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## Examining Long-Haul Chinese Outbound Tourists' Shopping Intentions

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# **EXAMINING LONG-HAUL CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS' SHOPPING INTENTIONS**

by

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study examines long-haul Chinese outbound tourists' shopping intentions using the planned behavior approach. Attitude of product and store attributes, subjective norms of co-workers are found to significantly predict shopping intentions of respondents during their overseas trips. Further, behavioral beliefs and the corresponding outcome evaluation of product and store attributes lead to the formation of attitude. Normative beliefs of co-workers, motivation to comply with co-workers, and the interaction between them significantly influence respondents' subjective norms on overseas tourism shopping. Control beliefs, power of control beliefs, and the interaction between them predict respondents' perceived behavioral control on overseas tourism shopping. Both academic and practical implications are made based on the results.

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Shopping is one of the most pervasive tourist activities in destinations (Choi et al., 1999; Snepenger et al., 2003; Yuksel, 2007). The importance of shopping experience as a part of tourists' overall experience has begun to draw increasing attention from researchers (Getz, 1993; Yuksel, 2007; Turner & Reisinger 2001; Kemperman et al., 2009; Hsieh and Chang 2006; Timothy & Butler, 1995; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Wong & Law, 2003; Yuksel, 2004; Reisinger & Turner, 2002; Jansen-Verbeke, 1991). It has been noted that shopping activity is particularly important to international tourists who are likely to spend larger amount of money on souvenirs and goods that may not be readily available or affordable in their home country (Dimanche, 2003; Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Timothy & Butler, 1995). Extant studies report that shopping can be a powerful motivating force in the decision to undertake a cross-border trip (Timothy and Butler 1995); tourists of different nationalities may have diversified shopping preferences (Lehto et al., 2004; Reisinger & Turner, 2002) and hold varied satisfaction levels (Wong & Law, 2003; Yuksel, 2004).

Shopping behavior of Asian tourists, who are the major source of global shopping, has raised extensive interests among researchers (Lehto et al., 2004; Ko, 2000; Hobson & Christensen, 2001; Wong & Law, 2003; Keown, 1989; Reisinger & Turner,

2002; Jansen-Verbeke & Theobald, 1995; Pawitra & Tan, 2003; Mak et al., 1999). For example, Reisinger and Turner (2002) find the different shopping satisfactions of Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and the Gold Coast are determined by the perceived importance of product attributes. Other research also sheds light on Japanese tourists' shopping behavior including their propensity to buy in overseas destinations (Keown, 1989), the effect of culture value on their shopping behavior (Hobson & Christensen, 2001), and the relationship of shopping activities and other tourist consumptions among Japanese tourists (Jansen-Verbeke, 1995). Pizam and Jeong (1996) compare behavioral characteristics among Japanese, American and Korean group tourists and argue that nationality makes a difference on group tourists' behavior, of which shopping behavior is one of the 18 different characteristics identified among those three groups. Ko (2000) examine the issues and underlying reasons of the escorted shopping tour of Korean tourists in Australia, and further argued its influence on tourists' overall satisfaction.

Shopping as a tourist activity is particularly favored by the Chinese tourists, and a large portion of their travel expenditure is spent on shopping (Prideaux, 1996; Zhang & Qu, 1996; Zhou et al., 1998; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Cai et al., 2001; Lehto et al., 2004; Heung & Cheng, 2000). Chinese shoppers are highly visible in places such as Hong Kong, Paris, London, and New York (VisitBritain, 2011). The Australia Bureau of Tourism Research (2003) found that 81% of the Chinese outbound tourists engaged in shopping when traveling in Australia, making it the most popular activity (Chow & Murphy, 2008). The MasterIndex of Travel China (2nd half of 2008) revealed that the main activities of Chinese independent travelers to all destinations in the world were general sightseeing (84%) and shopping (82%) (ETC, 2011). Meanwhile, the recent

development of China's long-haul outbound tourism made Chinese tourists a major market drawing worldwide attention (Pan et al., 2007; Ryan & Gu, 2008). As of late 2011, there were 140 destinations around the world that signed the bilateral tourism agreement with China, called Approved Destination Status (ADS) (CNTA, 2012). For example, China currently has a middle class of more than 300 million people that are able to travel to the United States, and it is the fastest growing outbound travel market in the world (US Travel Association, 2009). According to National Tourism Administration of the People's Republic of China (CNTA), in 2010, Chinese outbound tourist volume reached 57.4 million with a 20.4% annual increase (CNTA, 2011). Furthermore, the Chinese outbound tourism market ousted the UK from third place among the world's top tourism spenders in 2010, with a 26% increase in expenditure on travel and tourism abroad (in US dollar term), to US\$54.9 billion (ETC, 2011). The most recent data from Tourism Australia Research, showed that in 2011, Chinese tourist arrivals to Australia increased by 19.4%, which made China still among the fastest-growing markets since 2000 (Tourism Australia Research, 2012). European Travel Commission reported that in 2010, Chinese tourist arrivals to Europe totaled 3.9 million, representing 34.8% of the Chinese long haul outbound market. In the same year, tourist arrivals from China to the United States reached 802,000, an annual growth rate of 52.8% (OTTI, 2011); the total spending of Chinese tourists amounted at \$5 billion, averaging \$6,243 per person per trip, which represented the highest spending international market and supported 35, 500 domestic jobs in the U.S. (U.S. Travel Association, 2011).

Previous research on Chinese outbound tourists proved China as an important market for the global tourism industry (e.g. Kim et al., 2005; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Zhang

& Heung, 2002; Zhou et al., 1998; Zhang & Chow, 2004; Li et al., 2011; Wong & Kwong, 2004; Qu & Lam, 1997; Pan, 2003; Zhang et al., 2009; Harrill et al., 2010; Qu & Li, 1997; Cai et al., 2001; Li & Stepchenkova, 2012; Zhang et al., 2009; Stepchenkova & Li, 2012; Li et al., 2011; Chow & Murphy, 2011; Li et al., 2012). Due to its unique social and Culture background (Doctoroff, 2005), Chinese tourists' behavior and preferences appear different from other international travelers (Chow & Murphy, 2008, 2011). For example, Chinese tourists prefer travelling in groups rather than alone, as collectivism are highly valued in Chinese culture (Hofstede, 1991; Mok & DeFranco, 1999). Additionally, Chinese usually save money for months before going on trips abroad (Lau, 2004) and bring gifts to family, friends and co-workers as a social norm (Lehto et al., 2004; Xu & McGehee, 2012). In terms of overseas destination attributes, beautiful scenery (Kim et al., 2005; Sparks & Pan, 2009), quality infrastructure, autonomy, inspirational motives and social self-enhancement (Sparks & Pan, 2009) are found to be considered important to Chinese tourists. Television program and internet are an important source of information used by Chinese people to learn about target destination (Sparks & Pan, 2009; Zhang & Heung, 2002; Cai et al., 2001). Furthermore, Sparks and Pan (2009) note that seeking shopping opportunity, looking for inspiration and the need of interaction with locals are strongly influenced by the use of television program. Some research has attempted to investigate preferences in terms of tourist activities among Chinese people. Du and Zhang (2003) examines Chinese outbound group tourists concerning their most preferred activities in future overseas travel. The result shows that the majority preferred sightseeing (47.1%), participatory entertainment (18.3%), adventure activity (13.1%) and others wanted to experience local lifestyle (17.6%). Zhou, King, & Turner (1998) suggest

“places which are highly popular” are the most important. For the relatively new market such as the U.S., Cai, Lehto and O’Leary (2001) find their top five activities were shopping, dining, city sightseeing, visiting historical places, amusement and theme parks. Similarly, Li et al. (2011) examine Chinese tourists’ expectations of outbound travel product in various aspects and shopping is found to be one of the major travel motivations and an important activity of interest for Chinese outbound tourists.

Although Shopping is found to be one of the most favorable tourist activities by outbound Chinese tourists (Cai et al., 2001; Li et al., 2011), very limited studies investigated outbound Chinese tourists’ shopping behavior. Hong Kong is one of the few first outbound destinations for Mainland Chinese tourists (Qu & Lam, 1997; Zhang & Heung, 2001) and it has been labeled as a popular shopping destination particularly for tourists from Asian countries. A few studies shed light on Mainland Chinese tourists’ shopping experience in Hong Kong. For example, Mainland Chinese tourists are found to have high importance expectation on quality of goods, service quality, variety of goods and price of goods when shopping in Hong Kong (Wong & Law, 2002). Qu and Li (1997) indicate that Mainland Chinese tourists in Hong Kong are satisfied with the shopping facility, variety of choices, convenience to the shop and staff service but are not satisfied with both the product quality and price offered. Most significant complaints among Mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong are found to be the mandatory shopping trips provided by tour guides (Zhang & Chow, 2004; Zhang et al., 2009). Furthermore, Choi et al. (2008) examine a wide range of aspects of shopping including locations, brand preference, tendency to purchase new brand, decision-making style, product attributes,

shopping environment and sales service of individual visitors from Chinese Mainland to Hong Kong.

Though in scarce, researchers began to show interest in the long-haul Chinese outbound tourists' shopping behavior. It is suggested that long-haul Chinese tourists prefer purchasing electronics and famous brand-name items for their extended network of friends, family and even acquaintances when traveling overseas (Guo et al., 2007). Li et al. (2011) report that long-haul Chinese outbound tourists want to acquire shopping information from the tour operators, prefer to visit shopping area with local flavor and do not want forced shopping. Chow and Murphy (2011) examine the predictive power of psychographic and demographic variables on Chinese outbound tourists to Australia and found that 'shopping and dining' is proved to be significant related to a combination of psychographic and demographic contributors. Most recently, Xu and McGehee (2012) conduct in-depth interviews with Chinese tourists who had participated group tours of East Coast cities during the spring of 2008. The qualitative research reveals Chinese tourists' product choices, shopping motivation, shopping experience and problems during the shopping trip on a general dimension.

In sum, Chinese outbound tourists shopping behavior has attracted increasing attention but due to the scarce extant research, much is unknown about this important, fast-growing market. To date, the majority of studies on Mainland Chinese tourists' shopping experience are presented in the Hong Kong setting, a non-overseas, non-long-haul destination. The relevant literature in the long-haul, overseas setting is still in infancy stage (Li et al., 2011) and minimal research was done on long-haul Chinese outbound tourists' shopping behavior. The scarce literature calls for more exploration on

this significant subject matter. Meanwhile, existing studies have highlighted the need on Chinese outbound tourist shopping (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Wong & Law, 2002; Lehto et al., 2004; Xu & McGehee, 2012). Therefore, this study aims to fill the gap of providing empirical findings on long-haul Chinese outbound tourist shopping intentions. In other words, this study attempts to empirically investigate long-haul Chinese outbound tourists' shopping intention with a sample of Chinese tourists with travel experience to long-haul overseas destination in the past. Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1988; 1991) is applied in this research setting as the theoretical foundation to examine the factors which influence tourists' shopping behavior and their predicting relationship with the future shopping intention.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND**

### **1.2.1 Chinese outbound market: tourist arrivals**

Official statistics showed the Chinese outbound tourist population is growing in recent years. In the first three quarters of 2011, there were over 50 million outbound travelers in China with a 20% year-to-date increase rate (COTRI, 2011).

Among the destinations in the world, Australia has been a popular long-haul tourism destination for Chinese tourists for the past 11 years. Despite a 7.3% decline in 2003 due to the outbreak of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), China visitation to Australia increased steadily at an average annual rate of 14.2% since 2000 (Australia Government Department of Resource, Energy and Tourism, 2011). European Union areas currently received approximately 3.8 million Chinese annually, with about 200,000 more than Japanese count. The number is considered to be higher if measured in terms of cumulative arrivals in different European destinations (ETC, 2011). In 2011,



European Travel Commission reported that Chinese tourist arrivals to Europe totaled 3.9 million, representing 34.8% of the Chinese long haul outbound market (ETC, 2011). The United Kingdom also sees an upward trend of Chinese visitation. Till 2011, the total volume of Chinese tourists to UK amounted at 149,000 with a 5-year period increase rate of 40% (VisitBritain, 2012). Since the grant of ADS (Approved Destination Status) in May 2008 (CNTA, 2010), The United States has stepped into the game in competing for Chinese outbound tourists on a much larger scale (Xu and McGehee, 2012). The Chinese tourist arrivals to U.S. have been increasing for the recent years. The U.S. Travel Association reported that approximately 13.2% of all Chinese residents traveling beyond Asia visited the U.S. in 2010, and this share is forecasted to increase to 25% by 2015 (U.S. Travel Association). The most recent figure by OTTI (2011) shows that though slow down a bit, China still top the increase rate in tourist arrivals to U.S. in 2011 (35.9%). According to the U.S. Commerce Department, China is forecasted to account for 2.16 million of the total 14 million visitor growth through 2016 (OTTI, 2012).

### **1.2.2 Chinese outbound market: Tourist spending**

The growing disposable income amongst Chinese tourists has boosted their overseas spending in recent years. It has been recognized that the global economic downturn did not affect China as much as one would have expected (ETC 2011). Throughout the recession, China was one of the few leading outbound travel markets around the world that continued to show positive growth in economic value (VisitBritain, 2012). The most updated data from Chinese Tourism Academy indicated for the first half of 2011, outbound tourism expense amounted at 33.1 billion USD and trade deficit of tourism services reached at 10.7 billion USD, which equates to 54.1% of the total trade

deficit of service industries (COTRI, 2011). The tourism department of Australia government forecasted that in the longer term to 2020, the Total Inbound Economic Value (TIEV) is expected to double to over \$6.0 billion, which will make China Australia's most valuable inbound market (Australia Government Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism, 2011). The Office of Travel and Tourism Industries reported in 2010 that U.S. travel and tourism exports (spending) to China have increased by 30% in seven of the last eight years (OTTI). In 2011, visitors from China spent \$7.7 billion in the United States, positioning China ahead of Germany in ranking of top spending markets for the first time. What worth mention is that the spending growth rate of Chinese outbound tourists usually outpaces their arrival growth rate (i.e. in 2011 the spending growth rate in U.S is 47% while the arrival growth rate is 36%), which indicates that it may be more important for overseas destinations to focus on the Chinese inbound market in terms of dollar spending.

### **1.2.3 Chinese outbound market: Tourist shopping**

Shopping is the most popular destination activities to Chinese tourists when taking outbound travels (Cai, et al., 2001; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Wong and Law, 2003; Lin and Lin, 2006). Chinese consumers are becoming increasingly discerning with more exposure to foreign goods and services. The stronger currency also helped to trigger much expanded spending overseas.

In 2005, a survey of Chinese tourists released by the CNTA showed that travelers to various EU member states spent about 3,000 Euro per trip, of which 34% went on shopping (ETC, 2011). Recent figures proved the shopping trend is growing. Among Chinese tourists visiting Britain, there are more than 80% VFR (Visiting Friends and

Relatives) visitors and more than 60% Holiday takers shopped during their trips (VisitBritain, 2012). In U.S. shopping with an average participation percentage at 90%, has been holding the number-one place (followed by ‘Dining in Restaurants’ and ‘Sightseeing in Cities’) on the top 10 activity list of Chinese tourists for 7 consecutive years since 2005 (OTTI).

According to the MasterIndex Survey, preferred shopping items for Chinese tourists are local souvenirs, antiques and arts and crafts (71%), apparel and personal effects (67%), electronic and audio-visual products (36%), food items (35%) and luxury and branded goods (32%) (ETC, 2011). In recent years, Brand-conscious Chinese tourists are becoming well known for their “shopping power” and their enthusiasm for expensive high-end products (VisitBritain, 2012). A key attribute of the Chinese outbound market is a tendency to make big-bill purchases. with figures from Global Blue indicating that during the first seven months of 2012, China accounted for one fifths of sales in the world where departing visitors reclaimed tax, placing China second to Middle East (VisitBritain, 2012). Recent comments from Chinese tourists also suggest that branded goods bought in Europe, though often are found to be ‘made in China’, are valued both for being cheaper than bought in China and more likely to be genuine (ETC, 2011).

### **1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The overall purpose of this study is to determine what factors influence long-haul outbound Chinese tourists’ intentions to shop during their overseas trips. After a careful examination of the current body of literature, six possible constructs from the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1988; 1991) have been identified that are believed to influence tourists’ intention to shop. In other words, this study uses the Theory of Planned Behavior

(TPB) (Ajzen, 1988; 1991) to examine the effects of factors on tourists' shopping intention during long-haul outbound trips. Specifically the constructs include (1) behavioral beliefs and attitude toward shopping overseas, (2) normative beliefs and subjective norms about how pressured the tourist feels from reference groups in terms of shopping during overseas trips, as well as (3) control beliefs and perceived behavioral control of some possible constraints or barriers prevent the tourist from shopping during overseas trips. Through the use of a survey instrument, this study will identify which, if any, of these constructs predict long-haul outbound Chinese tourists' intentions to shop overseas. It will also determine the strengths of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

The study context covers the research areas of tourism, retail and Chinese consumer behavior. Past research has shown that the Theory of Planned Behavior is able to be transferred and reliably applied to tourism (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & pan, 2009; Quintal et al., 2010), retailing (Cannière et al., 2009) and the Chinese setting (Bagozzi et al., 2001; Chan & Lau, 2001; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Simth et al., 2009; Sparks & Pan, 2009). Therefore, this study attempts to further test the applicability of the TPB in the tourism shopping context with a sample of long-haul outbound Chinese tourists. Even though many studies shed light on tourism shopping (e.g. Getz, 1993; Yukesel, 2007; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Kemperman et al., 2009) and several focused on Chinese tourist shopping preferences and satisfactions (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Lehto et al., 2004; Lin & Lin, 2006), there's limited amount of literature on Chinese outbound tourists shopping intentions, especially in the context of long-haul overseas travel such as the United States. On the other hand, due to the recent

development of Chinese outbound tourism and Chinese tourists' increasing spending power overseas, destinations around the world realized it is important to attract Chinese people to spend and investigating their spending pattern (Xu & McGehee, 2012). Among the tourist activities of Chinese outbound travelers, Shopping is an important activity of interest and even one of the major travel motivations (Xu & McGehee, 2012; Li et al., 2010, 2011; Cai et al., 2001; OTTI; ETC, 2011; VisitBritain, 2012). Thus, there is a need to address Chinese outbound tourists' shopping intentions and shopping behavior, especially in the context of the long-haul market. Under the theoretical framework of the TPB, this study attempts to explore the behavioral intentions to shop of long-haul outbound Chinese outbound tourists from the shopping data of overseas long-haul Chinese tourists. Specially, the research objectives of this study are to:

1. Explore the influence of tourists' *behavioral beliefs* (BB) and *outcome evaluation* (OE) of overseas shopping on *attitude* toward shopping during a long-haul outbound trip.
2. Explore the influence of tourists' *normative beliefs* (NBs) and *motivation to comply* (MC) of overseas shopping on *subjective norm* toward shopping during a long-haul outbound trip.
3. Explore the influence of tourists' *control beliefs* (CBs) and *power of control beliefs* (P) of overseas shopping on *perceived behavioral control* toward shopping during a long-haul outbound trip.
4. Examine the respective predictive ability of *attitude*, *subjective norm*, and *perceived behavioral control* on *behavioral intention* to shop during a long-haul outbound trip.

Therefore, in accordance with the research objectives, the four specific research questions of this study are as follows:

1. How do *behavioral beliefs*, *outcome evaluation* and the interaction between them influence Chinese tourist's *attitude* towards shopping during overseas trips?
2. How do *normative beliefs*, *motivation to comply* and the interaction between them influence Chinese tourist's *subjective norms* toward shopping during overseas trips?
3. How do *control beliefs*, *power of control beliefs* and the interaction between them influence Chinese tourist's *perceived behavioral control* on shopping during overseas trips?
4. How do *attitude*, *subjective norms* and *perceived behavioral control* influence Chinese tourists' *shopping intentions* during their long-haul outbound trips?

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 TOURISM SHOPPING**

Many researchers argue that while shopping is less mentioned as primary motive for travel, it is a common and one of the main tourist activities (Kent et al., 1983; Keown et al., 1984; Witter, 1985; Keown, 1989; Dickman, 1989; Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Jansen-Verbeke, 1994; Timothy & Butler, 1995; Ko, 2000; Wang, 2012). For some tourists, shopping may be the single most important purpose of travel (Cohen, 1995; Reisinger & Waryzack, 1996; Huang & Hsu, 2005), or be considered at least an indispensable part of being a tourist (Heung & Qu, 1998; Yuksel, 2004). A number of studies emphasize the importance and popularity of shopping in tourism setting. The development of shopping sectors is instrumental in tourism promotion (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991). Di Matteo and Di Matteo (1996) indicate that due to the more leisure oriented setting for shopping in the destination, it has become a major leisure activity for many tourists. Timothy and Butler (1995) argue that the desire and necessity for shopping is based on the elements of relaxation, fleeing from mundane routine, and challenge that are associated with shopping, which in turn motivate tourist to travel. Furthermore, shopping opportunities can often function as attractions (Ryan, 1991). Shops such as Harrods in London, Nike Town in Chicago or Taipei 101 Building Shopping Mall are major tourist attractions (Reisinger & Turner, 2002; Wang, 2012).

### **2.1.1 Tourist shopping motives**

Shopping in tourism setting can be resulted from various motives including diversion, self-gratification, learning about local traditions and new trends, and sensory stimulation (Tauber, 1972). Tourist shopping motivations, as stated by Jansen-Verbeke (1994), can be divided into four categories: (1) strengthening social ties, (2) taking advantage of the unique goods provided or bargaining prices offered, (3) purchasing goods and products that represent the identity of the destination, and (4) being motivated by the favorable exchange rate. In keeping with the four categories, motivations of Chinese tourists shopping in the United States are found to be: a) purchase gifts for friends and relatives; b) take advantage of unique products (special souvenirs or high quality products) and lower price; and c) make good use of travel time (Xu & McGehee, 2012). Mok and Iverson (2000) attribute Taiwanese tourists' keenness of overseas shopping to their culture value of maintaining social relationship through the giving of gifts. Souvenir shopping by Japanese tourists is found rampant due to the important tradition of exchanging gifts (Jansen-Verbeke, 1994). Timothy and Butler (1995) report that taking advantage of price difference, getting away from a routine life and sampling a different culture comprised tourist motivation for taking cross-border shopping trips.

On the other hand, Wang (2004) classified tourist shopping motives into leisure and functional purposes. Furthermore, the added symbolic meanings account for the other motivations (Lehto et al., 2004). Trip remembrances are psychologically important to many tourists (Anderson & Littrell, 1995). The goods tourists purchased often carry symbolic meanings and special memories that they wish to cherish and remember (Belk, 1988; Gordon, 1986; Littrell et al., 1993; Oh et al., 2004; Swanson, 2004). For example,



the souvenir a tourist bought in the destination is a tangible symbol and reminder of an experience that differs from daily routine and that otherwise would remain intangible, such as memories of people, places and event (Gordon, 1986; Littrell, 1990; Simith, 1979).

Leisure shopping is one of the most popular activities in global tourism (Law & Au, 2000). Some researchers claim that shopping itself is a tourism activity that satisfies people's needs for leisure (Kent et al., 1983; Wang, 2004). Heung and Cheng (2000) suggest consumers may consider shopping for unneeded products as a leisure activity. Moscardo (2004) argues that tourists shopping motives can be recognized as instrumental and expressive ones. The expressive motives represent the need to escape, to relax, and to have a change of the life pace while the instrumental motives include shopping for necessities associated with travel and shopping as an activity that meets social obligation. Similarly, Geuens et al. (2004) suggest that tourist shopping motivations can be diversified into functional motivation, social motivation and experiential motivation. Functional motives can be referred to rational shopping behavior motivated by factors such as lower prices, more varieties and better quality (Chang et al., 2006). Shopping opportunities are a major attraction drawing tourists to many less developed countries where the prices of goods are generally low (Keown, 1989). Moreover, tourists tend to shop goods that may not be readily available or affordable in their home country (Dimanche, 2003). Existing research also report that the leisure and functional nature of tourism shopping can be explained by hedonic and utilitarian shopping values which have been applied in tourism (Gursoy et al., 2006; Yuksel, 2007; Bruwer & Alant, 2009;

Kemperman et al., 2009) and retail settings (Babin et al., 1994; Childers et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2006; Overby & Lee, 2006).

### **2.1.2 Tourist shopping values**

Researchers acknowledge that shopping experiences can indeed produce both utilitarian and hedonic value (e.g. Belk, 1987; Fischer & Arnold, 1990; Sherry, 1990a). As suggested by Batra and Ahtola (1990), “consumers purchase goods and services and perform consumption behavior for two basic reasons: (a) consummatory affective (hedonic) gratification (from sensory attributes), and (b) instrumental, utilitarian reasons.” Utilitarian consumer behavior has been described as task-related and rational (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Engel et al., 1993; Sherry, 1990b). Utilitarian shopping value, reflecting shopping with a work mentality (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), relates to whether the purchase goal of the shopping trip is accomplished (Babin et al., 1994; Yuksel, 2007), and is often accompanied with deliberate and efficient purchase (Babin et al., 1994).

Contrarily, hedonic shopping value represents a shopping trip’s potential entertainment and emotional worth (Bellenger et al., 1976). Rather than stemming from task fulfillment, hedonic value results from fun and playfulness (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) and is more subjective and personal than the utilitarian value. Unlike utilitarian consumption which need stimulating the shopping trip was accomplished (Babin et al., 1994), shopping itself, with or without purchasing, can provide hedonic value in many ways (Marking et al., 1976). Researchers indicate that fantasy fulfillment, perceived freedom, increased arousal, heightened involvement and escapism all may generate a hedonic shopping experience (Bloch & Richins, 1983b; Hirschman, 1983). Perceived

enjoyment by recreational shoppers through shopping activities is a resource of hedonic value that allowing a consumer to enjoy a product's benefits without purchasing it (Bloch et al., 1986).

Previous studies suggest that hospitality and tourism products are likely to be high in both hedonic and utilitarian values (Batra & Ahtola, 1990; Voss et al., 2003). Tourist shoppers experience both utilitarian and hedonic shopping values. Tourist shoppers seek particular products and souvenirs based on functional attributes such as brand names and logos, product and package size, price, and product quality (e.g. Turner & Reisinger, 2002; Xu & McGehee, 2012). The range of goods purchased by tourists is large and may not just consist of souvenirs and necessary personal items. It includes goods such as clothes, jewelry, books, art and craft, duty-free products and electronic goods (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). For example, Xu and McGehee (2012) finds that Chinese tourists shop in the States in order to take advantage of high product quality, U.S. branded goods and lower price compared to the same products in China. On the other hand, tourists' shopping is a hedonic activity which is often closely associated with tourist' experiences of the "consumption of place" (Jansen-Verbeke 1990, 1998; Timothy & Butler, 1995). Tourists may view shopping experiences as entertainment or recreation even without purchasing a product (Jones, 1999). They often look for excitement and pleasure as well as seek opportunities to interact with local people when shopping (Littrell et al., 1994; Jones, 1999). A tourist's quest for pleasurable shopping experience may be more significant than acquisition of products (Yuksel, 2007). Furthermore, tourists who believe that the shopping district can provide them with fun, pleasurable and enjoyable shopping experience are likely to return in the future (Yuksel, 2007).

### 2.1.3 Tourist shopping attributes

Many tourists want to secure the highest *quality* item possible when purchasing goods while they are away from home (LeHew & Wesley, 2007). Studies find that tourists search for high-quality, well-designed products when shopping in the destination (Costello & Fairhurst, 2002; Littrell et al., 1994; Paige & Littrell, 2003; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2006; Tosn et al., 2007; Reisinger & Turner, 2002; Xu & McGehee, 2012). High quality of workmanship are found to be an important aspect that travelers seek from the crafts they purchase (Hu & Yu, 2006). Chinese tourists believe that the quality of products in the U.S. is guaranteed and there should be no fake brands due to sound legal systems (Xu & McGehee, 2012). This belief fosters one major motivation that drives them to shop in the U.S. Moreover, tourists consider purchasing an item by a well-known manufacturer is very important (Littrell et al., 1994), and thus looking for well-known brand names and logos when shopping (Gee, 1987).

*Price* is another important attribute for tourists when shopping in the destination. Research shows that the most important variable in stimulating tourist shopping is price differentials between home and destination (Timothy & Butler, 1995; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Hobson, 2000). Low price, though not a salient factor, is highly weighted in tourists' judgments about a retail store (Keown et al., 1984). Hong Kong and Singapore are well-known shopping destinations, particularly for duty-free goods, largely due to their competitive price on both imported and locally made products (Hobson & Christensen, 2001). For Japanese tourists, price is the most obvious explanation for the type of product lines purchased, perceived best buys, and desires to buy certain items

(Keown, 1989). Chinese tourists are also motivated by lower prices of products when shopping in the U.S., especially of well-known brand products (Xu & McGehee, 2012).

*Uniqueness* of products as symbolic motives enhances the tourism experience by giving the tourists a special memory about their trip (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). For example, travel souvenirs are important to tourists as reminders of special travel experiences (Littrell et al., 1994). Memorable shopping experiences and purchases of special goods form an integral part of the trip (Anderson & Littrell, 1995). Getting access to unique U.S. brands is one of the motivations that drive Chinese tourists to shop in the U.S. (Xu & McGehee, 2012) because they believe bringing U.S.-branded products home carry a symbolic memory of the trip. Urry (1990) argues that part of the social experience involved in many tourist context is to be able to consume commodities in the company of others. Satisfaction is derived not from the individual act of consumption but from the fact that all sorts of other people are also consumers of the service (Urry 1990). Several studies reveal that tourists take group tours due to the motive of seeking social interaction with travel companions as well as people in the destination (Yarnal & Kerstetter, 2005; Whipple & Thach, 1988; Wong & Lau, 2001; Wang et al., 2000). Particularly, researchers find that Chinese tourists are fond of taking group tours due to the benefit of personnel interaction involved (Wong & Lau, 2001; Zhang & Chow, 2004; Wang et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2000).

*Personnel* factors also influence tourists' overall shopping experience. Anderson and Littrell (1995) note that tourists' interaction with shopkeeper and crafts producers are woven into their stories of memorable experiences and authentic souvenir purchases during trips. Lam and Hsu (2004) indicates tourists' buying decisions are influenced by

their travel companion, especially tour guides. One particular aspect of the personnel factors that influencing tourists' buying behavior is the staff service quality (Keown et al., 1984; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Bitner et al., 1990; Arnold et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1988; Lin & Lin, 2006; Wong & Law, 2002). The interaction between the shop assistant and shoppers, referred to as the service encounter, is a critical part of the product delivery (Reisinger & Waryszak, 1994). Staff's friendliness, caring, attentiveness, expertise, competence, respectfulness and knowledge of a product are among the vital determinants of sales effectiveness and of service quality (Reisinger & Waryszak, 1994). Service quality is identified to be the most influential factor of tourists' overall shopping satisfaction in Hong Kong (Heung & Cheng, 2000).

#### **2.1.4 Chinese tourists' shopping characteristics**

Though extensive research had shed light on Chinese tourists outbound travel behaviors (Zhang & Lam, 1999; Mok & Iverson, 2000; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Lee et al., 2011; Li et al., 2011; Xu & McGehee, 2012), limited amount of them specifically focus on Chinese tourists shopping behaviors. However, shopping as a tourist activity is particularly favored by Chinese tourists and a large portion of their travel expenditure is spent on shopping (Prideaux, 1996; Zhang & Qu, 1996; Zhou et al., 1998; Zhang & Lam, 1999; Cai et al., 2001; Lehto et al., 2004; Heung & Cheng, 2000). Lehto et al. (2004) identify that besides demographic factors, travel purpose and travel style influence Chinese tourist shopping preference and destination choice. Mainland Chinese travelers are found to have higher expectation on quality of goods compared to western travelers when shopping in Hong Kong (Wong & Law, 2002), which is confirmed by later studies that one of the motivations Chinese tourists shopping in the U.S. is to take advantage of

the higher quality of U.S. products (Xu & McGehee, 2012). Lin and Lin (2006) find that visitors from Mainland China are only satisfied with home delivering service when shopping in Taiwan but least satisfied with other eight attributes including commemoration of the product, uniqueness of the product and price. Barriers such as restricted shopping hours (Prideaux, 1996; Xu & McGehee, 2012), Language problems (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Xu & McGehee, 2012) and mandatory stops at certain shops (Zhang & Chow, 2004) are identified by several researchers from both exploratory studies and empirical tests.

## **2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR**

### **2.2.1 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)**

The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1988; 1991) is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The TRA model has been applied in various fields like marketing, social psychology or even education (e.g. Pryor, 1990; Shimp & Kavas, 1984; Sperber et al., 1980). Two key variables – attitude and subjective norm have been introduced in the TRA constructs to encompass behavioral goals. However, the predictability is weakened when the TRA is applied to types of behavior not under volitional control (Sheppard et al., 1988). Compared to the TRA, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) includes additional measures of control beliefs and behavioral control to cover the behaviors not under complete volitional control. The TPB postulates three key constructs that generate behavioral intention and in turn, drive actual behavior eventually. Specifically, intention is based on such variables as attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. Figure 1 depicts the theory in the form of a structural diagram.

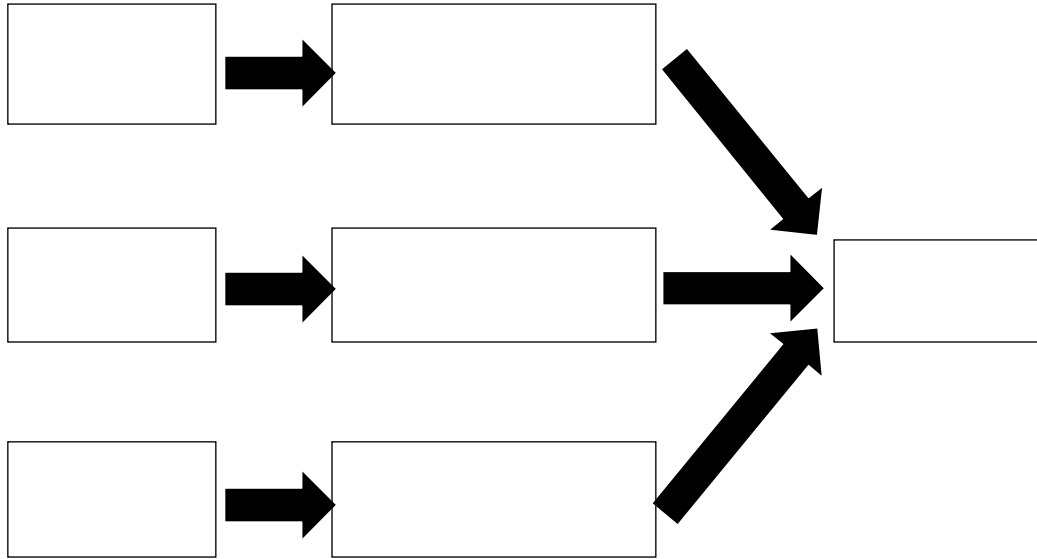


Figure 2.1 Theory of Planned Behavior

**Attitude.** According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), *attitude* toward the behavior refers to an individual’s overall positive or negative evaluation of performing a particular behavior, which derives from the function of Behavioral beliefs and the evaluation of perceived outcomes. TPB predicts that the more favorable an individual evaluates a particular behavior, the more likely he/she will intend to perform that behavior (Ajzen, 1987). For example, positive attitude toward taking a wine oriented vacation is likely to be a key influence on intentions to take such a vacation (Sparks, 2007). An attitude is a predisposition result from learning and experience, reflect in a consistent way toward an object, such as a product (Lam & Hsu, 2006). Moutinho (1987) suggests that in tourism context, attitudes are predispositions or feelings toward a vacation destination, a tourist activity, or service, based on multiple perceived product attributes.

**Behavioral beliefs.** Behavioral belief is considered to have two dimensions. An individual’s Behavioral Belief in performing a particular behavior that will lead to a specific consequence; and the Evaluation of Outcome which refers to one’s assessment of



that particular consequence (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In other words, a combination of beliefs that the behavior will lead to certain outcomes; and the evaluation of these outcomes together generate attitude. Numerically, Attitude can be predicted by multiplying an individual's behavioral belief of each salient attribute associated with the behavior by the individual's evaluation of the corresponding outcomes of each salient attribute, and then the products are aggregated for the total set of beliefs (Ajzen, 2002; Ajzen, 2006).

***Subjective norms.*** Subjective norm refers to an individual's perception of whether people who are important to him/her think that he/she should or should not perform a certain behavior in question (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Any person or group served as a reference group could exert a key influence on an individual's beliefs, attitudes and choices (Moutinho, 1987). In consequence, an individual may conform to his/her referent group(s). Such conformation is subjective norm. Subjective norms are assumed to assess the social pressures on individuals to perform or not to perform a particular behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). In tourism setting, a tourist might choose to perform a certain behavior not only depend on their significant others such as family members and close friends, tour guides or fellow tour group members can also become a source of social pressure (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006).

***Normative beliefs.*** An individual's behavior is influenced by his/her important others' standards of judgment. What those important others think he/she should do is defined as *normative beliefs* (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Such beliefs and the extent of motivation to which the individual wants to comply with altogether determine *subjective norms*. The more an individual perceives that significant others think he/she should

engage in the behavior, the greater an individual's level of motivation to comply with those others (Lwin & Williams, 2003). Accordingly, the strength of each *normative belief* is weighted by the corresponding motivation to comply, and the products are summed to produce the *subjective norms* (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

***Perceived behavioral control (PBC).*** Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is a non-volitional factor. It reflects an individual's perception of the ease or difficulty in performing a specific behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The proposed relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention as well as actual behavior is based on two assumptions (Ajzen, 1990). First, an increase in perceived behavioral control will result in an increase in behavioral intention and the likelihood of performing the actual behavior. Second, perceived behavioral control will influence the actual behavior directly to the extent that perceived control reflects actual control (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Judgments of PBC are influenced by beliefs concerning whether one access to the necessary resources and opportunities to perform the behavior successfully, weighted by the perceived power of each factor to facilitate or inhibit behavior (Ajzen, 1988,1991).

***Control beliefs.*** The perception of factors likely to facilitate or inhibit the performance of the behavior are referred to as control beliefs (Conner & Armitage, 1998). These factors include both internal control attributes such as information, personal deficiencies, skills, abilities or emotions, and external control factors such as opportunities, dependence on others, barriers (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Perceived behavioral control is a composition of control beliefs and perceived power. Perceived power of each control factor is considered to be individual assessment of the importance

of the resources and opportunities in achieving behavioral outcomes (Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Chang, 1998). In sum, the total products of each control belief multiply the corresponding perceived power generate perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991, 2009; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

***Intention.*** Behavioral intention can be defined as a person's subjective probability of performing a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991) or an individual's anticipated or planned future behavior (Swan, 1981). It reflects an individual's expectancies about a particular behavior in a given setting and can be operationalized as the likelihood to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Behavioral intention to act in a certain way is the immediate determinant of a behavior (Ajzen, 1985). In other words, intention can result in actual behavior when there is an opportunity. Therefore, if the intention is measured accurately, it will provide the best predictor for behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Overall, the basic paradigms of the TPB are that an individual is likely to undertake a particular type of behavior if they believe that such behavior will lead to a valuable outcome; that their important referents will value and approve of the behavior; and that they have the necessary resources, abilities, and opportunities to carry out such behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Conner et al., 1999).

### **2.2.2 Applications of the TPB**

Many studies have provided support for the use of the theory of planned behavior in prediction of various social behaviors (e.g. Armitage & Conner, 2001; Conner & Sparks, 1996; Sparks, 1994; Van den Putte, 1991). However, limited amount of research is conducted in a tourism context. Meng and Xu (2012) propose a conceptual model incorporating the TPB with consumer impulsive shopping behavior (e. g. Rook & Hoch,

1985; Rook, 1987; Rook & Gardner, 1993; Rook & Fisher, 1995) as well as hedonic and utilitarian value (e.g. Leve & Witz, 2009; Hobrook & Hirschman, 1982; Babin et al., 1994) to predict tourist shopping behavior.

Lam and Hsu (2004) test the fit of the TPB with potential travelers from Mainland China to Hong Kong as the sample. Results show that attitude, perceived behavioral control and past behavior are found to be related to the intention of choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination. Particularly, beliefs about experience and shopping and sightseeing in Hong Kong attribute to the forming of attitude and in turn, have an impact on Chinese tourists' travel intentions. Perceived behavioral control resulted from control beliefs including high expense, short vacation leaves, visa application procedures and safety issues, lower the intention of traveling to the destination among Chinese tourists. However, such travel intention is found to be not associated with subjective norm, which contradict with previous studies depicting that Chinese rated self-monitoring highly and strived to change their behaviors in accordance with the situation and people surrounding them (Yang, 1992).

Lam and Hsu (2006) attempt again to test the applicability of the TPB on behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination by using a sample of potential Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong. The study reveal such variables as subjective norm, perceived behavioral control predicted the behavioral intention of Taiwanese tourists choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination. In the study, subjective norm has the greatest direct effect on behavioral intention of visiting Hong Kong. Travel agency, close friends and family are found to be Taiwanese tourists' important social referents. Controlbeliefs in safety, mandatory stop during the trip and communication problems

composed of perceived behavioral control to negatively influence travel intentions to Hong Kong.

Sparks (2007) finds that perceived control, normative influences, past attitude, wine/food involvement and three wine attitudinal dimensions predict the tourists' intentions to take a wine vacation. The extended model based on the TPB was tested in a wine tourism context and was shown to have utility in predicting wine-related vacations. Sparks and Pan (2009) investigate potential Chinese outbound tourists' values in terms of destination attributes, as well as attitudes toward international travel by using a survey developed based on the TPB. Five destination attributes are identified to be important. In terms of predicting intention to travel, social normative influences and perceived levels of personal control constraints were most influential based on TPB.

Quintal et al. (2010) apply the TPB in examining the impacts of risk and uncertainty on travel decision-making by using the sample from South Korea, China and Japan tourists visiting Australia. Results showed perceived risk and uncertainty are distinct constructs that have different impacts on Ajzen's TPB (1985, 1991). The analysis also suggests both subjective norms and perceived behavioral control are significant predictors of intentions to visit Australia. Furthermore, important referents show an even greater influence than previous studies with the notion that subjective norms impact both attitudes and perceived behavioral control besides predicting intentions.

Previous researches in shopping context demonstrate the utility of the TPB to predict buying intention (Cannier et al., 2009; Cook et al., 2002; Kalafatis et al., 1999; Tarkianien & Sundqvist, 2005). Cannier et al. (2009) find that the TPB constructs are better predictors of consumer buying intention of apparel than the relationship quality

model. Consumer's intention to buy environmentally-friendly products (i.e. green hotel or organic food) are influenced by their attitude towards such products, their important others' perceptions and possible resources and opportunities (Han & Kim, 2009; Han et al., 2010; Kalafatis et al., 1999; Tarkianien & Sundqvist, 2005). Furthermore, extensive research on consumer adoption of online shopping also support the applicability of the TPB (Pavlou & Fygenson, 2006; Hsu et al., 2006; Hansen et al., 2004; George, 2004; Hansen, 2008) and the intentions of taking leisure activities are tested by using key TPB constructs (Rhodes & Dean, 2009; Hrubes et al., 2010).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 TARGET POPULATION**

Due to the fact that long-haul outbound travel in China is still at its beginning stage, Mainland Chinese citizens who can afford and are willing to travel abroad and shopping overseas are still a tiny portion of the country's population (Li & Stepchenkova, 2012). Therefore, the target population of this study is defined as adult mainland Chinese citizens (eighteen years old and above) who have taken an outbound long-haul leisure trip outside Asia in the past three years. The sample thus consists of tourists who have overseas long-haul travel and shopping experience before.

#### **3.2 SAMPLING**

Participant sampling were conducted in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, the three major gateway cities which are the primary outbound tourist-generating areas generally categorized as "Tier I" cities of China (CTC, 2007; WTO, 2003). These three cities were selected because the residents' discretionary income per capita is among the highest in China (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2003). These individuals are expected to provide more pragmatic judgments and opinions in the survey (Lam & Hsu, 2004), as their likelihood of travel to the United States or other overseas countries is higher than that of citizens in less developed area.

Participants must be long-haul Chinese outbound tourists who have shopping experience during their overseas travel. The long-haul Chinese outbound tourists are defined as “non-agricultural, adult Mainland Chinese citizens (18 years old and above) who have taken a leisure trip of four or more nights, by plane, outside Asia in the past three years” (Li et al., 2010). To make the sampling more relevant to the overseas tourism shopping, the potential respondents must have previous overseas tourism shopping experience by spending over 6,000 Chinese Yuan (about \$1,000) on shopping activities undertaken by him/her-self.

The data collection of this study employed systematic intercept sampling in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. The sample includes 300 respondents: (1) who have traveled to an overseas destination outside Asia for leisure purpose in the past three years; (2) who have spent four or more nights during the trip with at least one night at a paid accommodation; (3) who have spent over 6,000 Chinese Yuan (RMB), i.e., approximately \$1,500, on shopping during the trip; (4) who have undertaken the shopping activities by him/herself excluding those who only paid for the shopping bill for someone else.

### **3.3 SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

The study design employed a survey approach to test an established theoretical model in the Chinese outbound tourist shopping context. Past research has shown that the measurement model of the TPB is able to transfer and be reliably applied to tourism (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Quintal et al., 2010), retail (Cannièrè et al., 2009) and the Chinese context (Bagozzi et al., 2001; Chan & Lau, 2001; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Simth et al., 2009). The questionnaire was initially developed in



English due to the fact that most extant literature is in English, with inputs from a team of academic experts in both tourism and retailing fields. The questionnaire was then professionally translated into Chinese and then back translated to English by a bilingual researcher majoring in tourism and hospitality. The original questionnaire and the back-translated questionnaire were then compared and reviewed by two researchers. Finally, a round of pilot test was conducted before official launching of the survey.

This survey includes 7 main sections: screening questions, general information questions, behavioral beliefs and attitude, normative beliefs and subjective norms, control beliefs and perceived behavioral control, shopping intentions, and lastly, demographics. All likert-type scaled items were adapted to interval scales using a five-point likert scale. Though most of the studies applying the Theory of Planned Behavior used seven point response categories (e.g. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree) to measure the construct scale items (e. g. Ajzen, 2002, 2006; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009), this study adopted five point scale instead of seven to make the questionnaire more reader friendly, but still generate reliable results for further data analysis. Previous studies about optimal number of scale categories indicated that seven may be the modal number of response alternatives (Symonds, 1924; Morrison, 1972; Ramsey, 1973; Peter, 1979). However, others suggested that reliability remained relative constant for self-rating scales with both five and seven scales (Bending, 1953, 1954; Dawes, 2008; Komorita & Graham, 1965; Cicchetti et al., 1985; Cox III, 1980; Dawis, 1987). For example, one of the most recent studies (Dawes, 2008) found that five and seven-point scales produced the same mean score and each of them can easily be re-scaled with the resultant data being quite comparable. In the meantime, it has been argued that less

questions (e.g. Edwards et al., 2002; Kanuk & Berenson, 1975; Champion & Sear, 1969; Bean & Roszkowski, 1995) and respondent-friendly design improves survey response (e.g. Dillman, 1978; Kulka et al., 1991; Dillman & Reynolds, 1990; Dillman et al., 1991). Therefore, in order to give respondents a clearer view with a reader friendly feeling, five point response categories are used in all likert-type scaled questions in this study. Each sections of the survey instrument are described in the paragraphs below.

***Screening questions***

This section includes two screening questions with the purpose to reach to the targeted respondents: (1) who have traveled to an overseas destination outside Asia for leisure purpose in the past three years; (2) who have spent four or more nights during the trip with at least one night at a paid accommodation; (3) who have spent over 6,000 Chinese Yuan (RMB), i.e., approximately \$1,000, on shopping during the trip; (4) who have undertaken the shopping activities by him/herself excluding those who only paid for the shopping bill for someone else.

IN.1. How many trips (including business, leisure and visiting friends and relatives) have you taken overseas outside Asia during the past three years? (at least FOUR nights were spent and at least ONE night was at PAID ACCOMMODATION during such trips; non-Aisia destinations include destinations other than Japan, Korea and Southeast Aisia contries)

- Never.....1 →
- TERMINATE**
- 1 time .....2
- 2-3 times.....3
- 4-5 times.....4
- 6 times or above .....5

IN.2. Did you ever spend RMB 6,000 or more for shopping during one of your overseas trip outside Asia in the past 3 years (excluding food and accommodation expenditure)? If you travelled as a family, please refer to the family’s shopping expenditure).

- No.....1  
**→TERMINATE**  
 Yes .....2

***General Information of respondents***

The general information section measures travel related characteristics including travel destination, frequency of overseas shopping, amount spent on shopping during the overseas trip, length of stay in the destination, type of the tour, primary products bought, time spent on shopping during the overseas trip, shopping companion, and shopping allocation.

GI.1. What overseas destinations have you visited so far **(Please select all that apply)**

- North America .....1  
 Europe .....2  
 Australia/New Zealand .....3  
 Africa .....4  
 Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

GI.2. How many times have you shopped over 6,000 RMB while traveling to an overseas destination?

- 1 time .....1  
 2 to 3 times.....2  
 4 to 5 times .....3  
 6 times and above.....4

GI.3. In which year did you take your most recent overseas trip and spent 6,000 RMB in shopping? \_\_\_\_\_

GI.4. How much did you spend on shopping in that trip? (in RMB)

- 6,000 – 10,000.....1  
 10,001 – 20,000.....2  
 20,001 – 30,000.....3  
 30,001 – 40,000.....4  
 40,001 – 50,000.....5  
 50,001 or above.....6

GI.5. What was the destination country/region of that trip? (If you visited an area consists of multiple countries, for example, Europe, you can provide the name of the region) \_\_\_\_\_

GI.6. How long did you stay in that destination country/area? \_\_\_\_\_ days

GI.7. What is the tour type of your most recent overseas trip of this type?

- Packaged tour.....1
- Full Independent Tour (FIT).....2
- Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

GI.8. What primary products did you buy during that overseas trip? (**Please select all that apply**)

- Apparel/Shoes/Handbags.....1
- Jewelry/Accessories.....2
- Healthcare products.....3
- Electronics.....4
- Cosmetics/Beauty care.....5
- Souvenirs.....6
- Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

GI.9. In total, how many hours did you spend on shopping during that overseas trip? (**Please provide an estimate**)

- 5 hours or less .....1
- 6 to 10 hours.....2
- 11 to 20 hours.....3
- 21 to 30 hours.....4
- 31 hours or more .....4

GI.10. Please indicate persons you shopped with during that overseas trip (**Please select all that apply**)

- Family members.....1
- Friends/Relatives.....2
- Co-workers.....3
- Travel group/Tour guide.....4
- Others (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

GI.11. What percentage of your total shopping expenditure was spent for others (the two percentage numbers must add up to 100%)?

- 1) Gifts for family, friends and relatives, co-workers, etc. \_\_\_\_\_%
- 2) Buy on others' behalf (with payment) \_\_\_\_\_%

### ***Behavioral beliefs and Attitude***

The measurement of behavioral beliefs comprises two dimensions: an individual's beliefs in performing a particular behavior that will lead to a specific consequence; and evaluation of the consequence (Ajzen & Fishben, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). This section summarized 14 themes from the tourist shopping literature (Jansen-Verbeke,

1991; Keown et al., 1984; Wong & Law, 2002; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Doyle & Fenwick, 1974; Chewdhury et al., 1998) and the Chinese tourist shopping literature (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Wong & Law, 2002; Lin & Lin, 2006; Xu & McGehee, 2012). Behavioral beliefs are measured by asking respondents to rate their agreements of those 14 items in the context of shopping in the United States. Evaluations of outcomes of the 14 beliefs are measured by asking the importance of each item (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Ajzen, 2002, 2006; Hrubes & Ajzen, 2001)

**BB. When answering all the following questions, please refer to your most recent non-Asia overseas trip in which you spent more than 6,000RMB.** For each of the items listed below, select the number to the right that best describes your beliefs about shopping during the overseas trip.  
**1=Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 4= Agree, 5=Strongly agree**

Table 3.1 Behavioral Beliefs Items

<b>I believe shopping overseas would enable me to receive.....</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neural</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
(a) High product quality	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Bringing back gifts for others	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Wide variety of product	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Genuine branded goods	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Good value for the money	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Commemoration of the trip	1	2	3	4	5
(g) Product uniqueness	1	2	3	4	5
(h) Access to world-known brand	1	2	3	4	5
(i) Hospitable service	1	2	3	4	5
(j) Attractive product price	1	2	3	4	5
(k) Fashion and novelty	1	2	3	4	5
(l) Unavailable in my own country	1	2	3	4	5
(m) Good store environment	1	2	3	4	5
(n) Product trustworthiness	1	2	3	4	5

**OE. How important are the following items to you when *shopping in the overseas destination*?**

**1=very unimportant, 2= Unimportant, 3= Neutral, 4= Important, 5=Very important**

Table 3.2 Outcome Evaluation Items

<b>How important is.....</b>	<b>Very unimportant</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Very important</b>
(a) High product quality	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Bringing back gifts for others	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Wide variety of product	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Genuine branded goods	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Good value for the money	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Commemoration of the trip	1	2	3	4	5
(g) Product uniqueness	1	2	3	4	5
(h) Access to well-known brand	1	2	3	4	5
(i) Hospitable service	1	2	3	4	5
(j) Attractive product price	1	2	3	4	5
(k) Fashion and novelty	1	2	3	4	5
(l) Unavailable in my own country	1	2	3	4	5
(m) Attractive store environment	1	2	3	4	5
(n) Product trustworthiness	1	2	3	4	5

Numerically, Attitude can be predicted by multiplying an individual's behavioral belief of each salient attribute associated with the behavior by the individual's evaluation of the corresponding outcomes of each salient attribute, and then the products are aggregated for the total set of beliefs (Ajzen, 2002, 2006), which is the interaction effect between behavioral beliefs and outcome evaluation. In measuring attitude, the following 6 attitudinal items are adopted from Hsu and Huang's (2009) study in using the TPB and tourist motivation to predict Chinese tourists' behavioral intentions in visiting Hong Kong. Respondents are asked to select the category that best describes their attitude about shopping in the United States.

ATT. To me shopping during the overseas trip is ..... Please rate your agreement to the following descriptions.  
**1=Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 4= Agree, 5=Strongly agree**

Table 3.3 Attitude Items

<b>To me, shopping during the overseas trip is.....</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neural</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
(a) Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Important	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Satisfying	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Rewarding	1	2	3	4	5

*Normative beliefs and Subjective norms*

The measurement of normative beliefs also constitutes two parts: What an individual’s important others think he or she should do and the individual’s motivation to comply (Ajzen & Fishben, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Three reference groups, family, friends and relatives, and travel agent are adopted from previous TPB studies in predicting Chinese tourist’s travel intention to Hong Kong (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006). Two reference groups, co-workers and travel group fellows are particularly added for the overseas shopping context of this study. Respondents are asked to rate the extent of these reference groups’ agreement on shopping during overseas trips, and the likelihood of complying with what their social reference groups think they should do.

NB. Please indicate to **what extent** people around you think you **should shop during overseas trip**.

**1=Absolutely should not, 2= Should not, 3=Neutral, 4= Should, 5=Absolutely should**

Table 3.4 Normative Beliefs Items

		<b>Absolutely should not</b>	<b>Should not</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Should</b>	<b>Absolutely should</b>
(a) My family	.....think I	1	2	3	4	5

(b) My friends and relatives	should shop during the overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5
(c) My travel agent		1	2	3	4	5
(d) My co-workers		1	2	3	4	5
(e) My travel group fellows		1	2	3	4	5

MC. Thinking about shopping during an overseas trip, please indicate the likelihood of you complying with the wishes of people around you. **1=Very unlikely, 2= Unlikely, 3=Neutral, 4= Likely, 5=Very likely**

Table 3.5 Motivation to Comply Items

<b>How likely are you to listen to.....?</b>	<b>Very unlikely</b>	<b>Unlikely</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Likely</b>	<b>Very likely</b>
(a) My family	1	2	3	4	5
(b) My friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5
(c) My travel agent	1	2	3	4	5
(d) My co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
(e) My travel group fellows	1	2	3	4	5

Subjective norms questions are formed based on Ajzen's (2002, 2006)

measurement studies of the TPB and previous TPB research in both tourism and retail context (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Cannière et al., 2009).

SN. Again, thinking about shopping during an overseas trip, please rate the agreement to the following descriptions about the influence of people around you. **1=Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 4= Agree, 5=Strongly agree**

Table 3.6 Subjective Norms Items

	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neural</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
(a) Most people who are important	1	2	3	4	5



to me would think I should shop during an overseas trip.					
(b) Most people who are important to me would think I should take advantage of buying something during an overseas trip.	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Most people who are important to me would approve of my shopping during an overseas trip.	1	2	3	4	5

***Control beliefs and perceived behavioral control***

The perceptions of factors likely to facilitate or inhibit the performance of the behavior are referred to as control beliefs (Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Armitage, 1998). Control beliefs are measured by the salient inhibitors or facilitators along with the perceived power of each control beliefs (Ajzen, 1991). This section derived four themes from previous studies in Chinese outbound tourism and outbound tourism shopping (Xu & McGehee, 2012; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Sparks & Pan, 2009) to test whether tourist’s control beliefs would influence his/her shopping intention and actual behavior. Questions of control beliefs and perceived power are formulated based on Ajzen’s (2002, 2006) questionnaire design study of the TPB construct and several TPB studies in the tourism setting (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Hsu & Huang, 2009). Firstly, respondents are asked to select their agreement under a five-point likert scale with the six themes including language barrier, limited shopping time, limited payment method, shopping cost, inconvenience in transportation, and mandatory shopping trips. Secondly, the perceived power of control beliefs is evaluated under a five-point likelihood scale by rating the influence of each control belief.

CB. For each of the descriptions listed below, circle the number to the right that best describes your agreement with *the issues you may have when shopping during overseas trip* (refer to your most recent overseas trip) .1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=Neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 4= agree, 5=Strongly agree

Table 3.7 Control Beliefs Items

<b>When shopping during overseas trip.....</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
(a) I have language/ Communication barriers	1	2	3	4	5
(b) There is limited time to shop	1	2	3	4	5
(c) There are limited payment methods for shopping	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Shopping could cost me a lot	1	2	3	4	5
(e) There is inconvenience in transportation for shopping	1	2	3	4	5
(f) I have to go for the mandatory shopping arranged by travel agents	1	2	3	4	5
(g) Other (please specify _____)	1	2	3	4	5

P. Please rate the likelihood of the following items about *the influence of the possible shopping problems*. 1=Very unlikely, 2= unlikely, 3=Neutral, 4= likely, 5=Very likely

Table 3.8 Power Items

<b>How likely these shopping problems would influence you.....</b>	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Neutral	Likely	Very likely
(a) Communication/language barriers would influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Time spent on shopping would affect my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Payment method would influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Shopping cost would influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Transportation concerns would influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Mandatory shopping arrangements would influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5

Questions of perceived behavioral control are phrased based on Ajzen's (2002, 2006) TPB measurement study and several TPB studies in both tourism and retail settings (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan 2009; Cannière et al., 2009). Four themes of possible shopping issues during an overseas trip (Xu & McGehee, 2012; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009) are incorporated into the perceived behavioral control questions. Respondents are asked to rate their agreement under a five-point likert scale about the perceived behavioral control of shopping in the United States.

PBC. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statement about **factors that may control your shopping experience overseas**.  
**1=Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 4= Agree, 5=Strongly agree**

Table 3.9 Perceived Behavioral Control Items

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neural	Agree	Strongly agree
(a) If I want, I have control over shopping during an overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5
(b) If I want, I would be able to do shopping during an overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5
(c) If I want, I could easily do shopping during an overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5

### ***Behavioral Intentions***

The behavioral intentions section includes four items describing tourist shoppers' intentions to shop again during future overseas trips. Five point likert scale ranging from extremely unlikely to extremely likely has been adopted. The measurement of intentions is based on Ajzen's measurement study (2002, 2006) of the TPB as well as three studies on predicting Chinese tourists' travel intentions to Hong Kong by applying the TPB and adjusted model of TPB (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Hsu & Huang, 2009). The intentions

section will be put as the last section in the questionnaire (excluding demographics) to follow the respondents' engaging logic.

INT. Thinking about your intentions to shop during overseas trip in the future, please rate your agreement on the following description. **1=Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 4= Agree, 5=Strongly agree**

Table 3.10 Intentions Items

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neural	Agree	Strongly agree
(a) I intend to shop during my future overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5
(b) I plan to shop during my future overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5
(c) I desire to shop during my future overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5
(d) I probably will shop again during my future overseas trip	1	2	3	4	5

**Demographics**

The final portion of the survey includes seven demographic questions and one open ended question. The demographic information is important in order compare them against the dependent and independent variables. The household income categories are adopted from two most recent studies on Chinese outbound tourists to America (Li & Stepchenkova, 2012; Stepchenkova & Li, 2012). In addition, shop companions (Borges et al., 2010; Prus, 1993) are added particularly due to the study context

D1. Please circle the respondent's gender. **[DO NOT READ, JUST RECORD]**

- Male .....1
- Female.....2

D2. What is your residency city? \_\_\_\_\_

D3. What is your marital status? Are you...? **[READ LIST. ACCEPT ONLY ONE.]**

- Single .....1

Married/Partner .....	2
Separated/Divorced/Widowed .....	3
Other .....	4
Prefer not to say <b>[DO NOT READ]</b> .....	99
D4. Which of the following broad categories includes your age?	
18-25 .....	1
26-35 .....	2
36-45 .....	3
46-55 .....	4
56-65 .....	5
66 or above.....	6
Refuse to answer.....	99
D5. What is the highest level of education you have completed? <b>[READ LIST. ACCEPT ONLY ONE]</b>	
High school/Vocational/Technical school or below .....	1
Associate degree or some college .....	2
College degree .....	3
Graduate work/Master's/Doctoral degree.....	4
Or something else (please specify) .....	5
Prefer not to say <b>[DO NOT READ]</b> .....	99
D6. Which of the following broad categories best describes your approximate monthly household income in 2012 before taxes (RMB)? <b>[READ LIST. ACCEPT ONLY ONE]</b>	
Below 4,000 .....	1
4,001 to 7,000 .....	2
7,001 to 10,000 .....	3
10,001 to 20,000 .....	4
20,001 to 30,000 .....	5
30,001 to 40,000 .....	6
40,001 to 50,000 .....	7
50,001 or above.....	8
Prefer not to say <b>[DO NOT READ]</b> .....	99
D7. Please indicate your employment status.	
Employed full-time/part-time .....	1
Housewife (Househusband)/Homemaker .....	2
Temporarily unemployed/looking for work.....	3
Retired.....	4
Student .....	5
Other ( <b>please specify</b> _____).....	6
Prefer not to say <b>[DO NOT READ]</b> .....	99

### 3.4 DATA COLLECTION

Intercept interviews were conducted by a professional research company in China in May 2013. A total of 300 completed, useful surveys were collected by this research company. The survey sites include high-end locations such as upper-class neighborhoods, premium shopping malls, luxury restaurants and hotels in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou. Well-trained interviewers were hired by the research company to conduct the intercept interview. To increase response rate and improve reply quality, monetary incentive are offered to each participant. Additionally, the research company was required to take quality control measures such as on-site training, result review, central briefing and supervisor back check.

### **3.5 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS**

In order to analyze the data, SPSS 20 will be used. First, an exploratory factor analysis approach was taken to determine the scales for each construct, namely, behavioral beliefs, outcome evaluation, attitude, normative beliefs, motivation to comply, subjective norms, control beliefs, power of control beliefs, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intentions. Next, Cronbach's *alpha* value for the scales will be determined to measure scale reliability (.70 and above). Then a series of two-way ANOVA will be conducted to test the interaction effect between each set of individual variables such behavioral beliefs and outcome evaluation. Lastly, a series of multiple regression analyses will be used to identify potential predictions, which includes the prediction of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and that of behavioral intentions.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS**

#### **4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

Of the 300 respondents, 51% were females and 49% were males. Most classified themselves as married or have partner (77%) followed by single (21%), or separated/divorced/widowed (2%). Most of the respondents were within the age range of 26 to 35 (28%), 46 to 55 (25%) and 36 to 45 (24%). Percentages of respondents' residency cities were evenly allocated in Beijing (33%), Shanghai (33%) and Guangzhou (33%). The respondents' highest level of education completed included college degree (35%), Associate degree or some college (31%), High school/Vocational/Technical school or below (27%), and Graduate work/Master's/Doctoral degree (7%). The respondents had varying amounts of monthly household income. The largest group earned between 10,001 and 20,000 RMB (41%) per month, followed by the group whose income is between 20,001 and 30,000 RMB (19%). The third group earned between 7,000 to 10,000 RMB (18%) monthly, and the smallest group earned less than 7,000 (2%) per month. The majority of the respondents were employed full-time or part-time (82%) followed by retired (11%). Student, other, temporarily unemployed/looking for work, and Housewife (Househusband)/Homemaker accounts for 3%, 2%, 1%, and 1% respectively. Table 4.1 summarizes respondents' demographic information.

Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	146	49%
Female	154	51%
<b>Residency City</b>		
Beijing	100	33%
Shanghai	100	33%
Guangzhou	100	33%
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	63	21%
Married/Partner	232	77%
Separated/Divorced/Widowed	5	2%
<b>Age</b>		
18-25	29	10%
26-35	83	28%
36-45	72	24%
46-55	74	25%
56-65	21	7%
66 or above	21	7%
<b>Education Level</b>		
High school/Vocational/Technical school or below	81	27%
Associate degree or some college	93	31%
College degree	106	35%
Graduate work/Master's/Doctoral degree	20	7%
<b>Monthly Household Income (RMB)</b>		
4,001 to 7,000	6	2%
7,001 to 10,000	53	18%
10,001 to 20,000	123	41%
20,001 to 30,000	56	19%
30,001 to 40,000	30	10%
40,001 to 50,000	17	6%
50,001 or above	15	5%
<b>Employment Status</b>		
Employed full-time/part-time	246	82%
Housewife (Househusband)/Homemaker	2	1%
Temporarily unemployed/looking for work	2	1%
Retired	34	11%
Student	10	3%
Other	6	2%

#### **4.2 TRAVEL & SHOPPING RELATED CHARACTERISTICS**

Most of the respondents visited Europe (36%) before, followed by North America (30%). Australia/New Zealand (30%), and Africa (21%). When asked about how many



times that they spent over 6,000 RMB on shopping during an overseas trip, the majority (65%) answered 1 time, and 30% answered 2 to 3 times (30%). Only 3 respondents (1%) indicated 6 times and above. The largest group spent between 10,001 to 20,000 RMB (38%) on shopping during their most recent overseas trip with shopping expenditures over 6,000 RMB. The second largest group spent between 6,000 and 10,000 (21%) on shopping, followed by 20,001 to 30,000 (17%), 30,001 to 40,000 (10%), 50,000 and above (8%), and 40,001 to 50,000 (7%). As for the length of stay in the overseas destination, most of the respondents spent 1 to 2 weeks (68%) and 3 to 4 weeks (26%). Only 5% of the respondents spent less than a week for an overseas trip and only 3 respondents (1%) indicated the length of stay was more than one month. Respondents who attended packaged tours (56%) were about 10% more than that went as Full Independent Tourist (44%). Respondents indicated that they purchased a wide range of products. apparel/shoes/handbags (79%) were found to be the top choices, followed by jewelry/accessories (65%), souvenirs (64%), cosmetics/beauty care (58%), electronics (42%), and Healthcare products (25%). Most of the respondents spent between 6 and 10 (41%) and between 11 and 20 (30%) hours on shopping during an overseas trip and were accompanied by family members (54%) and friends or relatives (46%) while shopping. 22% of the respondents indicated travel group or tour guide are their shopping companions and 16% selected co-workers. When asking about the allocation of shopping expenditure for others, averagely 77% were spent on buying gifts for family, friends and relatives whereas 23% were spent on buying on others' behalf. Table 4.2 summarizes respondents' travel and shopping related information.

Table 4.2 Travel & Shopping Related Characteristics of the Respondents

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Overseas destination visited</b>		
Europe	108	36%
North America	91	30%
Australia/New Zealand	91	30%
Africa	62	21%
<b>Number of times spent 6,000 + on shopping (RMB)</b>		
1 time	196	65%
2 to 3 times	91	30%
4 to 5 times	10	3%
6 times and above	3	1%
<b>Amount spent on shopping in such a trip (RMB)</b>		
6,000 - 10,000	62	21%
10,001 - 20,000	113	38%
20,001 - 30,000	51	17%
30,001 - 40,000	31	10%
40,001 - 50,000	20	7%
50,001 or above	23	8%
<b>Length of stay in the destination</b>		
Less than a week	15	5%
1 to 2 weeks	202	68%
3 to 4 weeks	80	26%
More than a month	3	1%
<b>Type of the tour</b>		
Packaged tour	169	56%
Full Independent Tour (FIT)	131	44%
<b>Primary products bought</b>		
Apparel/Shoes/Handbags	237	79%
Jewelry/Accessories	194	65%
Souvenirs	192	64%
Cosmetics/Beauty care	174	58%
Electronics	125	42%
Healthcare products	74	25%
<b>Hours spent on shopping during the trip</b>		
5 hours or less	36	12%
6 to 10 hours	124	41%
11 to 20 hours	91	30%
21 to 30 hours	30	10%
31 hours or more	19	6%
<b>Shopping companion</b>		
Family members	162	54%
Friends/Relatives	138	46%
Travel group/Tour guide	67	22%
Co-workers	48	16%
<b>Shopping expenditure for others</b>		

Gifts for family, friends and relatives, co-workers, etc%	<b>Mean</b> 77.49
Buy on others' behalf (with payment)%	22.51

### 4.3 FACTOR ANALYSIS

#### 4.3.1 Behavioral Beliefs

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of the correlated behavioral beliefs variables toward shopping during overseas trips, the 14 items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. Three items, 'Bringing back gifts for others', 'Wide variety of product', and 'Product uniqueness' were deleted due to low loadings. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with a Barlett test of sphericity value of 990.864 and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.855. Therefore, the data were suitable for the proposed statistical procedure of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2002). The result suggested that a three-factor solution be identified, representing approximately 59.5% of the total variance in behavioral beliefs (See Table 4.3). All retained factors had an eigenvalue greater than 1 and all factor loadings were above .50. The three factors were labeled as 'Product and store attributes', 'Price' and 'Travel-related benefits'. The 'Product and store attributes' factor presented the highest percentage of the total variance (29.3%), which indicated that product and store attributes served as a very important behavioral belief factor of the respondents toward shopping during overseas trips. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) are listed in the table below.

Table 4.3 Behavioral beliefs about shopping during overseas trip

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Explained variance</b>	<b>Reliability coefficient</b>
<i>Factor 1: Product and store</i>		4.228	29.3%	0.840

<i>attributes</i>				
Hospitable service	0.781			
Good store environment	0.699			
Product trustworthiness	0.696			
High product quality	0.673			
Genuine branded goods	0.635			
Access to world-known brand	0.627			
Fashion and novelty	0.524			
<i>Factor 2: Price</i>		1.309	18.5%	0.675
Good value for the money	0.832			
Attractive product price	0.761			
<i>Factor 3: Travel-related benefits</i>		1.002	11.7%	0.385
Unavailable in my own country	0.808			
Commemoration of the trip	0.712			
Total variance explained			59.5%	

### 4.3.2 Outcome evaluation

With the purpose to keep the items of each factor in outcome evaluation consistent with these in behavioral beliefs, three factors were grouped manually following the factor analysis result of behavioral beliefs. The reliability coefficients of each factor in outcome evaluation were tested to prove the internal consistency of the items. Following the item-grouping rules of behavioral beliefs, Factor 1 in outcome evaluation included ‘Hospitable service’, ‘Good store environment’, ‘Product trustworthiness’, ‘High product quality’, ‘Genuine branded goods’, ‘Access to world-known brand’, and ‘Fashion and novelty’. Factor 1 was labeled ‘Product and store attributes’ and had a reliability value (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.806. Factor 2 in outcome evaluation included ‘Good value for the money’ and ‘Attractiv product price’. Factor 2 was labeled ‘Price’ and had a reliability value (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.721. Factor 3 included ‘Unavailable in my own country’ and ‘Commemoration of the trip’. Factor 3 was labeled ‘Travel-related attributes’ and had a reliability value (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.441.

### 4.3.3 Attitude

Summated variable of attitude was generated by adding the scores of the six attitude items, ‘Pleasant’, ‘Enjoyable’, ‘Important’, ‘Worthwhile’, ‘Satisfying’ and ‘Rewarding’. The mean value of each respondent’s average attitude score was then calculated dividing the summated scores by six

#### 4.3.4 Subjective norms

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of the correlated subjective norms variables towards shopping during overseas trips, the 3 items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with a Barlett test of sphericity value of 199.475 and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.669. Therefore, the data were suitable for the proposed statistical procedure of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2002). The result suggested that a unidimensional solution be identified, representing approximately 65.6% of the total variance in subjective norms (See Table 4.4). This one factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1 and the loadings above .40. The factor was labeled as ‘Subjective Norms’. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was 0.737.

Table 4.4 Subjective Norms on shopping during overseas trips

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Explained variance</b>	<b>Reliability coefficient</b>
Factor: Subjective Norms		1.967	65.6%	0.737
Most people who are important to me would shopping during an overseas trip	0.849			
Most people who are important to me would think I should take advantage of buying something during an overseas trip	0.807			
Most people who are important to me would think I should shop during an overseas trip	0.771			
Total variance explained			65.6%	

### 4.3.5 Control beliefs

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of the correlated control beliefs variables towards shopping during overseas trips, the 6 items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. Two items, ‘I have language/communication barriers’ and ‘Shopping could cost me a lot’ were deleted due to low reliability. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with a Barlett test of sphericity value of 251.679 and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.735. Therefore, the data were suitable for the proposed statistical procedure of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2002). The result suggested that a unidimensional solution be identified, representing approximately 56.2% of the total variance in normative beliefs (See Table 4.5). This one factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1 and all factor loadings were above .40. The factor was labeled as ‘Overseas shopping constraints’. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was 0.738.

Table 4.5 Control Beliefs about shopping during overseas trips

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Explained variance</b>	<b>Reliability coefficient</b>
Factor 1: Overseas shopping constraints		2.246	56.2%	0.738
There are limited payment methods for shopping	0.781			
I have to go for the mandatory shopping arranged by travel agents	0.748			
There is limited time to shop	0.745			
There is inconvenience in transportation for shopping	0.723			
Total variance explained			56.2%	

### 4.3.6 Power of the control beliefs

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of the correlated power of the control beliefs towards shopping during overseas trips, the 6 items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. One item, ‘Payment method would influence my buying decision’ was deleted due to non-loading. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with a Barlett test of sphericity value of 461.602 and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.803. Therefore, the data were suitable for the proposed statistical procedure of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2002). The result suggested that a unidimensional solution be identified, representing approximately 56.6% of the total variance in normative beliefs (See Table 4.6). This one factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1 and all factor loadings were above .40. The factor was labeled as ‘Overseas shopping constraints’. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was 0.805.

Table 4.6 Power of Control Beliefs about shopping during overseas trips

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Explained variance</b>	<b>Reliability coefficient</b>
Factor 1: Power of controlling overseas shopping constraints		2.830	56.6%	0.805
Transportation concerns would influence my buying decision	0.814			
Communication/language barriers would influence my buying decision	0.794			
Mandatory shopping arrangements would influence my buying decision	0.761			
Time spent ton shopping would affect my buying decision	0.728			
Shopping cost would influence my buying decision	0.654			
Total variance explained			56.6%	

#### **4.3.7 Perceived behavioral control**

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of the correlated perceived behavioral control towards shopping during overseas trips, the 3 items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. One item, the overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with a Barlett test of sphericity value of 235.536 and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.697. Therefore, the data were suitable for the proposed statistical procedure of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2002). The result suggested that a unidimensional solution be identified, representing approximately 68.6% of the total variance in normative beliefs (See Table 4.7). This one factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1 and all factor loadings were above .40. The factor was labeled as ‘Perceived control on overseas shopping’. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was 0.805.

Table 4.7 Perceived Behavioral Control about shopping during overseas trips

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Explained variance</b>	<b>Reliability coefficient</b>
Factor 1: Perceived control on overseas shopping		2.059	68.6%	0.805
If I want, I would be able to do shopping during an overseas trip	0.847			
If I want, I have control over shopping during an overseas trip	0.820			
If I want, I could easily do shopping during an overseas trip	0.818			
Total variance explained			68.6%	

#### 4.3.8 Intentions

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of the intentions towards shopping during overseas trips, the 4 items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. One item, the overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with a Barlett test of sphericity value of 268.414 and



Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.680. Therefore, the data were suitable for the proposed statistical procedure of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2002). The result suggested that a unidimensional solution be identified, representing approximately 54.8% of the total variance in normative beliefs (See Table 4.8). This one factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1 and all factor loadings were above .40. The factor was labeled as ‘Shopping intention during overseas trips’. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was 0.722.

Table 4.8 Intentions about shopping during overseas trips

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Explained variance</b>	<b>Reliability coefficient</b>
Factor 1: Shopping intention during overseas trips		2.191	54.8%	0.722
I desire to shop during my future overseas trip	0.794			
I plan to shop during my future overseas trip	0.791			
I probably will shop again during my future overseas trip	0.779			
I intend to shop during my future overseas trip	0.574			
Total variance explained			54.8%	

#### 4.4 ANOVA: TESTING INTERACTION EFFECTS

Before running Multiple Regressions to predict each dependent variable in the model, namely, Attitude, Subjective Norms, Perceived Behavioral Control and Intentions, a series of two-way ANOVA analysis was applied to test whether there would be significant interaction effect between Behavioral Beliefs and Outcome Evaluation, between Normative Beliefs and Motivation to Comply, and between Control Beliefs and Power of Control Beliefs. This procedure is to determine whether the interaction effects of each set of independent variables should be included in the predictors of corresponding

independent variables in the following multiple regression analyses. Table 4.9 demonstrates the interaction effects statistics of each set of independent variables.

From the significant values of each interaction effect, there were no significant interaction between Behavioral Beliefs factor 1 and Outcome Evaluation factor 1, product and store attributes, between Behavioral Beliefs factor 2 and Outcome Evaluation factor 2, Price, and between Behavioral Beliefs factor 3 and Outcome Evaluation factor 3, travel-related attributes. Therefore, these three interaction variables would not be considered as predictors in predicting Attitude in the following multiple regression test. In addition, non-significant interaction effect exists between Control Beliefs factor 1 and Power factor1, overseas shopping constraints. Thus, the interaction effect of Control Beliefs and Power of Control Beliefs would not be included in predicting Perceived Behavioral Control in the multiple regression analysis. However, four sets of Normative Beliefs and Motivation to Comply items showed significant interaction effects ( $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, these four sets of interaction effects between Normative Beliefs and Motivation to Comply would be considered as predictors along with other 10 individual predictors (5 NB items and 5 MC items) in establishing the regression model of Subjective Norms.

Table 4.9 Interaction Effects of BB and OE, and CB and Power

<b>Interaction effect variable</b>	<b>Type III SS</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F-Value</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Behavioral Beliefs * Outcome Evaluation</b>				
BB Factor1 * OE Factor1	7.707	0.106	0.975	0.539
BB Factor2 * OE Factor2	3.616	0.172	1.336	0.152
BB Factor3 * OE Factor3	3.794	0.200	1.527	0.076
<b>Normative Beliefs * Motivation to Comply</b>				
NB Item1 * MC Item1	0.501	0.167	0.580	0.629
NB Item2 * MC Item2	3.696	0.924	3.424	0.009

NB Item3 * MC Item3	13.303	0.950	3.662	0.000
NB Item 4 * MC Item4	1.894	1.224	4.944	0.001
NB Item5 * MC Item5	6.314	0.574	2.080	0.022
Control Beliefs * Power				
CB Factor1 * P Factor1	20.331	0.295	0.856	0.771

## 4.5 MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS

### 4.5.1 Regression I: predicting attitude

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well ‘Attitudes’ is predicted by ‘Behavioral Beliefs’ and ‘Outcome Evaluation’. The mean score of the five ‘Attitude’ items was computed to be used as the dependent variable in the regression equation. The three ‘Behavioral Beliefs’ factor scores and the three ‘Outcome Evaluation’ factor scores were used in the regression analysis as independent variables. Because the previous ANOVA tests showed non-significant interaction effects between each BB factor and OE factor, the interaction effect was not included in predicting the dependent variable. In total, six predictors were entered. The following equation summarizes the computed relationship between the variables in the regression model:

$$\text{Attitude} = \alpha + \beta_{1\text{bb}}\text{Factor1} + \beta_{2\text{bb}}\text{Factor2} + \beta_{3\text{bb}}\text{Factor3} + \beta_{4\text{oe}}\text{Factor1} + \beta_{5\text{oe}}\text{Factor2} + \beta_{6\text{oe}}\text{Factor3} + \xi.$$

The results suggested there were statistically significant correlations between Behavioral Beliefs and Attitude as well as Outcome Evaluation and Attitude. The Behavioral Belief scale was positively correlated with Attitudes based on the  $r$  and  $p$  values of Factor 1 ( $r = 0.416, p < 0.001$ ), Factor 2 ( $r = 0.253, p < 0.001$ ) and Factor 3 ( $r = 0.136, p < 0.05$ ). The Outcome Evaluation scale was also positively correlated with Attitudes with Factor 1 ( $r = 0.480, p < 0.001$ ), Factor 2 ( $r = 0.271, p < 0.001$ ) and Factor 3 ( $r = 0.188, p < 0.05$ ).

From the Coefficients output, the initial regression model was: Attitude = 1.794 + 0.205 bbFactor1 + 0.092 bbFactor2 + 0.077 bbFactor3 + 0.366 oeFactor1 – 0.126 oeFactor2 + 0.090 oeFactor3. The Adjusted R Square was 0.263; therefore, about 27.7% of the variation in Attitudes was explained by the three Behavioral Beliefs factors and the three Outcome Evaluation Factors. The ANOVA results,  $F(6, 293) = 18.713, p < 0.001$ , suggested that at the 0.05 level of significance, there existed enough evidence to conclude that at least one of the predictors is useful for predicting Attitudes; therefore, the model was useful. The  $t$  and  $p$  values of each coefficient were used to assess the significance of the Beta weights. bbFactor2 ( $\beta_2 = 0.092, t = 1.502, p > 0.05$ ), bbFactor3 ( $\beta_3 = 0.077, t = 1.298, p > 0.05$ ), oeFactor2 ( $\beta_5 = -0.126, t = -1.789, p > 0.05$ ), and oeFactor3 ( $\beta_6 = 0.090, t = 1.480, p > 0.05$ ) were not statistically significant in predicting Attitudes because of below-0.05  $p$  values. Thus, these four independent variables were deleted. The final regression model in predicting Attitudes can be described as: Attitude = 1.794 + 0.205[ $\beta_1$ ] bbFactor1 + 0.366[ $\beta_4$ ] oeFactor1. Table 4.10 presents the details of the regression model.

Table 4.10 Predicting attitude

Model	Beta Coeff.	$t$ -Value	Sig.	<i>Adjust R2</i>	$F$ -Value
(Constant)	1.794	7.664	0.000	0.263	18.749
bbFactor1	0.205	2.838	0.005		
bbFactor2	0.092	1.502	0.134		
bbFactor3	0.077	1.298	0.195		
oeFactor1	0.366	4.365	0.000		
oeFactor2	-0.126	-1.789	0.075		
oeFactor3	0.090	1.480	0.140		

#### 4.5.2 Regression II: predicting subjective norms

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well ‘Subjective Norms (SN)’ is predicted by ‘Normative Beliefs (NB)’ and ‘Motivation to Comply (MC)’.

The unidimensional factor score of SN was used as the dependent variable in this regression analysis. Individual scores of the five NB items, the five MC items, and the four significant interaction effects produced by multiplying each NB item and each MC item were used as the independent variables. Therefore, totally fourteen predictors (independent variables) were entered. The following equation summarizes the computed relationship between the variables in the regression model:  $SN = \alpha + \beta_1nb_1 + \beta_2nb_2 + \beta_3nb_3 + \beta_4nb_4 + \beta_5nb_5 + \beta_6mc_1 + \beta_7mc_2 + \beta_8mc_3 + \beta_9mc_4 + \beta_{10}mc_5 + \beta_{11}nb_2*mc_2 + \beta_{12}nb_3*mc_3 + \beta_{13}nb_4*mc_4 + \beta_{14}nb_5*mc_5 + \zeta$ . The results suggested there were statistically significant correlations between NB and SN, MC and SN, and between the interaction of NB and MC and SN. All the NB and MC items were positively correlated with SN with  $p$  values below 0.05. The four interaction items were also positively correlated with SN with significant  $p$  values.

From the Coefficients output, the Adjusted R Square was 0.127; therefore, about 12.4% of the variation in Subjective Norms was explained by the independent variables. The ANOVA results,  $F(14, 285) = 4.113, p < 0.001$ , suggested that at the 0.05 level of significance, there existed enough evidence to conclude that at least one of the predictors was useful for predicting Subjective Norms; therefore, the model was useful. The  $t$  and  $p$  values of each coefficient were used to assess the significance of the Beta weights. Only Normative Beliefs of ‘My co-workers’ ( $\beta_4 = 0.904, t = 2.786, p < 0.05$ ), Motivation to Comply of ‘My co-workers’ ( $\beta_9 = 1.101, t = 2.586, p < 0.05$ ), and the interaction effect of NB ‘My co-workers’ and MC ‘My co-workers’ ( $\beta_{13} = -1.312, t = -2.185, p < 0.05$ ) produced significant  $p$  values in predicting Subjective Norms. The rest 13 independent variables were deleted because of non-significant  $p$  values. Therefore, the

final regression model can be described as: Subjective Norms = 1.886 + 0.904[β<sub>4</sub>] NB my co-workers + 1.101[β<sub>9</sub>] MC my co-workers – 1.312[β<sub>13</sub>] NB my co-workers \* MC my co-workers. Table 4.11 presents the details of the regression model.

Table 4.11 Predicting subjective norms

Model	Beta Coeff.	t-Value	Sig.	Adjusted R2	F-Value
(Constant)	1.886	0.923	0.357	0.127	4.113
NB my co-workers	0.904	2.786	0.006		
MC my co-workers	1.101	2.586	0.010		
NB my co-workers *	-1.312	-2.185	0.030		
MC my co-workers					

#### 4.5.3 Regression III: predicting perceived behavioral control

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well ‘Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)’ is predicted by ‘Control Beliefs (CB)’, ‘Power of Control Beliefs (P)’ and the Interaction of the two variables. The one-dimensional factor score of the three ‘Perceived Behavioral Control’ items was computed to be used as the dependent variable in the regression analysis. The one-dimensional ‘Control Beliefs’ factor score, the one-dimensional ‘Power of Control Beliefs’ factor score, and the multiplied interaction scores were used in the regression analysis as independent variables. In total, three predictors were entered. The following equation summarizes the computed relationship between the variables in the regression model:  $PBC = \alpha + \beta_1 cbFactor + \beta_2 pFactor + \beta_3 cb * p + \xi$ . The results suggested there were no statistically significant correlations between CB and PBC, Power and PBC, and the interaction between CB \* Power and PBC. The CB was negatively correlated with PBC ( $r = -0.071, p > 0.05$ ).

Power was positively correlated with PBC ( $r = 0.03, p > 0.05$ ). The interaction between CB and Power was positively correlated with PBC ( $r = 0.01, p > 0.05$ ).

From the Coefficients output, the initial regression model was:  $PBC = 6.63 - 1.31 CB - 0.76 Power + 1.90 CB*Power$ . The R Square was 0.090; therefore, about 9% of the variation in PBC is explained by CB, Power and CB\*Power. The ANOVA results,  $F(3, 296) = 9.736, p < 0.001$ , suggested that at the 0.05 level of significance, there existed enough evidence to conclude that at least one of the predictors was useful for predicting Attitudes; therefore, the model was useful. The  $t$  and  $p$  values of each coefficient were used to assess the significance of the Beta weights. All the  $p$  values of the independent variables were below 0.001, which suggested that CB, Power and CB\*Power was statistically significant in predicting PBC. Therefore, the final regression model in predicting PBC can be described as:  $PBC = 6.63 - 1.31[\beta_1] CB - 0.76[\beta_2] Power + 1.90[\beta_3] CB*Power$ . Table 4.12 presents the details of the regression model.

Table 4.12 Predicting perceived behavioral control

Model	Beta Coeff.	$t$ -Value	Sig.	R-Square	$F$ -Value
(Constant)	6.627	12.007	0.000	0.090	9.736
Control Beliefs	-1.314	-5.338	0.000		
Power	-0.760	-3.794	0.000		
CB*Power	1.900	4.883	0.000		

#### 4.5.4 Regression IV: predicting intentions

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well ‘Intentions’ toward shopping during overseas trips is predicted by ‘Attitude’, ‘Subjective Norms (SN)’ and ‘Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)’. The unidimensional factor score of ‘Intentions’ was used as the dependent variable for the regression analysis. The mean score of the five ‘Attitude’ items was computed to be used as the first independent

variable. The one-dimensional factor scores of both ‘Subjective Norms’ and ‘Perceived Behavioral Control’ were used as the other two independent variables. In total, three predictors were entered. The following equation summarizes the computed relationship between the variables in the regression model:  $Intentions = \alpha + \beta_1 Attitude + \beta_2 SN + \beta_3 PBC + \xi$ . The results suggested there are statistically significant correlations between Attitudes and Intentions, SN and Intentions, and PBC and Intentions. Attitude ( $r = 0.31, p < 0.001$ ), SN ( $r = 0.41, p < 0.001$ ) and PBC ( $r = 0.18, p < 0.05$ ) were all positively correlated with Intentions.

From the Coefficients output, the initial regression model was:  $Intentions = 1.69 + 0.19 Attitudes + 0.34 SN + 0.04 PBC$ . The R Square was 0.203; therefore, about 20.3% of the variation in Intentions was explained by the independent variables. The ANOVA results,  $F(3, 296) = 25.072, p < 0.001$ , suggested that at the 0.05 level of significance, there existed enough evidence to conclude that at least one of the predictors is useful for predicting Intentions; therefore, the model was useful. The  $t$  and  $p$  values of each coefficient were used to assess the significance of the Beta weights. PBC ( $\beta_3 = 0.036, t = 0.653, p > 0.05$ ) was not statistically significant in predicting Intentions because the  $p$  value was over 0.05. Therefore, the final regression model in predicting Intentions can be described as:  $Intentions = 1.69 + 0.19[\beta_1] Attitudes + 0.34[\beta_2] SN$ . Table 4.13 presents the details of the regression model.

Table 4.13 Predicting intentions

Model	Beta Coeff.	$t$ -Value	Sig.	R-Square	$F$ -Value
(Constant)	1.691	5.310	0.000	0.203	25.072
Attitudes	0.191	3.490	0.001		
Subjective Norms	0.336	5.798	0.000		
PBC	0.036	0.653	0.514		



## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS**

##### **5.1.1 Demographic and travel-related characteristics**

According to the demographic frequencies of the sample, most long haul outbound Chinese tourists who had overseas shopping experience during their trips are married, received above-high school education, full-time employed and have a monthly household income between approximately 2,000 to 5,000 US dollar. Most of them are young adults or at their middle adulthood. Based on the travel-related characteristics of the sample, Respondents who attend packaged tours are about 10% more than that travel as Full Independent Tourist. Above two thirds of the respondents shopped only once over about \$1,000 US dollar during their overseas trip(s), indicating that overseas shopping for Chinese outbound tourists is still at its emerging stage. Most Chinese tourists spent 1 to 2 weeks in the overseas trip and the time spent on shopping activities ranges from 6 to 10 hours or 11 to 20 hours. As for the primary products purchased, apparel/shoes/handbags appears to Mainland Chinese tourists' favorite choice, followed by jewelry/accessories, souvenirs, and cosmetics/beauty care. In addition, the majority of the respondents are found to shop with their family, friends and relatives during their overseas trips. As for the allocation of shopping expenditure for others, Chinese tourist spend a large portion, namely about four fifths of the expenditure, on buying gifts for family, friends and

relatives. In the meantime, a small portion is spent on the favor of buying on other's behalf and bringing the goods back to China.

### **5.1.2 Behavioral beliefs, Outcome evaluation and Attitude**

Fourteen behavioral beliefs statements are factor analyzed to reduce the dimension of the initial set of items. Three factors are extracted from behavioral beliefs scale. The three factors are 'Product and store attributes', 'Price' and 'Travel-related benefits'. 'Product and store attributes' represent the largest percentage of variance explained (29.3%), indicating that Chinese tourists hold strong beliefs on certain characteristics of product and shopping environment in the overseas destination, such as product trustworthiness, high product quality and hospitable service in the store. The second dimension, price, explains about 19 percent of the total variance, demonstrating that Chinese tourists also believe shopping during overseas trips can let them enjoy the comparatively low price. Outcome evaluation asks the importance of each behavioral belief to the respondents. With the purpose to keep the group of items consistent with these in behavioral beliefs, three factors are grouped manually following the factor analysis result of behavioral beliefs.

The interaction effect between each behavioral belief factor and each outcome evaluation factor is tested using two-way ANOVA. A non-significant F value indicates that there is no statistically significant interaction between behavioral beliefs and outcome evaluation with respect to the dependent variable, attitude. Therefore, the interaction effect is excluded from the set of predictors of attitude in the following multiple regression analysis. The multiple regression analysis in predicting attitude shows that among the six predictors, namely three behavioral belief factors and three outcome

evaluation factors, only behavioral beliefs of “product and store attributes” and outcome evaluation of “product and store attributes” are significant in predicting attitude.

Therefore, perceptions and evaluations of “product and store attributes” are the most and solely important factors to predict respondents’ attitude toward overseas tourism shopping.

The regression equation is ‘Attitude = 1.794 + 0.205[ $\hat{1}$ ] bbFactor1 + 0.366[ $\hat{4}$ ] oeFactor1’, demonstrating for each single unit increase in behavioral belief of product and store attributes, there will be 0.205 unit increase in attitude; for each single unit increase in outcome evaluation of product and store attributes, there will be 0.366 unit increase in attitude. The result shows that the higher rating Chinese tourists place on certain characteristics of product and store attributes, the more positive attitude they have toward shopping during overseas trips. Additionally, the more important Chinese tourists perceived on certain characteristics of product and store attributes the more positive attitude they have toward shopping during overseas trips.

### **5.1.3 Normative beliefs, Motivation to comply and Subjective norms**

Normative beliefs and motivation to comply are both measured using five reference groups, my family, my friends and relatives, my co-workers, my travel agent, and my travel group fellows. Normative belief asks what the respondent’s reference group would think about on certain behavior whereas motivation to comply asks about the respondent’s likelihood of complying with what the reference groups think he/she should do. Three subjective norms items are factor analyzed and a one-dimensional factor is extracted with a reliability value (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.737, explaining 65.6% of the total variance.

The interaction effect between each normative belief item and the corresponding motivation to comply item is tested using two-way ANOVA. The result indicate the first set of items, ‘my family think I should shop during the overseas trip’ and ‘how likely are you to listen to your family’, does not reveal a significant interaction effect. The rest of each normative belief and motivation to comply statement all represents significant interaction effects. Therefore, 14 independent variables are entered for the following multiple regression analysis in predicting subjective norms, namely 5 normative items, 5 motivation to comply items and 4 interaction items. The multiple regression analysis shows that among the 14 predictors, only three items have significant *p* values. Specifically, normative beliefs of my co-workers, motivation to comply of my co-workers and the interaction effect between them are statistically significant in predicting subjective norms.

The regression equation is described as: Subjective Norms = 1.886 + 0.904[ $\hat{\alpha}$ 4] NB my co-workers + 1.101[ $\hat{\alpha}$ 9] MC my co-workers – 1.312[ $\hat{\alpha}$ 13] NB my co-workers \* MC my co-workers. It indicates that for each single unit increase in normative belief of co-workers toward shopping during overseas trips, the influence of subjective norms on shopping during overseas trips will increase 0.904 units. Also, for each single unit increase in motivation to comply what my co-workers think toward shopping during overseas trip, the influence of subjective norms will increase 1.101 units. The interaction effect shows a negative correlation with the dependent variable subjective norms. This result indicates that on different levels of motivation to comply (moderating variable), the function/strength of the correlation between respondents’ normative belief of co-workers and their subjective norms changes.

To explain the results more specifically, the results demonstrate that respondents' subjective norms on overseas shopping are significantly influenced by their co-workers' opinion. At the same time, respondents' subjective norms on overseas shopping are significantly influenced by their likelihood to comply with their co-workers' opinion. Furthermore, depending on how much the respondents are likely to comply with their co-workers, their subjective norms on overseas shopping will be influenced by their co-workers' opinion at different levels and strength. If the respondents are more likely to comply, the correlation between their normative belief and subjective norm on overseas shopping will be strong; whereas if the respondents are less likely to comply, the correlation will be weak.

#### **5.1.4 Control beliefs, Power of control beliefs and Perceived behavioral control**

Control beliefs and power of the corresponding control beliefs are both factor analyzed to reduce the dimension of the items. The results produce a one-dimensional factor for control beliefs (4 items) and on-dimension factor for power of control beliefs (5 items). The factor of control beliefs is summarized as overseas shopping constraints and the factor of power is refer to power of controlling overseas shopping constraints. The factor of control beliefs has a reliability value (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.738 and explains 56.2% of the total variance. The factor of power has a reliability value (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.805 and explains 56.6% of the total variance. In addition, perceived behavioral control is also factor analyzed and the result shows a uni-dimensional factor detected for the scale of perceived behavioral control (3 items). The factor 'perceived control on overseas shopping' has a reliability value (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.805 and explains 68.6% of the total variance. Three variables, namely, the factor of control beliefs, the

factor of power of control beliefs, and the interaction between control beliefs and power are entered for the following multiple regression analysis. The result shows control beliefs of shopping constraints, power of controlling shopping constraints are negatively predicting perceived behavioral control. However, the interaction between control beliefs and power positively predicts perceived behavioral control. Specifically, the regression equation is  $PBC = 6.63 - 1.31[\beta_1] CB - 0.76[\beta_2] Power + 1.90[\beta_3] CB*Power$ , indicating that for each sing-unit increase in beliefs about shopping constraints, perceived behavioral control will decrease 1.31 units; for each one unit increase in power of controlling shopping constraints, perceived behavioral control will decrease 0.76 units; for each sing-unit increase in the interaction of control beliefs and power, perceived behavioral control will increase 1.90 units. The statistical results demonstrate that the stronger beliefs about overseas shopping constraints that Chinese tourists hold, the less control they obtain to freely and smoothly shop during overseas trips. The more perceived influence of shopping constraints among Chinese tourists, in other words, the less power they have to control shopping constraints, the less control they have to freely shop during overseas trips. The interaction effect between control beliefs and perceived behavioral control exerted a positive influence on perceived behavioral control, indicating that depending on the perceived power over shopping constraints, the correlation or influence of respondents' control beliefs on their perceived behavioral control on overseas shopping are different. In other words, if respondents have more power in controlling possible shopping constraints, the negative effects of control beliefs will be deteriorated.

### **5.1.5 Attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and intention**

Attitude is measured by six attitudinal items, namely, 'Pleasant', 'Enjoyable', 'Important', 'Worthwhile', 'Satisfying' and 'Rewarding'. The scores of the six items are added and averaged to be used as respondent's average attitude score. Subjective norms are measured by three items. The three subjective norms items are factor analyzed and extracted into one factor with a reliability value (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.737 and a percent of total variance explained of 65.6%. Perceived behavioral control is also factor analyzed, producing on-dimensional factor (3 items) with a reliability value (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.805 and explains 68.6% of total variance. Intention is measured by four statements to ask respondents' willingness to shop during their future overseas trips. The four statements are also factor analyzed to reduce the dimension. A uni-dimensional factor labeled 'shopping intentions during future overseas trips' is extracted with a reliability value of 0.722 and a percent of total variance explained of 54.8%.

A multiple regression is performed to see how well the dependent variable, 'shopping intentions during future overseas trips' is predicted by the independent variables, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control. The result shows that attitude and subjective norms are statistically significant in predicting shopping intentions, whereas perceived behavioral control is not statistically significant in predicting shopping intentions during future overseas trips. The regression is described as:  $\text{Intention} = 1.69 + 0.19[\beta_1] \text{ Attitudes} + 0.34[\beta_2] \text{ SN}$ , indicating for each single unit increase in attitude, there will be 0.19 units increase in shopping intention; for each single unit increase in the influence of subjective norms, there will be 0.34 units increase in shopping intention. The result of the multiple regression in predicting intention demonstrate that for Chinese tourists, the more positive attitude they hold about shopping during overseas trips, the

higher intentions they have on shopping again during future overseas trips. Meanwhile, Chinese tourists have higher intentions to shop again during future overseas trips if they are more influenced by their reference groups on the matter of shopping during overseas trips. However, Chinese tourists perceived control on some possible overseas shopping constraints such as limited payment methods, mandatory shopping trips and limited time for shopping does not significantly influence their intentions to shop again during future overseas trips. In other words, although Chinese tourists may perceive some shopping constraints during their overseas shopping experience, such constraints do not affect their willingness to shop again. The future shopping intention is primarily influenced by their attitudes towards overseas shopping and the social perceptions of people around them on overseas shopping.

## **5.2 CONCLUSION**

This study investigated the applicability of the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1988, 1991) in a Chinese outbound tourist shopping setting. Specifically, the study applied the TPB to explore factors influencing long-haul Chinese outbound tourists shopping intention. The study identified relationship among various components of TPB among long-haul Chinese outbound tourists who had shopping experience during their overseas trips before.

Overall, the study examined the relationship between attitude toward shopping during overseas trip, the influence of subjective norms on overseas tourism shopping, perceived behavioral control on the possible shopping constraints during overseas trip, and intention to shop during future overseas trips. The TPB model explained Chinese tourists' shopping intention during future overseas trips moderately well. Attitude,



subjective norms were found to be significant factors to influence the intention of shopping during future overseas trips. Congruent with this, multiple regression analysis indicated that the influence of subjective norms on intention was stronger than that of attitude. Although past studies have suggested that perceived behavioral control should be included to the theory of a planned behavior model in predicting intention and behavior (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & pan, 2009; Quintal et al., 2010), no significant predicting power has been found in the setting of predicting long-haul Chinese outbound tourists' shopping intentions.

Particularly, 'product and store attributes' was the behavioral beliefs and important outcome evaluations that attributed to the forming of attitude, and attitude can have an positive impact on long-haul outbound Chinese tourists' intentions to shop during future overseas trips.

Normative beliefs of Chinese tourists' co-workers, their motivation to comply with their co-workers on the matter of overseas tourism shopping, and the interaction effect between the normative beliefs of co-workers and motivation to comply with co-workers together influence the subjective norms on Chinese tourists' overseas tourism shopping. This finding indicated that co-workers are the most important reference group in building Chinese tourists' social identities regarding shopping during overseas trips. Co-workers' opinions and Chinese tourists' willingness to comply with what their co-workers think positively influence Chinese tourists' subjective norms, namely, what people around them would think they should do concerning overseas tourism shopping. In addition, being moderated by how much the respondents are likely to comply with their co-workers, Chinese tourists' subjective norms on overseas shopping will be

influenced by their co-workers' opinion at different levels and strength. If the respondents are more likely to comply, the correlation between their normative belief and subjective norm on overseas shopping will be strong; whereas if the respondents are less likely to comply, the correlation will be weak.

Furthermore, control beliefs of possible shopping constraints, power in controlling these constraints, and the interaction of control beliefs and power together predict perceived behavioral control on shopping during overseas trips. The result reveals that Chinese tourists' perceived behavioral control on shopping during overseas trips are influenced by their control beliefs in shopping constraints and power over such constraints. However, if Chinese tourists have more power in controlling possible shopping constraints, the negative predicting effects of control beliefs will be deteriorated.

## **5.3 IMPLICATIONS**

### **5.3.1 Academic implications**

This study partially proved the applicability of the Theory of Planned Behavior in predicting long-haul outbound Chinese tourists shopping intentions. Particularly, Attitude towards shopping during overseas trips and subjective norms on shopping during overseas trips are positively predicting shopping intention during overseas trips. Behavioral beliefs of product and store attributes, and outcome evaluation of product and store attributes positively influence attitude, and attitude can have a positive impact on shopping intentions. Normative beliefs of co-workers and motivation to comply with co-workers on overseas tourism shopping positively affect subjective norms. Specifically, the effect of motivation to comply with co-workers moderates the positive predicting relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norms. Together, normative beliefs,

motivation to comply and the interaction between them predict the influence of subjective norms. Although perceived behavioral control on possible shopping constraints was not found to predict shopping intention, control beliefs, power of control beliefs and the interaction between them together influence perceived behavioral control on shopping constraints. Specifically, control beliefs of shopping constraints negatively related to perceived behavioral control, whereas power of controlling such constraints positively predicts perceived behavioral control. The negative relationship between control beliefs and perceived behavioral control is moderated by the power of controlling shopping constraints.

Therefore, by applying and testing the applicability of the TPB in both the tourism shopping and the Chinese outbound tourism settings, the study extend the usability of the TPB in predicting tourist shopping intentions, tourist shopping intentions during long-haul, international trips, Chinese tourist shopping intention and long-haul outbound Chinese tourist shopping intention. To date, the Theory of Planned Behavior has been applied in tourism (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & pan, 2009; Quintal et al., 2010), retailing (Cannière et al., 2009) and the Chinese consumer behavior setting (Bagozzi et al., 2001; Chan & Lau, 2001; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Simth et al., 2009; Sparks & Pan, 2009), but there is scarce application of the TPB in tourism shopping and especially Chinese tourist shopping intention. Thus, the study broadens the TPB literature in the above areas provides empirical findings for future TPB research in the related areas.

On the other hand, there's rising interest in investing Chinese tourist shopping behaviors in the academic area (e.g. Mok & lam, 1997; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Wong & Law, 2002; Lehto et al., 2004; Hsieh & Chang, 2006; Chang & Yang, 2006; Lin & Lin,

2006; Mok & Defranco, 2008; Xu & McGehee, 2012). Particularly, Chinese outbound tourists shopping behavior has been paid increasing attention (Xu & McGehee, 2012; Lin & Lin, 2006). This study investigated the factors that influencing long-haul outbound Chinese tourists shopping intentions. Important factors such as behavioral beliefs of product and store attributes, attitude toward overseas shopping, normative beliefs of co-workers on overseas shopping and subjective norms are found to be significantly related to long-haul outbound Chinese tourists' shopping intentions. To date, almost none research has been particularly examined the reasons that drive long-haul outbound Chinese tourists spend greatly on shopping during their overseas trips. This study provides possible explanations for this emerging phenomenon by empirically test some factors influencing Chinese tourists' shopping intentions using a sound and widely used theoretical foundation.

### **5.3.2 Practical implications**

Based the findings of the study, a number of salient practical implications can be derived. First, beliefs of 'product and store attributes' as well as outcome evaluations of 'product and store attributes together attribute to the form of attitude, and attitude then impact on Chinese tourists' shopping intention during future overseas trips. Chinese tourists want to shop again in their future long-haul outbound trips because they believe that products sold in overseas destination possess certain attributes, such as 'product trustworthiness', 'high product quality', 'genuine branded goods, and 'fashion and novelty'. Destination retailers can therefore target the Chinese tourists market by promoting physical characteristics of products and advertising on the perspective of

superior product features such as quality assurance, excellent workmanship, brand of origin and beautiful design.

Meanwhile, Chinese tourists also believe certain store attributes in the overseas destinations, such as 'hospitable services', 'good store environment' and 'access to world-known brands', these beliefs positively influence their attitude towards overseas shopping and in turn, affect their shopping intentions during future overseas trips. Consequently, destination retailers should improve in-store service to better cater Chinese tourists' shopping needs. For example, mandarin speaking sales can be placed in store to assist Chinese tourists selecting products. Retailers should also create enjoyable store environment using elements such lighting, music and aroma to attract Chinese tourists. To satisfy Chinese shoppers, it is suggested to provide a friendly, welcoming shopping environment. Chinese shoppers, especially female, like to communicate with sales assistants and learn more details on the commodities before making the final purchase decision. Additionally, stores could emphasize the image of brand-collection shops to meet Chinese tourists' beliefs that overseas shopping could bring them access to world-known brands.

Second, normative beliefs of Chinese tourists' co-workers regarding the matter of shopping during overseas trips, motivation to comply with what co-workers think and the interaction between normative beliefs and motivation to comply together predict the influence of subjective norms among Chinese tourists on shopping during overseas trips. Unlike westerners, Chinese people value co-workers' opinion greatly and follow what co-workers think, as co-workers are an important group in building Chinese people' social identity. In this study, Chinese tourists' co-workers opinion about shopping during

overseas trips significantly attributed to the forming of subjective norms, and subjective norms in turn predict shopping intentions during future overseas trips. Therefore, destination retailers should be aware of this particular reference group when targeting Chinese tourists market. Correspondingly, store or product promotions can involve the ideas of building workplace image, favorite product or brand among co-workers, or referring bonus programs among co-workers, etc. In addition, sales persons in the front line should also be aware of the importance of co-workers' opinions among Chinese tourists and promote personally from the perspective of what the customer's co-worker would think if he/she purchase the products.

Third, perceived behavioral control does not significantly influence Chinese tourists' shopping intentions. This means that though there are shopping constraints among Chinese tourists during their overseas trip, such constraint would not affect their willingness to shop again in future overseas trips. However, certain control beliefs of shopping constraints, power of controlling such constraints, and the interaction effect between control beliefs and power do influence Chinese tourists' perceived behavioral control on shopping during overseas trips. Specially, shopping constraints include limited payment methods, mandatory shopping arranged by travel agents, limited time for shopping, and inconvenient transportation for shopping. Consequently, it is recommended that the destination retailers should work with both local banks and banks in China to improve the smoothness of payment so that tourists can fully enjoy the shopping experience. Besides, tour operators in the overseas destination should make the itineraries more relaxed and arrange more convenient transportation methods so that tourists can shop freely with enough time and easy transportation. Meanwhile, any commission

format, forcing shopping should be resisted by regulated industry rules to ensure that tourists can shop voluntarily during their overseas trips.

#### **5.4 LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATION**

One limitation of the study is that the sampling frame only covered three major cities in China, and the sample size is only 300. Although data collection fieldwork has been carefully designed and carried out to include a variety of respondents in terms of age, gender, travel experience, and other demographic characteristics, the population from which the sample was drawn might not be totally representative of the general Chinese overseas travel population. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to all Chinese tourist shoppers.

Future studies should include a larger sample size with greater geographic representations of China's regions. Data can also be collected with regards to particular overseas destination retailers to examine actual tourist shoppers' decision-making process. In addition, this study solely applies TPB model to explain tourist shopping behavior in overseas trip; attitude and subjective norms explained about 55% of the variance of respondents' shopping intention, indicating other factors not included in this study may also influence Chinese tourists' shopping intentions. In the future research, a broader variety of factors should be considered and integrated into the model in predicting the Chinese tourists' shopping intention more comprehensively. Additional variables that may be investigated include Chinese cultural values, personal shopping values, past shopping experience, and satisfaction with the overseas trip. Especially, gift shopping values along with Chinese cultural values could be incorporated into further extended model in the future.

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