. have been to a wine route before	W	5	4	3	2	1
x. stay overnight in a wine area	X	5	4	3	2	1
y. was recommended to visit a wine region	Y	5	4	3	2	1
z. there are a large number of wineries to choose from and visit	Z	5	4	3	2	1

9. How did you find out about the Wine Routes? (*)

1 Internet	X 9-1
2 Referral: previous experience	X 9-2
3 Travel guide	X 9-3
4 Recommendation of friends / family	X 9-4
5 Travel publicity / brochure	X 9-5
6 Official tourism information bureau	X 9-6
7 Newspapers	X 9-7
8 Radio	X 9-8
9 Travel agency	X 9-9
10 Magazines	X 9-10
11 Television	X 9-11
12 Tourism show / exhibition	X 9-12
13 Part of a tour group	X 9-13
14 Uncertain	X 9-14
15 Other (SPECIFY):	X 9-15

**more than one response is permissible*

→ if chose INTERNET, answer Question 10

10. Which website (s) did you use to find out the Wine Routes? (*)

1 Google.com	X 10-1
2 Baidu.com	X 10-2
3 Sina.com.cn	X 10-3
4 Sohu.com	X 10-4
5 Yahoo.com.cn	X 10-5
6 Tengxun QQ	X 10-6
7 MSN.com	X 10-7
8 CNTA.gov.cn	X 10-8
9 Travel agencies' websites	X 10-9
10 Chinese tourism trade websites	X 10-10
11 Destinations' tourism websites	X 10-11
12 Uncertion	X 10-12
13 Other (SPECIFY):	X 10-13

**more than one response is permissible*

11. How many bottles of wine did you purchase at the Wine Routes (per bottle of 750ml.): ______

12(a). How has your overall experience of the Wine Routes been compared to your expectations?

5 Much better than expected	X	12(a)-5	2 A little worse than expected	X	12(a)-2
4 A little better than expected	X	12(a)-4	1 Much worse than expected	X	12(a)-1
3 As expected (more or less)	X	12(a)-3	0 Had no expectations	X	12(a)-0

12(b). Why do you say so?

______

Go to SECTION D

SECTION C (non-wine-route visitors)

13. For what reason(s) did you not visit the Wine Routes during your stay in South Africa? (*)

1 It is too expensive to visit the wine route	X	13-1
2 Insufficient time during holiday to visit wine farm	X	13-2
3 No suitable tour package was available	X	13-3
4 Do not have enough information about the wine routes	X	13-4
5 Unaware of the wine routes	X	13-5
6 Prefer Cape Town (and other SA attractions) more	X	13-6
7 Many other SA attractions were more appealing to my friends and family	X	13-7
8 Concerned about drinking and driving	X	13-8

9 Do not drink wine	X	13-9
10 Not interested in wine tourism e.g. wine tours, talks, etc.	X	13-10
11 Was not informed by the travel agency about the wine routes	X	13-11
12 Not part of the travel itinerary	X	13-12
13 Cannot freely visit SA because of poor foreign language ability	X	13-13
14 Someone told me that the wine routes were boring/dull	X	13-14
15 Part of tour group: cannot change travel plans	X	13-15
16 Uncertain what there is to do there	X	13-16
17 Wine route too far from place of accommodation	X	13-17
18 Had a bad experience at a wine route before	X	13-18
19 Wine route is only for [certain types] of people	X	13-19
20 Had been to [SA] wine route before	X	13-20
21 Had been on a wine route tour before (anywhere in the world)	X	13-21
22 Uncertain	X	13-22
23 Cannot comment	X	13-23
24 Other (SPECIFY):	X	13-24

**more than one response is permissible*

14. [SHOW THE BROCHURE] What are your first impressions?

____

_

SECTION D (all)

15(a). If you come to visit South Africa again in the near future, would you visit Stellenbosch/Cape Town wine route?

5 Most definitely	X	15(a)-5
4 Definitely	X	15(a)-4
3 Maybe	X	15(a)-3
2 Definitely not	X	15(a)-2
1 Most definitely not	X	15(a)-1
0 Uncertain	X	15(a)-0

15(b). Why do you say so?

16. Gender

1 Male	X	16-1
2 Female	X	16-2

17. Age category

1 18 to 25 years	X	17-1
2 26 to 34 years	X	17-2
3 35 to 50 years	X	17-3
4 51 to 65 years	X	17-4
5 65 years +	X	17-5

18. Education level (completed or in progress)

1 Up to 9 years (compulsory education)	X	18-1
2 Up to 12 years (high school)	X	18-2
3 Up to 12 years (technical school)	X	18-3
4 Up to 14 years (junior college)	X	18-4
5 Up to 15 years (junior college)	X	18-5
6 Up to 16 years (university B-degree)	X	18-6
7 Master's Degree	X	18-7
8 Doctor's degree or higher	X	18-8
9 Other (SPECIFY):	X	18-9

19. Occupation

1 Professional / Technical	X	19-1
2 Business owner/Self-employed	X	19-2
3 Managerial position	X	19-3
4 Government official	X	19-4
5 White collar / Clerk	X	19-5
6 Blue collar / Worker	X	19-6
7 Housewife	X	19-7
8 Retired	X	19-8
9 Student	X	19-9
10 Other (SPECIFY):	X	19-10

20. Personal Income (monthly)

1 Less than CNY2,000	X	20-1
2 CNY2,001 to CNY4,999	X	20-2
3 CNY5,000 to CNY7,999	X	20-3
4 CNY8,000 to CNY11,999	X	20-4
5 CNY12,000 to CNY14,999	X	20-5
6 CNY15,000 to CNY19,999	X	20-6
7 CNY20,000 to CNY30,000	X	20-7
8 More than CNY30,000	X	20-8

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

OFFICE USE ONLY
Questionnaire number: | | | |

APPENDIX B-2: WINE TOURISM QUESTIONNAIRE MODEL (中文)

<u>所有数据将仅被用于研究目的并且将被匿名和保密</u>

使用说明：（1）请在所选择项目后的方框内划“X”；（2）问题 1，2，7，11，12b，14，15b 需要填写。

SQ: 您是否小于 18 岁？ 是 | 1 | 结束回答问卷，多谢！

否 | 2 | 请继续回答下面的问题。

部分 A（所有人回答）

1. 您是来自于那个（中国的）省份/城市？ ____________________

2(a). 您有几位同伴在这次旅行中（包括小孩，但不包括旅行团成员）？ [ ]

2(b). 有几位年龄在 16 岁以下的小孩随同您一起在这次旅行当中？ [ ]

3. 这次旅行当中您的同伴下述哪位？（多项选择）

1 没有，我是单独旅行	X	3-1
2 夫妻或者情侣	X	3-2
3 家人/亲属	X	3-3
4 朋友	X	3-4
5 生意伙伴	X	3-5
6 其他（请注明）：	X	3-6

4. 为什么您来南非/开普敦旅行？（多项选择）

1 为了一个纯粹的休闲假日（离开日常的生活工作）	X	4-1
2 因为工作单位或者赞助者（单位）组织的旅行度假（组织者选择目的地）	X	4-2
3 为了拜访亲戚或者朋友	X	4-3
4 为了体验异国情调	X	4-4
5 为了体验这里的野外生活/野生动植物	X	4-5
6 为了体育运动项目或者冒险活动	X	4-6
7 可以享受这里的葡萄酒或者与葡萄酒相关的原因	X	4-7
8 可以亲身体验南非	X	4-8
9 因为著名的旅游景点，比如：桌山或者好望角	X	4-9
10 为了出席/参加一个活动，比如：节日，音乐会或者体育赛事	X	4-10
11 为了医疗目的	X	4-11
12 只是为了陪同朋友到这	X	4-12
13 因为这里是一个流行的目的地	X	4-13
14 因为对南非这个国家好的印象	X	4-14
15 为了参观这里的著名的大学，比如：金山大学，开普敦大学以及斯坦林布什大学	X	4-15
16 为了体验非洲	X	4-16
17 一个好的购物机会，比如：黄金或者钻石饰品	X	4-17
18 因为朋友或者家人的推荐	X	4-18
19 到南非旅行物有所值	X	4-19
20 这里是一个神秘的地方	X	4-20
21 为了会议或者其它商务/公务活动	X	4-21
22 这里是我熟悉的地方	X	4-22
23 根据我以前的经验（以前我来过这里）	X	4-23
24 到周边的国家经过/顺便来这里	X	4-24
25 为了留学或者其它学术访问	X	4-25
26 为了参观这里的历史文化遗迹	X	4-26
27 观光因为这里美丽的自然景色	X	4-27
28 其它（请注明）：	X	4-28

5. 您在开普敦期间选择什么类型的住宿？（多项选择）

1 单元房	X 5-1	11 青年旅馆（Youth hostel）	X 5-11
2 含早餐的旅馆（B&B）	X 5-2	12 旅馆（Lodges/chalets/bungalow）	X 5-12
3 野外露营	X 5-3	13 汽车旅店（Motel）	X 5-13
4 可宿营的旅行车	X 5-4	14 学校或者军警招待所	X 5-14
5 住在朋友或者亲戚家	X 5-5	15 Time share（分享时间）	X 5-15
6 旅店（Guest house）	X 5-6	16 在陆地交通工具上，比如：火车	X 5-16
7 度假区（Holiday resort）	X 5-7	17 在水面交通工具上，比如：游轮	X 5-17
8 酒店（Hotel）	X 5-8	18 不知道/不确定	X 5-18
9 自己的度假别墅	X 5-9	19 没有 - 在途中	X 5-19
10 出租别墅或者交换的度假别墅	X 5-10	20 其它（请注明）：	X 5-20

6(a). 下面哪个（些）葡萄酒旅游地区是您知道的？（6a1-6a11 多项选择）
6(b). 下面哪个（些）葡萄酒旅游地区您曾经访问过？（6b1-6b11 多项选择）
6(c). 下面哪个（些）葡萄酒旅游地区您更喜欢选择去度假？（6c1-6c11 多项选择）

1 澳大利亚 墨尔本（Melbourne）	X 6(a)-1	X 6(b)-1	X 6(c)-1
2 法国 波尔多（Bordeaux）	X 6(a)-2	X 6(b)-2	X 6(c)-2
3 美国 圣弗朗西斯科（San Francisco-Napa Valley）	X 6(a)-3	X 6(b)-3	X 6(c)-3
4 西班牙 毕尔巴鄂（Bilbao-Rioja）	X 6(a)-4	X 6(b)-4	X 6(c)-4
5 葡萄牙 波尔图（Porto）	X 6(a)-5	X 6(b)-5	X 6(c)-5
6 南非 开普敦/斯坦林部什（Cape Town/Stellenbosch）	X 6(a)-6	X 6(b)-6	X 6(c)-6
7 阿根廷 门多萨（Mendoza）	X 6(a)-7	X 6(b)-7	X 6(c)-7
8 意大利 佛罗伦萨（Florence）	X 6(a)-8	X 6(b)-8	X 6(c)-8
9 中国 山东烟台/新疆吐鲁番/河北昌黎/云南	X 6(a)-9	X 6(b)-9	X 6(c)-9
10 其它（请注明）：	X 6(a)-10	X 6(b)-10	X 6(c)-10
11 都不了解 / 都没有去过 / 都不喜欢	X 6(a)-11	X 6(b)-11	X 6(c)-11

7(a). 这次旅行您会在南非逗留多少天？ ☐
7(b). 这次旅行您会在开普敦逗留多少天？ ☐
7(c). 这次旅行您会在葡萄酒地区逗留多少天？ ☐ → **7(c) 如果“0”（没有），请跳至问题 13 继续回答**

部分 B（参观过葡萄酒旅游路线的人回答）

就下列陈述请您注明您的认可程度

8. 您到南非葡萄酒旅游地区(Stellenbosch/Cape Town)/路线/酒庄度假的原因是什么？ [请在所有项目之后给出程度选择 5-1]

		非常确定是	确定是	中立/不确定	确定不是	非常确定不是
a. 去品尝葡萄酒	A	5	4	3	2	1
b. 去买葡萄酒	B	5	4	3	2	1
c. 一个不错的一日游路线	C	5	4	3	2	1
d. 陪伴家人或着朋友	D	5	4	3	2	1
e. 获得一些关于葡萄酒或者酿造葡萄酒的知识	E	5	4	3	2	1
f. 身体上的休息放松	F	5	4	3	2	1
g. 参观酒窖	G	5	4	3	2	1
h. 获得和酿酒师或者工作人员交流的机会	H	5	4	3	2	1
i. 在葡萄酒庄园品尝美酒和美食	I	5	4	3	2	1
j. 野餐	J	5	4	3	2	1
k. 葡萄酒庄园是一个娱乐的好地方	K	5	4	3	2	1
l. 享受/体验葡萄园的景色和好的自然环境	L	5	4	3	2	1
m. 参加葡萄酒节日或者相关的活动	M	5	4	3	2	1
n. 参观葡萄酒路线上的历史文化景点，比如：博物馆，大学或者小镇	N	5	4	3	2	1

o. 只是顺便访问	O	5	4	3	2	1
p. 在那里可以买到葡萄酒相关的礼品和纪念品	P	5	4	3	2	1
q. 可以参加那里的户外活动， 比如：高尔夫，骑马或者徒步旅行	Q	5	4	3	2	1
r. 丰富在南非的假日体验	R	5	4	3	2	1
s. 因为南非的葡萄酒很出名	S	5	4	3	2	1
t. 访问那里是整个旅行团或者来南非旅行计划的一部分	T	5	4	3	2	1
u. 感受/了解更多的南非文化	U	5	4	3	2	1
v. 在这里的葡萄酒路线/地区有很多有趣的事情做	V	5	4	3	2	1
w. 根据我个人的经验因为曾经来过这里	W	5	4	3	2	1
x. 可以在葡萄酒庄园过夜	X	5	4	3	2	1
y. 别人推荐我来这个葡萄酒路线/庄园参观	Y	5	4	3	2	1
z. 那里有很多的葡萄酒庄园/酒厂可以参观	Z	5	4	3	2	1

9. 您如何知道南非葡萄酒旅游路线的？（多项选择）

1 通过互联网（Internet）	X	9-1
2 过去的经验	X	9-2
3 旅游指南	X	9-3
4 朋友家人的推荐	X	9-4
5 旅游出版物或者旅游手册	X	9-5
6 官方的旅游信息中心/局	X	9-6
7 报纸	X	9-7
8 收音机广播	X	9-8
9 旅行社/中介	X	9-9
10 杂志	X	9-10
11 电视	X	9-11
12 旅游展览	X	9-12
13 旅行团	X	9-13
14 不确定	X	9-14
15 其它（请注明）:	X	9-15

如果选择 INTERNET 需要回答问题 10

10. 您从哪个网站发现/了解南非葡萄酒旅游路线（多项选择）

1 谷歌 （Google.com）	X	10-1
2 百度（Baidu.com）	X	10-2
3 新浪（Sina.com.cn）	X	10-3
4 搜狐（Sohu.com）	X	10-4
5 雅虎（Yahoo.com.cn）	X	10-5
6 腾讯（Tengxun QQ）	X	10-6
7 微软 MSN (MSN.com)	X	10-7
8 中国政府旅游网站（CNTA.gov.cn）	X	10-8
9 旅行社网站（Travel agencies' websites）	X	10-9
10 其它的中文旅游网	X	10-10
11 目的地国的网站	X	10-11
12 不确定	X	10-12
13 其它（请注明）:	X	10-13

11. 在这里您买了/准备买多少瓶葡萄酒（每瓶 750ml.）:

12(a). 您如何评价您之前的期望相比在这里葡萄酒旅游地区/路线/酒庄的感受？

5 明显超出之前的期待	X	12(a)-5	2 有一点低于之前的期待	X	12(a)-2
4 有一点超出之前的期待	X	12(a)-4	1 明显低于之前的期待	X	12(a)-1
3 如同期待（差不多）	X	12(a)-3	0 之前没有什么期待	X	12(a)-0

12(b). 为什么您上述如此评价？

转到 D 部分

部分 C（不去葡萄酒旅游路线参观的人回答）

13. 什么是您不去这里葡萄酒旅游地区/路线/酒庄参观的原因在这个假期？（多项选择）

1 去那里参观太贵了/不必要的多余的参观费用	X	13-1
2 没有足够的时间去那里参观在这个假期	X	13-2
3 没有合适的旅游团/旅游项目	X	13-3
4 没有足够的信息/介绍关于这里的葡萄酒旅游路线/项目	X	13-4
5 我不知道这里的旅游路线/项目	X	13-5
6 更喜欢这里的其它旅游项目和地点	X	13-6
7 我的朋友和家人介绍了更多/更好的其它旅游项目和地点	X	13-7
8 因为我需要在旅行中驾车担心饮酒之后的安全问题	X	13-8

9 我不喝葡萄酒	X	13-9
10 我对葡萄酒相关的旅游项目不感兴趣	X	13-10
11 旅行社没有介绍这些（关于葡萄酒的旅游项目）	X	13-11
12 葡萄酒相关的旅游项目没有被包括在这次旅行计划中	X	13-12
13 不能够自由在（南非）这里参观因为自己不熟悉外语	X	13-13
14 有人告诉我这里的葡萄酒旅游项目/路线不好	X	13-14
15 我不能够随意改变行程安排因为我随团旅游	X	13-15
16 我不确定/不知道在那里能做什么	X	13-16
17 那里距离我住的地方（酒店）太远	X	13-17
18 因为以前有过不好的经验/体验对葡萄酒相关的旅游	X	13-18
19 葡萄酒相关的旅游项目只适合某些人（不适合我）	X	13-19
20 我以前曾经参观过这里（南非）的葡萄酒旅游地区/路线	X	13-20
21 我以前曾经参观过其它地方的葡萄酒旅游地区/路线（全世界）	X	13-21
22 不确定	X	13-22
23 无可奉告	X	13-23
24 其它（请注明）:	X	13-24

14. [出示 Stellenbosch/Cape Town 旅游手册] 什么是您的第一印象在看完这些介绍？

部分 D（所有人回答）

15(a). 如果您再次来南非旅行，是否会参观这里的葡萄酒旅游路线/葡萄酒庄园（比如 Stellenbosch）？

5 是，非常确定	X	15(a)-5
4 是，确定	X	15(a)-4
3 也许	X	15(a)-3

2 不会，确定	X	15(a)-2
1 不会，非常确定	X	15(a)-1
0 不确定	X	15(a)-0

15(b). 为什么您上述如此评价？

16. 性别

1 男	X	16-1
2 女	X	16-2

17 年龄（阶段）

1 18 to 25 岁	X	17-1
2 26 to 34 岁	X	17-2
3 35 to 50 岁	X	17-3
4 51 to 65 岁	X	17-4
5 大于 65 岁	X	17-5

18. 教育背景 （完成或者正在完成）

1 9 年义务教育（初中）	X	18-1
2 12 年教育 (高中)	X	18-2
3 12 年教育（技校）	X	18-3
4 14 年教育（两年制大专）	X	18-4
5 15 年教育（三年制大专）	X	18-5
6 16 年教育（大学本科/学士学位）	X	18-6
7 硕士学位	X	18-7
8 博士学位或更高	X	18-8
9 其它（请注明）:	X	18-9

19. 职业

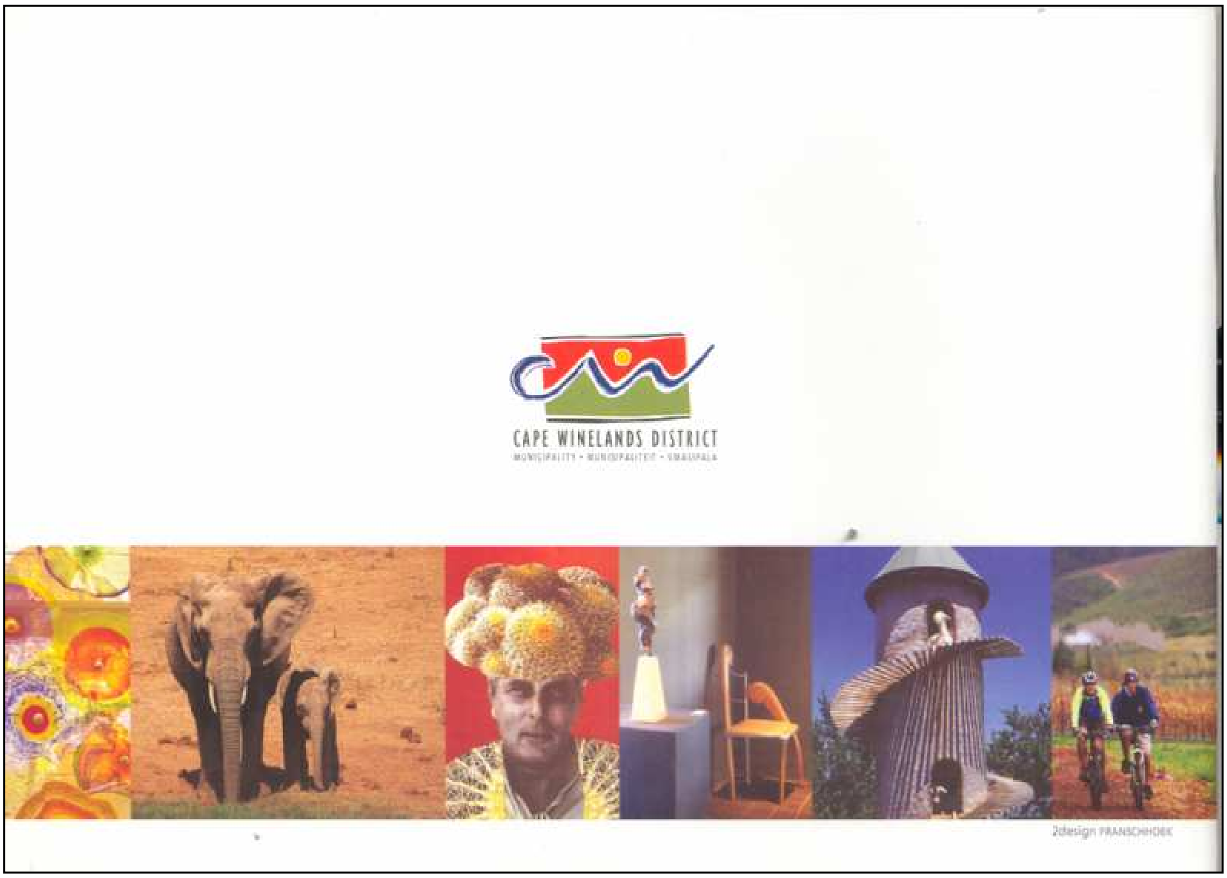
1 专业人员/技术专家	X	19-1
2 业主/自雇人员	X	19-2
3 管理人员	X	19-3
4 政府公务员	X	19-4
5 白领/职员	X	19-5
6 蓝领/工人	X	19-6
7 家庭主妇	X	19-7
8 退休人员	X	19-8
9 学生	X	19-9
10 其它（请注明）:	X	19-10

20. 个人（月）收入

1 少于 人民币 2,000	X	20-1
2 人民币 2,001 到人民币 4,999	X	20-2
3 人民币 5,000 到人民币 7,999	X	20-3
4 人民币 8,000 到人民币 11,999	X	20-4
5 人民币 12,000 到人民币 14,999	X	20-5
6 人民币 15,000 到人民币 19,999	X	20-6
7 人民币 20,000 到人民币 30,000	X	20-7
8 高于人民币 30,000	X	20-8

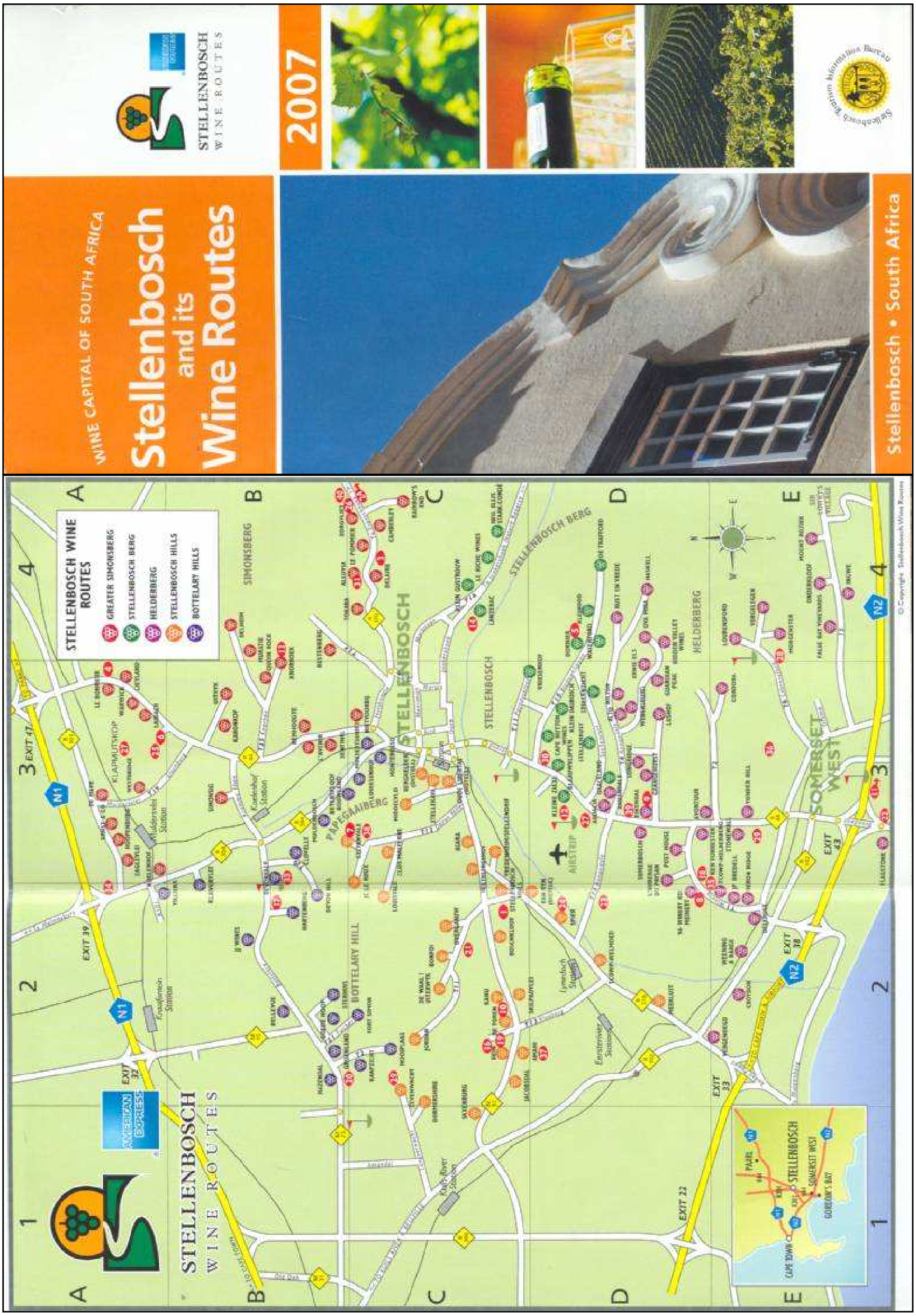
感谢您的合作

APPENDIX C-1: BROCHURE: CAPE WINELANDS



"*Cape Winelands: a thousand things to do and then some wine tasting*", 2007 edition.

APPENDIX C-2: BROCHURE: STELLENBOSCH WINE ROUTES



"*Wine Capital of South Africa: Stellenbosch and its wine routes*", 2007 edition.

APPENDIX D-1: TOP 20 CHINESE OUTBOUND TRAVEL AGENCIES (2005), BEIJING, SHANGHAI AND GUANGDONG-BASED

Rank	Travel Agency	Base Region
1	中国国际旅行社总社 China International Travel Service Limited, Head Office www.cits.cn	Beijing
2	中青旅控股股份有限公司 China CYTS Tours Holding Co., Ltd. www.cytsonline.com	Beijing
3	中国康辉旅行社集团有限责任公司 China Comfort International Travel Co., Ltd. www.cct.cn	Beijing
4	上海锦江国际旅游股份有限公司 Shanghai Jinjiang International Travel Co., Ltd www.jjtravel.com	Shanghai
5	中国旅行社总社 China Travel Service Head Office www.ctsho.com	Beijing
6	中信旅游总公司 CITIC Travel Co., Ltd. www.travel.citic.com	Beijing
7	广东省中国旅行社股份有限公司 China Travel Service G.D.(Guangdong Province) www.gdcts.com	Guangdong
8	上海国旅国际旅行社有限公司 China Travel Service (Shanghai) www.scits.com	Shanghai
9	上海航空国际旅游有限公司 Shanghai Airlines Tours (Group) www.satrip.com	Shanghai
10	港中旅国际旅行社有限公司 China travel International Ltd. www.ctiol.com	Beijing
11	交通公社新纪元国际旅行社有限公司 Communication Community Epoch Travel Services www.jtgsxjygjlxs.pinsou.com	Beijing
12	深圳市口岸中国旅行社有限公司 Shenzhen Port CTS Ltd. www.sztravel.com.cn	Guangdong
13	上海中国青年旅行社 Shanghai CYTS Tours Corporation www.scyts.com.cn	Shanghai
14	中国和平国际旅游有限责任公司 China Peace International Tourism Co., Ltd. www.peaceholiday.com	Beijing
15	汕头市旅游总公司 Shantou Tourist General Co. www.stgc-cn.com	Guangdong
16	中国妇女旅行社 China Women Travel Service www.cwtn.com.cn	Beijing
17	广东南湖国际旅行社有限责任公司 Guangdong Nahu International Travel Ltd. www.nanhutravel.com	Guangdong
18	上海中旅国际旅行社有限公司 Shanghai China travel International Co., Ltd. www.ctish.cn	Shanghai
19	上海实华国际旅行社 Shanghai Shihua Int'l Travel Service www.ssits.com.cn	Shanghai
20	深圳特区华侨城中国旅行社 China Travel Service OCT www.oct-cts.com	Guangdong

http://www.cnta.gov.cn/news_detail/newsshow.asp?id=A20066201817426586211

APPENDIX D-2: 19 ADS-APPROVED INBOUND TOUR OPERATORS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Company Name	Representative	Phone	Email
African Eagle	Buhle Miranda Goslar	+ 27 11 234 2381	mirandan@ae.co.za
Best Hope Travel	Daniel Yang	+ 27 21 434 7727	diana.best@galileo.co.za
Cape China Travel (Pty) Ltd.	Theo Koutsoudis	+ 27 11 444 2642	theo@nomk.co.za
China International Travel Agency	Liu Yang	+ 27 21 465 2572	cita98@hotmail.com
Comfort Travel	Jason Pan	+ 27 11 807 1188	jason@comforttravel.co.za
Crown Travel	Colin Napier	+ 27 82 444 9708	colin@crowntravel.co.za
ERM Tours Pty Ltd.	B Hunter	+ 27 11 884 4343	barryh@ermtours.co.za
Feizhong International Travel	Chen Lian	+ 27 11 622 9888	feizhongtravel@telkomsa.net
Fullmark Tours	Yim Fong Chan	+ 27 21 975 9469	fullmarktour@fullmarktour.com
Intende Travel	Themba Mavuso	+ 27 11 622 9333	intende@telkomsa.net
Makulu Golf Tours	Henk Swart	+ 27 11 740 9591	blackie@wsigglobal.com
Rock Sun	Lucky Liang	+ 27-11-4551601	cctours@ms68.hinet.net
Round the World Travel Services	Peggy Wang	+ 27 11 268 0848	pcywang@sinotech.co.za
Royal African Discoveries	Johan Groenewald	+ 27 11 394 1660	johan@royalafrica.co.za
SA Longway	Mauren Lok Fat	+ 27 11 783 9688	salongway@mweb.co.za
SA Magic	Terry Fenton- Wells	+ 27 11 886 1101	terry@samagictravel.co.za
Sunray Travel	Tamara Gusovius	+ 27 21 934 2227	tamara@sunray.co.za
Travel Destination	Emily Wang	+ 27 11 482 5208	traveldest@tiscali.co.za
United Touring Company	Stephen Li	+ 27 21 419 8301	stephen@utcza.co.za

http://www.cnta.gov.cn/news_detail/newsshow.asp?id=A2006620188276530705

APPENDIX E: DIFFERENCE TEST OF WINE TOURISM MOTIVATIONS WITHIN DEMOGRAPHIC GROUPS (T-TEST AND ANOVA)

Table 1: Group statistics between home geographic areas

Question Code	Home Geographic Area	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q8a	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.65	0.484	0.080
	Other areas	28	4.36	0.621	0.117
Q8b	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.24	0.597	0.098
	Other areas	28	4.07	0.663	0.125
Q8c	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.70	0.740	0.122
	Other areas	28	3.57	0.634	0.120
Q8d	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.27	0.962	0.158
	Other areas	28	3.39	0.994	0.188
Q8e	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.95	0.848	0.139
	Other areas	28	3.68	0.863	0.163
Q8f	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.38	0.545	0.090
	Other areas	28	4.07	0.663	0.125
Q8g	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.43	0.647	0.106
	Other areas	28	4.14	0.651	0.123
Q8h	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	2.54	0.989	0.163
	Other areas	28	2.39	0.786	0.149
Q8i	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.59	0.762	0.125
	Other areas	28	3.29	1.049	0.198
Q8j	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	1.78	0.534	0.088
	Other areas	28	2.32	1.124	0.212
Q8k	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.35	0.824	0.135
	Other areas	28	3.32	1.090	0.206
Q8l	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.14	0.673	0.111
	Other areas	28	4.11	0.685	0.130
Q8m	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	2.57	0.801	0.132
	Other areas	28	2.79	0.876	0.166
Q8n	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.38	0.758	0.125
	Other areas	28	4.00	1.018	0.192
Q8o	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	2.95	0.970	0.160
	Other areas	28	3.39	0.994	0.188
Q8p	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.97	0.687	0.113
	Other areas	28	3.64	0.870	0.164
Q8q	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	2.86	0.948	0.156
	Other areas	28	2.96	0.693	0.131
Q8r	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.24	0.597	0.098
	Other areas	28	4.00	0.816	0.154
Q8s	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.05	1.177	0.194
	Other areas	28	3.36	1.224	0.231
Q8t	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.03	0.372	0.061
	Other areas	28	4.14	0.591	0.112
Q8u	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	4.30	0.702	0.115
	Other areas	28	4.04	0.922	0.174
Q8v	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	2.49	0.804	0.132
	Other areas	28	2.79	0.833	0.157
Q8w	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	1.62	0.545	0.090
	Other areas	28	2.00	0.861	0.163
Q8x	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	2.57	0.801	0.132
	Other areas	28	2.43	0.920	0.174
Q8y	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.57	0.867	0.143
	Other areas	28	3.79	0.787	0.149
Q8z	Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong	37	3.95	0.705	0.116
	Other areas	28	4.11	0.786	0.149

* Sampling stasterstics by SPSS

Table 2: Independent samples test between home geographic areas

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Q8a	Equal variances assumed	3.406	0.070	2.127	63	0.037	0.292	0.137	0.018	0.565
	Equal variances not assumed			2.055	49.629	0.045	0.292	0.142	0.007	0.576
Q8b	Equal variances assumed	0.073	0.788	1.096	63	0.277	0.172	0.157	-0.141	0.485
	Equal variances not assumed			1.080	54.809	0.285	0.172	0.159	-0.147	0.491
Q8c	Equal variances assumed	0.199	0.657	0.752	63	0.455	0.131	0.175	-0.217	0.480
	Equal variances not assumed			0.769	61.973	0.445	0.131	0.171	-0.210	0.473
Q8d	Equal variances assumed	0.003	0.958	-0.502	63	0.618	-0.123	0.244	-0.611	0.366
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.499	57.254	0.620	-0.123	0.246	-0.614	0.369
Q8e	Equal variances assumed	0.648	0.424	1.249	63	0.216	0.267	0.214	-0.160	0.695
	Equal variances not assumed			1.246	57.752	0.218	0.267	0.215	-0.162	0.697
Q8f	Equal variances assumed	0.222	0.639	2.048	63	0.045	0.307	0.150	0.007	0.606
	Equal variances not assumed			1.993	51.595	0.052	0.307	0.154	-0.002	0.616
Q8g	Equal variances assumed	1.206	0.276	1.782	63	0.080	0.290	0.162	-0.035	0.614
	Equal variances not assumed			1.781	58.133	0.080	0.290	0.163	-0.036	0.615
Q8h	Equal variances assumed	2.561	0.115	0.650	63	0.518	0.148	0.227	-0.306	0.602
	Equal variances not assumed			0.671	62.820	0.505	0.148	0.220	-0.292	0.588
Q8i	Equal variances assumed	5.189	0.026	1.376	63	0.174	0.309	0.225	-0.140	0.758
	Equal variances not assumed			1.317	47.232	0.194	0.309	0.235	-0.163	0.781
Q8j	Equal variances assumed	9.629	0.003	-2.557	63	0.013	-0.538	0.210	-0.958	-.118
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.339	36.224	0.025	-0.538	0.230	-1.004	-.072
Q8k	Equal variances assumed	2.713	0.105	0.126	63	0.900	0.030	0.237	-0.444	0.504
	Equal variances not assumed			0.121	48.565	0.904	0.030	0.247	-0.466	0.526
Q8l	Equal variances assumed	0.001	0.971	0.165	63	0.870	0.028	0.170	-0.312	0.368
	Equal variances not assumed			0.164	57.750	0.870	0.028	0.170	-0.313	0.369
Q8m	Equal variances assumed	0.047	0.829	-1.045	63	0.300	-0.218	0.209	-0.635	0.199
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.031	55.347	0.307	-0.218	0.211	-0.642	0.206
Q8n	Equal variances assumed	1.333	0.253	1.718	63	0.091	0.378	0.220	-0.062	0.818
	Equal variances not assumed			1.650	48.067	0.105	0.378	0.229	-0.083	.839
Q8o	Equal variances assumed	0.147	0.703	-1.820	63	0.074	-0.447	0.246	-0.938	0.044
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.813	57.538	0.075	-0.447	0.246	-0.940	0.046
Q8p	Equal variances assumed	4.491	0.038	1.710	63	0.092	0.330	0.193	-0.056	0.716
	Equal variances not assumed			1.655	50.111	0.104	0.330	0.199	-0.070	0.731
Q8q	Equal variances assumed	3.113	0.083	-0.468	63	0.641	-0.099	0.212	-0.524	0.325
	Equal variances not assumed			-.0489	62.946	0.627	-0.099	0.204	-0.506	0.307
Q8r	Equal variances assumed	0.006	0.940	1.389	63	0.170	0.243	0.175	-0.107	0.593
	Equal variances not assumed			1.330	47.416	0.190	0.243	0.183	-0.124	0.611
Q8s	Equal variances assumed	0.166	0.685	-1.011	63	0.316	-0.303	0.300	-0.902	0.296
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.005	57.070	0.319	-0.303	0.302	-0.907	0.301
Q8t	Equal variances assumed	8.831	0.004	-0.967	63	0.337	-0.116	0.120	-0.355	0.123
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.910	42.714	0.368	-0.116	0.127	-0.373	0.141
Q8u	Equal variances assumed	0.141	0.709	1.299	63	0.199	0.262	0.201	-0.141	0.664
	Equal variances not assumed			1.252	48.817	0.217	0.262	0.209	-0.158	0.682
Q8v	Equal variances assumed	1.049	0.310	-1.464	63	0.148	-0.299	0.204	-0.708	0.109
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.457	57.174	0.151	-0.299	0.205	-0.711	0.112
Q8w	Equal variances assumed	1.989	0.163	-2.164	63	0.034	-0.378	0.175	-0.728	-0.029
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.037	42.922	0.048	-0.378	0.186	-0.753	-0.004
Q8x	Equal variances assumed	1.272	0.264	0.650	63	0.518	0.139	0.214	-0.288	0.566
	Equal variances not assumed			0.637	53.610	0.527	0.139	0.218	-.0298	0.576
Q8y	Equal variances assumed	1.670	0.201	-1.045	63	0.300	-0.218	0.209	-0.635	0.199
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.059	60.879	0.294	-0.218	0.206	-0.630	0.194
Q8z	Equal variances assumed	2.009	0.161	-0.869	63	0.388	-0.161	0.186	-0.532	0.210
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.856	54.684	0.396	-0.161	0.188	-0.539	0.216

* Sampling statserstics by SPSS

Table 3: Group statistics between gender groups (*)

Question Code	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q8a	Male	24	4.42	0.584	0.119
	Female	41	4.59	0.547	0.085
Q8b	Male	24	4.25	0.608	0.124
	Female	41	4.12	0.640	0.100
Q8c	Male	24	3.33	0.702	0.143
	Female	41	3.83	0.629	0.098
Q8d	Male	24	3.25	0.944	0.193
	Female	41	3.37	0.994	0.155
Q8e	Male	24	3.92	0.881	0.180
	Female	41	3.78	0.852	0.133
Q8f	Male	24	4.21	0.588	0.120
	Female	41	4.27	0.633	0.099
Q8g	Male	24	4.42	0.584	0.119
	Female	41	4.24	0.699	0.109
Q8h	Male	24	2.33	0.917	0.187
	Female	41	2.56	0.896	0.140
Q8i	Male	24	3.58	0.881	0.180
	Female	41	3.39	0.919	0.143
Q8j	Male	24	2.08	0.929	0.190
	Female	41	1.98	0.851	0.133
Q8k	Male	24	3.04	0.999	0.204
	Female	41	3.51	0.870	0.136
Q8l	Male	24	4.00	0.659	0.135
	Female	41	4.20	0.679	0.106
Q8m	Male	24	2.58	0.881	0.180
	Female	41	2.71	0.814	0.127
Q8n	Male	24	4.25	0.944	0.193
	Female	41	4.20	0.872	0.136
Q8o	Male	24	3.33	1.007	0.206
	Female	41	3.02	0.987	0.154
Q8p	Male	24	3.79	0.779	0.159
	Female	41	3.85	0.792	0.124
Q8q	Male	24	2.92	0.830	0.169
	Female	41	2.90	0.860	0.134
Q8r	Male	24	4.00	0.722	0.147
	Female	41	4.22	0.690	0.108
Q8s	Male	24	2.96	1.268	0.259
	Female	41	3.32	1.150	0.180
Q8t	Male	24	4.12	0.448	0.092
	Female	41	4.05	0.498	0.078
Q8u	Male	24	4.21	0.721	0.147
	Female	41	4.17	0.863	0.135
Q8v	Male	24	2.54	0.833	0.170
	Female	41	2.66	0.825	0.129
Q8w	Male	24	1.75	0.897	0.183
	Female	41	1.80	0.601	0.094
Q8x	Male	24	2.38	0.875	0.179
	Female	41	2.59	0.836	0.131
Q8y	Male	24	3.67	0.868	0.177
	Female	41	3.66	0.825	0.129
Q8z	Male	24	4.04	0.690	0.141
	Female	41	4.00	0.775	0.121

* Sampling statserstics by SPSS

Table 4: Independent samples test between gender groups (*)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval Lower	95% Confidence Interval Upper
Q8a	Equal variances assumed	0.330	0.567	-1.171	63	0.246	-0.169	0.144	-0.457	0.119
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.151	45.750	0.256	-0.169	0.147	-0.464	0.126
Q8b	Equal variances assumed	0.081	0.777	0.793	63	0.431	0.128	0.162	-0.195	0.451
	Equal variances not assumed			0.804	50.349	0.425	0.128	0.159	-0.192	0.448
Q8c	Equal variances assumed	1.529	0.221	-2.940	63	0.005	-0.496	0.169	-0.833	-0.159
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.855	44.075	0.007	-0.496	0.174	-0.846	-0.146
Q8d	Equal variances assumed	0.140	0.710	-0.462	63	0.646	-0.116	0.251	-0.617	0.385
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.468	50.340	0.642	-0.116	0.247	-0.613	0.381
Q8e	Equal variances assumed	0.013	0.909	0.614	63	0.541	0.136	0.222	-0.307	0.579
	Equal variances not assumed			0.609	46.992	0.545	0.136	0.224	-0.314	0.586
Q8f	Equal variances assumed	0.724	0.398	-0.378	63	0.707	-0.060	0.159	-0.377	0.257
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.385	51.244	0.702	-0.060	0.156	-0.372	0.252
Q8g	Equal variances assumed	0.468	0.496	1.019	63	0.312	0.173	0.169	-0.166	0.511
	Equal variances not assumed			1.069	55.405	0.290	0.173	0.162	-0.151	0.497
Q8h	Equal variances assumed	0.014	0.905	-0.980	63	0.331	-0.228	0.232	-0.692	0.236
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.974	47.380	0.335	-0.228	0.234	-0.698	0.242
Q8i	Equal variances assumed	0.334	0.565	0.830	63	0.410	0.193	0.233	-0.272	0.658
	Equal variances not assumed			0.840	49.978	0.405	0.193	0.230	-0.269	0.655
Q8j	Equal variances assumed	0.188	0.666	0.476	63	0.636	0.108	0.226	-0.344	0.560
	Equal variances not assumed			0.465	44.934	0.644	0.108	0.232	-0.359	0.574
Q8k	Equal variances assumed	0.428	0.516	-1.992	63	0.051	-0.471	0.236	-0.943	0.001
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.920	43.051	0.061	-0.471	0.245	-0.965	0.024
Q8l	Equal variances assumed	1.420	0.238	-1.130	63	0.263	-0.195	0.173	-0.540	0.150
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.139	49.455	0.260	-0.195	0.171	-0.539	0.149
Q8m	Equal variances assumed	0.261	0.611	-0.575	63	0.567	-0.124	0.216	-0.555	0.307
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.563	45.243	0.576	-0.124	0.220	-0.567	0.319
Q8n	Equal variances assumed	0.105	0.747	0.237	63	0.813	0.055	0.231	-0.407	0.517
	Equal variances not assumed			0.233	45.237	0.817	0.055	0.236	-0.420	0.530
Q8o	Equal variances assumed	0.341	0.561	1.209	63	0.231	0.309	0.256	-0.202	0.820
	Equal variances not assumed			1.202	47.499	0.235	0.309	0.257	-0.208	0.826
Q8p	Equal variances assumed	0.000	0.999	-0.306	63	0.760	-0.062	0.202	-0.467	0.343
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.308	48.973	0.760	-0.062	0.202	-0.467	0.343
Q8q	Equal variances assumed	0.057	0.812	0.065	63	0.948	0.014	0.218	-0.422	0.450
	Equal variances not assumed			0.066	49.736	0.948	0.014	0.216	-0.420	0.449
Q8r	Equal variances assumed	0.849	0.360	-1.217	63	0.228	-0.220	0.180	-0.580	0.141
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.202	46.484	0.235	-0.220	0.183	-0.587	0.148
Q8s	Equal variances assumed	0.026	0.873	-1.169	63	0.247	-0.359	0.307	-0.972	0.255
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.139	44.546	0.261	-0.359	0.315	-0.993	0.276
Q8t	Equal variances assumed	0.018	0.894	0.618	63	0.539	0.076	0.123	-0.170	0.323
	Equal variances not assumed			0.635	52.436	0.528	0.076	0.120	-0.165	0.317
Q8u	Equal variances assumed	0.760	0.387	0.180	63	0.858	0.038	0.209	-0.381	0.456
	Equal variances not assumed			0.188	55.370	0.851	0.038	0.200	-0.362	0.438
Q8v	Equal variances assumed	0.154	0.696	-0.549	63	0.585	-0.117	0.213	-0.542	0.308
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.548	47.910	0.586	-0.117	0.213	-0.546	0.312
Q8w	Equal variances assumed	7.174	0.009	-0.295	63	0.769	-0.055	0.186	-0.426	0.316
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.267	35.272	0.791	-0.055	0.206	-0.472	0.363
Q8x	Equal variances assumed	0.293	0.590	-0.962	63	0.340	-0.210	0.219	-0.647	0.226
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.951	46.491	0.347	-0.210	0.221	-0.656	0.235
Q8y	Equal variances assumed	0.024	0.877	0.038	63	0.970	0.008	0.216	-0.424	0.440
	Equal variances not assumed			0.037	46.301	0.971	0.008	0.219	-0.433	0.449
Q8z	Equal variances assumed	0.178	0.674	0.218	63	0.828	0.042	0.191	-0.341	0.424
	Equal variances not assumed			0.224	52.884	0.823	0.042	0.186	-0.331	0.414

* Sampling statserstics by SPSS

Table 5: ANOVA between age categories (*)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Q8a	Between Groups	0.196	3	0.065	0.199	0.897
	Within Groups	20.019	61	0.328		
	Total	20.215	64			
Q8b	Between Groups	0.801	3	0.267	0.669	0.574
	Within Groups	24.337	61	0.399		
	Total	25.138	64			
Q8c	Between Groups	0.094	3	0.031	0.062	0.980
	Within Groups	30.768	61	0.504		
	Total	30.862	64			
Q8d	Between Groups	2.287	3	0.762	0.803	0.497
	Within Groups	57.928	61	0.950		
	Total	60.215	64			
Q8e	Between Groups	1.146	3	0.382	0.507	0.679
	Within Groups	45.992	61	0.754		
	Total	47.138	64			
Q8f	Between Groups	0.487	3	0.162	0.420	0.739
	Within Groups	23.575	61	0.386		
	Total	24.062	64			
Q8g	Between Groups	0.823	3	0.274	0.619	0.605
	Within Groups	27.023	61	0.443		
	Total	27.846	64			
Q8h	Between Groups	0.657	3	0.219	0.259	0.854
	Within Groups	51.558	61	0.845		
	Total	52.215	64			
Q8i	Between Groups	1.094	3	0.365	0.435	0.728
	Within Groups	51.060	61	0.837		
	Total	52.154	64			
Q8j	Between Groups	5.011	3	1.670	2.317	0.084
	Within Groups	43.974	61	0.721		
	Total	48.985	64			
Q8k	Between Groups	1.558	3	0.519	0.576	0.633
	Within Groups	54.996	61	0.902		
	Total	56.554	64			
Q8l	Between Groups	0.220	3	0.073	0.155	0.926
	Within Groups	28.796	61	0.472		
	Total	29.015	64			
Q8m	Between Groups	1.059	3	0.353	0.495	0.687
	Within Groups	43.495	61	0.713		
	Total	44.554	64			
Q8n	Between Groups	1.184	3	0.395	0.484	0.695
	Within Groups	49.800	61	0.816		
	Total	50.985	64			
Q8o	Between Groups	2.431	3	0.810	0.806	0.495
	Within Groups	61.323	61	1.005		
	Total	63.754	64			
Q8p	Between Groups	0.617	3	0.206	0.326	0.807
	Within Groups	38.521	61	0.631		
	Total	39.138	64			
Q8q	Between Groups	1.237	3	0.412	0.569	0.638
	Within Groups	44.209	61	0.725		
	Total	45.446	64			
Q8r	Between Groups	1.006	3	0.335	0.665	0.577
	Within Groups	30.748	61	0.504		
	Total	31.754	64			
Q8s	Between Groups	3.018	3	1.006	0.691	0.561
	Within Groups	88.767	61	1.455		
	Total	91.785	64			
Q8t	Between Groups	1.153	3	0.384	1.741	0.168
	Within Groups	13.462	61	0.221		
	Total	14.615	64			

Q8u	Between Groups Within Groups Total	3.157 38.627 41.785	3 61 64	1.052 0.633	1.662	0.185
Q8v	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2.234 41.150 43.385	3 61 64	0.745 0.675	1.104	0.354
Q8w	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.987 31.998 32.985	3 61 64	0.329 0.525	0.627	0.600
Q8x	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.302 45.945 46.246	3 61 64	0.101 0.753	0.133	0.940
Q8y	Between Groups Within Groups Total	3.656 40.898 44.554	3 61 64	1.219 0.670	1.818	0.153
Q8z	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2.136 32.848 34.985	3 61 64	0.712 0.538	1.322	0.275

* Sampling stasterstics by SPSS

Table 6: ANOVA between education groups (*)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Q8a	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.170 20.046 20.215	2 62 64	0.085 0.323	0.263	0.770
Q8b	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.750 23.388 25.138	2 62 64	0.875 0.377	2.320	0.107
Q8c	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.493 29.369 30.862	2 62 64	0.746 0.474	1.576	0.215
Q8d	Between Groups Within Groups Total	4.585 55.631 60.215	2 62 64	2.292 0.897	2.555	0.086
Q8e	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.324 46.815 47.138	2 62 64	0.162 0.755	0.214	0.808
Q8f	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.300 23.761 24.062	2 62 64	0.150 0.383	0.392	0.678
Q8g	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.052 27.794 27.846	2 62 64	0.026 0.448	0.058	0.944
Q8h	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.042 52.173 52.215	2 62 64	0.021 0.842	0.025	0.975
Q8i	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.083 51.071 52.154	2 62 64	0.542 0.824	0.657	0.522
Q8j	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.899 48.086 48.985	2 62 64	0.449 0.776	0.579	0.563
Q8k	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.483 55.071 56.554	2 62 64	0.742 0.888	0.835	0.439
Q8l	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.067 28.948 29.015	2 62 64	0.034 0.467	0.072	0.931
Q8m	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.894 43.660 44.554	2 62 64	0.447 0.704	0.634	0.534

Q8n	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.398 50.587 50.985	2 62 64	0.199 0.816	0.244	0.784
Q8o	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.591 63.163 63.754	2 62 64	0.296 1.019	0.290	0.749
Q8p	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.338 38.801 39.138	2 62 64	0.169 0.626	0.270	0.765
Q8q	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.129 44.317 45.446	2 62 64	0.565 0.715	0.790	0.458
Q8r	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.880 30.874 31.754	2 62 64	0.440 0.498	0.884	0.418
Q8s	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.895 90.890 91.785	2 62 64	0.447 1.466	0.305	0.738
Q8t	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.631 13.984 14.615	2 62 64	0.316 0.226	1.400	0.254
Q8u	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.848 40.936 41.785	2 62 64	0.424 0.660	0.643	0.529
Q8v	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.105 42.280 43.385	2 62 64	0.552 0.682	0.810	0.449
Q8w	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.334 32.650 32.985	2 62 64	0.167 0.527	0.317	0.729
Q8x	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.537 45.709 46.246	2 62 64	0.269 0.737	0.364	0.696
Q8y	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.628 42.926 44.554	2 62 64	0.814 0.692	1.175	0.315
Q8z	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.141 33.843 34.985	2 62 64	0.571 0.546	1.045	0.358

* Sampling staterstics by SPSS

Table 7: ANOVA between occupation groups (*)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Q8a	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.138 19.078 20.215	2 62 64	0.569 0.308	1.849	0.166
Q8b	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.583 24.556 25.138	2 62 64	0.291 0.396	0.736	0.483
Q8c	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.273 30.589 30.862	2 62 64	0.136 0.493	0.276	0.760
Q8d	Between Groups Within Groups Total	9.404 50.811 60.215	2 62 64	4.702 0.820	5.738	0.005
Q8e	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.494 46.644 47.138	2 62 64	0.247 0.752	0.328	0.721
Q8f	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.562 22.500 24.062	2 62 64	0.781 0.363	2.151	0.125

Q8g	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.235 27.611 27.846	2 62 64	0.118 0.445	0.264	0.769
Q8h	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.571 51.644 52.215	2 62 64	0.285 0.833	0.343	0.711
Q8i	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.732 50.422 52.154	2 62 64	.866 .813	1.065	0.351
Q8j	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.129 48.856 48.985	2 62 64	.065 .788	0.082	0.921
Q8k	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.998 54.556 56.554	2 62 64	0.999 0.880	1.135	0.328
Q8l	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.460 27.556 29.015	2 62 64	0.730 0.444	1.642	0.202
Q8m	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.243 44.311 44.554	2 62 64	0.121 0.715	0.170	0.844
Q8n	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.896 49.089 50.985	2 62 64	0.948 0.792	1.197	0.309
Q8o	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.609 62.144 63.754	2 62 64	0.805 1.002	0.803	0.453
Q8p	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.416 38.722 39.138	2 62 64	0.208 0.625	0.333	0.718
Q8q	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.024 45.422 45.446	2 62 64	0.012 0.733	0.016	0.984
Q8r	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.843 29.911 31.754	2 62 64	0.921 0.482	1.910	0.157
Q8s	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2.262 89.522 91.785	2 62 64	1.131 1.444	0.783	0.461
Q8t	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.171 14.444 14.615	2 62 64	0.085 0.233	0.367	0.694
Q8u	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.262 41.522 41.785	2 62 64	0.131 0.670	0.196	0.823
Q8v	Between Groups Within Groups Total	3.962 39.422 43.385	2 62 64	1.981 0.636	3.116	0.051
Q8w	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.296 32.689 32.985	2 62 64	0.148 0.527	0.280	0.756
Q8x	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.602 45.644 46.246	2 62 64	0.301 0.736	0.409	0.666
Q8y	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.665 42.889 44.554	2 62 64	.832 .692	1.203	0.307
Q8z	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.040 34.944 34.985	2 62 64	.020 .564	0.036	0.965

* Sampling stasterstics by SPSS

Table 8: ANOVA between groups of personal monthly income (*)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Q8a	Between Groups	2.361	2	1.181	4.100	0.021
	Within Groups	17.854	62	0.288		
	Total	20.215	64			
Q8b	Between Groups	0.451	2	0.225	0.566	0.571
	Within Groups	24.687	62	0.398		
	Total	25.138	64			
Q8c	Between Groups	0.945	2	0.472	0.979	0.381
	Within Groups	29.917	62	0.483		
	Total	30.862	64			
Q8d	Between Groups	1.215	2	0.608	0.639	0.531
	Within Groups	59.000	62	0.952		
	Total	60.215	64			
Q8e	Between Groups	3.222	2	1.611	2.274	0.111
	Within Groups	43.917	62	0.708		
	Total	47.138	64			
Q8f	Between Groups	0.707	2	0.354	0.939	0.397
	Within Groups	23.354	62	0.377		
	Total	24.062	64			
Q8g	Between Groups	2.179	2	1.090	2.632	0.080
	Within Groups	25.667	62	0.414		
	Total	27.846	64			
Q8h	Between Groups	0.236	2	0.118	0.141	0.869
	Within Groups	51.979	62	0.838		
	Total	52.215	64			
Q8i	Between Groups	7.737	2	3.869	5.400	0.007
	Within Groups	44.417	62	0.716		
	Total	52.154	64			
Q8j	Between Groups	0.005	2	0.003	0.003	0.997
	Within Groups	48.979	62	0.790		
	Total	48.985	64			
Q8k	Between Groups	1.137	2	0.569	0.636	0.533
	Within Groups	55.417	62	0.894		
	Total	56.554	64			
Q8l	Between Groups	0.015	2	0.008	0.016	0.984
	Within Groups	29.000	62	0.468		
	Total	29.015	64			
Q8m	Between Groups	1.804	2	0.902	1.308	0.278
	Within Groups	42.750	62	0.690		
	Total	44.554	64			
Q8n	Between Groups	1.068	2	0.534	0.663	0.519
	Within Groups	49.917	62	0.805		
	Total	50.985	64			
Q8o	Between Groups	2.087	2	1.044	1.049	0.356
	Within Groups	61.667	62	0.995		
	Total	63.754	64			
Q8p	Between Groups	1.201	2	0.600	0.981	0.381
	Within Groups	37.938	62	0.612		
	Total	39.138	64			
Q8q	Between Groups	0.029	2	0.015	0.020	0.980
	Within Groups	45.417	62	0.733		
	Total	45.446	64			
Q8r	Between Groups	0.837	2	0.419	0.839	0.437
	Within Groups	30.917	62	0.499		
	Total	31.754	64			

Q8s	Between Groups Within Groups Total	4.118 87.667 91.785	2 62 64	2.059 1.414	1.456	0.241
Q8t	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.136 14.479 14.615	2 62 64	0.068 0.234	0.292	0.748
Q8u	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.785 41.000 41.785	2 62 64	0.392 0.661	0.593	0.556
Q8v	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.322 42.062 43.385	2 62 64	0.661 0.678	0.974	0.383
Q8w	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.235 32.750 32.985	2 62 64	0.117 0.528	0.222	0.801
Q8x	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.996 45.250 46.246	2 62 64	0.498 0.730	0.682	0.509
Q8y	Between Groups Within Groups Total	1.137 43.417 44.554	2 62 64	0.569 0.700	0.812	0.449
Q8z	Between Groups Within Groups Total	0.880 34.104 34.985	2 62 64	0.440 0.550	0.800	0.454

* Sampling stasterstics by SPSS