

‘I Prefer a Dry Red Thanks’:

**A Consumer Behavioural Study of Resident Auckland Chinese Wine
Consumption and Wine-related Tourism**

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Attestation of Authorship

"I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or institution of higher learning."

Demi Deng

Ethics Approval

As this thesis used a survey, a focus group and two interviews that included human participants, ethical approval was required from AUT Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Approval was received by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 7 May 2012 with AUTEC Reference number 12/82.

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Abstract

The discovery of Chinese participating in a winery experience in New Zealand was both surprising and frequent. Historically, wine was an exotic good for China and not routinely consumed by most Chinese in China. Furthermore, without a foundation of wine culture and solid cultural background to understand wine, most Chinese have limited knowledge compared to international standards. Whether such an emerging phenomenon of winery visiting would benefit the New Zealand wine and wine-tourism industry calls for an in-depth study.

Although wine and wine tourism research from New Zealand continues to make a substantial contribution to the field, there are no references to wine and wine tourism from a New Zealand Chinese perspective. This lack of information indicates that the role of New Zealand Chinese wine visitors in the overall wine tour market is poorly understood. This study of New Zealand Chinese wine consumption and wine-related tourism behaviour was designed to fill this academic void.

The Auckland region was chosen as an exploratory study due to considerations of data accessibility and logistical feasibility. The research utilized mixed-methods driven by a post-positivist paradigm and employed a questionnaire (n=99), a focus group (n=7), and semi-structured interviews (n=2). The study was designed to understand participants' wine and wine-related tourism behavior through identifying their socio-demographic profile, the characteristics of participants' wine consumption behavior, perceptions of wine and wine-related tourism, self-assessed wine knowledge levels, wine palate, and a relationship between wine consumption and wine tourism.

This research indicates that the local wine market and wine culture were important factors that affect the development of wine knowledge of Chinese. Auckland-resident Chinese were found to be more discerning about wine, especially New Zealand wines, than Chinese people in China. The longer the participants reside in New Zealand the more active they engage in wine-related activities. However, there was no significant relationship between the length-of-residence and wine knowledge levels. This implies that there is a more complex relationship between wine consumption, wine-related activities and residence. Social groupings and the opportunity to increase knowledge about wine were identified as essential factors that contribute to an understanding of wine and the development of a discerning wine palate. For wine-tourism it is suggested that linking New Zealand's clean and green destination image with the features of New Zealand wines will attract increasing numbers of well-educated, relatively high income and young Chinese who are interested in wine. This will open a promising pathway for New Zealand wine and wine-related tourism.

Chapter One - Introduction

Research Background

Chinese people may be distinctly visible when they are visiting New Zealand wineries and experiencing a wine tasting of a local Sauvignon Blanc at the cellar door. When the researcher was visiting New Zealand wine regions (Auckland, Hawke's Bay and Marlborough), a considerable number of questions emerged naturally whenever the researcher came across Chinese people visiting wineries within New Zealand, either individually or in groups. The discovery of Chinese having a winery experience in New Zealand was both surprising and frequent. Curiosity was easily aroused about the Chinese visitors, as they whispered to each other and appeared to discuss the wine being tasted. Were they from within New Zealand or outside? What was their experience of this winery? What motivated them to visit a wine region and experience wine-themed activities? Were they satisfied with their experience, or did they expect more? In terms of the wine tasted, were they pleased with that wine grape variety? It was said that Chinese prefer dry red wine but do they really enjoy that type? Where was their wine palate located exactly on a spectrum? Did they prefer to match wine with food, especially Chinese food; or would they rather simply drink the wine by itself?

Uniform Definition of Wine in this Research

To explore all the emerging questions, it is important to clarify the term 'wine' as used in this research. The definition of wine is widely accepted throughout the Western world as

"alcoholic beverage obtained from the fermentation of the juice of freshly gathered grapes, the fermentation is carried out in the district of origin according to local tradition and practice" (p.28, Julyan, 2008a) and wines are classified into red, white or rosé or sparkling by type (Julyan, 2008a; Robinson, 2006). In terms of Chinese culture, the identical Chinese term for wine is *putao jiu* (葡萄酒). Literally, *putao* (葡萄) refers to grapes; and *jiu* (酒) is a joint name for all types of alcoholic beverage in China. However, some of the literature concerning the study of alcoholic beverages has mistakenly drawn parallels in content regarding the scope of wine (葡萄酒) between Chinese and Western cultures. For instance, in Li's (2011) book on Chinese wine, the term 'wine' refers to all types of alcoholic beverage made in China, such as rice wine. The confusion about the definition of wine may result in problems when intending to compare attitudes to it across different cultural backgrounds. Faced with a cross-cultural setting, it is important to clarify the definition of key terms. In this research, the terms 'wine' and '*putao jiu*' (葡萄酒) are regarded as referring to the same product.

The History and Culture of Wine in Western World

The discovery of the earliest cultivated wine grape can be traced back to 5500 BC, when the cultivars of the wild Eurasian grapevine were found in the Causasian region (now part of Anatolian Turkey and Georgia). Those vines produced a large proportion of current wine grapes. At that time, the grapes were kept in jars for eating out of season. Pressed by their own weight, the juice of the wine grapes began to ferment and wine was discovered (George, 2003). The most significant use of wine was related to rituals. The wine was featured as a symbol of Christ's blood or life. Not until the fourteenth century did wine become a mark of a luxurious lifestyle, and was mainly supplied to the elite. With a growing demand for wine, the wealthy elite classes actively developed wine production and spread the technique of viticulture gradually to Greece, Italy, France, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom. Since then, wine has been important as a trading commodity, and consumers have become more interested in the characteristics of wine, such as its aesthetic appeal, as well as the benefits of drinking it, including to their health.

The History of Wine in New Zealand

Fewer than fifty out of one-thousand different grape varieties (mostly of the *Vitis vinifera* species) appeared on the wine labels or travelled from their point of origin within the Old World. The label on the bottle built up a silent communication between suppliers and consumers through its appearance and the information it conveyed (George, 2003; Jackson, 2008). From the late fifteenth century, the technique of viticulture was gradually carried to the New World, to countries such as the United States of America and Chile (Campbell & Guibert, 2007; Goode, 2005). In 1819, the British missionary Samuel Marsden was credited with planting the first vines in the Northland region of New Zealand (Ministry for Culture and Heritage, 2012). In 1836, James Busby unveiled the first New Zealand wine (George, 2003; Goode, 2005). Since then, ten main wine regions have been progressively identified with wine production. They are Northland, Auckland, Bay of Plenty, Gisborne, Hawke's Bay, Wairarapa, Nelson, Marlborough, Canterbury and Central Otago (New Zealand Wine Association, 2012).

The History and Culture of Wine and Wine-consuming in China

According to Chinese tradition and practice, grains (as the main crops in China) have been the chief source for producing Chinese alcoholic beverages. In reviewing the literature as background for this study, no reference was found to trace the earliest viticulture and oenology¹ in China; the growing of grapes to produce wine locally (George, 2003; Li, 2011). The Silk Road has been widely acknowledged as the

¹ Viticulture and oenology: a common designation that include both the "outdoors" and "indoors" aspects of wine production

conveyor belt for the introduction of wine grapes from the Tashkent region into China, at around 138 BC (Li, 2011; X. Liu, 2011; Whitfield, 2001). Zhang Qian, the Han Dynasty envoy, was recorded as the hero who introduced the techniques of viticulture and oenology to China and contributed to the development of wine-making in China (Jenster & Cheng, 2008; Li, 2011; X. Liu, 2001). Such a clue implies that historically, wine was an exotic or imported good for China (Li, 2011). Drinking wine indicated a luxurious lifestyle and signified good fortune, power and prestige in ancient China, and was only supplied to a small social group (Kjellgren, 2004). The earliest wine consumers in China were the aristocracy or royal family members because of its scarce supply. They drank wines excessively for the purpose of sensual pleasure and to promote conviviality. Their perception of drinking wine was recorded in much of the writing of the period, such as in romantic poems. Li Bai was one of the scholars and poets of that time who composed a great many wine-related poems (Weiyang, 1993). These writings point to the role of wines in ancient China as symbols of hedonism and luxury. In terms of the functions of wines, they were also reserved for sacrificial offerings or festival feasts for important national occasions (Li, 2011; Rui, 2011).

In recent periods, with the influence of Western consumerism and the international marketing and distribution of French wine, including in China, the middle class in China have begun increasingly to drink wine (Jenster & Cheng, 2008; Rui, 2011). The introduction of proven techniques of viticulture and oenological practices have laid the foundations for wine production in China (Li, 2011). To consume wine has emerged to be a sign of modernity and a fashionable icon (Kjellgren, 2004); a new style of socializing (Campbell & Guibert, 2007); and to represent affluence and social status (Li, 2011). A more and more Westernized approach to gourmet eating, including matching wine with food, has become popular with Chinese in China (Kjellgren, 2004).

However, without the foundation of a broad wine culture in China, locally acceptable wine-consuming behaviour, such as mixing wine with Coco-Cola, has caused extensive concern in the wine industry. Most Chinese in China use the term “red wine” (*Hong jiu*/红酒) to refer to all types of wine in general, and in addition, French wines are stereotyped as the best country of origin for “red wine” (*Hong jiu*/红酒). Such a phenomenon is acknowledged in a great variety of Chinese contemporary media such as Chinese-produced movies, literature and TV shows. Without a solid cultural background from which to understand wine, for most Chinese, their interest or knowledge about wine might be far behind that of the average internationally. Jancis Robinson, distinguished Master of Wine and Wine critic, commented on this socially embarrassing mistake when she was interviewed by Yao (2010) in China, indicating:

‘My perception is that for most people in Shanghai, wine is unknown for them,

completely misunderstood and something people feel like they ought to taste because it's fashionable. I've heard that some people with a lot of money here buy very expensive French wine, but don't really like the taste'.

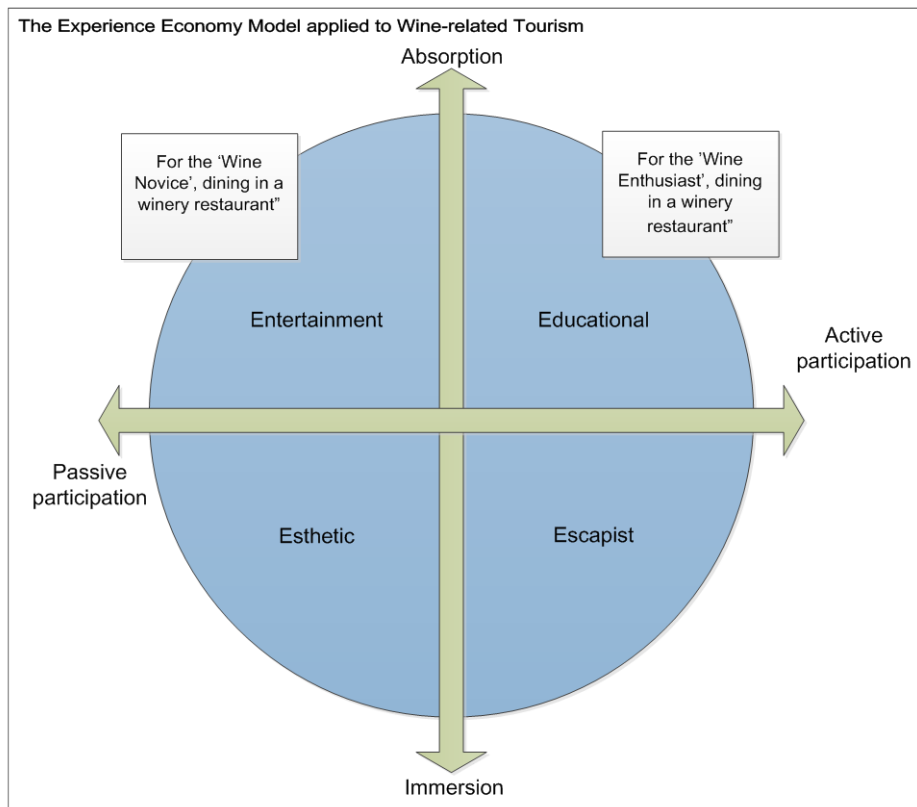
If Chinese people in China do not like the taste of French wine, what has motivated them to choose to drink that wine? Regardless of the criticism of pouring soft-drink into wine, the reason why such behaviour has become widely acceptable calls for an exploration.

The State-of-play in Wine-related Tourism Research

To frame contemporary wine tourism research, Carlsen (2004) summarized international research data and initially divided it into categories of national and regional studies in general. Subsequently, Carlsen and Charters (2006) have identified five detailed themes emerging in wine tourism research, based on 282 references they reviewed. The five themes are: 1) Wine tourism culture and heritage (e.g., authenticity and sustainability); 2) Wine tourism business (e.g., management, economic impact, wine events/festivals); 3) Wine tourism marketing (e.g., wine tourism destination image); 4) Wine tourists' behaviours (e.g., consumption, behaviour, decision choice, motivations, frequency and market segmentation) and 5) Wine tourism systems (e.g., policy and models) (Carlsen, 2004; Carlsen & Charters, 2006).

With the growing prevalence of wine tourism studies, there is a trend for understanding wine tourism using a multi-disciplinary perspective. As maintained by Trauer (2006), wine tourism is a product of special interest tourism. Such a statement implies that the interest levels of consumers in wine and wine-themed activities might affect the degree of consumer involvement. Based on the model of the 'Experience Economy', the most active participation in an activity is associated with consumers having a relatively high need for knowledge achievement (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012) have applied this model to wine tourism by classifying wine activities under each of the four categories of consumer experience proposed by Pine and Gilmore (Entertainment, Esthetic, Educational and Escapist). However, in terms of wine tourism, the evidence supporting the placement of an activity within an individual category is not as convincing as the '4E' model (referring to Entertainment, Esthetic, Educational and Escapist as mentioned above). For instance, visitors might have the opportunity to enhance their wine knowledge by visiting wine museums in wine regions. Why is the item of museum and heritage visits classified as 'entertainment' (as according to Quadri-Felitti and Fiore) rather than education? Given another instance, dining out in a winery might be more about entertainment for a wine novice, whereas a wine enthusiast may prefer to experience more local food and wine matching experiences for the educational significance (as shown in Figure 1).

Figure 1: The Experience Economy Model applied to Wine-related Tourism



Source: adapted from Pine & Gilmore (1998) and Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012)

Based on those arguments, it follows that the application of the 4Es (Entertainment, Educational, Esthetic and Escapist) to wine tourism from the point of view of activities is too farfetched. Wine tourism, driven by its nature as a cultural and lifestyle experience, has a high compatibility with each of the four dimensions regarding any singular wine-theme activity. Namely, any singular wine-associated activity in wine tourism is difficult to categorize into a singular dimension within the Economy Experience framework. Therefore, rather than simply categorizing the activities of wine tourism by each dimension, identifying the different market segments of wine visitors, in terms of the experience they are seeking, may be more valid. To understand wine tourism consumers, how they behave in respect of wine tours, why they are interested in such products and the motivation influencing their choice of preferred wine tourism destination are far more practical and meaningful aspects of wine tourism to examine for all the stakeholders involved in the wine and tourism industries.

The State-of-play in New Zealand Wine-related Tourism Research

Wine and wine tourism research from New Zealand emerged in the middle of the twentieth century, and research from a New Zealand perspective continues to make a substantial contribution to the field. By 2005, the output of peer-reviewed publications based on New Zealand settings comprised 31 percent (n= 53) of the overall pertinent studies (Mitchell & Hall, 2006). Mitchell and Hall have identified three main themes in

this field. They are 1) wine tourism products (e.g., wineries, vineyard, wine festivals, wine trails and other wine-based attractions); 2) sustainable wine tourism at a regional level (e.g., destination image and biosecurity); and 3) winery visitation. The studies of winery visitation projections are based on population statistics, socio-demographical profiles (e.g., gender, age, education and nationality), psychographic characteristics (e.g., perceptions, motivations and reported satisfaction) and sociocultural features (e.g., lifestyle and market segmentation). Table 1 shows the themes identified by Mitchell and Hall (2006) in terms of their influence on the state-of-play in New Zealand wine tourism. According to the current evidence, the influence of wine consumption behaviour on wine tourism and wine tourism development at the national and global level are neglected areas of study, although the New Zealand Winery Visitors' Survey by Hall (2000) is an exception.

Table 1: Factors which influencing the state-of-play in New Zealand wine-related tourism.

Wine Tourism Products	Sustainability of Wine Tourism Development at the Regional level	Potential Wine Tourism Consumers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wineries/vineyards • Wine festivals • Wine trails 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Destination image (e.g., Cellar Door service) • Cluster/network • Safety and risk (e.g. biosecurity) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Population statistics • Socio-demographics • Psychographics • Socio-cultural features

Source: adapted from Mitchell and Hall (2006)

Another 18 peer-reviewed publications from between 2006 and 2012, pertinent to New Zealand wine tourism studies, were found via the databases of Hospitality & Tourism Complete (EBSCO), Science Direct and NZ Research., Table 2 summarizes those 18 publications, listing them according to ascending order and identifying the focus of each based on the foci summarized by Mitchell and Hall (2006).

Table 2: The research of New Zealand wine-related tourism as a continuum according to date published.

Author	Year	Focus
Simpson, K., Bretherton, P., & Vere, G.	2005	Wine tourism, industry perspective
Alonso, D.	2005	Wine involvement, wine tourism, visitor profile, winery visitor behavior
Charters, S., & Fountain, J.	2006	Wine tourists, visitor profiles, generations, cellar door tastings
Smith, A.,	2007	Distribution channels, wine tourism destination, supply
Alonso, D., Fraser, A., & Cohen, A.	2008	Visitor behaviour, winery visitation
Randall, C., Mitchell, R., & Carlsen, J	2008	Wine tourism, supply, network
Fountain, J., Fish, N., & Charters, S	2008	Winery perspective, wine consumption
Fraser, A., Alonso, D., & Cohen, A	2008	Female and male market segment visits to winery, visitor profile, consumer behaviour
Galloway, G., Mitchell, R., Getz, D., Crouch, G., & Ong, B.	2008	Wine tourists, consumer behaviour, visitor profile
Peter, H.	2008	Regional wine tourism, wine tourists, demand, consumer behavior
Benckendorff, P.	2009	Wine tourism, network, state of play
Charters, S., Fountain, J., & Fish, N	2009	Winery visitor, winery perspective (wine tastings, service)
Alonso, D.	2009	Tourists perspective, wine tourism, consumer behaviour
Fountain, J., & Charters, S.	2010	Generation Y, wine tourists, cellar door, supply, demand
Dawson, D., Fountain, J., & Cohen, A.	2011	Wine tourism, seasonality, demand, supply
Dawson, D., Fountain, J., & Cohen, A	2011	Supply, industry perspective
Fountain, J., & Tompkins, M.	2011	Biodiversity, winery perspective
Mitchell, R., Charters, S., & Albrecht, N.	2012	Wine tourism, market, cultural experience, four regional case studies
McKercher, B., & Tony, S	2012	Visitor behaviour, wine tourism

On the basis of the research summarized, the link between wine consumer behaviour (e.g., wine and food matching) and wine tourism emerged as a research dimension. For the stakeholders involved in wine tourism, how to make use of inherent issues such as seasonality, biosecurity and risks for sustainability have become topics of great debate. In general, to improve the quality of wine tourism studies, researchers have appeared to apply increasingly more sophisticated theories to solve the specific problems pertaining to New Zealand. Such actions are novel and valuable.

Winery Visitors

In order to study wine tourists, researchers have frequently employed both socio-demographic and psychological factors (Ali-Knight & Charters, 2002; Alonso,

2009; Hall, 2000; Macionis, 1996; Mitchell & Hall, 2006; Mitchell, Hall, & McIntosh, 2000; Yuan, Morrison, Cai, & Linton, 2008). In terms of socio-demographic profiling, wine tourists have been characterized as falling within the age range of between 30 to 50 years old, and with generally higher income levels than average. However, the proportion of younger wine tourists is estimated to keep rising (Carlsen & Charters, 2006; Charters & Fountain, 2006). Wine visitors mainly originate from Western countries and most of them come from areas within, or that are close to, wine regions (Getz, 2000; Hall, 2000). Apart from the above characteristics, Mitchell and Hall (2006) add that the majority of wine tourists are well-educated and tend to be local. In terms of a social reference group, nevertheless, the data collected in most studies are based on information relating to wineries and restricted to a small sample size (Hall, 2000; Mitchell & Hall, 2006). Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the findings to the whole population. Meanwhile, bias is unavoidable by virtue of the singular research direction of most studies. There is also strong evidence to suggest that there are considerable differences in the characteristics of winery visitors across wine regions, and even more so across countries (Galloway, Mitchell, Getz, Crouch, & Ong, 2008; Houghton, 2008; Yuan et al., 2008).

The above limitations expose the problems of applying socio-demographic analysis to categorize wine tourists. However, the results of those types of ethnographic study generally indicate variation in wine tourists based on their different cultural and social backgrounds such as Alonso (2009), Ali-Knight & Charters (2002) and Hall (2000). Conversely, wine tourists with similar socio-demographic and lifestyle characteristics and cultural backgrounds have a tendency to share similar values, perceptions and attitudes toward wine (Shor & Mansfeld, 2010). This finding supports conducting research into attitudes to wine and wine tourism within one particular community.

New Zealand Chinese

For sampling convenience, Chinese residing in New Zealand were targeted as the study subjects. Therefore, it was important to have some understanding of their background. The history of Chinese residing in New Zealand dates back to the middle of the 1860s (Ip, 2003). It was during that time the migration of Cantonese gold-seekers began from China, and New Zealand was one of their destinations. Most gold-seekers then were barely literate and tended to live in isolated 'clusters' in various regions of New Zealand (Fong, 1959; Greif, 1974). In recent periods, a sizeable and growing number of wealthy Chinese from middle-class families have come to New Zealand seeking residence permits. Chinese coming from Hong Kong, Taiwan, mainland China and Malaysia represent the largest group of recent Chinese immigrants (Greif, 1995; Ip, 1996). There are therefore substantial differences regarding socio-demographic profile between two groups of Chinese in New Zealand; 1) earlier Chinese immigrants to New Zealand, and 2) ones that have arrived since the

late 20th century.

According to the *New Zealand Immigration Restriction Act 1908*, a 'New Zealand Chinese' person was initially depicted as "any person born of Chinese parents, and any native of China or its dependencies, or of any island in the China seas, born of Chinese parents, but does not include Chinese naturalized in New Zealand" (New Zealand Parliament. House of Representatives., 1888). According to Ip (2003), later on, countering views contested the definition of "naturalized". For instance, Justice Cooper introduced the *jus sanguinis* principle (Principle of Blood) to argue that one's nationality is determined by the nationality of one's parents. Obviously, the primary definition of 'New Zealand Chinese' is controversial. In a 1958 Customs Department memo, New Zealand Chinese were referred to as 'all persons of Chinese 'race' (New Zealand Census and Statistics Office., 1953) regardless of nationality (Ip, 1996, 2003). To apply the statement to this research, nationality should not be considered as a criterion for selecting the subjects for this study.

Rationale of the Research Statement

When referring to the overview of the historical and cultural background referred to in the previous section, it is reasonable to be surprised at the numbers of New Zealand Chinese who visit New Zealand wineries for the particular purpose of tasting and purchasing. Compared to Chinese 'wine' not made from grapes, wine is not routinely consumed by most Chinese in China. Chinese residing in New Zealand have more opportunities to drink wine more frequently and in a diverse range of settings because of the influence of local cultural practices and lifestyles. Is it the case then that the longer Chinese reside in New Zealand, the more wine they drink, and the more sophisticated and discerning they are of wine?

In terms of the distribution of overall winery visitors in New Zealand by nationality, Chinese were a minor market segment and it has been reported that inbound Chinese wine tourists account for approximately two percent of inbound wine tourists' arriving in New Zealand (Ministry of Tourism, 2009b). For the purposes of this study, no statistics were found relating to the New Zealand Chinese market in terms of domestic winery visitors. This lack of information indicates that the role of New Zealand Chinese wine visitors in the overall wine tour market is poorly understood. Nevertheless, Ip (2003) maintains that New Zealand Chinese are the largest non-European and non-Polynesian ethnic group and that this substantial ethnic community should be paid much more attention in the academic field. Motivated by the need to fill this academic void, an exploratory study of New Zealand Chinese wine consumption and wine-related tourism behaviour was proposed.

From a business point of view of both the wine and tourism industries, Chinese are a

growing consumer group in New Zealand. To carry out effective strategic planning and gain sustainable benefits in those industries from this ethnic group, it is important to properly understand New Zealand Chinese winery visitors' wine consuming behaviour and provide sound information as a reference.

The Study in the Auckland Region

In this research, 'New Zealand Chinese' were defined as the research participants. However, instead of looking for potential research participants nationally, the researcher chose the Auckland region. The choice of that geographical region was on the basis of the following three points: firstly, statistically, according to the 2006 Census, the population of Chinese in the Auckland region was 98,391, which represented 66.7 percent of Chinese residents in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand., 2012). This implied that the Auckland region could be the most accessible region to get Chinese to take part in the research. Secondly, a considerable number of wineries are located in the Auckland region, which was helpful in getting access to the diverse range of information required for the study. Thirdly, as this study was restricted in terms of the amount of time and funding available, using a relatively narrow setting was a practical and effective way of obtaining rich and in-depth information in the exploration phase, as well as conducting follow-up investigations beyond the initial phase.

Study Aims and Objectives

The statements of questions in a research study cover six types in general. They are descriptive, exploratory, explanatory, evaluative, correlational and comparative questions (Veal, 2006). In this research, the main research questions were summarized into the following nine objectives:

- (1) To comprehend the socio-demographic profile of Auckland-resided Chinese wine consumers and winery visitors and its possible relationship to the participation of wine-related tourism.
- (2) To discover the characteristics of research participants' wine consumption behaviour, such as their wine preference and choice of wines, and the characteristics of wine-related tourism behaviours such as travelling styles and motivations.
- (3) To understand the study participants' perceptions of wine and wine-related tourism.
- (4) To evaluate the study participants' wine knowledge levels from a self-assessed aspect.
- (5) To explore the study participants' wine palate.
- (6) To examine the possibility of a relationship between wine consumption and wine tourism.
- (7) To test the hypothesis, that there is a correlation between length-of-residence in New Zealand and:

- a) wine knowledge levels,
 - b) wine consumer variables;
 - c) wine-related tourism variables.
- (8) To test the hypothesis, that there is a correlation between study participants' wine knowledge levels and:
- a) wine consumer variables;
 - b) wine-related tourism variables;
- (9) To compare the above results for New Zealand Chinese with other existing published data for corresponding groups.

Combing the nature of each type of research question with the aims of this research, the above nine objectives were further classified into the types of research question described by Veal (2006) (shown in Table 3). Such a classification contributed to the choice of proper techniques for data collection, as described in the methodology chapter (chapter three).

Table 3: Research objectives

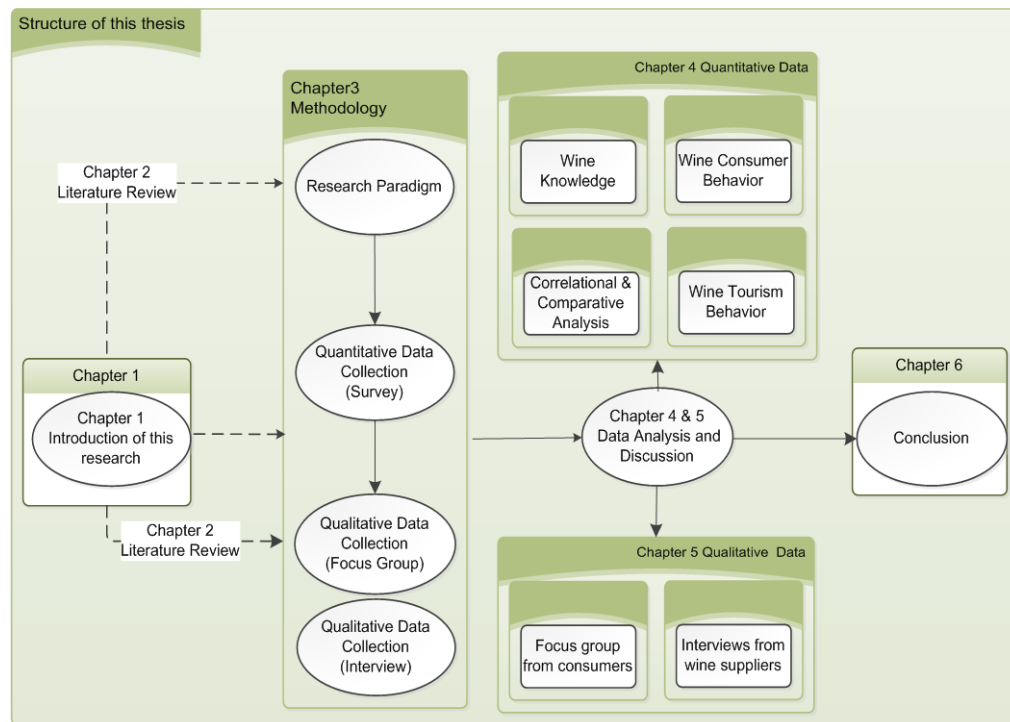
Type of Research Question	Information Needed to Answer the Question
Descriptive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Socio-demographics ➤ Wine consumer behaviour such as consumption and purchasing characteristics ➤ Wine-related tourism behaviour such as travelling characteristics and motivation
Exploratory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Perception of wine and wine-relation tourism
Evaluative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Levels of wine knowledge
Explanatory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Perception of wine and wine-relation tourism
Correlation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Correlation between length-of-residence and wine and wine-related tourism variables ➤ Correlation between the wine knowledge levels and wine and wine-related tourism variables
Comparative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Comparison between New Zealand Chinese with other existing corresponding groups

The Structure of the Thesis

Figure 2 outlines the structure of this thesis. The content was mapped out into six chapters. Chapter one has introduced the research background and research statements. Chapter two is a review of the literature about wine and wine-related tourism from the perspective of consumer behaviour theories. Chapter three introduces

the study methodology applied, from the position of a philosophical paradigm, as well as the process of applying the research techniques employed in this research. Chapters four and five focus on the quantitative and qualitative data analysis respectively, and a separate discussion of those findings is presented in each. Chapter six provides the conclusions drawn by the researcher from this study.

Figure 2: Structure of the thesis



Chapter Two – Literature review

Tourism

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the study of tourism crosses multiple disciplines (Coles, Hall, & Duval, 2006; Darbellay & Stock, 2012; Echtner & Jamal, 1997). The high level of relevance and interest across disciplines is because tourism, by its nature, is a social, cultural and economic phenomenon. Therefore, theories from multiple disciplines have been applied to the study of tourism and this is reflected in the flexibility and plurality of research in the area. Some scholars such as Tribe (2006) question the position of tourism as a discreet discipline from an epistemological, methodological and theoretical perspective. However, scholars like Coles et al. (2006) have introduced the term “post-disciplinary” to signify that tourism studies are beyond disciplines. Furthermore, a substantial increase in tourism-oriented studies has been predicted to support the practicability and sustainability of the industry (Weiler & Hall, 1992).

The Rethinking of the Definition of Tourism

Tourism was initially defined by the World Tourism Organization of the United Nations (referred to here as the UNWTO) as comprising

‘the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes’ (p. 2)(1995)

Four themes are contained in this definition of tourism: the nature of tourism, the role of practitioners, the mobility and purpose of visitors. However, this definition failed to quantify mobility by distance or space. How far away is a place to be identified as “outside” and how does one measure the term “usual” from the viewpoint of statistics? Such a vague definition to some extent would prevent using it directly to apply to quantitative research. By 2008, the definition of tourism was refined by UNWTO as being:

‘a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes. The people are called visitors (which may be either tourists or excursionist /same-day visitors; residents or non-residents) and tourism has to do with their activities, some of which imply tourism expenditure’ (p.9) (2008).

Comparing the UNWTO 2008 definition with that of 1995, three changes are apparent. The nature of tourism has not been restricted to just the level of the individual, but has been extended to be regarded as being a phenomenon of the social world. In addition,

the prescribed limit on time - not more than one consecutive year – has been eliminated. Moreover, same-day visitors and residents have been classified as participants in tourism. Special-interest tourism represents a market segment of tourism (Weiler & Hall, 1992), and when applying the definition of tourism to that of special-interest tourism, those changes should be taken into consideration.

Consumer Behaviour in Tourism

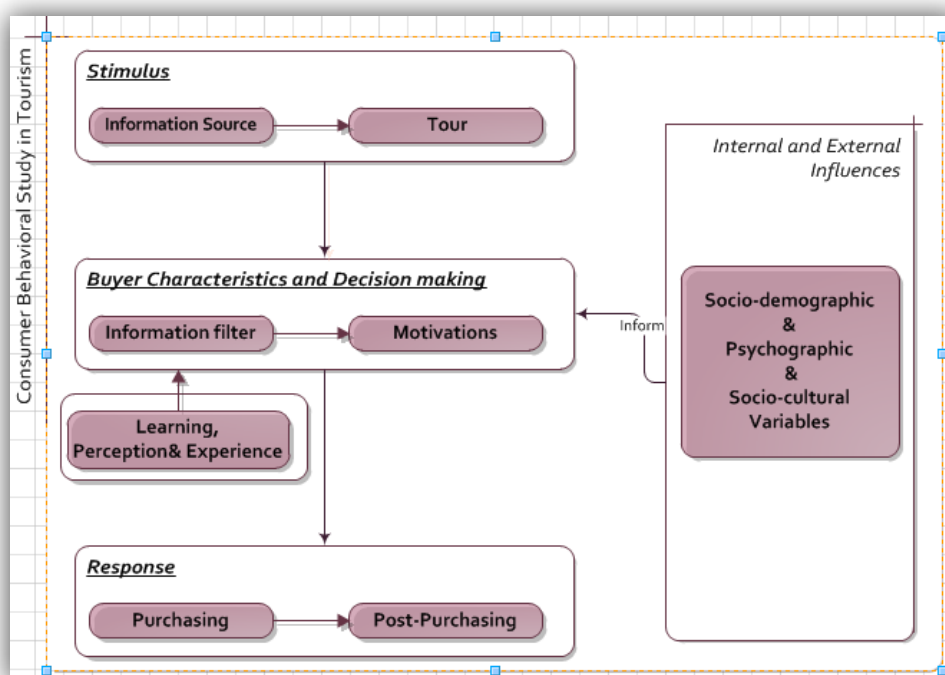
‘Consumer behaviour’ denotes the process by which consumers (either individuals or groups) look for, purchase, use, evaluate and dispose of products or services that they expect to satisfy their needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009; Solomon, 2009). The process of consumer behaviour as a sequential system covers the stages of pre-purchase, purchasing and post-purchase (Solomon, 2009). Studies of consumer behaviour involve addressing three-dimensional variables according to Solomon (2009). These are defined to be: external influences, internal influences, and decision making process influences. The variables of culture, demographics, income, social class and reference groups constitute the main body of external influences. Internal influences include motivation, perceptions, learning, attitudes, personality and lifestyle (Solomon, 2009). The variables pertaining to the decision making process are mainly information search, evaluation, and the purchase and post-purchase process (Neal, Quester, & Hawkins, 2006).

The study of consumer behaviour has been described as an effective and efficient approach to the understanding of consumers’ needs and desires, and provides a solid reference point for developing strategic planning and regulation (Solomon, 2009). However, the empirical research actually conducted is regarded as being far behind the models or frameworks constructed in the field of consumer behaviour. Whether those models/frameworks proposed are valid is questioned. For that reason, to study the phenomenon is essential (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007).

Studying consumer behaviour from the aspect of tourism, Smith (1994) maintains that a tourism product is a synergistic combination of tangible assets (the physical plant and goods) and intangible assets (service, hospitality and free choice). To consume a tourism product such as winery visiting, the consumer pays for the wine-related activities such as wine-tasting and gained service (e.g. hospitality) and related service (e.g. professional assistance on wine) at the same time. However, to consume a general product, the consumer usually gets the goods first and service afterward (e.g. after service) or vice versa. Such a difference compared tourism product studies to general studies of consumer behavior was researched by Swarbrooke & Horner (2007), who found that theories of consumer behaviour may not totally apply to the study of that in tourism.

According to Ballantyne, Parcker and Axelsen's (2009) view, studies of consumer behaviour in tourism in peer-reviewed journals were mostly quantitatively-based and centered on consumers' behavioural characteristics, attitudes and perceptions. Nevertheless, there have been a few studies emphasizing the systematic examination of consumer behaviour in tourism. Middleton and Clarke's (2001) stimulus–response model of buyer behaviour separates motivators and determinants of behaviour to develop an in-depth understanding of the dynamics involved. Characteristics, decision process and motivation are identified as the fundamental components affecting consumption and purchasing behaviours. Horner & Swarbrooke (1996) also emphasize the significance of motivators and determinants as important variables affecting the decision-making process. Cooper (1998) has also highlighted the importance of studying variables such as perception, learning and experience as influencers on decision-making in the tourism sector. Based on above views, Figure 3 displayed interactive processes involved in the study consumers' behavior from tourism sector

Figure 3: The stimulus–response model of consumer behavior from tourism aspect



Source: adapted from Middleton and Clarke (2001)'s stimulus – response model

In tourism studies, culture has been identified as an important influencing factor in the choice of tourism destination and services (Baha'is & Costa, 2006) as well as the decision-making regarding a tourism product (Cooper, 1998). However, the influence of culture is not included in the input-output model of Middleton and Clarkes'. For the study of tourism consumer behavior study, culture should be taken into account as a

variable.

Variables of Consumer Behaviour in Tourism

Based on the existing variables of consumer behavioral study referred to in Figure 3, variables of consumer behavioral study in tourism were summarized from socio-demographic, psychographic and socio-cultural perspectives.

Socio-demographic Characteristics

Demographic information, as the most accessible and cost-effective source, has been most commonly selected by researchers of consumer behaviour to answer the “who” question in detail. Based on secondary data reviewed by the research, variables most commonly used for demographic profiles typically include age, gender, nationality, income and education, respectively. Studies examining the consumption of tourism products as an economic phenomenon, have related tourist behaviour to monetary expenditure. According to Cooper (1998), level of income is an important indicator affecting decision-making in tourism. Level of education has also been reported as an important determinant of travelling propensity concerning tourism for personal development, and people's awareness of the strengths of a particular tourist destination. Nationality and gender have also been two critical variables identified in a great many tourism behavioural studies as influencers of consumer choices.

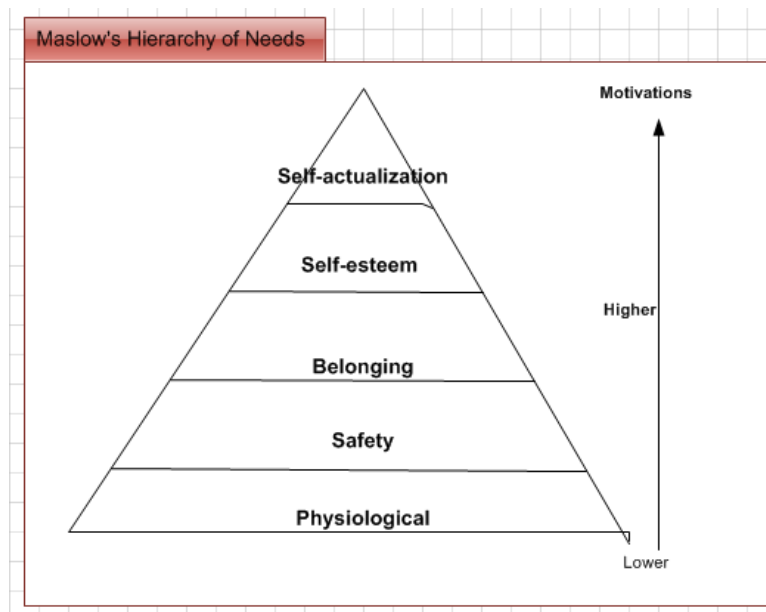
Psychographic Characteristics

The cognitive image of an individual of a tourism product or destination is grounded in the person's learning, perceptions, experiences and even emotions. Customers' cognitive image toward a singular tourism product or destination will affect the development of their motivations (Cooper, 1998; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012).

Motivations in Tourism

Motivation, in the context of this study, is the state of need, want and/or desire, or the conditions that influence the tourist in making their tourism choices. The motivations that lead to particular choices are the result of individual psychological traits or the intended purpose of a trip (Heitmann, 2011). According to Heitmann (2011), different people have different attitudes and different personalities, and consequently, the motivators vary. This individual variation makes the study of motivation to some extent difficult, when trying to make generalizations in regards to study findings. The Hierarchy of Needs' model explains the general needs behind the motivation to take action from biogenic and psychogenic perspectives (see Figure 4). According to Maslow (1955), in form of a ranking, motives are classified from the lowest need of the physiologically-based (e.g., hunger, thirst and rest) to the highest need of self-actualization. From Maslow's viewpoint, people's needs advance from a lower to a higher level once the needs of the lower level are satisfied. In addition, motivators to satisfy needs will dominate behavior.

Figure 4: Maslow's 'Hierarchy of Needs'.



Source: adapted from Maslow (1955) 's Hierarchy of Needs'

However, Maslow's hierarchy ignores the possibilities of mixed motivators originating from different levels in regards to the same product (e.g., wine-related tourism as a product), and is restricted to a Western cultural setting (Solomon, 2009). Consequently, rather than to apply the theory in tourism research, the motivation labels in the framework are widely applied to the tourism sector in order to understand drivers of customer behaviour, due to the model's clarity and simplicity (Cooper, 1998). Based on Maslow's hierarchy model, Dann (1981) has described seven motivators in tourism in terms of pull (destination image) and push (individual desire) factors. The motivation factors he has identified include curiosity, novelty, purpose of travelling, escapism and the seeking of authenticity. More recently, Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) have explained tourism motivations in terms of their physical, cultural and social aspects. They suggest that desire for educational enhancement as part of personal development is a strong motivator that dominates tourism decision-making by consumers.

Consumer Perception and Attitude

Consumer perception has been defined as the way people select, organize and interpret sensations in response to the product consumed, or that they are ready to consume. The encoding of information is based on individual needs, values and expectations (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009). For the study of consumer behaviour in tourism, perception is more about people's mental impression of a tourism product, which is determined by factors like family, situational environment, media and promotional image. How consumers think of certain tourism products is the key (Cooper, 1998).

Lifestyle and Tourism

Besides the internal influences on consumers' decision-making processes in relation to tourism, external influences are also key variables. 'Lifestyle' refers to the way consumers spend their time and money in society, which is widely influenced by the social and cultural communities they associate with. Measuring lifestyle, activities, interests and opinions are the main analysis factors (Wells, 1975).

Socio-cultural Characteristics

The definition of 'Culture' varies from different spheres of learning. According to De Mooij (2010) from social science, culture is a social unit through a set of language, religious beliefs, values, traditions, attitudes and symbols. Cultures and subcultures in a society have their respective philosophical viewpoints (Jennings, 2010), and cultural factors strongly influence consumer behaviours and guide social interactions (McCracken, 1986). Accordingly, different cultures inform different patterns of behaviour. To understand the cultural identity in a community, two aspects are believed by Reisinger and Turner (2012) to be important: the material and the ideological. Material culture indicates what clothes to wear, what kind of food to eat or even what to do at a dinner party while ideology indicates what people value most and believe in.

In tourism and hospitality research, studies show that nationality affects tourist behaviour. Richerson and Boyd (2004) argue that cultural behaviour is not inherited, but learned. That learning is based on a combination of beliefs, characteristics and even traditions shared by a particular society (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Reisinger and Turner (2012) report that behaviour is more likely to change based on a change happened in the cultural setting. With a change of socio-cultural setting, old consumer behaviour might be impacted on by new ones (De Mooij, 2010), which points to the possibility of learning new culturally-influenced consumer behaviour (Joynt & Warner, 2002). So although Chinese share the same culture from their country of origin (China), their culturally-influenced behaviour may tend to shift from reflecting their home views to being more influenced by foreign perspectives while they are in other settings, particularly when it comes to culinary practices.

According to Samovar and Porter's (2009) model of cultural differences however, the largest cultural differences in behaviour are found between Asian and Western societies. The Chinese Culture Connection (1987) also supports that finding. It is therefore very important and potentially very valuable to examine the actual influence of cultural differences on the wine consumption behaviour of Chinese people living in New Zealand.

Wine-related Tourism

According to Hall (2000), it was not until the middle of the twentieth century, with the accessibility of more railways and the rising population of middle class, that seeking quality wines gradually developed into an aspiration of the elite traveler. Wine-related activities became important to both the wine and tourism industries and it was at this time that wine-related tourism came into being. So from the mid-1900s, starting in the Old World wine regions of France and Germany, wine-related tourism became increasingly a significant aspect of tourism business. Subsequently, various New World wine regions such as those in the United States, Australia and New Zealand have also witnessed a growth in wine-related tourism and benefited a great deal from their reputations as prominent wine producing areas.

The Definition of Wine-related Tourism

Wine-related tourism has been defined by Hall (1996) as: *“a visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine region are the prime motivating factors for visitors”*. Getz (2000) has extended the definition of the motivation behind wine tourism to include *“visiting wine regions or being induced to visit wine regions”* (p.13). From the perspective of wine study, Robinson (2006) has stated the possibility of wine tasting, purchasing and sight-seeing at the ‘source’ (vineyards, producers’ premises) is an aesthetically pleasing and satisfying process for particular wine visitors. The characteristics of wine-related tourism therefore mean it falls into the category of ‘special-interest tourism’ products (Trauer, 2006; Weiler & Hall, 1992). Namely, the term ‘tourism’ is the over-arching heading under which various segmented products fall, such as special-interest tourism. On that basis, wine-related tourism is also a grouping of tourism products and should follow the fundamental principles of what drives tourism, as described in earlier sections.

Rethinking of the Wine-related Tourism Definition

As mentioned in the last section, that describes wine-related tourism as a form of special-interest tourism, the four themes identified in the definition of tourism (the nature, the actors, the mobility and the purposes) should be considered when interpreting wine-related tourism.

Nature of Wine-related Tourism

Both tangible assets (physical objects, persons, places, organizations) and intangible assets (service and ideas) constitute tourism (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003). Tourism inevitably requires the use or consumption of both those types of assets (Smith, 1994). ‘Wine’ and ‘tourism’ are the core elements of wine-related tourism. Consumption of the combined core elements as a wine-related tourism activity then falls within the economy experience spectrum of participation. Accordingly, in addition to taking into

account the principles for tourism when developing marketing strategies, wine-related tourism requires its own specific marketing practices (Kotler, 1980).

Wine-related tourism is regarded as a hedonic experience. Such a viewpoint arises mainly because it includes the consumption of an alcoholic beverage and is frequently associated with gourmet food pairing (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Beverland, 1998; Bruwer & Alant, 2009; Hall, 2000). Meanwhile, the broad range of wine-themed activities at wineries or in wine regions are a reflection of the local lifestyle (for example, linking wine with local music, food and other cultural elements) (Carlsen & Dowling, 2001). Therefore the consumption of the product of 'wine', on the one hand, is culturally-dominated. On the other hand, as discussed previously, the product of 'wine' motivates wine drinkers to access a lifestyle experience through wine-related tourism. For those reasons, from a consumer-based aspect, the nature of wine-related tourism is, mediated via the product of wine, a cultural lifestyle experience (Bruwer & Li, 2007). However, the question remains whether for most Chinese, without a cultural background of wine drinking, appreciating wine and choosing to go on wine tours is actually a reflection of lifestyle.

The Actors in Wine-related Tourism

Who are the actors in wine-related tourism? Should all the stakeholders in wine-related tourism be generalized as practitioners of wine-related tourism? Bruwer (2003) has identified the direct stakeholders in wine-related tourism in respect of South African wine routes. The result, to some extent, specifies a direction to understand the stakeholders in wine-related tourism in this research. For an industry, Phillips and Freeman (2010) indicate that persons, organizations, industries and societies are commonly identified as actual or potential stakeholders. In terms of the tourism industry, the government, employees, local businesses, the community, interest groups, tourists, national business chains and competitors constitute the key stakeholders (Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele, & Beaumont, 2009). For the wine-related tourism industry, aside from the key stakeholders in tourism, the wine-related stakeholders involved in the tourism industry are also dimensions to incorporate, in order to map out all the actors/practitioners in wine-related tourism (Bruwer, 2003; Wilkins & Hall, 2001).

Mobility of Wine-related Tourism

Hall (1996) has described a wine region as being a destination of wine-related tourism as well as including wineries and wine trails. Hall also later rewrote his definition of wine-related tourism to include both day-trip and overnight staying wine visitors (Hall, 2000). However, it is still unclear how to define wine-related tourism in terms of delineating time and geographical boundaries. Assuming the nature of wine-related tourism is a reflection of lifestyle in general, even investigating day trips conducted by residents living in a certain wine region can provide information about patterns of

wine-related tourism mobility (Hall, 2000).

Purposes of Wine-related Tourism

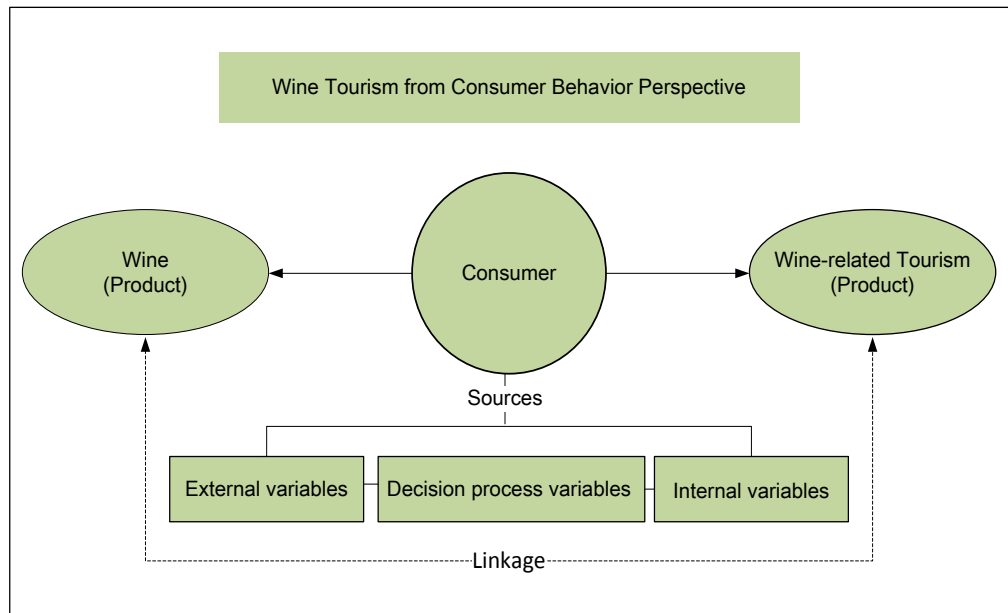
Wine-related tourism is depicted as a lifestyle, experience-based product (Carlsen, 2004), which aims to attract visitors to wineries, vineyards, wine events and other wine-related activities (Getz, Carlsen, Brown, & Havitz, 2008). The makeup of those apparently self-indulgent activities implies that the main purpose of wine-related tourism is for recreation. However, few references were discovered that directly addressed the purposes of wine-related tourism. By contrast, studies investigating motivations have been much more common (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Hall, 2000). From the viewpoint of special-interest tourism, wine tourists, as an extension of special-interest tourists, seek novelty; and their basic purpose for a trip is to experience wine-driven activities. Besides, embedded in that recreational activity as a motivation for wine tourists, is engaging with the social or cultural worlds related to particular wine regions (Weiler & Hall, 1992). As most wine regions are located in rural areas, the motivation of escaping from daily life contributes to a desire for relaxation, which is also described as the purpose of leisure (Getz et al., 2008; Hall, 2000; Weiler & Hall, 1992).

However, some of the factors defined and measured as 'motivators' in wine-related tourism are disputable. As most of wine-related tourism destinations are located in a rural setting, what if visitors are attracted to a so-called "wine region" only for the purpose of appreciating rural views? Is that behaviour part of wine-related tourism or rural tourism? Hall's definition fails to take those other non-wine based attractions into account. Johnson (1998) and Getz (2000) have refined Hall's statement by including the outside wine-related reasons in wine-related tourism motivators such as the consumption of other tourist products (e.g., local hot springs) in wine regions. Such classifications demonstrate an obvious overlapping between multiple special-interest tourism market segments, which may introduce confusion into a study of market segmentation. On the other hand, the phenomenon reveals the diversity of purposes in special-interest tourism as well as wine-related tourism in general.

Consumer Behaviour in Wine-related Tourism

According to Famularo, Bruwer and Li (2010), to study wine-related tourism from the perspective of consumer behaviour, how wine consumers seek, purchase, use, evaluate and dispose of wine and tourism respectively for their needs should be focused on. For wine-related tourism, wine and wine-related tours are two prominent tangible assets. The interest in wine may stimulate the development of wine-related tourism and wine-related tourism may affect future wine purchasing behaviour. A framework of wine-related tourism studies from a consumer behaviour perspective was developed by the researcher to guide the logic of this research, and is presented in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Wine-related tourism studies from a consumer behaviour perspective



Who are the Consumers in Wine-related Tourism?

To identify the consumers in wine-related tourism, previous pertinent studies have mainly focused on two aspects. One is based on the level of an individual's wine and wine-associated product involvement. Such viewpoints classify wine consumers as ranging from wine novices, wine-interested and wine lovers/enthusiasts (Ali-Knight & Charters, 2002; Hall, 1996); or into dichotomous types such as wine consumers and non-wine consumers (Brown, Havitz, & Getz, 2006). Getz et al (2008) report that being a wine club member or having wine-related associations (social reference group) will also stimulate the learning about, and interest levels in, wine for those people who are currently or potentially interested in wine.

The other classification of wine-related tourism consumers is from the tourism perspective, in order to define the 'wine-themed' tourists. Either they are general/occasional tourists (also labeled as 'Hangers-on' in Ali-Knight and Charters (2002)) or specific wine tourists (Johnson, 1998; Sheridan, Alonso, & Scherrer, 2009). That classification is based on the motivations behind taking a trip. Alonso (2009) has introduced the identification of actual and potential wine visitors as a useful approach for the studies of wine-related tourism. Further, the distinction between 'non-wine' tourists and 'wine' tourists has been made in terms of their special interest (Mercedes & Marta, 2010). There is a difference between general wine tourists and visitors attending specific wine-related activities such as wine festivals and events, which is also studied by Carlsen and Charters (2006). Hall (2000) includes the day-trip visitor as a consumer of wine-related tourism. However, whether the definition of wine-related tourists should include wine region residents who are visiting for a day

trip is questioned (Carlsen & Charters, 2006).

Regarding the profile of wine tourists, they appear to be very diverse in their socio-demographics but share some similarities in their psychographic profiles (Weiler & Hall, 1992). To segment the wine tourist market, Ali-Knight and Charters (2002) classify wine tourists into four groups based on their level of wine knowledge and interest. They are the 'wine novice', 'wine interested', 'wine lover' and 'the connoisseur' (p.313-315). They also point out the significance of educational level in mediating the wine-related tourism experience. However, the travelling behaviour of wine visitors varies cross-culturally and by nationality (Hall, 2000).

In addition, Galloway et al (2008) introduced a theory of classification based on sensation seeking to define the characteristics of wine tourists during wine trips. They classify wine tourists in terms of their sensation seeking; namely, whether they are high- or low-sensation seekers.

However, identifying the types of consumers in wine-related tourism directly from the linkage and nuances between the two core products (referring to wine and wine-related tourism) has limited generalizability (Brown et al., 2006). Wine-related tourism, as previously noted, is a social and cultural phenomenon. The profile of wine tourists varies from region to region and from country to country (Hall, 1996). However, there is some evidence that wine tourists can be usefully grouped and understood based on socio-demographic and psychographic characterizing variables (Ali-Knight & Charters, 2002; Alonso, 2009; Brown et al., 2006; Hall, 1996; Mercedes & Marta, 2010).

Linkage between Wine Consumption Behaviour and Wine-related Tourism

Hall (2000) points out that the majority of early wine-related tourism research focused on winery visitors' behaviour without addressing wine consumption behaviour, despite the need for such research; and certainly did not attempt to examine the links between wine-related tourism and wine consumption. Until recently, there has been very little literature published concerning the relationship between wine consumption behaviour and wine-related tourism behaviour. A recent example of a study that explores the links between those two variables includes the work by Famularo, Bruwer and Li (2010), who link the determinants of country-of-origin for wine purchasing, as well as wine knowledge levels, with wine-related tourism engagement. Another study by Getz (2008) examined the correlation between peoples' wine preferences and wine travelling characteristics. Those studies specify a direction for the research to study the potential association between 1) wine consumption factors and wine-related tourism in detail. For regional wine-related tourism, Chancy (2002) has studied the link between wine preferences and travelling patterns among United Kingdom (UK) wine consumers. He discovered that the travelling characteristics of UK travelers (in terms of their travel

destination) affected their future wine purchasing, because the travelers were positively involved in experiencing local food and drink at their travel destination. However, whether those results apply to travelers from other countries is questionable. Charters & Ali-Knight (2000) have doubted the generalizability of that result because wine tourists are diverse and not homogeneous. For wine tourists with distinctive cultural backgrounds (for example, in terms of their particular dietary characteristics), sampling wine may be to a greater or lesser degree a cultural experience (Williams & Kelly, 2001).

The Study of Wine Consumer Behaviour

Wine, as an alcoholic beverage, is an indulgent product with multiple dimensions, usually linked with gourmet experiences, as a cultural experience (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Dodd, 1995; Getz & Brown, 2005; Sparks, 2007). However, cultural differences in wine consumers will result in different drinking and eating behaviours in various social settings (Quan & Wang, 2004). For that reason, to understand wine consumers' needs or requirements from the perspective of different market segments will contribute to more accurate marketing strategies. Getz & Brown (2006) point out that most studies of wine tourists have covered only visitors to wineries, not wine consumers in general, and have certainly not addressed the potentially diverse needs of different segments of the wine drinking market. However, what is known is that most visitors to wineries consume wine on a regular basis (Hall, 2000); and that most winery visitors regard wine as a necessary part of their daily life and have a positive attitude towards wine and wine-related activities such as wine tasting, wine festivals and wine shows (Getz & Brown, 2005).




Four questions still remain, 'Who are the wine consumers?'; 'Which types of wines do they prefer?'; 'What are the characteristics regarding wine consuming?'; 'Which attributes affect their wine purchasing behaviour most?' Wine consumers who are highly involved in wine tend to value the inclusion of wine as part of their lifestyle by being involved in activities such as participating in a wine club, attending a wine tour, learning about wine and even making wine themselves as a hobby (Getz et al., 2008). The term 'involvement' was first defined by Sherif and Cantril (1947) as a general descriptive term for a host of personal and social values such as enhancement and breakdown and affect personal behavior and more recently in these terms: 'leisure involvement refers to how we think about our leisure and recreation, and it affects our behaviour' (Havitz and Dimanche, cited in Jun, Kyle, Asher & Hammitt, 2008, p.194). Whether the involvement in wine-related tourism can play a role in determining the corresponding behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand still calls for an exploration.

Wine Purchasing and Consumption Characteristics

To measure behavior in choosing wine, brand, country of origin, price and the awards a

wine has received have been employed as the most frequently identified and measured variables (Lockshin, Jarvis, d'Hauteville, & Perrouy, 2006). Chancy (2002) has suggested that the-country-of-origin of a wine affects the choice of wine consumers, particularly for Chinese (Balestrini & Gamble, 2006). However, Getz (2008) has also found that generally wine consumers prefer to try different brands out of curiosity, rather than simply sticking to one brand. As shown in Table 4, Jaeger, Danaher, and Brodie (2009) have identified 13 different factors falling under three dimensions to examine wine consumers' behaviour in respect of wine consumption.

Table 4: Potential factors influencing wine consumption behaviour.

Wine as product	Consumer	Situational
		
<input type="checkbox"/> Grape Variety	<input type="checkbox"/> Past tasting experience	<input type="checkbox"/> Sale/Promotion
<input type="checkbox"/> Country of Origin	<input type="checkbox"/> Word-of-mouth	<input type="checkbox"/> Information on the self
<input type="checkbox"/> Alcohol by volume	<input type="checkbox"/> Pairing with food	
<input type="checkbox"/> Awards	<input type="checkbox"/> Preference	
<input type="checkbox"/> Attractiveness of label		
<input type="checkbox"/> Label information		
<input type="checkbox"/> Brands		

Jaeger et al (2009) mentioned that highly involved wine consumers will search for more detailed information about a wine beyond that of price, brand, grape variety and country of origin when making decision on purchasing.

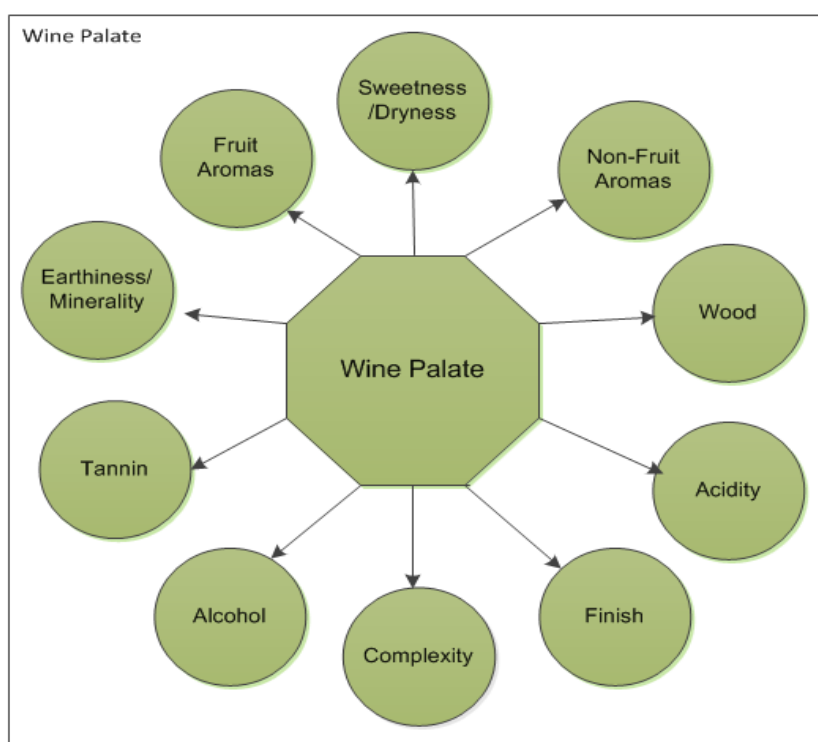
In a study examining the attributes influencing the purchase and consumption of wine, Quester & Smart (1998) report that price, wine region, grape variety and wine style are the dominating factors. In China, the wine market is generally limited to the primary varietals of Cabernet Sauvignon and Cabernet Franc. Therefore, studying their perceptions of different grape varieties beyond those would seem to be difficult. The stereotypical view reportedly held by most Chinese that wine should be "dry red wine" (Jia-Gui, Jin-Rong, Dennis, Johan, & Elton, 2011) emphasizes the influence of the limited choices available to Chinese wine drinkers on their preferred wine type and style. The range of wine type includes sparkling wine, white wine, rosé wine, red wine and dessert wine (Fattorini, 1997), which can range from sweet to medium to dry styles, and can influence wine choice for either consumption or purchasing. Preferences for place of wine purchase/ consumption to some degree mirror the consumers' characteristics (Bruwer & Alant, 2009). Places to purchase wine include the winery/cellar door, supermarket, wine shop and through online order. Sites of 'away

from home' relating to supervised, restricted and undesignated areas are regulated by the New Zealand *Sale of Liquor Act (1989)*. In this study, 'away from home' sites included restaurants and cafés, wineries, event occasions and friends' homes.

The Sensory Experience of Wine

The wine industry is mainly driven by the market's and wine consumers' needs (Swiegers, Bartowsky, Henschke, & Pretorius, 2005). Various criterion have been identified that influence people's wine palate. Based on Julyan's (2008b) study of wine palate testing, ten elements are introduced here as influencing people's sensory experience of wine (as shown in Figure 6).

Figure 6: Sensory profile of wine tasting



Source: adapted from Julyan (2008b)

Wine information sources

Where does one gain wine knowledge? Famularo, Bruwer, and Li (2010) have summarized wine information sources from direct and indirect channels for the Australian region. Based on their findings and the work of Middleton and Clarke (2001), who have also summarized the sources of wine information for consumers, the potential sources of wine information in New Zealand wine have been generally categorized as being either 'market-based' or 'consumer-based' (shown in Table 5).

Table 5: New Zealand wine information sources

Market-based:	Consumer-based
Media (e.g. Radio/TV, Books/Magazines, general/specific Website); Wine outlets (e.g. Wine retails/shops and supermarket); Wine labels	Friends/Family, Educational institutes (e.g. university and training courses) Past relevant experience/Interaction with wine-related tourism product Reference groups

Source: adapted from Famularo, Bruwer, and Li (2010) and Middleton and Clarke (2001)

Wine Tourist Behaviour

Getz (2000) has focused on the winery visitors in wine-related tourism, as well as their behaviours of tourism. Study of wine-related tourism behaviours have in general followed the framework proposed by Hall (2000), particularly the studies relating to wine tourists' characteristics, motives and preferences (Ali-Knight & Charters, 2002) and the links between wine consumers and wine tourists (Getz et al., 2008; Hall, 2000).

The key themes that have been identified to study wine tourists' behavior include consumption behaviour, frequency of visits, decision choice, motivation, tourism expenditure, experience and preferences (Carlsen & Charters, 2006). However, the studies of the consumer behaviour of wine visitors to date have been entirely focused on English-speaking groups, completely ignoring other groups. An understanding of wine tourists from other cultural settings and nationalities is therefore a significant gap in the understanding of wine tourism.

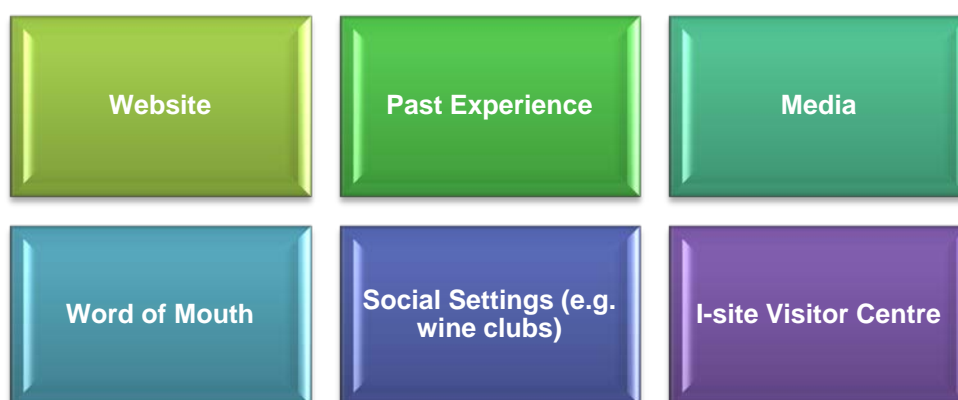
The Behavioural Study of Winery Visitors

Fraser and Alonso (2006) report that people, when visiting a winery, tend to take part in wine tasting and perhaps a tour on the winery or vineyard, or may meet the winemaker. Through wine tasting, it is also possible for them to purchase wines from the winery, which may even influence their post-visit purchasing behaviour to seek out the same brand of wine.

Information Sources for Wine-related Tourism Destinations

The image of a wine-related tourism destination (its wineries, vineyards, wine shows, etc.), its strengths and value-added cultural activities are the key determinants that formulate wine tourists' attitudes towards deciding to visit a particular wine region (Griffin, Loersch, Carlsen, & Charters, 2006). Therefore, there is a need to develop information and networks for attracting more potential wine visitors to a particular region (Fraser & Alonso, 2006). Table 6 identifies the main potential sources of winery and wine region information.

Table 6: Information sources of wine-related tourism in New Zealand.



Regarding wineries in the Auckland region (Kumeu, Henderson, Matakana, Waiheke Island are included), 100 wineries were searched for using the Internet to find out whether they had their own website address containing information about the winery, and what language(s) that information was provided in (See Appendix A). Seventy six out of 100 wineries hosted their own websites but only one (Villa Maria) had a Chinese language version as well as an English language version.

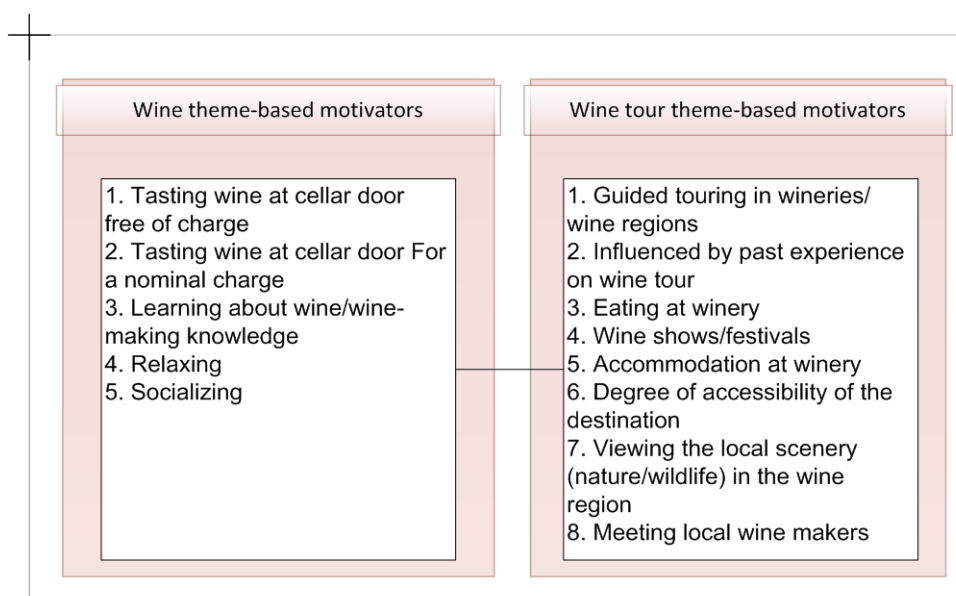
Wine-related Tourism Motivations

The wine-related tourism motivations provide insights for the understanding of customers' needs and expectations (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Famularo et al., 2010; Hall, 2000). In general, the influencing factors studied are divided into wine tour themes and wine-related themes. Iso-Ahola (1989) generalize the motivating factors behind leisure behaviours into the tendencies of the need to escape (avoidance) or seek (search). For special interest tourism, tourists are concerned more with seeking rather than escaping something (Weiler & Hall, 1992). And for wine-related tourism, Hall (2000) summarizes several internal influences on motivations. Hedonism is one of the psychological traits, which also influences choices for recreation in general (Beverland, 1998; Bruwer & Alant, 2009). From the level of motivation factors in tourism in general, the degree of accessibility (convenience) of tourism destinations is a key factor (Heitmann, 2011). For New Zealand wine-related tourism, wine tourists within New Zealand have been found to prefer visiting wine regions nearby to where they live, which is a more clearly articulated demonstration of proximity (Hall, 2000). Meanwhile, the motivating factor of education enhancement is both an attraction for wine visitors and a marketing strategy for wineries (Ali-Knight & Charters, 2001). William (2001) has focused on the aesthetic value (e.g., winery ambience and architectural aesthetics) of wine regions as appealing. Charters and Ali-Knight (2000) have highlighted the significance of past experience of wine involvement in affecting the decision-making in wine-related

tourism. In addition, factors influencing repeat visitors have also been examined as a specific research area in the study of wine-related tourism motivations (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Charters & Ali-Knight, 2000; Hall, 2000).

From the perspective of motivations behind wine consumption behaviour in wine-related tourism, tasting quality wine has been identified as the main motivation (Getz & Brown, 2006). In addition, cellar door tastings provides greater access to wines with particular characteristics including special, unusual or rare vintages/varieties and lower prices (Getz et al., 2008); or those only available in small-scale quantities; or even those in plentiful supply (Edwards & Spawton, 1990). These are obviously attractive features and contribute to the strength of wineries as a tourism destination. In addition, the information about the wine provided at the point of purchase is also a motivator (Hall, 2000). To gain wine and wine-making knowledge at the cellar door tasting or through any of the other educational interactions (e.g., onsite wine education and meeting winemakers) is also a motivator for more sophisticated wine tourists (Ali-Knight & Charters, 2002). Concern has been expressed by wine suppliers however, about whether wine consumers can properly understand the wine jargon often used, because it can either encourage wine purchasing or act as a barrier (Bruwer, Alant, Li, & Bastian, 2005). In this research, based on the wine-related tourism motivators identified in the studies by Hall (2000), Alant and Bruwer (2004), and Famularo et al (2010) who have examined theoretical aspects and conducted fieldwork within New Zealand wineries, fourteen factors have been summarized to investigate the influences from the consumer-side (see Figure 7).

Figure 7: Motivators of wine-related tourism.



Source: the motivations were based on the views of Hall (2000), Ali-Knight & Charters (2002), Alant & Bruwer (2004), Getz & Brown (2006), Getz et al (2008) and Famularo et al (2010).

Chinese Consumer Behaviour Studies in Wine-related Tourism

The databases China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), Science-Direct, Hospitality & Tourism Complete, Leisure Tourism Database, SAGE Journals Online, Taylor & Francis Online and Emerald were used to source all available scholarly publications about wine and wine-related tourism from Chinese consumer perspective. Sixty one peer-reviewed publications were found in total: including 59 published in English and 2 in Chinese. In addition, 43 Chinese peer-reviewed publications were sourced to study wine-related tourism from a regional perspective, chiefly based on secondary data.

To summarize the type of literature found, wine itself (Chinese wines were included) as a theme has been more widely studied (56 mentions) than the wine-tourism aspects (5 mentions, including 1 mention of the Asian market by Hall (2002).

Wine-themes in Chinese Wine-related Tourism Behaviour Studies

When it comes to wine consuming preference, Ritchie and Winery (2009) have found that Asian new wine drinkers prefer semi-dry or sweet wine such as Gewürztraminer. Based on the outcome of sensory analysis, Williamson, Robichaud, and Francis (2012) point out the preference for sweet wines of Chinese in China. However, no studies were found in the literature review that address those issues for a preference of particular varietals, vintage or even the attribute of alcohol. However, the wine attributes Chinese wine drinkers prefer in general are sweetness and fruity flavors (Williamson et al., 2012). Goodman (2009) has found Chinese do typically drink with food and for special occasions, Chinese have become likely to have a meal with wine (Li, 2011). For consumption patterns or style, it is hard to generalize from any study results due to the diverse cultural and social settings within China, although some similarities may exist in particular market segments.

To study the Chinese wine consumers and their motivation, Pierre and Paul (2006) conducted a quantitative study that indicated that compared to brand and price, the country-of-origin is the most influencing factor by which Chinese wine consumers evaluate wines. Williamson et al's (2012) survey in China shows a similar influence of price and country-of-origin. In that survey, the key reasons that Chinese people reported choosing imported wines were primarily because of a social need, such as buying wine to attend an event or to give as a gift, rather than private consumption. However because the sample was selected from Shanghai, the results cannot necessarily be generalized to the population in other areas of China. A similar study of Chinese wine consumers was conducted in Beijing and found some similarities in the cultural and social perceptions of wine, and wine consumption and purchasing characteristics (Yu, Sun, Goodman, Chen, & Ma, 2009). Subsequently, research on the market segment of young adults in China has been conducted (Jia-Gui et al., 2011) and further confirmed Ritchie and Winery's (2009) findings regarding wine preference. For young adults, the

dominant reason to drink wine is for social contact. Health reasons ranked as the second motivation. Few regarded wine drinking as a sign of social class or lifestyle. However, most of the young adults surveyed were not wine-interested drinkers so the results might be misleading. For wine purchasing, red wine and French brands are their most frequent choices due to the stereotypical portrayal of wine in wine marketing in China (Liu & Murphy, 2007; Yu et al., 2009).

Wine-tour Themes in Chinese Wine-related Tourism Behaviour Studies

For wine-related tourism, few studies were found that specialized in researching the market segment of Chinese wine tourists. Chinese wine tourists were investigated in China by Gao and Chen (2011) to understand their motivation, information sources and expectations. However, the study fails to mention the sampling techniques and qualification for 'potential' wine tourists in that research. Therefore, the generalization of the results can be questioned. Zhan (2009) targeted two wineries in China to study the visitors' behaviour and characteristics in terms of their demographic features, mobility and reported satisfaction with the destination's service quality and found most of winery tourists are well-educated but lacking in wine knowledge and also considerable facilities in destinations call for improvement to meet tourists' requirements. However, restricted by the availability of wine-related tourism information sources and marketing in China, wine-related tourism in China is still undeveloped. The upscale market tends to be the preferred choice for developing the marketing effort (Zhan, 2009) and Lirong (2011) forecasts a positive future for Chinese wine consumption market as well as wine-related tourism market.

A few studies include Chinese wine tourists as part of the reported results of demographic analysis from various countries, including France (Frochot, 2000), Australia (Henderson, 2009) and New Zealand (Ministry of Tourism, 2009b). However, none of them studied Chinese wine tourists in detail. How the New Zealand Chinese behave in regards to wine and wine-related tourism is largely unknown. Do New Zealand Chinese behave differently because they are influenced by the New Zealand culture and society? This is one of questions that this study aimed to answer. As mentioned previously, the lack of published information on Chinese wine tourists indicates the significance of this research, which aims to discover the characteristics of Auckland resident Chinese in terms of their wine consumption and wine tourism related behaviors. Findings from previous relevant research regarding wine consumer behavior in general, study perspectives of wine tourist behavior and linkage between wine consumers and their tourism behavior in New Zealand will guide the design of this research and implementation of this research undertaken

Chapter Three – Methodology

Philosophy of Science and Research Paradigms

Contextual definitions

The philosophy of science refers to a cluster of beliefs and assumptions with regard to ontology, epistemology, axiology, rhetorical structure and methodology. Those terms have been clarified by many scholars (Psillos, 2012; Richard, 2008; Rosenberg, 2012). Ontology denotes the nature of reality and questions whether there is an objective social world, or is it constituted of perceived multiple facts. Epistemology explores how knowledge is acquired regarding methods, validity and scope. Axiology concerns the role of values in the process of research and acknowledges whether the research is value-laden or value-free. Rhetorical structure displays the presentation of language in research. Methodology refers to a broader approach of social inquiry that develops research questions and how the pertinent procedures and methods are applied (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2011; Myers, 2009; Ponterotto, 2005).

Research Paradigms

Kuhn (1970) presented the concept of a paradigm as a basic belief system of theory and research, to clarify a philosophical and conceptual framework. He emphasized the incommensurability of paradigms: that is, those different paradigms are difficult to measure against each other and compare. To depict the notion, models based on paradigms are designed in light of their commensurate academic arena. Quantitative and qualitative research have been traditionally perceived to be based on opposing paradigms. Namely, quantitative purists centre on the quantification of data and the analysis of causal or correlational relationships between empirical variables. Conversely, qualitative purists interpret the lived experience in a context-oriented setting. Qualitative research is depicted as mainly collecting data about activities, events, occurrences and behaviours; and seek an understanding of actions, problems and processes in a social context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Myers, 2009). Guided by fundamental differences in epistemology and ontology that underpin their respective paradigms, the purists on each side hold their own beliefs (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Ponterotto, 2005). In turn, scholars such as Denzin and Lincoln (1994) have highlighted weaknesses in both quantitative and qualitative approaches, criticizing quantitative research for the naïve quantification of people into categories such as gender, ethnicity and age while being overly concerned with creating theories to explain the entire social world in terms of cause and effect. In turn they criticize qualitative purists because of the strong focus on inference and relativism at the expense of the development of systematic approaches that can be applied to wider populations.

Hammersley (1996) maintains that research paradigms need to be defined more broadly, rather than abiding by strict boundaries. Pragmatism has been identified by Howe (1988) as being a driver of seeing how the quantitative and qualitative paradigms can somehow be combined. He argues that in research, it is more important to learn how to draw from the strengths of the two research paradigms and minimize the weaknesses, and how to apply those in practice. As a consequence, the mixed-method approach has emerged, and is referred to in various ways including as: an alternative paradigm (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004); the third methodological movement (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) and the third research community (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009), as a way of addressing the traditional conflicts and potential links between the paradigms and their corresponding methodologies. As a result, the incommensurability of the 'quantitative vs. qualitative' has been breached and the role of quantitative and qualitative research has shifted when considering choices of methodology (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009).

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011), when researchers are proposing a research study the questions of which methodology to use, tools to apply and the respondents to select are generally secondary to the underlying philosophical position taken. Consequently, it is important to understand the philosophical stance of the researcher when designing a research project. An understanding of the inquirer's overall perspective and approach (i.e., the paradigm used) in terms of its strengths and limitations will effectively contribute to the development of a research design based on more valid assumptions and methods.

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) have grouped paradigms into four different general types in terms of their ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical and methodological aspects. The paradigms types are: positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism and critical theory. As the most succinct and interpreted framework, it is introduced here to explore and define the paradigm used in this research. Table 7 presents an amalgamation of Denzin and Lincoln's (1994) four paradigm types and the work by Greene (2008), who uses a similar typology to more clearly understand the underlying assumptions and define the corresponding paradigms.

Table 7: Four research paradigms and their corresponding assumptions

Paradigms Assumption	Positivism	Post-positivism	Interpretivism	Critical theory
Ontology (Nature of the world)	Naïve/ Empirical Realism	Critical realism	Relative realism	Historical realism
Epistemology (Methods and limitation of obtaining acceptable knowledge)	Objectivism/ Dualism Verification	Modified Objectivism/ Dualism Falsification	Subjective Findings are created	Subjective Findings are value-mediated
Axiology (Role of value)	Value-free	Value-free	Value-laden	Value-laden
Rhetorical structure (Language in research)	Numerical Objective manner Technical terminology	Objective manner Impersonal passive voice	1 st person personalized	1 st person personalized
Methodology	Hypothetical-deductive experiment and analogy	Mixed methods	Naturalistic designs; Qualitative method chiefly	Dialogic

Source: adapted from Denzin & Lincoln (1994) and Greene (2008)

In terms of the model presented in Table 7, the author in this research identified herself as a post-positivist. Post-positivists, by and large, assert the objectivity of reality, albeit they recognize the likelihood of bias in a research project due to their skepticism about absolute certainty. Karl Popper (2002), as the key figure of post-positivists, further states that the sources of knowledge are not ultimate. He and his followers reject verification as a theoretical criterion because of the logical possibility of a falsifying occurrence, particularly in respect of the sociological study of humans (Friedrichs, 1983). All accepted theories are open to critical verification, whether by testing them directly or measuring their consequences (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Popper (2002) proposed the principle of falsifiability, which clarifies the purpose of scientific inquiry in post-positivism. He maintained that something is scientific (such as a theory or 'fact') if it is falsifiable, that is, evidence can be accumulated to falsify it (Baranov, 2005). In essence, the fallibility of truths is assumed to be objectively existent (Ritchie, Burns, & Palmer, 2005). Based on the evidence or potential of fundamental flaws, rather than seeking out the absolute truth, discovering approximate truth is proposed as the primary purpose for the post-positivist (Baranov, 2005). To verify the view, post-positivists tend to widely accept multiple incompatible realities, truths and beliefs (Phillips & Burbules, 2000).

The implications of post positivism relate to the physical sciences, social sciences and

the humanities. Although there is wide disagreement as well as confusion articulated for the position of post-positivism, justifications are outlined from the following three dimensions to advocate for this paradigm (Baranov, 2005; Friedrichs, 1983; Phillips & Burbules, 2000)

(1) Theory and fact are, to some degree, influenced by the methodological decision.

The positions of these two are provisional.

(2) The understanding of knowledge is not only based on experiment and analogy, social and cultural contexts are also evidence.

(3) The hard core of general theories calls for reformulation rather than refutation.

Scientific inquiry is cumulative and linear. The more evidence accumulated for the same theoretical statement, the higher the level of generality the general theory has.

In general, to recognize the existence of approximations to knowledge, under-determination of theory by fact, fallibilism and relativism are widely acknowledged by a post-positivism paradigm. To explicate social concern, meanings behind the socio-cultural context are also acknowledged as being substantial. Researchers' are encouraged to examine motivations and commitment to topics, allowing for acknowledgement of mixed methods to improve accuracy (Ryan, 2006).

The Post-Positivist Paradigm and Selection of Methodology

The inquirers' philosophical paradigm affects the choice of research methods (Bryman, 2006). Usher (1996) maintains that the propensity to select certain methods would, to some extent, determine different outcomes. From the stance of post-positivism, in pursuit of validity, the methodology should be designed based on the inquiry assumptions and purposes instead of inquirers' preferences (Bryman, 2006; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). For dispassionate neutrality, the tenets of relativism call for a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research techniques. Therefore, to accommodate both epistemological and pragmatic concerns, in order to objectify the researched world and characterize the inquiry results, using mixed-methods should be given priority when considering methodology (Bryman, 2006; Greene, 2008; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Patton, 1990).

A mixed-methods study refers to a singular study or research program in which researchers combine the elements of qualitative and quantitative approaches for the purpose of understanding or corroborating the same phenomenon in breadth (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). The application of mixed-methods depend on where they fit into the different phases of a research project (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) conceptualize partially and fully mixed designs from the point of view of how they are mixed. They propose a continuum, with concurrent or

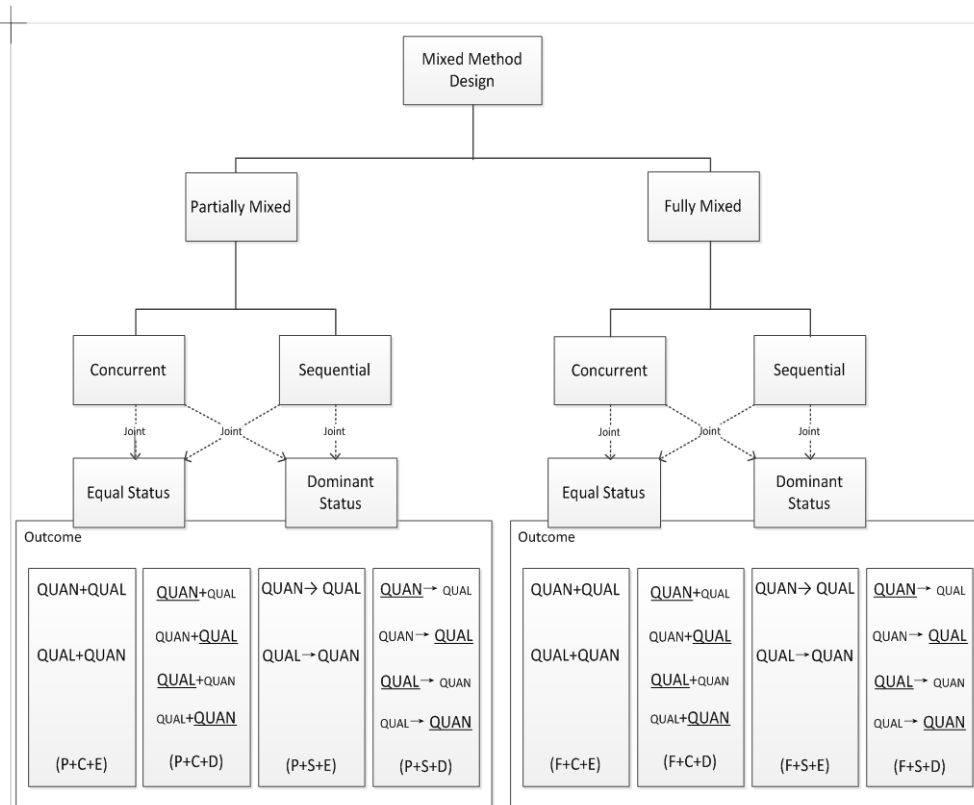
sequential application of different methods along the time dimension and different emphasis on the approaches as either having equal or dominant status, (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003) to guide the understanding of mixed method design.

Mixed Methods Research

The Typology of Mixed Methods Design

To design a study using mixed methods, it is important to consider how to construct it. Is it helpful to conduct a quantitative mini-study and a qualitative mini-study in one overall research study? Otherwise, is it helpful to conduct a quantitative phase to then inform the qualitative phase? For the researcher, to be creative is quintessential. The tenet of mixed methods research is to create designs that effectively answer research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). To guide the research design in this study, the typology of mixed methods research with eight designs proposed by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009) was used as reference, which to a certain extent encompasses Creswell's (1994) five mixed-method designs. Figure 8 presents the model used to guide selection of the mixed methods design in this study.

Figure 8: The design of mixed method



Source: adapted from Leech & Onwuegbuzie (2009) and Senne & Rikard (2002)

Triangulation

For the practical utilization of a mixed methods approach, triangulation has been

demonstrated as a way to combine the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study (Morse, 1991; Myers, 2009). Denzin (1971) has identified four different ways in which triangulation can occur, depending on the way in which the various components of a research study are divided up, including: data triangulation (use of a variety of data sources in a study); investigator triangulation (use of various researchers in a single study); theory triangulation (use of multiple theories or frameworks to interpret the data in a study); and methodological triangulation (use of multiple methods to study a single problem). The purpose of triangulation is to maximize synergy between the various research components and build on their complementarity. Triangulation occurs when different data sources/ methods are employed to address the same research question (Veal, 2006). However, to determine which specific form of triangulation should be used, the research questions need to be matched to the appropriate methods. Guided by the research assumptions/ objectives, the specific mixed method design should be chosen in accordance with the relevance to the research topic (Creswell, 1994; Firestone, 1987; Greene, 2008; Jayaratne & Stewart, 1991; Morse, 1991; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009).

Nevertheless, it has been argued that triangulation has limitations when applied to qualitative projects due to its fixed outlook (Ellingson, 2009; Richardson, 1994). To extend its practicality and add the flexibility to apply it in diverse ways, Richardson (1994) introduced the term 'crystallization' to unblock the bottleneck. Ellingson (2009) further explored crystallization and proposed 'integrated' and 'dendritic' segmentations. The former allows the combination of multiple forms and interpretations to serve one 'end' in a study. The latter allows the dispersion of one form, analysis and interpretation to serve diverse ends in a study. Crystallization has emerged to replace the role of triangulation in the application of mixed methods by providing a unified and creative approach and pulling coherent elements together in a study (Ellingson, 2009; Jennings, 2010; Kelley, 2009; Noblit, 2007).

Inference Validity and Transferability

Irrespective of the methods used in a mixed methods research design, Greene (2008) emphasizes the importance of the methodological criteria of quality. Inference quality and transferability quality are terms referred to by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006) to specify the criteria for determining the quality of methods in mixed method research. Inference quality refers to an evaluation of the quality of conclusions and interpretations drawn from both quantitative (QUAN) and qualitative (QUAL) research methods. Inference quality encompasses the QUAN data's internal validity and statistical conclusions' validity as well as the QUAL data's credibility and trustworthiness. Transferability quality refers to the degree to which findings can be applied to other similar settings and contexts. It relates to the generalizability and external validity in QUAN and transferability in QUAL research (Bryman, 2006;

Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, 2009).

Strengths and Weaknesses of Mixed Method Research

Whatever research methodology and design is adopted, understanding its strengths and limitations can optimize its advantages while minimizing the potential risks which can be regulated. Based on guidelines developed by Bryman (2002) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009), Table 8 provides a summary of the strengths and weaknesses of a mixed methods approach.

Table 8: Strengths and weakness of mixed method

<div>Strengths</div> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Allows to go back and forth between statistical and thematic analysis• Can address confirmatory and exploratory questions simultaneously• Can answer a range of research questions without being confined to a singular method• Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion• Can add insight and understanding which may be missed when singular methods are employed• Can produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice
<div>Weaknesses</div> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can be difficult to carry out both types of research, especially required concurrently• Can be difficult when researcher fails to understand how to mix them appropriately• More expensive• More time-consuming• Details of the application of mixed methods research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists

Source: adapted from Bryman (2006) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009)

The Research Aims and Research Design

Research questions guide investigations and are concerned with the unknown aspects of a phenomenon of interest (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). This research mainly centered on an exploratory study of New Zealand-resident wine interested Chinese, which aimed to understand their wine consumption behaviour and interpret their wine tourism behaviour. In order to understand a particular market segment of that ethnic

group, the sub-goal of the research was to identify whether any particularities relating to the cross-cultural setting exist within that group. Briefly stated, the content of this research essentially related to ethnographical, consumer behaviour and demographical disciplines within sociocultural contexts.

Solomon (2009) questions the regularity of consumer behaviours in this complex social and cultural world. He points out that because of the multifaceted nature of an individual consumer's experience; it requires an exploration of meanings to particular individuals. In particular, for an ethnic group with the same cultural background, to see what a given group are doing and thinking in a particular situation will provide researchers with substantial information on the human, social and organizational influences on their behaviour (Myers, 2009). For tourism research, Jennings (2010) reports that most studies of consumers use descriptive approach and focus on the collection and analysis of demographic information. Through a systematic analysis of tourism studies, Mattila (2004) has found that in order to study the "who", "what", "when", "where" and "how" questions, a myriad of consumer behaviour studies in tourism are survey-based. The results of such methods make sure that the researcher generates knowledge of relevance to tourism practitioners. Furthermore, quantitative studies are practical and efficient ways of revealing tourists' motivations, satisfaction levels and their activities while taking part in tourism.

However, quantitative studies are not good at uncovering the answers to "why" questions in relation to the individual's tourism behaviour. In quantitative research, participants simply respond to a series of questions that are derived from the researchers' extant pool of knowledge, and they are restricted in their responses to the questions asked. By contrast, a qualitative approach is more appropriate to use in the tourism field to discover how consumers think, feel and act within the context of tourism consumption (Kozak & Decrop, 2009). Therefore, Kozak and Decrop (2009) assert that using mixed-methods is a superior approach to studying tourism consumer behaviour. As an exploratory study of Chinese consumer behaviour, this research aimed to cover all the questions from "who", "what", and "how", to "why". Therefore, a mixed-method research design was applied to combine the advantages of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. For an ethnography study, the purposive sampling technique is proposed by Patton (1990) as an ideal approach. In addition, Brymand and Bell (2011) indicted snowball sampling would be a useful way to find further target participants.

Application of a Mixed Method Design in this Research

As noted in Chapter one, many of the areas to be explored in this study were new, with little previous specifically relevant research. A qualitative approach is suggested for an exploratory study (Creswell, 2008; Jennings, 2010). In addition, issues like perceptions and attitudes relating to cross-cultural settings in tourism are generally approached

using content-oriented techniques (Jennings, 2010; Veal, 2006). However, when taking a post-positivist stance, the technique of methods deployed should be value-free. Therefore, all the factors identified to be studied in this research were grounded in quantitative variables or outcomes. In regards to the mixed methods design of the research, Creswell (2008) explained the qualitative data served the role of augmenting the quantitative data through further confirmation, complementation and exploration of the findings. To sum up, this research used quantitative-dominant, mixed methods via sequential techniques design. In addition, integrated crystallization was also applied during the research process for the purpose of triangulation and complementation.

Based on the assumptions described in the previous chapters, Table 9 provides the details of the corresponding types of data collected and the methods of data collection.

Table 9: Research assumptions and tools in this research

Assumptions	Types	Objective	Tool	Complementary Source
Wine Knowledge Levels	Comparative	Mixed	Semi-structured Survey	Secondary data
Socio- Demographics	Descriptive	Quantitative	Survey	
Characteristics of Wine consumer behavior	Descriptive	Quantitative	Survey-dominated	
Characteristics of Winery visitors behavior	Descriptive	Quantitative	Survey dominated	
Wine palate	Exploratory	Qualitative	Interview/Focus group	Secondary data/ Participant Observation
Motivations	Descriptive	Quantitative	Survey dominated	
Perception and attitudes	Explanatory	Qualitative	Interview/Focus group	Secondary data/ Participant Observation
Correlation/ Comparatives studies	Causal	Mixed	Survey-dominated/Focus group	

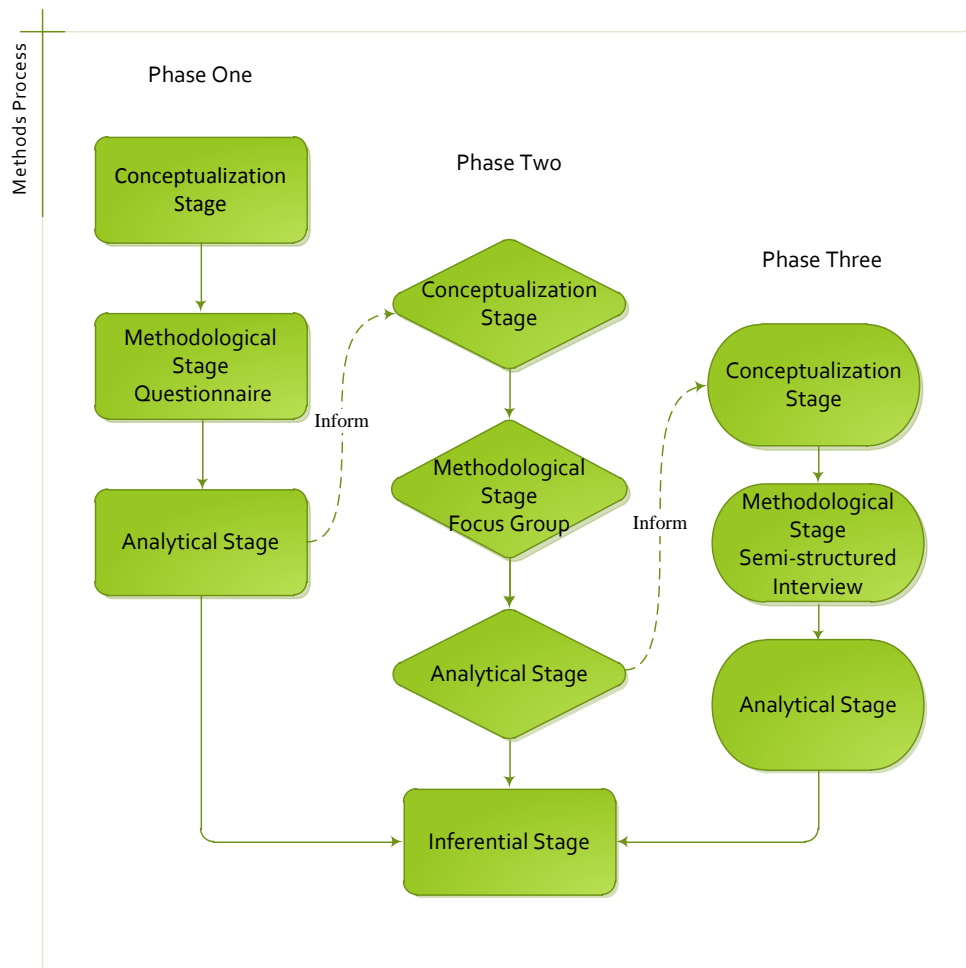
Research Process

The specific research strategies were planned based on a post-positivism driven paradigm, and the research objectives, availability of research skills, feasibility of data collection and usefulness of the study findings.

As demonstrated in the flowchart (Figure 9), the questionnaire technique was applied in the first phase. The quantitative technique was designed to improve validity and authenticity. In the second phase, the focus group technique is informed to examine the outcome from survey-based quantitative method. Meanwhile, the relationships between dominant variables are required to be verified/refuted as well as the exploratory study informed by the outcome of questionnaires. To further apply the findings to marketing fields, semi-structured interviews were conducted to confirm or complete the results from the demand-based perspectives.

Based on the complexity of mixed methods, sampling strategies is required to be addressed step by step for the purpose of depth and breadth (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009).

Figure 9: Process of methods in this research

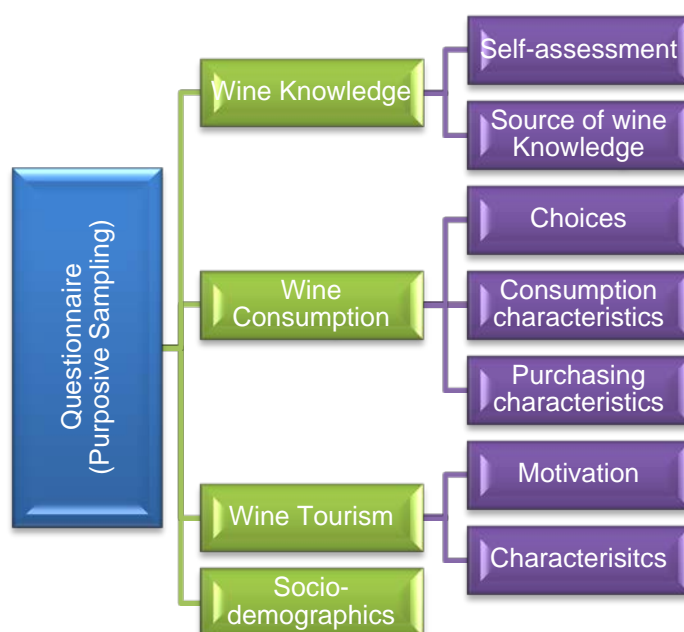


First phase: Questionnaire

A survey using a questionnaire is a good means of obtaining a thorough picture of an issue (Veal, 2006). To collect information, an anonymous survey questionnaire was

designed in the first phase. The survey was comprised of four categorized themes: general wine knowledge, wine consumption, wine tourism behaviour and demographics. Each theme was made up of different variables (See Figure 10).

Figure 10: the design of questionnaire in this research



The questionnaire (See Appendix B) was chiefly designed using closed-ended questions. However, in line with the post-positivist paradigm, respondents were also given the option of “other” for questions which may have had another explanation. A corresponding open-ended response box followed the “other” option to accommodate answers not embodied in the survey. To interpret Chinese wine consumers’ wine and wine tourism behaviour, all the questions included were based on the findings of studies of consumer behaviour theories, and addressed the following three characteristics:

1. Demographic: age, gender, income, place of origin in China and education
2. Psychographic: perception, motivation, learning, attitude and personality
3. Sociocultural: lifestyle, cross-cultural setting.

To study the current wine tourists regarding their behavioural characteristics, a filtered question on whether they had previously attended a wine tour was embedded in the section on wine tourism behaviour to illuminate wine tourists.

Using the above foci, the questionnaire was initially designed in English and translated into Chinese. Before distributing the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted at the beginning of May, 2012. To test the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, three Chinese students and two English-speaking students from AUT University were invited

to practice answering the questions. Both English and Chinese versions were tested for their contextual relevance and comprehensibility. Following the pilot test, the questionnaire was refined according to the participants' feedback, with the assistance of supervisors.

The anonymous survey was officially conducted from May 15th to the beginning of June, 2012. Ninety seven participants were approached to take part. However, in this case, because of the nature of the research, which involved studying a specific ethnic group who were small in number compared to the general population, it was not appropriate to employ the usual quantitative techniques involving a large sample size and random sampling (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The survey was therefore administered using a qualitative sampling technique designed to be used with a small sample and for a specific purpose. This choice was made deliberately because of the specialized focus of the study on Chinese groups. Maxwell (1997) depicts the use of such purposive sampling as necessary for particular settings, persons or events that other sampling techniques fail to accommodate. In this research, to find the Chinese who qualified to take part in the survey, three requirements were compulsory. Survey participants needed to be:

- 1) Living in New Zealand;
- 2) Of legal New Zealand drinking age;
- 3) Wine consumers.

Based on the need to select specific participants, purposive sampling was the most suitable technique to employ to collect the data. It is worthwhile to mention such purposive sampling involves a typically small sample, with usually 30 or fewer participants. That outcome is essential for the focus of a dimensional investigation as well as to make a comparison with other ethnic groups (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009).

To find the target group for the survey, two sources of information were accessed. They were the Skykiwi website and the Chinese Centre at AUT University. The Skykiwi website is the largest Chinese website and provider of core Chinese media in New Zealand. A group of wine-interested Chinese was found through a wine-interest forum hosted on the Skykiwi website. This group had 201 members (as at September 24, 2012) and consisted of wine-interested Chinese living in New Zealand. Their activities included monthly wine tasting, wine trips and wine festival participation. To study the wine-interested Chinese behaviour, the group from the wine forum online and club members were chosen as the main source of study participants. The researcher attended their wine tasting and wine trip activities several times to network with the potential participants. Meanwhile, the Principal of the AUT Chinese Centre was contacted to ask for their consent to approach the centre's clients.

Each questionnaire survey included with it a participant information sheet (See Appendix C) and a pre-paid envelope (with a return address on the envelope). They were distributed via the wine club members and the AUT Chinese Centre. Afterwards, a snowball sampling technique was employed via the researcher's networks to expand the sample size. Snowball sampling uses study participants to identify additional cases who may qualify to take part and can be invited to participate voluntarily (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Overall, 120 questionnaires were distributed. At the beginning of June 2012, a total of 99 sealed envelopes with questionnaires were returned. Fifty three envelopes were collected following wine tasting and wine trip activities, and the remaining 46 copies were collected from the supervisor's post box, which is the given address. The collected responses cover both in Chinese and English questionnaire. All the envelopes were opened in the beginning of May 2012. For collected in Chinese, the researcher translated all the answers in English correspondingly. The pertinent data were entered into SPSS in English. Of the 99 participants, 86 came from Auckland region. The results were analyzed using IBM Predictive Analytics Software Statistics (SPSS) 19.0 software and are reported in the Quantitative Data Analysis chapter (Chapter Four).

Second Phase: Focus Group

A focus group was a useful qualitative method to incorporate into this exploratory research study to supplement and complement the findings of the quantitative survey. According to Ritchie et al., (2005), as a research method the focus group is relatively effective but time-consuming. By encouraging participants to speak freely, those insights hidden in quantitative methods will potentially be revealed. In addition, the focus group has the advantage of allowing people to reflect on the issues and further clarify their positions in light of other people's feelings during interactions. However, focus groups have their limitations. The collected data is difficult to generalize to the population of interest because of the small number and the non-representativeness of participants (Ritchie et al., 2005).

A focus group is depicted as a conversational style of research which uses a structured to semi-structured format, in order to gain and update information regarding perceptions, experiences, values and attitudes (Merton, Fiske, & Kendall, 1956). About two hours should be allowed to conduct a focus group, including discussion and any disruptions, for example due to "late arrivers" or "early leavers" (Morgan, 1996; Ritchie et al., 2005). To ensure the focus group is workable, the size is required to be limited. Usually, the members of focus groups vary from eight to twelve members (Jennings, 2010). To allow a smooth flow of interaction, a smaller size of group should be considered where appropriate (Morgan, Krueger, & King, 1998).

In this research, a list of 'prompt' questions was prepared as a guide for conducting the semi-structured focus group, albeit flexibility was allowed in practice. The prompt questions were designed based on the questionnaire results, allowing Chinese wine consumers to reflect on the "why" questions; and were designed to elicit further information in order to examine the correlations between key variables from the questionnaire findings. In addition, to understand their wine palate, the focus group technique offered the opportunity for a blind wine tasting based on participant observation.

The format and content of the focus group was divided into three parts: a blind wine tasting, a discussion of wine consumer issues and examination of wine tourism behaviour issues. The questions involved were designed in English originally and translated into Chinese, considering that was the main language used to communicate in the group. To ensure the validity of questions, a pilot test was conducted with a Chinese student in conjunction with the guidance of the thesis supervisor to regulate the flow of the conversation.

To find the target participants, purposive sampling used for this phase of the research because of the requirement to have participants who would be able to respond to the in-depth "why" and "how" questions, and the proximity of potential participants to researcher. To qualify to take part, the Chinese participants needed to be:

- (1) Living in the Auckland region;
- (2) Someone who has had the experience of a wine trip within New Zealand;
- (3) Wine consumers.

However, the risk of such a sampling technique was that it might result in biased data due to its lack of a systematic selection process. As a result of the sampling procedure, seven target participants and one AUT lecturer (the manager of AUT Piko Restaurant) were invited to, and voluntarily attended, the focus group. The researcher's supervisor, the researcher's friend (responsible for taking notes and digital recording) and the researcher also participated in the focus group. The focus group was conducted on June, 18th, 2012 at the AUT Piko restaurant and comprised of a blind wine tasting and discussion, and research-related discussion.

The discussion lasted approximately three hours in total. All participants were encouraged to share their views, and care was taken to make sure that each group member had an equal chance to contribute. All the conversation was recorded by a digital recorder and field notes. Afterwards, the whole conversation was transcribed, ready for qualitative analysis.

To conduct a focus group, ethics, reciprocity and reflexivity should be taken into consideration (Ritchie et al., 2005). As part of the ethical responsibility to research participants, they were invited to sign a consent form (See Appendix D) and were provided a participant information sheet prior to the beginning of the focus group discussion. In the process of conducting research, researchers need to address issues of reciprocity and reflexivity in terms of their relationship with the research participants (Jennings, 2010). By taking part in a relatively long and in-depth discussion, participants' contribution to the research was recognized through the funding of a dinner for them at AUT's Piko Restaurant.

The indicative questions cover blind wine tasting notes, specific current issues on dry red wine, their perception on wine and wine knowledge, the motivations to consume wine and wine-related tourism, barriers or merits to discern wine, wine tourism and Chinese attitudes towards wine and wine-related tourism in New Zealand from their perspectives.

The demographic profile of the focus group participants is shown in Table 10.

Table 10: The information of participants in the focus group

Interviewee	Gender	Age Range	Birthplace	Occupation	Length-of-stay in New Zealand
Frank	Male	35-44	Guangdong, China	IT business as avocation)	12 years
Yu	Male	25-34	Guangdong, China	Chef (Wine business as avocation)	11 years
Kelvin	Male	25-34	Malaysia	Businessman in invest management	20 years
Elva	Female	25-34	South China	Customer Service in NZ Airline	12 years
Leo	Male	25-34	North China	Hotel training manager	11 years
Alex	Male	25-34	North China	Wine Auctioneer	10 years
Sherlock	Male	25-34	South China	Yacht builder	11 years

Third Phase: Semi-structured Interviews

Reputational case sampling was used in this phase to find the representatives to take part in the interviews. It is a sampling technique which 'occurs when the researchers do not have the information necessary to select a sample and must depend on the opinions or comments of experts' (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). Two interviews were

conducted and the profiles of the participants are presented in Table 11. One (representative of relatively large-scale winery in Auckland) was on July 21st 2012; the other (representative of a boutique/small winery in Auckland) was held on August 10th 2012. The selection of the sample was recommended by the researcher's secondary supervisor, Cameron Douglas, Master Sommelier, who has a profound knowledge of New Zealand wine and the wine industry. Both Villa Maria and Ransom Winery conduct wine business within China. Therefore, they were invited to take part in the research interviews on the grounds that they might have more knowledge or information about Chinese wine consumers, whether they are living in New Zealand or elsewhere. The indicative questions for interviews cover the issues about their perception, attitude and experience on Chinese market of wine and wine tourism in New Zealand

Table 11: the information of participants in the interviews

Interviewee	Occupation	Winery	Date		Length
Mark Polglase	Duty Manager	Villa Maria	July 2012	21st,	1 hour
Robin Ransom	Owner	Ransom Winery	August 2012	10 th ,	1 hour

A semi-structured interview guide was used to guide the whole interview and understand the interviewee's range of opinions, attitudes and values and also achieve some more opinions based on demand.

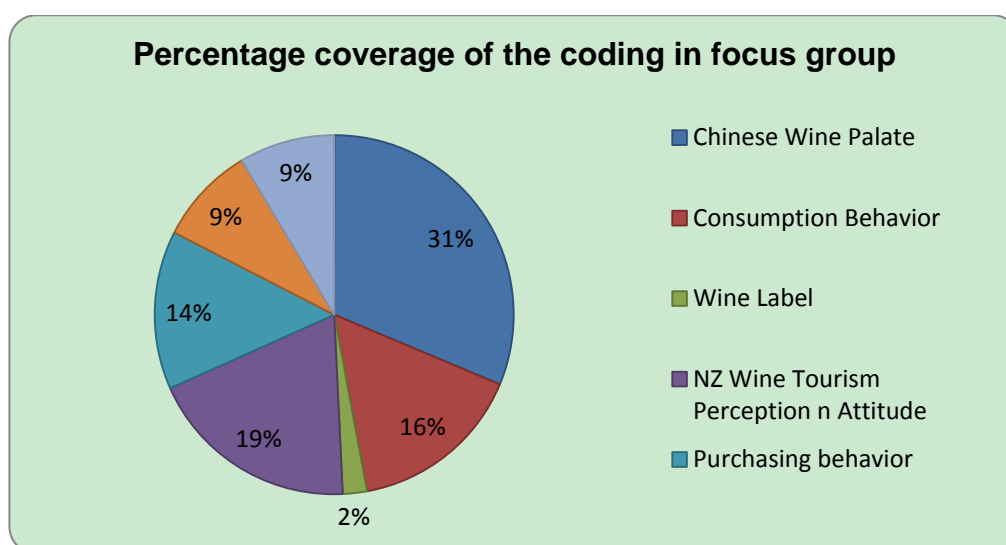
Data Analysis

To construct mixed method research, both narrative and numeric data are required by inductive and deductive logic. For sampling, probability, purposive and mixed are dominant. Data analysis is an integration of statistical and thematic approaches as well as data transformation. Quantitative analysis deals with numeral data using techniques that describe the phenomenon of interest and looks for significant differences between groups or among variables. Based on theory, previous research, research hypothesis is proposed which investigators make predictions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). Factor analysis, principal component analysis and ANOVA analysis will be employed to code data.

For qualitative data analysis, it is an application of textual data with different inductive and iterative techniques, including categorical strategies and contextualizing strategies (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). By categorizing the textual data on the basis of themes, concepts or similar features, new concepts are formulated. For data reduction, data display and verification, crystallization was employed to link the qualitative findings with the quantitative results (Jennings, 2010). For the qualitative data analysis, Nvivo 9.0 software was applied to organize and code the textual data more thoroughly, more methodically and more attentively (Bazeley, 2007). The use of Nvivo 9.0 to process

data enabled rapid access to conceptual knowledge by minimizing the potential artificial issues (Edhlund, 2011). Thematic analysis was employed to analyze the data. All the themes were classified based on the questions stated in Chapter One, including perceptions and attitudes about wine, and wine tourism consumers' behavioural attributes, wine knowledge in regards to information on wine labeling, socio-demographics and Chinese wine palate. Figure 11 shows the themes identified in the focus group discussion in terms of coding coverage. Those themes with the higher percentage coverage were those that were mentioned the most frequently.

Figure 11: the coding in focus group



Limitations of the Thesis

The limitations of this research are summarized in the following sections in terms of three aspects: methods, data collection and data analysis.

Limitations of the Methods Used

As this research used purposive and reputational case sampling techniques, the interview participants did not necessarily represent the entire population of interest (Chinese wine tourists and wine drinkers living in New Zealand). The findings from this small sample size therefore have limited generalizability. The relatively small sample size might also have resulted in certain biased results. Therefore, the results from the qualitative phases were utilized to examine the outcomes from questionnaire in more depth. However, during the focus group phase, there may have been a limitation in the degree of observation of non-verbal cues partly due to the busy restaurant environment and therefore limited inclusion of these as part of the data analysis. Those reasons may have contributed to the omission of some qualitative information. In addition, although the researcher approached more suppliers, only two suppliers with links to the Chinese market agreed to take part. Therefore, the findings from qualitative methods

may be questioned in terms of their validity.

Data Collection Limitations

All the data collected was restricted to the Auckland region due to the limitations of time, budget and human resources available. Hall (2000) has commented on the particularity of behavioural studies at a regional level. Whether the particularity of the Auckland region means the findings from this region can be applied to other New Zealand wine regions can be questioned. And as the questionnaire was self-administered, the accuracy of the responses recorded depended on the individual's own unprompted self-reflection and the uniformity of responses towards that variables using the Likert scale may be questioned.

Moreover, general constraints governed elements like timelines and funding. The researcher would have preferred to spend more time on data collection, but had to cut the fieldwork short because of time limitations. However, a doctoral project is planned which will include more in-depth research and build on the findings of this study.

Data Analysis Limitations

Issues were encountered when merging analyzed data from the various mixed-methods. For one of the research questions, sometimes the findings appeared inconsistent and were from opposite dimensions, and it was not straight forward as to how to code that data.

Ethics Consideration

Every effort was made to conduct this research in an ethical manner. Researchers are bound by ethical standards and should be responsible to what they are undertaking (Jennings, 2010). This research followed AUTEK principles for the ethical use and management of research information with respect to the following requirements:

- Informed and voluntary consent
- Respect for rights of privacy and confidentiality
- Minimization of risk
- Truthfulness, including limitation of deception
- Social and cultural sensitivity, including commitment to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi
- Research adequacy
- Avoidance of conflict of interest
- Respect for vulnerability of some participants and respect for property (including University property and intellectual property rights)
- Approval was received by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 7 May 2012 with AUTEK Reference number 12/82.

Chapter Four – Quantitative Data Analysis

Introduction

This chapter provides the results of the survey components of this research. The results are developed based on the components of the survey (socio-demographic profile, self-assessment wine knowledge levels, wine appreciation and wine tourism) and hypotheses, which were referred to in the introduction and literature review chapters and verified in this chapter. They are 1) correlation between wine knowledge levels and wine and wine-related tourism factors, and 2) correlation between length-of-residence in New Zealand and wine-related factors.

Auckland-Residing Chinese Wine Consumers and Wine Tourists

In this sample, 86 out of the 97 participants who completed the questionnaire were residents of the Auckland region. For reasons of validity, only those Auckland-residing Chinese (n=86) were selected as the object-of-study for the quantitative data analysis phase. As referred to in the literature review chapter, few of the studies included in the review have examined the link between wine consumers and wine tourists. In this research, to examine the potential linkage between wine consumers and wine tourists was a planned objective. Therefore, wine tourists were identified as a separate group from wine consumers. Fifty one out of those 86 Auckland-residing Chinese in the sample were identified by a filtered question to have been on a wine tour (59.3%). To clarify the demonstration of a possible linkage, all the Auckland-residing Chinese wine consumers sample (86 respondents, including both who had or had not been on a wine tour in the sample) were labeled as Group One (referred to here as G1). Auckland-residing Chinese wine tourists in the sample (51 respondents) were labeled as Group Two (referred to here G2).

Socio-demographic Profile

Six variables (gender, age, birthplace, annual income, highest qualification achieved and length-of-residence in New Zealand) were employed to link G1 and G2.

Gender

Table 12 shows the outcome of the descriptive analysis of the respondents' demographic profile by gender. In G1, 58.1% (n=50) of the sample were male and the remaining were female. In G2, 64.7% (n=33) of the sample were male and the remaining 35.3% (n=18) were female. The outcome indicated that most of Auckland-residing Chinese wine consumers and tourists were male.

Table 12: Descriptive Analysis by Gender

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender (G1)			
Male	50	58.1	58.1
Female	36	41.9	100.0
Total	86	100.0	
Gender (G2)			
Male	33	64.7	64.7
Female	18	35.3	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

Age

Table 13 illustrates the distribution of age between G1 and G2. The distribution of age was categorized based on the categories used in the New Zealand Census. They were the age groups: 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64 and over 65 years. For G1, the age group of between 25 and 34 years occupied the largest share in the sample, which was identical to that of G2. They were 43% (n=37) of G1 and 47.1% (n=24) of G2, respectively. The outcome indicated that the Auckland-residing Chinese between the ages of 25 and 34 years were the main wine consumers and wine tourists in the sample.

Table 13: Descriptive Analysis by Age

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age Group (G1)			
18-24	21	24.4	24.4
25-34	37	43.0	67.4
35-44	15	17.4	84.9
45-54	11	12.8	97.7
55-64	1	1.2	98.8
64 and over	1	1.2	100.0
Total	86	100.0	
Age Group (G2)			
18-24	10	19.6	19.6
25-34	24	47.1	66.7
35-44	9	17.6	84.3
45-54	8	15.7	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

Place of Birth

Regarding the birthplace of Chinese, 83 out of the 86 respondents came from within China, accounting for 97.6% of the sample. Meanwhile, 45 out of the 83 (54.2%) came from North China. Regarding the birthplace of Chinese wine tourists, 48 out of 51(96%) came from within China, and, 25 of those respondents came from North China, which represented 52.1% of the Chinese born in China in the wine tourist sample.

Table 14: Descriptive Analysis by Birthplace

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Birthplace (G1)			
China	83	97.6	97.6
Other	2	2.4	100.0
Total	85	100.0	
Birthplace within China (G1)			
North China	45	54.2	54.2
South China	37	44.6	98.8
HK/Macau	1	1.2	100.0
Total	83	100.0	
Birthplace (G2)			
China	48	96.0	96.0
Other	2	4.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	
Birthplace within China (G2)			
North China	25	52.1	52.1
South China	22	45.8	97.9
HK/Macau	1	2.1	100.0
Total	48	100.0	

Annual Income

In this sample, 78 respondents indicated their annual income. As shown in Table 15, an annual income of between \$20,001 and \$40,000 was most commonly reported (24.4% of the sample; n=19). For wine tourists, 47 respondents indicated their annual income, with the most commonly reported an annual income of between \$40,001 and \$60 000 NZD being reported by 23.4% (n=11).

Table 15: Descriptive Analysis of Annual Income

NZD (\$)	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Annual Income (G1)			
1-20 000	15	17.4	17.4
20 001-40 000	19	22.1	39.5
40 001-60 000	18	20.9	60.4
60 001-80 000	7	8.1	68.5
80 001-100 000	6	7.0	75.5
100 001 and more	3	3.5	79.0
Prefer not to answer	18	21.0	100
Total	86	100.0	
Annual Income (G2)			
1-20 000	7	13.7	13.7
20 001-40 000	9	17.6	31.3
40 001-60 000	11	21.6	52.9
60 001-80 000	7	13.7	66.6
80 001-100 000	6	11.8	78.4
100 001 and more	3	5.9	84.3
Prefer not to answer	8	15.7	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

Highest Educational Qualification Achieved

Concerning the highest qualification achieved, 83 out of 86 responded. 62.7% (n=52) Auckland-based Chinese wine consumers had achieved an undergraduate qualification. For wine tourists, 50 out of 51 responded. 74 % (n=37) in the sample had achieved an undergraduate qualification.

Table 16: Descriptive Analysis by Educational Qualification

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highest qualification achieved (G1)			
No qualification	2	2.4	2.4
Secondary	6	7.2	9.6
University Undergraduate	52	62.7	72.3
University Postgraduate	21	25.3	97.6
Other	2	2.4	100.0
Total	83	100.0	
Highest qualification achieved (G2)			
Secondary	2	4.0	4.0
University Undergraduate	37	74.0	78.0
University Postgraduate	11	22.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	

Length-of-residence in New Zealand

In this sample, 85 participants reported their length of stay in New Zealand. As shown in Table 17, the group targeted for the survey, those living in New Zealand for 10 years or more, represented the largest group in the sample, which was 50.6% (n=43). For actual wine tourists, 51 participants reported their length of stay in New Zealand. The targeted group living in New Zealand for 10 years or more represented, the largest group in that sample (66.7%; n=34).

Table 17: Descriptive Analysis by Length-of-Residence in New Zealand

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Length-of-residence in New Zealand (G1)			
Less than 2 years	10	11.8	11.8
2-4 years	23	27.1	38.8
5-9 years	9	10.6	49.4
10 years or more	43	50.6	100.0
Total	85	100.0	
Length-of-residence in New Zealand (G2)			
Less than 2 years	6	11.8	11.8
2-4 years	7	13.7	25.5
5-9 years	4	7.8	33.3
10 years or more	34	66.7	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

Wine Appreciation

Information Sources of Wine Knowledge

Seven information sources (Friends/Family, Education, Past Experience, Radio/TV, Books/Magazines, Website and Others) were introduced in the questionnaire to seek how Auckland-residing Chinese wine consumers gained their wine knowledge. Wine knowledge sourcing from friends/family was identified as the most commonly used approach, which accounted for 27.4% of the share. This was followed by using books/magazines (21.0%) and websites (18.3%) as sources of information.

Table 18: Descriptive Analysis by Information Sources of Wine Knowledge

		Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Information sources of wine knowledge	Friends/Family	51	27.4%	60.0%
	Formal Wine Education	22	11.8%	25.9%
	Past experience	23	12.4%	27.1%
	Radio/TV	7	3.8%	8.2%
	Books/Magazines	39	21.0%	45.9%
	Website	34	18.3%	40.0%
	Others	10	5.4%	11.8%
Total		186	100.0%	218.8%

Wine Type Preferences

As stated in the literature review chapter, wine types are generally classified as sparkling, white, rosé and red. Table 19 shows that 47.6% of the respondents preferred red wine, while 36.3% of the sample preferred white wine. Furthermore, rosé was the wine type the Auckland-residing Chinese respondents liked least (6.5%).

Table 19: Descriptive Analysis by Preferences of Wine Type

Preferences of wine type (n=73)				
		Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
	Sparkling	12	9.7%	16.4%
	White	45	36.3%	61.6%
	Rosé	8	6.5%	11.0%
	Red	59	47.6%	80.8%
Total		124	100.0%	169.9%

Choice of Wine Purchasing Sites

Table 20 shows the respondents' choices of wine purchasing sites. The supermarket was the main purchasing site for 47.9% of those respondents that answered the question, followed by wine shops (26.8%).

Table 20: Descriptive Analysis by Choice of Wine Purchasing Sites

Choice of wine purchasing sites (n=85)				
		Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
	Winery/Cellar Door	22	15.5%	25.9%
	Supermarket	68	47.9%	80.0%
	Wine Shop	38	26.8%	44.7%
	Online	10	7.0%	11.8%
	Other	4	2.8%	4.7%
Total		142	100.0%	167.1%

Matching Food with Wine

In the survey, respondents were asked about their wine-drinking style, in terms of whether they matched food with wine. Table 21 indicates that 76.5% of the sample preferred to match wine with food.

Table 21: Descriptive analysis of matching food with wine

Matching food with wine		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	65	76.5	76.5
	No	20	23.5	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	
Missing	System	1		
Total		86		

Choice of Wine Consumption Sites

Regarding the choices of wine consumption sites, 86 responses were recorded. As shown in Table 22, most commonly reported was wine consumption at home, which was reported by 34.1% of respondents, followed by consuming at friends' homes (25.8%).

Table 22: Descriptive Analysis by Choice of Wine Consumption Sites

Choice of wine consumption sites				
		Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Choice of consumption sites	Restaurant/Cafe	48	22.1%	55.8%
	Winery	19	8.8%	22.1%
	Events	15	6.9%	17.4%
	Friends' home	56	25.8%	65.1%
	Own home	74	34.1%	86.0%
	Other	5	2.3%	5.8%
Total		217	100.0%	252.3%

Attributes Influencing Choice of Wine Purchase

Five key attributes were employed to examine their influence on wine purchasing. A

five-point Likert-scale ranging with values from 1 to 5 (1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important.) was applied to comprehend the significance of each variable. Based on the mean value, (reported here as χ^2), a sorted list rating from highest (Most important) to lowest (Not at all important) was used to analyze the sample. As shown in Table 23, the results indicated that the style ($\chi^2 = 3.85$, $SD = 1.122$) and price ($\chi^2 = 3.28$, $SD = 1.155$) of the wine were the first two influencing factors on their choice decision. Others factors such as the label, the shape of bottle, added value, and emotion were mentioned as influencing elements by respondents.

Table 23: Attributes Influencing Wine Purchase

Descriptive statistics of the influencing attributes on purchasing wines.					
Influencing Attribute	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Style	86	1	5	3.85	1.122
Price	86	1	5	3.28	1.155
Varietal	86	1	5	3.03	1.384
Brand	86	1	5	2.88	1.269
Country of Origin	86	1	5	2.81	1.315
Valid N (listwise)	86				

(1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important)

Wine Tourism

In order to explore different characteristics of wine tourism behaviour, survey participants were asked about various aspects: 1) the traveling style, 2) the choice of visited destinations, 3) the information sources about the targeted destination, 4) purchasing behaviour and 5) expenditure were designed. G2 answered the questions about these characteristics based on their past experience. However, to examine the tourism motivations for a taking a wine tour, G1 were also invited to complete a question using a Likert scale form in the questionnaire.

Choice of Destination

As demonstrated in Table 24, in terms of their wine tour destination, 40 out of 51 (78.4%) respondents referred to Auckland wine regions, which implied the importance of accessibility in relation to the distance. Besides, it further inferred that a one-day trip probably is their dominant traveling style in terms of the amount of time spent travelling.

Table 24: Descriptive Analysis by Choices of Wine Tour Destinations

Case Summary: wine tour destination (n=51)				
		Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
	Northland	10	8.6%	19.6%
	Auckland	40	34.5%	78.4%
	Bay of Plenty	7	6.0%	13.7%
	Gisborne	11	9.5%	21.6%
	Hawke's Bay	17	14.7%	33.3%
	Wairarapa	3	2.6%	5.9%
	Nelson	5	4.3%	9.8%
	Marlborough	13	11.2%	25.5%
	Canterbury	2	1.7%	3.9%
	Central Otago	5	4.3%	9.8%
	Other	3	2.6%	5.9%
Total		116	100.0%	227.5%

Participation of Wine Purchasing on a Wine Tour

Regarding the participation of wine purchasing on a wine tour, 39 participants (76.5%) had a preference for purchasing (see Table 25).

Table 25: Whether to purchase wines during a wine tour

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	39	76.5	76.5
	No	12	23.5	100.0
	Total	51	100.0	
Missing	System	35		
Total		86		

Expenditure on a Wine Tour

Table 26 shows the levels of expenditure on wine during a wine tour. 42% (n=21) of the sample reported their expenditure per day during a wine tour was below \$100 NZ dollars per day, followed by 24% (n=12) who reported they spent between \$100 NZ and \$199 NZ.

Table 26: Descriptive Analysis by Expenditure on Wine on a Tour

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	6	12.0	12.0
	Below \$100	21	42.0	54.0
	\$100-199	12	24.0	78.0
	\$200-299	6	12.0	90.0
	\$300-399	2	4.0	94.0
	\$400 or more	3	6.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	
Missing	System	36		
Total		86		

Travelling Styles of Wine Tour

When it came to their preferences of wine tour travelling styles, independent wine tours dominated the travelling styles for most of the Auckland-residing Chinese survey respondents (80.4%).

Table 27: Descriptive Analysis by Travelling styles of Wine Tour

Case Summary on Wine Tour Styles				
		Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
	Independent travelling styles	41	80.4%	85.4%
	Packaged tour	8	15.7%	16.7%
	Other travelling style	2	3.9%	4.2%
Total		51	100.0%	106.3%

Information Sources of Wine Tour

According to the factors identified in the literature review, nine variables (website, previous visits, TV, word-of-mouth, road signs, wine clubs, magazine, I-site Visitor Centre and other option) pertinent to the information sources about wine tours were introduced in the questionnaire. The aim was to examine the popularity of information sources within Auckland-residing Chinese. As shown in Table 28, in the sample, word-of-mouth (23%) was identified as the most popular method of gaining information about wine tourism destinations. Using a website (22.3%) was the second popular source.

Table 28: Descriptive Analysis by Information Source on a Wine Tour

Case Summary on Wine Tour Information Sources			
	Multiple Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	
Website	31	22.3%	60.8%
Past experience	16	11.5%	31.4%
TV	5	3.6%	9.8%
Word-of-mouth	32	23.0%	62.7%
Road signs	5	3.6%	9.8%
Wine clubs	19	13.7%	37.3%
Magazine	21	15.1%	41.2%
I-site Visitor Centre	8	5.8%	15.7%
Other	2	1.4%	3.9%
Total	139	100.0%	272.5%

Wine Tourism Motivations

A Likert-scale (1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important) was applied to assess the importance of thirteen different factors that may be reasons for respondents going on a wine tour, in order to comprehend Auckland-residing Chinese wine tourists' motivations. Based on mean value, a sorted list was generated ranked by descending value to analyze the sample. As shown in Table 29, most of the wine tourists in the sample responded that relaxation (item 13: $\chi^2 = 4.55$, $SD = 0.807$) was an important reason to go on a wine tour, compared to the motivation of experiencing an aspect directly related to wine itself (for example, items 11, 5 and 1). This result differed from that reported in a study by Johnson (1998) on wine tourism motivating factors, which identified experiencing wine as the prime motivation. This study found that other factors were more important for the Auckland-residing Chinese wine tourists who took part in the survey, such as appreciating the scenery on the trip ($\chi^2 = 4.10$, std. deviation = 0.946); and accessibility of the destination ($\chi^2 = 3.94$, std. deviation = 0.628). This result may indicate that the general level of wine interest amongst these respondents could be categorized as being at the 'novice' or 'intermediate', rather than the 'enthusiast' level.

The opportunity for reduced price wine tasting was also not of great importance for the wine tourists in this survey ($\chi^2 = 2.85$, $SD = 1.079$). From the marketing perspective, such an outcome implies the wine tasting at a reduced price at the cellar door is not a huge incentive for people to go on a wine tour, and that it will not reduce the customers' satisfaction of a wine tour if the cost is within a reasonable range. To test this hypothesis, participants from the focus group were enquired about their views. All the participants agreed with this hypothesis and pointed out a range of between \$5 and \$20 NZ dollars charge, depending on the amount of wine provided, was reasonable. Meanwhile, it was interesting to find out that besides the appeal of wine itself, the wine

region ambience was also a dominant reason for the survey respondents to revisit a winery. It is necessary to point out that factors such as “reputation” “rarity of wine” and “the collectible value of the bottle” were noted by respondents in the questionnaire as explanations under the “other” option.

Table 29: Descriptive Statistics of Wine Tourism Motivations

Descriptive Statistics on Wine Tourism Motivations					
Motivators for the initiation of a wine tour	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
13. Relaxation	86	1	5	4.55	.807
10. Scenery in wine region	86	1	5	4.10	.946
9. Accessibility of the destination	86	1	5	3.94	1.110
14. Socializing	86	1	5	3.86	1.219
12. Onsite wine education	86	1	5	3.63	1.085
6. Winery Restaurant	86	1	5	3.56	1.233
3. Guided wine tour	84	1	5	3.40	1.363
7. Winery Activities	85	1	5	3.39	1.092
11. Meeting wine-maker	86	1	5	3.27	1.278
5. Wine Sale/Promotion	86	1	5	3.12	1.089
1. Free wine tasting	86	1	5	3.10	1.431
4. Previous experience	85	1	5	2.94	1.294
2. 'Reduced-price wine tasting'	86	1	5	2.85	1.079
8. Winery Accommodation	86	1	5	2.84	1.454
Valid N (listwise)	82				

(1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important)

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Wine Tour Motivations

As shown in Table 30, the five components represent categories of factors relating to wine tourism motivating factors. Component 1 represents the internal factors pertaining to wine. Component 2 is the “winery service facilities” in the wine region. Component 3 is the “educational significance” of learning about wine and wine-making knowledge onsite. Component 4 is the “recreational value”. And finally, Component 5 represents the “wine tour destination image” ranging from the influence of the respondents’ previous experience to the promotional activities of the winery.

Table 30: Factor analysis of wine tourism motivation.

Rotated Component Matrix^a					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Free wine tasting	.621				
2. Charity cost wine tasting	.803				
3. Guided wine tour	.785				
4. Previous experience					.646
5. Wine Sale/Promotion					.699
6. Winery Restaurant		.867			
7. Winery Activities	.511				
8. Winery Accommodation		.858			
9. Accessibility to the destination					.538
10. Scenery in wine region				.544	
11. Meeting wine-maker			.874		
12. Onsite wine education			.903		
13. Relaxation				.815	
14. Socializing				.761	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.					
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.					

Table 30 explained how the components were categorized. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the 14 items about Auckland-based Chinese wine tourists' motivations for taking part in wine tourism. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was employed (see Table 31). No cross-loaded item was identified. Table 31 shows that five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted, accounting for 67.54% of the variance.

Table 31: Principal Component Analysis by Total Variance Explained for Wine Tourism Motivation

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.10	22.13	22.13	3.10	22.13	22.13	2.35	16.81	16.81
2	2.17	15.51	37.64	2.17	15.51	37.64	2.03	14.50	31.31
3	1.74	12.46	50.10	1.74	12.46	50.10	1.85	13.23	44.54
4	1.37	9.76	59.86	1.37	9.76	59.86	1.81	12.90	57.44
5	1.08	7.68	67.54	1.08	7.68	67.54	1.41	10.10	67.54
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

Self-assessment of Wine Knowledge Levels

Table 32 displays the results of the descriptive analysis of wine knowledge levels by self-evaluation. In the sample, 85 out of 86 were valid. 33 (38.8%) respondents identified themselves as Novice, 36 out of 85 (42.2%) were at the level of the Intermediate, and respondents who identified as Enthusiasts occupied 18.6% of the share (n=16).

Table 32: Descriptive Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels

Self-assessment		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Novice	33	38.8	38.8
	Intermediate	36	42.4	81.2
	Enthusiast	16	18.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	
Missing	System	1		
Total		86		

Influence of Wine Knowledge Source on Wine Knowledge Levels

To assess whether levels of wine consumers' knowledge in the survey were affected by the different wine information sources, a cross-tabulation analysis was conducted. There were 85 out of 86 valid responses to this question. As shown in Table 33 and

Table 34, formal wine education and past experience variables were found to be significantly different between the different groups. As shown in Table 33, those who assessed themselves as being at the level of wine enthusiast reported a significant tendency to have achieved their knowledge more from formal wine education ($\chi^2 = 40.96$, $DF=2$, $p = 0.000$) .

Table 33: Cross-tabulated Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Formal Education

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
Formal Wine Education	Yes	Count	1	7	14	22
		% within Education	4.5%	31.8%	63.6%	100.0%
	No	Count	32	28	2	62
		% within Education	51.6%	45.2%	3.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	33	35	16	84
		% within Education	39.3%	41.7%	19.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40.962 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	40.559	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	34.172	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	84		
1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.19.			

As shown in Table 34, a significant difference was also verified between the groups regarding past wine tour experience ($\chi^2 = 28.879$, $DF=2$, $p = 0.001$). The novices were less likely to have gained their wine knowledge through previous wine tour experience than those who identified themselves as having Intermediate and Enthusiast levels of knowledge. Conversely, a tendency was identified for Enthusiasts to have been more likely to report gaining their knowledge from previous wine tour experience.

Table 34: Crosstabulated analysis on Self-assessed wine knowledge levels by past experience

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
Past experience of wine tour	Yes	Count	1	9	12	22
		% within Previous wine experience	4.5%	40.9%	54.5%	100.0%
	No	Count	32	26	4	62
		% within Previous wine experience	51.6%	41.9%	6.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	33	35	16	84
		% within Previous wine experience	39.3%	41.7%	19.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28.879 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	29.746	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.789	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	84		
1. cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.19.			

Relationship between Wine Knowledge Levels and Wine Type Preference

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare the association between levels of self-reported wine knowledge and wine type preference, in terms of whether respondents preferred sparkling, white, rosé or red wine. As shown in Table 35 and Table 36, there was a significant difference between the levels of reported wine knowledge and the preference for white wine ($\chi^2 = 10.374$, $DF=2$, $p= 0.006$) and red wine ($\chi^2 = 18.038$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$), respectively. There was a tendency for the Novice and Intermediate groups to prefer white wine more than those respondents who identified themselves as an Enthusiast. Regarding the preference for red wine, all the Enthusiasts reported preferring red wine.

Table 35 : Cross-tabulated Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels and White Wine Preference

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
White	Yes	Count	10	24	11	45
		% within White	22.2%	53.3%	24.4%	100.0%
	No	Count	22	12	5	39
		% within White	56.4%	30.8%	12.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	32	36	16	84
		% within White	38.1%	42.9%	19.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.374 ^a	2	.006
Likelihood Ratio	10.566	2	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.096	1	.004
N of Valid Cases	84		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.43.			

Table 36: Cross-tabulated Analysis of Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels and Red Wine Preference

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
Red	Yes	Count	14	28	16	58
		% within Red	24.1%	48.3%	27.6%	100.0%
	No	Count	18	8	0	26
		% within Red	69.2%	30.8%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	32	36	16	84
		% within Red	38.1%	42.9%	19.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.038 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	21.946	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	17.509	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	84		
a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.95.			

Relationship between Wine Knowledge Levels and Influence of Wine Attributes

A comparison was conducted between groups reporting different wine knowledge levels regarding the factors that influenced their purchase of wines (the attributes measured were price, variety, style, country-of-origin and brand). As shown in Table 37, the ANOVA indicated there was a statistically significant difference between the groups with different wine knowledge levels regarding the influencing factors of variety ($F = 3.288$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.042$) and country-of-origin ($F = 6.867$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.002$).

Table 37: Oneway ANOVA analysis on Self-assessed wine knowledge levels by wine attributes

ANOVA						
Wine attribute		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
Price	Between Groups	3.044	2	1.522	1.133	.327
	Within Groups	110.180	82	1.344		
	Total	113.224	84			
Variety	Between Groups	11.804	2	5.902	3.288	.042
	Within Groups	147.184	82	1.795		
	Total	158.988	84			
Style	Between Groups	5.896	2	2.948	2.408	.096
	Within Groups	100.410	82	1.225		
	Total	106.306	84			
Country of Origin	Between Groups	20.887	2	10.444	6.867	.002
	Within Groups	124.713	82	1.521		
	Total	145.600	84			
Brand	Between Groups	5.618	2	2.809	1.756	.179
	Within Groups	131.205	82	1.600		
	Total	136.824	84			

(1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important).

Two post-hoc Tukey's tests were run following the ANOVA to ascertain which wine knowledge groups were significantly influenced by those two factors (wine variety and country-of-origin). The results indicated that the Enthusiast group was more likely to be influenced by variety than the other two groups (see Table 38).

Table 38: Post-hoc Tukey's test for Wine Variety

By Wine Variety			
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}			
Self-assessment	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Novice	33	2.61	
Intermediate	36	3.11	3.11
Enthusiast	16		3.63
Sig.		.383	.370
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.			
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.880.			
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.			

In turn, as shown in Table 39, the Enthusiasts were more likely to be influenced by the

wine's country of compared to the other two groups.

Table 39: Post-hoc Tukey's test for Wine Knowledge

By Country of Origin			
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}			
Self-assessment	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Novice	33	2.30	
Intermediate	36	2.86	2.86
Enthusiast	16		3.69
Sig.		.253	.053
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.			
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.880.			
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed			

Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Tourism Variables

Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Tour Experience

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare the factor of attending a wine tour within self-assessed wine knowledge levels. There was a significant difference between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 15.312$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$, S). The following table shows that the Enthusiasts group was more likely to have attended a wine tour. In general those with a higher level of wine knowledge had a higher likelihood of engagement in wine tourism (indicated by having taken part in a wine tour).

Table 40: Crosstabulated analysis of the Attending a Wine tour by Self-Assessed Wine Knowledge Levels

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermedi ate	Enthusia st	
Wheth er attend ed a wine tour before	Y e s	Count	12	23	15	50
		% within the attendance of a wine tour before	24.0%	46.0%	30.0%	100.0 %
	N o	Count	21	13	1	35
		% within the attendance of a wine tour before	60.0%	37.1%	2.9%	100.0 %
Total		Count	33	36	16	85
		% within the attendance of a wine tour before	38.8%	42.4%	18.8%	100.0 %

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.312 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	17.339	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.121	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	85		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.59.			

Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Tour Information Sources

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare wine knowledge levels and the different groups' information sources about wine tourism (website, previous experience, TV, word-of-mouth, road signs, wine clubs, magazine, visitor information center and 'other' as options). There were statistically significant differences between the wine knowledge levels and the information source being from a website ($\chi^2 = 6.712$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.035$), past experience ($\chi^2 = 6.252$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.044$) and wine clubs ($\chi^2 = 9.816$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.007$).

As shown in Table 41, the Enthusiast's group was more likely to gain wine tour information from a website than the other two groups.

Table 41: Cross-tabulated Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Website

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novic e	Intermedi ate	Enthusias t	
Websit e	Ye s	Count	5	12	13	30
		% within Website	16.7%	40.0%	43.3%	100.0 %
	No	Count	7	11	2	20
		% within Website	35.0%	55.0%	10.0%	100.0 %
Total		Count	12	23	15	50
		% within Website	24.0%	46.0%	30.0%	100.0 %

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.712 ^a	2	.035
Likelihood Ratio	7.379	2	.025
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.852	1	.016
N of Valid Cases	50		
a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.80.			

Also, as shown in Table 42, Enthusiasts were more likely to gain wine tour information from a past wine tour experience.

Table 42: Cross-tabulated Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Past Experience

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
Past experience of wine tour	Yes	Count	1	7	8	16
		% within Past experience	6.3%	43.8%	50.0%	100.0%
	No	Count	11	16	7	34
		% within Past experience	32.4%	47.1%	20.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	12	23	15	50
		% within Past experience	24.0%	46.0%	30.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.252 ^a	2	.044
Likelihood Ratio	6.808	2	.033
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.126	1	.013
N of Valid Cases	50		
a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.84.			

Enthusiasts were also much more likely to obtain their wine tour information from wine clubs than the other two groups (see Table 43).

Table.43: Cross-tabulated analysis on Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Clubs

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
Wine clubs	Yes	Count	1	8	10	19
		% within Wine clubs	5.3%	42.1%	52.6%	100.0%
	No	Count	11	15	5	31
		% within Wine clubs	35.5%	48.4%	16.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	12	23	15	50
		% within Wine clubs	24.0%	46.0%	30.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.816 ^a	2	.007
Likelihood Ratio	10.707	2	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.582	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	50		
a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.56.			

Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Purchasing / Consumption at Winery

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare the wine knowledge levels and the choice of purchasing sites (winery/cellar door, supermarket, wine shop, online purchasing and 'other'). As shown in Table 44, there was a significant difference between the levels of wine knowledge and the choice of winery/cellar door as a purchasing site ($\chi^2 = 9.620$, $DF=2$, $p = 0.008$). The Intermediate and Enthusiast groups were much more likely to buy at the winery/cellar door sites.

Table 44: Cross-tabulated analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Purchasing from Winery

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novic e	Intermediat e	Enthusias t	
Winery	Yes	Count	5	8	9	22
		%within Winery	22.7%	36.4%	40.9%	100.0%
	No	Count	27	28	7	62
		%within Winery	43.5%	45.2%	11.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	32	36	16	84
		%within Winery	38.1%	42.9%	19.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.620 ^a	2	.008
Likelihood Ratio	8.800	2	.012
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.628	1	.006
N of Valid Cases	84		
a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.19.			

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare the wine knowledge levels and the choice of consumption sites (licensed restaurant/cafe, winery, event occasions, friends' home, your own home and other options). As shown in Table 45, there was a significant

difference between the levels of wine knowledge and the choice of winery/cellar door as consumption site ($\chi^2 = 13.253$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.001$). Regarding the winery as a consumption site, 47.4% of the Enthusiasts are highly motivated while the Novice and the Intermediate groups were less interested.

Table 45: Cross-tabulated analysis of Self-assessed Wine knowledge Levels by Wine Consumption from Winery

Crosstab						
			Self-assessment			Total
			Novice	Intermediate	Enthusiast	
Winery	Yes	Count	4	6	9	19
		% within Winery	21.1%	31.6%	47.4%	100.0%
	No	Count	29	30	7	66
		% within Winery	43.9%	45.5%	10.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	33	36	16	85
		% within Winery	38.8%	42.4%	18.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.253 ^a	2	.001
Likelihood Ratio	11.581	2	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.669	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	85		
1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.58.			

Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Tourism Motivations

A comparison was conducted between the wine knowledge levels regarding the different groups' wine tourism motivations (e.g. respondents' most important reasons for going on a wine tour). The ANOVA indicated a significant difference between the wine knowledge levels regarding the motivations of a guided winery tour ($F = 4.233$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.018$), past experience ($F = 9.687$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$), meeting the winemaker ($F = 7.768$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.001$) and onsite wine education ($F = 4.795$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.011$, S).

Table 46: Oneway – ANOVA Analysis of Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels by Wine Tourism Motivations

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3. Guided winery tour	Between Groups	14.745	2	7.373	4.233	.018
	Within Groups	139.327	80	1.742		
	Total	154.072	82			
4. Past experience	Between Groups	27.157	2	13.579	9.687	.000
	Within Groups	113.545	81	1.402		
	Total	140.702	83			
11. Meeting the winemaker	Between Groups	22.031	2	11.015	7.768	.001
	Within Groups	116.275	82	1.418		
	Total	138.306	84			
12. Onsite wine education	Between Groups	10.466	2	5.233	4.795	.011
	Within Groups	89.487	82	1.091		
	Total	99.953	84			

A post-hoc Tukey's test was run to ascertain which for which groups those factors were most important. As shown in Table 47, the guided winery tour was more important for Novice and Intermediate groups.

Table 47: Post-hoc Tukey's Test of Guided Wine Tour

3. Guided wine tour			
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}			
Self-assessment	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Enthusiast	16	2.63	
Novice	31	3.39	3.39
Intermediate	36		3.78
Sig.		.114	.557
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.			
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.483.			
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.			

As shown in Table 48, Enthusiasts were identified as more highly motivated by past wine tour experience than the other two groups.

Table 48: Post-hoc Tukey's test of Past Experience on Wine Tour

4. Past experience			
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}			
Self-assessment	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Novice	33	2.36	
Intermediate	35	3.03	
Enthusiast	16		3.94
Sig.		.125	1.000
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.			
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.717.			
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.			

Also, Enthusiasts were more motivated by meeting the winemakers, than the other two groups (see Table 49).

Table 49: Post-hoc Tukey's of Meeting the Winemaker

11. Meeting the winemaker			
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}			
Self-assessment	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Novice	33	2.64	
Intermediate	36		3.56
Enthusiast	16		3.88
Sig.		1.000	.613
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.			
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.880.			
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.			

Onsite wine education was also a significant motivator for the wine Enthusiasts as compared to the other two groups.

Table 50: Post-hoc Tukey's of Onsite Wine Education

12. Onsite wine education			
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}			
Self-assessment	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Novice	33	3.21	
Intermediate	36	3.78	3.78
Enthusiast	16		4.13
Sig.		.142	.473
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.			
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.880.			
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.			

Associations between Length-of-residence and Wine-related Factors

Reported length-of-residence in New Zealand was tested to examine association between length-of-residence and wine-related factors. The results of that analysis are reported in the following sections.

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Self-assessed Wine Knowledge Levels

A Chi-Squared test was conducted to test the influence of different length-of-residence of the sample within the self-assessed wine knowledge level groups. However, there was no significant difference between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 3.725$, $DF = 6$, $p = 0.714$). Such a result illustrated that the length of the residence in New Zealand reported in the sample did not affect the levels of wine knowledge reported.

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Wine Appreciation Variables

All the variables from the parts of the survey regarding wine preference, and purchasing and drinking behaviour were used to test the correlation with the length-of-residence in New Zealand. The outcomes with significant results are presented in the following sections (non-significant results are not reported here).

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Choice of Purchasing Sites

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare length-of-residence in New Zealand within the choice of purchasing sites (winery/cellar door, supermarket, wine shop, online purchasing and 'other'). There was a significant difference between the length-of-residence in New Zealand and the choice of supermarket ($\chi^2 = 8.513$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.037$) (see Table 51) or wine shops ($\chi^2 = 12.952$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.005$, S) (see Table 52).

Table 51: Crosstab – Supermarket Wine Purchasing and Length of stay in New Zealand.

Crosstab – supermarket/length of stay in New Zealand							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Supermarket	Yes	Count	9	21	8	29	67
		within Length-of-residence	90.0 %	95.5 %	88.9 %	67.4%	79.8 %
	No	Count	1	1	1	14	17
		within Length-of-residence	10.0 %	4.5%	11.1 %	32.6%	20.2 %
Total		Count	10	22	9	43	84
		within Length-of-residence	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.513 ^a	3	.037
Likelihood Ratio	9.436	3	.024
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.178	1	.013
N of Valid Cases	84		
3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.82.			

Table 52: Crosstab analysis of Wine Shop Wine Purchasing and Length of Stay in New Zealand

Crosstab Wine Shops/length of stay in New Zealand							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Wine Shop	Yes	Count	2	5	3	27	37
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	20.0%	22.7%	33.3%	62.8%	44.0%
	No	Count	8	17	6	16	47
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	80.0%	77.3%	66.7%	37.2%	56.0%
Total		Count	10	22	9	43	84
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.952 ^a	3	.005
Likelihood Ratio	13.443	3	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.939	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	84		
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.96.			

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Drinking Wine with Food

A Chi-Square test was conducted to compare length-of-residence in New Zealand and the wine consumption habit of whether wine was drunk with food. There was a significant difference between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 8.425$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.038$). Table 53 shows that the group of Auckland-residing Chinese wine consumers who had lived in New Zealand for more than two years in the survey were more likely to prefer drinking wine with food. Such an outcome implies a change of dietary habit.

Table 53: Crosstab analysis of Drinking Wine with Food and Length-of-Residence in New Zealand

Crosstab Drinking wine with food/ length of stay in New Zealand							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Pair food with wine	Yes	Count	5	20	9	31	65
		%within Length-of-residence	50.0%	87.0%	100.0%	73.8%	77.4%
	No	Count	5	3	0	11	19
		%within Length-of-residence	50.0%	13.0%	.0%	26.2%	22.6%
Total		Count	10	23	9	42	84
		%within Length-of-residence	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.425 ^a	3	.038
Likelihood Ratio	9.840	3	.020
Linear-by-Linear Association	.411	1	.522
N of Valid Cases	84		
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.04.			

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by the Choice of Wine Consumption Sites

A Chi-Squared test was conducted to compare length-of-residence in New Zealand and the choice of wine consumption sites (licensed restaurant/cafe, winery, event occasions, friends' home, own home and 'other'). There was a significant difference between the length-of-residence in New Zealand and the choice of winery as a consumption destination ($\chi^2 = 8.873$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.031$).

Table 54: Length-of-residence by Winery

Crosstab							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Winery	Yes	Count	2	1	1	15	19
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	20.0%	4.3%	11.1%	34.9%	22.4%
	No	Count	8	22	8	28	66
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	80.0%	95.7%	88.9%	65.1%	77.6%
Total		Count	10	23	9	43	85
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.873 ^a	3	.031
Likelihood Ratio	10.195	3	.017
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.752	1	.029
N of Valid Cases	85		
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.01.			

Length-of-residence in New Zealand and Wine Tourism Variables

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Whether Attended a Wine Tour

A Chi-Squared test was conducted to compare length-of-residence in New Zealand and the attendance on a wine tour. There was a significant difference between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 15.800$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.001$). As shown in Table 55, two distinct groups were identified. 60% of Chinese wine consumers who had lived in New Zealand for less than two years had attended a wine tour. Those people might be identified as wine tourists. The other group of Chinese was those who had lived in New Zealand for 10 years or more, where 79.1% reported having attended a wine tour.

Table 55: Cross-tabulated analysis of Attendance on Wine tour by Length-of-residence in New Zealand

Crosstab attendance of wine tour /length of stay in New Zealand							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Whether attended a wine tour before	Yes	Count	6	7	4	34	51
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	60.0%	30.4%	44.4%	79.1%	60.0%
	No	Count	4	16	5	9	34
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	40.0%	69.6%	55.6%	20.9%	40.0%
Total		Count	10	23	9	43	85
		within Length-of-residence in New Zealand	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.800 ^a	3	.001
Likelihood Ratio	16.199	3	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.796	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	85		
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.60.			

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Wine Purchasing on Wine Tour

A Chi-Squared test was conducted to compare the length-of-residence in New Zealand and the wine purchasing behaviour on the wine tour. As shown in Table 56, there was a significant difference between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 10.360$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.016$, S), and the longer the survey respondents had lived in New Zealand, the more likely they were to have purchased wine on a wine tour.

Table 56: Cross-tabulated analysis of Purchasing Wine during Wine Tour by Length-of-residence in New Zealand

Crosstab/ Purchasing wine during wine tour /length of stay in New Zealand							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Whether purchased wine in wine tourism destination	Yes	Count	2	4	4	29	39
		within Length-of-residence	33.3%	57.1 %	100.0%	85.3 %	76.5 %
	No	Count	4	3	0	5	12
		within Length-of-residence	66.7%	42.9 %	.0%	14.7 %	23.5 %
Total		Count	6	7	4	34	51
		within Length-of-residence	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0%	100.0 %	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.360 ^a	3	.016
Likelihood Ratio	10.057	3	.018
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.031	1	.003
N of Valid Cases	51		
a. 5 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .94.			

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by the Preference on Travelling Styles

A Chi-Squared test was conducted to compare length-of-residence in New Zealand and respondents' preference of travelling styles (Independent travelling, packaged tour and 'other' option). There was a significant difference between the length-of-residence in New Zealand and the choice of independent travelling style ($\chi^2 = 10.049$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.018$, S). Auckland-residing Chinese wine consumers who had lived in New Zealand for more than 2 years were more likely to choose independent travelling.

Table 57: Cross-tabulated Analysis on Length-of-residence by Independent Travelling style

Crosstab Independent travelling style/length-of-residence in New Zealand							
			Length-of-residence in New Zealand				Total
			Less than 2 years	2-4 years	5-9 years	10 years or more	
Independent travelling style	Yes	Count	2	6	4	29	41
		within Length-of-residence	33.3 %	85.7 %	100.0 %	85.3 %	80.4 %
	No	Count	4	1	0	5	10
		within Length-of-residence	66.7 %	14.3 %	.0 %	14.7 %	19.6 %
Total		Count	6	7	4	34	51
		within Length-of-residence	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.049 ^a	3	.018
Likelihood Ratio	8.707	3	.033
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.544	1	.019
N of Valid Cases	51		
a. 5 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .78.			

Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Wine Tourism Motivations

A comparison was conducted between the ranges of length-of-residence in New Zealand of the sample regarding their wine tourism motivations. The ANOVA indicated a significant difference between the range of length-of-residence in New Zealand regarding past experience of a wine tour ($F = 3.025$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.034$) and winery restaurant ($F = 3.665$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.016$) respectively (see Table 59). A post-hoc Tukey's test was run to describe the difference. Regarding the influence of past experience, Table 58 shows that the longer the respondents had lived in New Zealand, the more important the past experience was as an influencing factor on their decision-making regarding a wine tourism destination. Also, the groups of respondents who had lived in New Zealand more than five years regarded visiting a winery restaurant as an important factor, while Chinese who had lived in New Zealand for between 2 and 4 years showed the least interest in that (mean = 2.91). However, those resident for less than 2 years were slightly more motivated by the winery restaurant (mean = 3.80).

Table 58: ANOVA Analysis of Length-of-residence in New Zealand by Wine Tour Past Experience

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4. Past experience	Between Groups	13.948	3	4.649	3.025	.034
	Within Groups	122.944	80	1.537		
	Total	136.893	83			
6. Winery Restaurant	Between Groups	14.651	3	4.884	3.665	.016
	Within Groups	107.938	81	1.333		
	Total	122.588	84			

6. Winery Restaurant		
Tukey's HSD ^{a,b}		
Length-of-residence in New Zealand	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
2-4 years	23	2.91
Less than 2 years	10	3.80
10 year or more	43	3.81
5-9 year	9	4.00
Sig.		.063
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.		
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 14.397.		
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.		

4. Past experience		
Tukey HSD ^{a,b}		
Length-of-residence in New Zealand	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
2-4 years	23	2.35
5-9 year	9	2.78
Less than 2 years	10	3.20
10 year or more	42	3.29
Sig.		.186
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.		
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 14.368.		
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.		

Chapter Five – Qualitative Data Analysis and Discussion

Chapter five presents the results of the analysis of the qualitative data collected from the focus group and individual interviews. The aim of the group and individual interviews was to explore in more depth the key research questions and issues, as identified in the introduction, literature review and quantitative data analysis chapters. Participants' learning, perceptions and experiences relating to wine and wine tourism are the main themes addressed in this chapter. The main contents of the chapter are presented in terms of the findings relating to the customers' perspective (results of the focus group) and that of the suppliers' (results of the interviews). The qualitative results are discussed in relation to the survey findings and those reported in the literature.

Focus Group Findings

Socio-demographic Profile

The focus group participants were between the ages of 25 and 40 years old. The wine interests and knowledge levels of the seven focus group participants varied. However, all the wine consumers had some similarities regarding socio-demographic profile. All of them have been in New Zealand around 10 years or more; had a profession; and had an average annual income of between \$40,000 and \$60,000. Meanwhile, all participants had been on wine tours before

General Wine Knowledge

The seven participants classified their wine knowledge levels by themselves. Elva defined herself as a novice; Yu, Sherlock, Leo and Kelvin defined them as being at an intermediate level. Frank and Alex defined themselves as being wine enthusiasts.

Information Sources of Wine Knowledge

Friends/family, books/magazines and websites were the three main information sources of wine knowledge discussed in the focus group. Amongst these, friends from social groups and websites were identified as their primary sources of interest for gaining wine knowledge.

Friends from Social Groups

As reported in Chapter Three, the results from the questionnaire indicated friends/family and books/magazines were the main information sources for the gathering of wine knowledge. In the focus group, Leo and Alex said that they learned about wine and got their wine knowledge from formal wine education. Yu, Sherlock, Kelvin and Frank all referred to Alex (a focus group participant and their mutual friend) as their key source of learning about wine and got to know more about wine by engaging in wine-themed social occasions either together or individually afterwards. They also mentioned that wine-themed social groups such as a wine club were an important platform for them to meet more wine-interested Chinese in Auckland and get engaged in wine-themed activities more frequently. During the focus group, Sherlock recalled “I am affected by Alex to start drinking wine and learning wine. All the books about wines were also from Alex”. These findings indicate the importance of the social group as well as friends for gaining wine understanding. As for Alex himself, he explained a wine club may be the best way (as a social group) to gather those Chinese wine-interested who would like to share wine-themed experiences. It appears then, as Alex claimed, that for Chinese wine drinkers, a social group would contribute to a mutual development of wine knowledge.

For Chinese, to learn wine from a reference group (e.g., a wine club) may be based on the influence of collectivism and the lifestyle of Chinese. However, such a learning pattern may have its limitations. For instance, the most experienced person regarding wine knowledge and interest to some degree determined the overall scope of wine knowledge for the rest of the members in the social group.

Website

When the participants were asked about the use of websites as one of the sources of wine knowledge learning, participants had different views. Frank, Elva, Sherlock, and Leo mentioned that websites acted as a dictionary tool, and played a role in assisting

with the reading of wine information on labels. Kelvin and Yu pointed out the function of reading wine reviews/wine tasting notes, which could partly influence their decision-making on wine purchasing. To gain information about a particular wine's sensory evaluation, Kelvin said his preference was to search for general wine-related website instead of looking at the winery's own website due to the possibility of bias and misleading representations about the wine. However, for gaining winery destination information, the winery's own website was commonly mentioned by participants as a source of information, in order to get a brief picture of it.

Understanding the Wine Label Information

The wine label is a communication link between wine suppliers and wine consumers. Concerning the main country of origin internationally, wines are mostly produced from Italy, France, Spain and the United States (Food and Agriculture Organization., 2012). Therefore, on most wine labels, the language and wine terminology on wine bottles labels is most commonly in English, French, Spanish and Italian. For people with Chinese as their first language, what do New Zealand Chinese wine drinkers think of the wine labels? The theme of wine labels was raised in the focus group to properly understand participants' perceptions about the issue.

Wine Labels and Other Factors Influencing Wine Purchasing Behaviour

For Chinese wine drinkers, two main reasons leading to a failure of understanding the wine labels were identified from the focus group data. They were the proficiency of the individual in the second/third language or the proficiency of the wine information on the labels. In the focus group, participants explained that what they usually did when they could not understand a wine label before purchasing a wine, they would:

Prefer to Choose French Wine

Frank noted: *"whenever I fail to understand a wine label clearly, I prefer to choose French wine because in general I believe French wines are better than others"*. As a businessman doing wine trade between New Zealand and China, Frank also mentioned such a preference applies to most Chinese people. Interestingly, his attitude

towards the preference of French wine was largely accepted by other participants in the focus group.

Prefer to Rely on the Reputation of the Wine

Elva also mentioned: *“if my parents want to buy a wine without any wine knowledge, I will recommend them to buy wines with medals such as Air New Zealand Awarded Wines”*. The medals stuck to the wine were also a clue for Leo and Kelvin. Besides, Kelvin also mentioned the recommendation by famous wine experts such as Robert Parker will also a clue for him to choose a wine unknown to him.

Select by the Attractiveness or Appeal of the Bottle

Frank, Kelvin and Sherlock expressed that they would be attracted by the design of the wine bottles when they could not understand a wine label. Sherlock recalled *Chateauneuf du Pape La Fiole du Pape* (twisted bottle shape) as an example of his opinion in *“when I cannot understand a wine label, the shape of bottle will be appealing for me”*.

Other Factors Influencing Wine Purchasing Behaviour

Based on the above three statements, it is clear that the wine label is essential to express wine information and image by producers. However, are there any other influencing factors for Chinese to purchase a bottle of wine when they are not guided by wine labels? To discover the answer, participants in focus group were asked whether they would purchase a wine without a wine label. Alex said: *“I will be quite curious about a wine selling without a label. If the price is reasonable I would like to have a try”*. Elva and Kelvin pointed out they would like to consider the wine if a tasting was provided. According to their responses, the psychological influence of price and the possibility of a pre-tasting were also important for those curious wine-drinkers to choose a clean bottle wine.

Perceptions of New Zealand Wine

New Zealand wines were discussed by participants in the focus group. Four out of

seven participants had experience of the New Zealand wine trade between New Zealand and China. Those participants reported that, based on their experience, the perception of New Zealand wines was quite different between Chinese people outside New Zealand and New Zealand Chinese.

Experiences of Chinese People in China

Yu, Frank and Alex were businessmen involved in the wine trade, and involved in selling New Zealand wines to the Chinese, while Elva had job opportunities to engage in wine-themed activities. Therefore, they shared some experience on Chinese people's perceptions of New Zealand wines.

New Zealand Wine Styles and the Chinese Market

Yu and Frank stated that New Zealand wines sold in China were comparatively expensive. Alex explained that small wine production from wineries led to a relatively high cost for sure, which could be a disadvantage in the international market for the intermediaries. Moreover, New Zealand wines have little reputation compared to Australian red wines such as *Penfolds* (Australian Brand). Based on their wine trading experience, for most Chinese people within China, the taste of New Zealand red wines were not prominent either. Therefore, it was hard to motivate them to purchase much New Zealand red wines at present. However, as Yu suggested, the international reputation of New Zealand Sauvignon Blanc has built up a good image through marketing efforts, and Chinese people within China preferred to choose Sauvignon Blanc initially if they wished to try a New Zealand wines. To promote Sauvignon Blanc, using the image of "green, organic and pure" was advised by Alex to link Chinese people's image of New Zealand's natural beauty with that of its wine.

Perspectives of New Zealand Chinese

For the participants in focus group, Sherlock mentioned:

I was under age when I came from China to New Zealand. Therefore, I barely had any chance to drink alcoholic beverages in China. Since I was in New Zealand, I picked up Kiwis' lifestyle and drank wines mostly. However, if I went

back to China, I would like to drink Chinese spirits mostly.

Such a phenomenon was echoed by Elva, Kelvin and Leo, who came to New Zealand with similar backgrounds. It is clear that multiple cultural influences affected their lifestyle characteristics and the cross-cultural influence made those characteristics more complicated.

For Frank, he mentioned it was a requirement of the wine business to drink New Zealand wines:

I drink New Zealand wines because I am doing wine trade and I need to know what they are before promoting them. Now, to drink wines become a part of my lifestyle. The more I drink and the more I require from wine in terms of its sophistication. When New Zealand wines cannot satisfy me with the requirement on sophistication, I go for wines from other countries.

Yu added, for some wine-interested Chinese in New Zealand, their wine knowledge was completely different because they had more opportunities to taste New Zealand wines by different types, varieties and styles. Therefore, they knew wines better than Chinese people in China. For himself, he announced himself as a daily drinker for both the requirements of his job and personal interest. Elva added: *“if I want to drink Sauvignon Blanc, I try ones from Marlborough or Auckland, and for reds, I prefer Hawke’s Bay”*. Such a statement, to some extent, revealed their relatively extensive New Zealand wine knowledge. In the meantime, Alex emphasized: *“We are in New Zealand and we want to experience New Zealand culture and learn as much I can. That is why I drink wines here”*

To sum up, the reported perceptions of Chinese and attitudes towards drinking New Zealand wines varied between New Zealand Chinese and Chinese people in China. Most Chinese people in China may drink New Zealand iconic wines due to their worldwide reputation. However, they were generally lacking of the extensive

understanding of New Zealand wines compared to New Zealand Chinese wine drinkers. For those Chinese in New Zealand, to drink wines was partly a reflection of local lifestyle.

Wine Appreciation

In this study information about wine appreciation, perceptions and attitudes of New Zealand Chinese wine consumers was collected by qualitative methods. The questions focused on the reasons for drinking wine, the sensory experiences, and perceptions on wine purchasing and consumption.

Why Drink Wine?

As mentioned in the literature review, fashion, romanticism, social identity and healthy benefits were discovered as the main reasons for drinking wine. For New Zealand Chinese, there were five other reasons detected from the focus group participants' accounts to explain why they drink wine. The reasons they gave were curiosity, the taste of wine, affordable price with good quality, cultural influence, and social group influence.

Curiosity

In the focus group, Leo pointed out an important influencing element – interest. He addressed the fact that New Zealand Chinese sometimes did not try wines very much even though they may stay in New Zealand for a long time if they were not interested. He was also puzzled about how to encourage Chinese people in China to change their cultural behaviour and drink wines instead of Chinese spirits or beers. In response, Alex pointed out that the curiosity to experience new things may be a stimulus for lots of Chinese people to drink wines. Leo added if the story on the back label of the wine bottle was attractive, Chinese people would also purchase the wine and it has more of a chance of being bought

Taste of the Wine

For Chinese wine drinkers in New Zealand, as Alex addressed, *“If there is a bottle of*

whiskey and people like the taste, I am pretty sure they will drink more. To drink wines is likewise. People drink them because they like the taste." Alex took the example of himself as supporting evidence. He recalled the first time that he tried wine was Kumeu River's Chardonnay, which was given by the principal, and he found the wine tasty and from then he started to drink wine.

Affordable Price with Good Quality

Participants in the focus group were asked for their reasons to drink wine. "Fashion", "romantic" and "atmosphere" were words referred to by the participants in general. Kelvin mentioned *"It looks cool with a glass of wine and may have healthy benefit; however, it is not for that particular reason why I drink wines"*. The affordable price with good quality was stated by Kelvin and widely acknowledged by other wine drinkers in the focus group. Alex used the example of purchasing Maotai (Chinese spirits) in New Zealand to express how drinking wine or Remy Martin (French brandy) was much more value for money in New Zealand compared to buying Chinese spirits.

Social Group Influence

Yu and Kelvin stated that neither of them drank wine in New Zealand until they met Alex, who led them to drink wine and changed their drinking habits. As Alex claimed, for Chinese wine drinkers, a social group would build up a positive image of wine drinking, which would attract more Chinese who want to drink wine but were without a social group to share the wine drinking experience.

Cross-cultural influence

Yu and Alex stated that the New Zealand drinking culture provided them with an atmosphere/environment which encouraged them to choose wine instead of Chinese spirits. The participants in the focus group were asked whether they drank wine in China. They reached an agreement that mostly they drank Chinese wines in China because of the influence of the local environment. Alex explained:

When I was in China, I felt good to drink Chinese wines with Chinese. Once you drink half a bottle, you will feel very relaxed to go ahead with a conversation. For

business occasion, perhaps after drinking half a bottle, people started to talk about business and got close on the table, and maybe the following day the deal was signed. That's actually a cultural thing.

The common phenomenon of drinking until intoxicated in China, explained by the participants in the focus group, had penetrated into most Chinese social occasions in New Zealand as well. Frank explained: *"Whenever I organize a party with Chinese, I always plan for around one bottle of wine for each person"*. It implied that the Chinese drinkers were subtly influenced by cross-cultural drinking characteristics.

Dry red wines

As reported in Chapter Three, the outcome of the questionnaire displayed that wine style was the most important attribute influencing the choice of wines. As mentioned in the literature review, off-dry, medium and dry are the terms to describe the different styles of wine. For Chinese, it was acknowledged in the survey that they preferred dry red wines. In the focus group, dry red wines were discussed to understand New Zealand Chinese perceptions. Yu mentioned that, for most regular wine consumers in China, by and large, they did not have too much knowledge about wine types and grape varieties due to the market orientation in China. As Yu explained, most Chinese people in China regarded red wine as the only type of grape wine. Alex added:

For most of Chinese people in China, once they drink any style of red wines (even though it is sweet wine in fact); they would define them as dry red wines. To know the origin of such a misunderstanding, it was suggested that the widespread misleading promotion (only promote dry red wine in China) by influenced wine companies like Changyu (Pioneer), Changcheng (Great Wall) led to such a stereotype.

All the other participants in the focus group were in favour of that statement. To support it, Elva recalled: *"When I was a child, all I heard from advertising was Changcheng dry red wine. Therefore, I thought wine should be dry red wine"*. Frank and Sherlock also stated the dryness was not valued by them (referring to Chinese people in China) at all. In China, if the wines were not white, they would call them dry-red wines. Unlike

Chinese people in China, Yu pointed out the wines in the New Zealand market were divided into white and red by different styles and varieties. Therefore, Chinese people in New Zealand perceived wines totally differently. Alex was in favour of Yu's statement and commented: *"I am pretty sure those Chinese born in New Zealand have a completely different views on dry red wine compared to Chinese people in China."* Besides, Alex also addressed the issue: *"In New Zealand, you have more opportunities to taste wines and you tend to perceive the idea of dry-red wine little by little."*

The perception of 'dry red wine' varying between Chinese people in China and those in New Zealand revealed two facts. First of all, the marketing orientation (promote only dry red wine at the beginning of grape wine business development) in China misled those Chinese people without a solid wine drinking cultural background. Furthermore, possessing some wine knowledge for those Chinese without a wine drinking culture, such as those in the focus group, was helpful to themselves to be able to understand more about the perception of wine in different markets.

Sensory Profile

To examine the Chinese wine palate from its sensory profile, a blind wine tasting was conducted in the focus group. Two white and two red wines made from different grape varieties and in different styles were selected as samples. Those samples were chosen based on the descriptive outcome of preferred wine types in the questionnaire (red = 40.4%, white=30.8%). The four wines were:

Type	Region	Year
Man O War Sauvignon Blanc	Auckland, New Zealand	2011
Weingut Kerpen Wehlener Sonnenuhr Riesling Spätlese	Mosel, Germany	2010
Villa Cerna Chianti Classico DOCG	Tuscany, Italy	2009
The Messenger Cabernet Franc, Merlot and Malbec	Auckland, New Zealand	2009

The participants, each with self-assessed different levels of wine knowledge, were invited to take part in the blind wine tasting and describe all the sensory information they detected from the wines tasted. Their tasting notes were recorded on-site and transcribed to infer their wine palate in general.

Characteristics Most Commonly Perceived

All the tasting notes transcribed were clustered and classified into nodes based on their similarity via NVivo. All the nodes were guided by the ten sensory elements (fruit aromas, non-fruit aromas, earthiness, tannin, alcohol, acidity, wood, sweetness, finish and complexity) in wine tasting. Each node was added to when the characteristics it identified were mentioned to quantify the sensory characteristics detected by participants during the blind tasting. Sweetness (seven mentions) and fruit aromas (seven mentions) were mentioned most during the tastings of the four wines, while acidity was mentioned once only. This may indicate New Zealand Chinese may have a preference for perceiving sweetness and fruity aromas in wines.

Sweetness/Dryness Preference of the Chinese Wine Palate

The characteristics of sweetness/dryness are key influencing factors by which to evaluate the Chinese wine palate. The sweetness of wine is a subjective term. The sweetness from a sensory perspective is determined by the interaction of several factors, including residual sugar in the wine as well as the relative levels of alcohol, acids, and tannins in general (Jackson, 2008; Peynaud, Blouin, Schuster, & Broadbent, 1996).

However, the majority of the focus group participants failed to identify the degree of sweetness (dry or off-dry roughly) correctly. The chosen Sauvignon Blanc was identified by three participants as “off-dry”, which in fact is a dry style wine (T.A: 9.0 PH: 3.06. R.S: 6g/L ALC 14%). Such a misperception of that wine demonstrated it would be difficult to explore consumer preference of sweetness levels from the perceptions of the focus group participants themselves. In other words, to gain the information on Chinese preferred sweetness levels from the wine suppliers' perspective might be more valid.

Alcohol Content as Related to Wine Preference

Frank in the focus group noted: *“To drinking wine, as a daily lifestyle, is as much as drinking water”*. Is the motivation for drinking wine related to the alcohol per volume (hereafter ABV)? Do Chinese in general feel the same way? For the targeted Chinese in the focus group sample, most of them were born in China. The Chinese drinking culture in China is famous for its spirits, which has an ABV ranging from 41% to 59%. So compared to this, the ABV scope of table wine (8% - 15%) for most Chinese is not strong. However, as Sherlock pointed out: *“some of us came here (New Zealand) under the legal drinking age. Therefore, we did not have the chance to try Chinese spirits at home, wine are the daily consumption here (New Zealand). But if I went back to China, I would like to drink Chinese wines”*. Sherlock's interpretation implied a possibility that some New Zealand Chinese start drinking using relatively low-alcoholic beverages. Based on above statements, the ABV preference for Chinese would vary across different cases. Therefore, it was difficult to consider alcohol as an indicator for wine preference for Chinese.

Wine Purchasing

The outcome of the questionnaire showed that the supermarket and wine shops were the main choices of places to purchase wine. However, what are the specific reasons for choosing either of those places for wine purchasing? This question was discussed in the focus group. While this occurred, the topic of online purchasing was also raised

by participants themselves so they had a further discussion.

Supermarket

When referring to the supermarket as a place to purchase wine, the focus group participants referred to such key words as 'convenience', 'much more familiar wines tasted before', 'valuable price' and 'regular consumption (e.g., drinking and cooking)'. However, Leo mentioned the limitation of purchasing wines in supermarket. He elaborated:

Supermarket is a place to buy wines under \$20 NZ dollars or over \$100 NZ dollars, but there is a big gap between them. And also, for a bottle of wine over \$100 NZ dollars, you have to ask for the staff to open the cellar for you and it will cost you a lot of time. While you are in supermarket, you do not want to spend that time. However, when you are in cellar door, the only thing there is to select wines, and therefore you can spend more time and find more varieties.

To sum up, participants felt the supermarket was restricted by the lack of specialized assistance in regards to wine, and diversity of wines for more sophisticated wine consumers.

Wine Shop

Regarding wine shops, Yu mentioned wine shops provided discount on wines and there were staff introducing the wines. Kelvin agreed with that opinion and pointed out specials were provided by wine shops with more choices of different country-of-origin. The survey results showed there was a tendency for those Auckland-residing Chinese wine drinkers who had lived in New Zealand for longer to be more likely to purchase wine from wine shops. Such a fact was questioned by Elva (who had been living in New Zealand for 10 years). She stated "*If I want to get a wine for a special occasion, I go to the wine shop. For daily drinking like just with dinner or every drink, I go for supermarket, they got good deals and convenient*". When enquiring about the wine brand/type she preferred to purchase from supermarket, Elva addressed she mostly bought wines she had already tasted from supermarket and mostly premium wines

from wine shops. The specialized assistance available at wine shops was suggested as a guarantee to reduce the risk of purchasing the wrong wine.

Online Purchasing

For the choices of wine purchasing sites, Alex put forward the notion of online purchasing and enquired about participants' views on it. "Convenience as door-to-door service", "recommendations from well-known person like Robert Parker" and "credibility of the wine suppliers" were mainly referred to as positive responses in the focus group. However, the disadvantage of online purchasing was also mentioned. Bad experience of the delivery service was shared by participants as a major factor preventing them from considering online purchasing. It was clear that the quality of after-sale service was a concern and would need to be addressed in any further studies of e-shops.

Wine Tourism

For the discussion of wine tourism, the categories of both domestic tourists and inbound tourists were included based on the focus group participants' perceptions and experiences. Therefore, in this section, the data analysis was categorized into domestic tourism and inbound tourism separately.

Domestic Wine Tourism

All the participants in the focus group had been on a wine tour within New Zealand and some of them had had overseas experiences of wine tours as well. Therefore, they were all actual wine tourists. They discussed questions about choices of destinations, motivations, travelling styles, characteristics and repeat visits as actual wine tourists.

Choice of Wine-related Tourism Destinations

The destination of wine tourism was discussed in the focus group as the place for wine-themed activities. Based on such a uniform recognition, participants listed their destinations. All of them had been to at least one of the Auckland wine regions such as Kumeu, Matakana, Henderson and Waiheke Island. Such an outcome confirmed the importance of proximity on the choices of wine tourism destination, as found in the

survey. Besides, for wine Intermediates and Enthusiasts, Kelvin and Leo raised the point that the reputation of the winery would be a reason to get away from Auckland and go further. Leo also indicated the worry about driving due to the purpose of wine consumption during a wine tour.

Travelling Styles

As for the travelling styles, all the participants revealed their preference was for travelling independently with a group of friends, ranging from two to ten. Even though Alex stated he had experience wine touring alone, he insisted “I like to go with friends”. It was clear that an independent trip accompanied by a social group was the most popular style for New Zealand Chinese wine tourists involved in this study.

Characteristics Influencing Choice of Wine Tour

The participants were asked what activities they engaged in during a wine trip, the responses were summarized into two aspects based on their responses. One was wine-themed activities such as cellar door wine tasting, experiencing a vintage harvest, onsite wine education, and meeting the winemakers. The other was to experience local attractions in the wine regions such as local food and local scenic attractions. Participants responses regarding firstly, wine-themed characteristics and secondly, wine region characteristics, are describe below.

Winery Environment

Elva centred on the importance of the winery environment as an important influencing factor for a wine tour. She explained: “*it will be pretty nice if they [winery] introduce how to produce the wine and what makes their wines special from others.*” Kelvin added the importance of the environment by emphasizing the natural views.

Wine-themed activities at the cellar door

Cellar door was discussed as the main source for a wine tour destination and premise for wine-themed activities. Subjects about that were widely discussed from wine tasting and wine purchasing aspects below:

Attitude towards chargeable wine tasting at cellar door

Wine tasting at the cellar door was discussed regarding its charge and wine quality. Alex pointed out it was acceptable if the wine tasting was not expensive because all in all it was for the purpose of taste. For him, a charge of around \$10 to \$20 NZ dollars was acceptable if the cellar door provided a range of wines.

Wine purchasing at cellar door

The group was asked if they had a propensity to purchase wines at the cellar door after a wine tasting. All the participants in the focus group considered wine tasting as the approach for them to purchase wine they liked. Frank, Sherlock and Kelvin had a similar view that they used to purchase wine after a wine tasting because of lower prices, irrespective of the quality. However, due to the many wineries they had visited, their attitude had changed. So now, Frank and Sherlock said they only purchased wines if the quality was good. Therefore, they did not mind being charged a little for the wine tasting.

Kelvin shared his recent experience on visiting a winery and told that the strategy of either donating to charity or purchasing wines made him feel more comfortable rather than a small amount of compulsory charge for wine tasting.

Other attractions in the wine region

The group was asked if they would still go on a wine tour even though no wine tasting was provided at the cellar door. Sherlock said that would depend on the purpose of the trip but he also indicated: *"I would feel tired if I can only visit wineries (referred to scenery) because most of them are similar"*. Such a statement met with approval from Kelvin as well. Alex and Frank indicated that they would like to visit other local attractions during a wine-related trip. Alex explained that besides experiencing local cultural attractions, to hunt hare in wine regions such as Central Otago and match cooked game with wine was also an interesting activity he would like to engage in wine regions.

Repeat visits to the same destination

Repeat visitation was put forward and discussed in the focus group from a tourism aspect. Frank, Kelvin and Sherlock presented they would like to revisit a winery because of wines they tasted and liked as well as the reputation of the winery. Leo pointed out the accessibility to the winery would be considered by him as well.

Inbound Wine Tourism

Besides domestic wine tourism, inbound wine tourism was discussed by participants in the focus group and they shared some experience and views on it. Participants identified several ways that wine tourism could be better marketed to Chinese inbound tourists, which are outlined in the following section.

A Wine Tour can be a Themed-activity in a Package Tour Product for Inbound Tourists

Frank addressed this point:

In general, Chinese people do not accept New Zealand wine, however, they do accept New Zealand tourism and travelling to New Zealand has a promising market share. Therefore, to promote New Zealand wine tourism, instead of planning it as a singular themed tour, to pack it with other themed activities as a packaged tour will be a better choice.

Yu agreed with Frank's view by saying:

Long before, Chinese people failed to discover the diverse beauty of New Zealand, therefore, New Zealand was always bonded with Australia as a minor part in a long-distant twelve day's trip. For New Zealand wine tour, unless the tourists are wine-related professions or for wine-related business purpose, few of mass Chinese tourists would stop by New Zealand wineries rather than Australian wineries.

Sherlock emphasized that most of New Zealand and Australian-bound package tours would spend around eleven to fourteen days in total with only three days being in New Zealand. For those three days, most of the time was consumed in Auckland and

Rotorua pursuing the natural views. In his view, even though wine tour can be a themed activity, how to sell the ideas to travel agencies/the intermediaries could be a problem.

A Wine Tour can be a Themed-activity for Independent and High-end Inbound Tourists

Kelvin evaluated inbound wine tourism from a business aspect and pointed out the negative factors as “high cost”, “low economy scale” and “unvaried content”, which would reduce the competitiveness of a New Zealand wine tour for mass tourists. Elva, working for Air New Zealand, addressed this point by saying:

For most of inbound Chinese tourists, they came by packaged tour, therefore, they did not have a choice to choose their tour content and local travel agencies had not regarded wine tour as a main theme due to its low profit. However, for the younger generation travelling to New Zealand individually, they choose what they want to attend. For that case, wine tour can be a choice. Moreover, I saw a lot of groups on the flight organized by the companies themselves. They prefer to have detailed trips, and for that case, a theme like wine tour would be provided and accepted easier.

To sum up, both independent inbound Chinese tourists and high-end customers may be potential wine tourists in New Zealand.

Link New Zealand Wine-themed Activities with the Positive Tourism Image

Statistics shows a growing number of Chinese tourists travel to New Zealand each year (Ministry of Tourism, 2009a; Ministry of Tourism., 2010). Such a phenomenon may result from the worldwide image of New Zealand being green and clean. The group was asked to identify any strategies to link New Zealand wine-related tourism with such a positive tourism image. Alex suggested:

If those Chinese had opportunities to experience the local cultural product like wine and food with good service quality, they might have a good memory. When they returned to China, to source the memory, they would try to purchase the

products in memory again.

It was clear that the image of “organic” and “sustainable” associated with New Zealand wines gave them the competitive edge for inbound Chinese tourists. To build up that positive image in relation to a New Zealand wine tour, as a mechanism of New Zealand wine promotion, Yu suggested, called for cooperation between wineries, New Zealand tourism and the intermediaries involved. Alex was partly in favour of his statement and explained:

The funding for tourism is increasing year by year and the executive force is questioned by its transparency. To promote New Zealand wines, most of work is done by wine companies instead of related government departments. If New Zealand government want New Zealand wines to stand out, more efforts are expected.

Alex named examples of Spanish and Australian wine promotion strategies to further support his ideas.

In summary, most focus groups participants reported that the key influences on their own wine choices were by reputation of wine, the understanding of wine information and attractiveness of the bottle of wines as well as price and taste. Furthermore, the essential factors on their own wine tour choices were by the understanding of destination from websites and word-of-mouth, especially from friends met in social groups. For wine and wine-related tourism promotion, to sell the ideas of New Zealand wine and wine tourism and build up a good image internationally with an effort of government, stakeholders from wine industry and tourism industry is the key from focus group participants' responses.

Interviews Findings

Two in-depth interviews with wine producers were conducted in this research. Robin was the owner of Ransom Winery and had wine business in China. Mark was the manager of Villa Maria and had experience with the Chinese market for many years. Meanwhile, both of them had an academic background in professional wine studies.

Therefore, they had abundant knowledge about wine and wine-making as well as experience with the Chinese market. Therefore, even though the sample size of interviewees was small, their interpretations were a good indicator of the Chinese market due to their diverse experience. Semi-structured interviews were conducted and lasted around one hour each. The contents of the interviews covered the interviewees' perceptions of the profile of Chinese winery visitors, their wine knowledge, their wine appreciation and wine tourism for Chinese market.

The Profile of Chinese Wine Tourists

The Boutique Winery Perspective

Ransom winery is a boutique winery because its wine production is around 5,000 cases per year. Robin indicated that he cared about quality more than quantity regarding wines. For Chinese winery visitors, Robin mentioned:

Chinese come here by groups on weekends ... often family... they obvious live here [Auckland]...close to Auckland... come by road without even knowing our existence before... or small group of younger people [referred to the researcher's age when asked further... they probably come here [Auckland] to learn English.

Robin was asked about their target group of customers and he explained that he targeted potential visitors residing in Auckland mostly due to the small volume of production. Such an interpretation implied that most of the winery visitors for boutique wineries may come from within the wine regions or nearby. A wine tour to a boutique winery was more like a recreational activity on weekends, which is a reflection of the local lifestyle. Therefore, those Chinese in the market share mainly visited the winery independently. According to Robin's description, the age of those winery visitors was probably between middle of 20s and middle of 30s.

The Large-scale Winery Perspective

Conversely, Mark from Villa Maria had a different experience of the Chinese visitors' socio-demographic profile. He stated: "*most of Chinese came here (Villa Maria) by*

groups and few were independent travelers....They usually come here by bus organized by travel agencies probably... 20 to 40 people in total". To sum up, the profile varied between boutique winery and large-scale winery regarding visitors' country of origin.

General Wine Knowledge

The subject of Chinese wine knowledge was discussed during the interviews. Chinese wine drinkers' understanding of wine labels and the stereotype about Chinese people and dry-red wines were the main topics the interviewees addressed.

Wine Label

Regarding wine labels, Robin (owner of Ransom Winery) declared:

When I started to export wines to China, I sold wines with good qualities. However, Chinese people did not get it from wine labels. To demonstrate the authentic information, I designed the back label in Chinese underneath the original ones and give their correct information.

It was clearly implied the importance of language for wine label understanding.

Mark also found the Chinese tour guides at Villa Maria had difficulties translating wine label information because they did not really understand those wine labels themselves. From the wine suppliers' experience, it implied wine knowledge was important for all the stakeholders involved in wine tourism.

Preference for French Wine

The phenomenon of the Chinese preference for French wine was mentioned during the interview, in order to learn about the wine suppliers' perceptions. Robin mentioned his wine business in Shanxi, China. He interpreted from his experience that most Chinese people in China perceived wines should be red and that red wines in a Bordeaux style were the best. He was worried about Chinese people's stereotypes about wines from France and explained a business trick:

... [That] lots of wines labelled as French wines were actually produced from China... it

was said the overall volume of those wines produced from French first growths sold in China were largely beyond the actual volume of production reported from France.

It implied the existence of “fake labeled wines” and that customers were not able to tell the fact from fiction by labels. It also indicated a lack of wine knowledge had been taken advantage of by some businessmen in the pursuit of profit.

For French wines, Mark pointed out:

What the French have done to Chinese is a big disturbance, forcing them to go for big wines when their taste may not get there...French generally as a nation like their wine old with less fruity flavour, however, Kiwis prefer a lot of fruity aromas in wines ... All types of wines should be acceptable in general.

Based on Robin's and Mark's statements, it was clear that in the wine market, the lack of fundamental wine knowledge was a barrier to Chinese customers to perceiving wine products accurately, as well as making sure their rights are protected.

Wine Appreciation

Chinese Wine Palate

Mark from Villa Maria noted a typical Chinese wine drinking phenomenon:

'This is what they [New Zealand Chinese] tell me, they [Chinese] tell me, they go to have a dinner with some Chinese visitors, they [New Zealand Chinese] brought a quite expensive Pinot Noir, really burgundy, \$200 NZ dollars a bottle. When they [New Zealand Chinese] go to the toilet the Chinese visitors put Coca-Cola or green tea in the Pinot Noir.'

Such behaviour of pouring soft-drinks like Coca Cola or Sprite into fine wines was referred to a great many times as a dining experience even though the phenomenon was criticized by many insiders in the wine industry such as Janics Robinson (Master of Wine) as “*that's not how the wine was meant to be enjoyed*”. Why do some Chinese drink wine that way? A Burgundy Pinot Noir may be medium to full bodied and relatively

dry. The reasons may result from the lack of sweetness, according to Mark. A statement by Robin confirmed Mark's hypothesis. Robin said: "*They [Chinese visitors to his winery]) came here with the ideas they liked reds, but I found them liking sweet wines much more in terms of their enjoyment.*"

Mark also indicated a possibility of a misunderstanding of their (Chinese wine drinkers) true palate. He explained:

'Frenchmen have been drinking wine for ages; they are there [their palate] for big reds. However, Chinese people are more like five minutes drinkers ... as baby wine drinkers..., they like wine with a lot of sugars in it, say New Zealand late-harvesting/ noble botrytis Riesling.'

To sum up, from wine suppliers' perspectives, the sweetness came first for a great many Chinese wines drinkers. Such a result implied that New Zealand Sauvignon Blanc may not be a good fit for Chinese due to their wine palate.

Wine Palate is Developing Based on Experience

However, as Mark pointed out, a wine palate would develop based on consistent consumption or particular wine styles over time. He explained a possible route of wine palate evolvement: "*naturally.... started from drinking white wines, sweet to dry... try chardonnay more oaked...soft red Pinot Noir... go big red Merlot, Syrah, Cabernet, lots of tannin, but it takes time and wines*". To accommodate most of the Chinese visitors' wine palates, Mark brought out their Pinot Gris and Gewürztraminer and stressed that those two varietals were pleasant for most Chinese people's wine palate based purely on tasting. At the same time, he also stated: "*30 years ago, Kiwis would drink those two because those were the main varieties we used to have... soft, smooth, more sugars and easy to drink... but now they require taste for more oaked, dry and tannin*". Therefore, sophisticated wine drinkers may require more elements in wine than those of entry level drinkers. Such an inference would also apply for Chinese wine consumers.

Wine Tourism

Characteristics of Wine Tourism

According to the two interviewees' narration, the Chinese winery visitors within Auckland tended to be more independent regarding their travelling style while the Chinese wine travelers from outside New Zealand relied more on the intermediaries and pre-arranged tours.

Wine Suppliers' Attitudes to Wine Tourism

Based on Mark and Robin's attitudes, large-scale wineries were more positive towards engaging in worldwide image branding through wine tourism than boutique wineries. However, both of them showed positive and negative attitudes.

Positive Attitudes to Wine Tourism

Mark identified that Chinese people may choose to go to a winery because of its difference compared to regular holiday attractions. To indicate they provide a quality and qualified service, Mark showed the researcher their *Qualmark* certification and something the winery did to attract more visitors from all over the world; and they also attempted to build up a good image and reputation by engaging more wine-themed activities. Robin also noted "*We are happy to have Chinese people booking here by groups for wine tasting and food... that is important for us to provide ambience.*"

In addition, Mark stated that the purchasing levels of wines of Chinese people from outside New Zealand was not as strong as locals due to the restriction of legal carry-on bottles of wine on an international flight per person. Therefore, Mark had a preference for local visitors rather than internationals. A similar statement on locals and international visitors was made by Robin as well. He mentioned that few international visitors would choose the winery restaurant while the locals preferred to spend a day dining at wineries. Therefore, they showed more positive attitudes on wine tourism regarding domestic wine tourists rather than international tourists.

Negative Attitudes to Wine Tourism

However, negative attitudes were not ignored. Mark pointed out that most of Chinese visiting the winery in organized groups were not so interested in wines and they preferred to stay outside the cellar door smoking rather than learning wine knowledge. Meanwhile, the difficulty of language was also an issue. For Robin, he pointed out that the shortage of staff led to a restriction on wine tours because of the cost. Also, concerning the cost of media promotion, Robin believed word-of-mouth was the best for small business.

Factors Impacting on Marketing as a Wine Tourism Destination

From the suppliers' perspectives, there were several factors to determine their level of targeting of the Chinese market. They were wine-themed activities, winery capacity and accessibility to winery.

Wine-themed Activities

Villa Maria provided wine tasting, winery dining and a guided wine tour while Ransom focused on wine tasting and a restaurant service. When asked whether they (wineries) were interested in promoting more wine-themed activities to Chinese, Mark was concerned about the financial benefits while Robin pointed out the significance of education. Overall, they showed a positive attitude towards the development of more wine-related activities to Chinese.

Winery Capacity

Villa Maria had five separate rooms to set up wine tasting in and also provided extra staff to work, therefore, Villa Maria showed the capacity to receive groups of visitors while Ransom was restricted by their capacity.

Accessibility

Mark described that most Chinese coming to Villa Maria were Chinese people from outside New Zealand and that they went to nearby Mangere Bridge to shop for colostrum-based products and then stopped by Villa Maria because it was close to the

airport. Instead, Ransom did not have that advantage so that the winery may attract more local winery visitors in general.

Summary

In accordance with the type of research question referred to in the literature review, information about perceptions of wine and wine-related tourism for domestic tourism and inbound tourism was collected from both consumers and wine producers through a focus group and individual interviews. In terms of socio-demographic profile, the general age of Chinese winery visitors found in the research were younger compared to the corresponding information mentioned in the literature review. With a cross-cultural background, the New Zealand Chinese who took part in the focus group had a more sophisticated perception and profound understanding of wines due to the influences of the New Zealand wine drinking culture and lifestyle. Compared to Chinese people in China, the proper understanding of wine type and the sophisticated needs for the choice of wine purchasing and consumption for the Auckland-residing Chinese indicated the importance of wine knowledge and corresponding education for them as wine consumers and winery visitors. The local wineries, both boutique/small and relatively large-scale, also provided abundant wine-related activities as well as approaches for visitors to be educated on-site. To appreciate wines, those respondents in the sample showed a higher level of interest in the taste of wine rather than its image. That phenomenon contributed to the development of the wine palate of wine-interested New Zealand Chinese as well as stimulating their involvement of wine-related tourism.

Chapter Six – Conclusion

As demonstrated in the literature review chapter, to date the academic study of wine-related tourism from a Chinese perspective has been neglected. Therefore, the aim of this research was to fill the knowledge gap by studying Chinese wine-related tourism behaviour. However, as found in research studies by Hall (2000), and Carlsen and Charters (2006), the behaviour of winery visitors from diverse nations and even different wine regions can vary. Therefore, to optimize the validity of the data in this research, all the Chinese participants in the study sample were from only one of New Zealand's wine regions – Auckland. As reported in the literature review chapter, for most wine consumers, the consumption and purchasing of wine is believed to be a stimulus for participating in wine-related tourism. In other words, wine consumption behaviour is a motivator for taking part in wine-related tourism.

Therefore, in this research, the behaviours of both wine drinking and consumption and wine-related tourism were studied. Research techniques were employed to gain the information required in line with the nature of research questions proposed in the introduction chapter (see Table 1). To draw a conclusion in this present chapter, all the analysed data are presented in the following sections according to the nine objectives mentioned in Chapter One:

- (1) To comprehend the socio-demographic profile of Auckland-resided Chinese wine consumers and winery visitors and its possible relationship to the participation of wine-related tourism.
- (2) To discover the characteristics of research participants' wine consumption behaviour.
- (3) To understand the study participants' perceptions of wine and wine-related tourism.
- (4) To evaluate the study participants' wine knowledge levels from a self-assessed aspect.

- (5) To explore the study participants' wine palate.
- (6) To examine the possibility of a relationship between wine consumption and wine tourism.
- (7) To test the hypothesis, that there is a correlation between length-of-residence in New Zealand and:
 - a) wine knowledge levels,
 - b) wine consumer variables;
 - c) wine-related tourism variables.
- (8) To test the hypothesis, that there is a correlation between study participants' wine knowledge levels and:
 - a) wine consumer variables;
 - b) wine-related tourism variables;
- (9) To compare the above results for New Zealand Chinese with other existing published data for corresponding groups.

Outcomes of the Descriptive Objectives

Socio-demographic Profile

The outcomes of the socio-demographic profile of the sample were divided into two groups: those who were wine consumers only; and wine tourists (referred to as G1 and G2 respectively). Fifty one out of those 86 Auckland-residing Chinese in the sample were identified by a filtered question to have been on a wine tour (59.3%). The linkage between G1 and G2 regarding their wine and wine tour behaviour was designed to be examined through the results of the questionnaire. However, as referred to in the literature review, wine-related tourism is a specialized product for those wine-interested to meet their sophisticated needs with regards to wine. Factors like annual income and spare time were directly considered as potentially being strongly linked to the ability to pay to go on a wine tour. Therefore, in this research, the difference in socio-demographic variables was examined between G1 and G2 to test the possibility of a link. However, there were no significant differences in demographics found to link G1 and G2 within wine appreciation and wine tourism variables, potentially due to the

uneven and small sample sizes of G1 and G2. Six variables (gender, age, birthplace, annual income, highest qualification achieved and length-of-residence in New Zealand) were employed to link G1 and G2.

The outcomes of the quantitative data analysis indicated that Chinese people between the ages of 25 to 34 years with undergraduate backgrounds occupied the largest share of wine consumers (43%) and tourists (47.1%). In addition, most of the participants in the sample had been in New Zealand for ten years or more, which indicated they were citizens rather than inbound tourists. Chinese people in the study sample who were in the Auckland region for the purposes of wine consumption and tours were more likely to be male. In terms of nationality, more than half of the sample was from North China.

The only difference between G1 and G2 was the annual income. The largest proportion of Chinese wine consumers (G1) in the sample had an annual income of \$20,001 to \$40,000 NZD, while that of G2 was \$40,001 to \$60,000 NZD. According to the above results, those findings in regards to socio-demographic factors related to the initiation of wine tours revealed the significance of annual income levels, which was one of the influencers of wine consumers deciding to commence a wine tour.

Wine Consumer Behaviour

To study wine consumer behaviour, the factors of the information sources of wine (Friends/Family, Education, Past Experience, Radio/TV, Books/Magazines, Website and Others), preference of wine types (Sparkling, White, Rosé and Red wines), choice of wine purchasing sites (Winery/Cellar door, Supermarket, Wine Shop, Online and Other) and the corresponding influencing factors, the drinking style (drinking wine alone or pairing food) and choice of wine consumption sites (Restaurant/Café, Winery, Eventual occasions, Friends' home, Own home or Other) were selected. The largest proportion of study participants reported that they gained wine information from family or friends (27.4%), followed by the sources of books/magazines (21.0%) and websites (18.3%). Regarding the preference of wine type, 47.6% of the sample reported a

preference for red wines (the most liked type in the sample), while only 6.5% of the sample stated they preferred Rosé (least liked type), while the remainder preferred white wines (36.3%) and sparkling wines (9.7%), respectively. However, the result of qualitative analysis interpreted New Zealand Chinese and Chinese people in China perceived red wine differently. From the focus group and interviews' perspective, without a broad wine cultural background, most Chinese people in China were affected by Chinese market and they chose dry-red wine most while their actual palates were in favour of considerable sweetness in wine. For New Zealand Chinese in the focus group, they were found to have more profound knowledge on wine. Therefore, New Zealand Chinese may have a more in-depth understanding of what style of red wines they prefer.

To purchase wine, the supermarket was the first choice with 47.9% of the sample indicating this preference which was followed by specialized wine shops (26.8%). A Likert-scale (1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important.) was applied to comprehend the significance of wine attributes (Style, Price, Variety, Country-of-origin and Brand) on purchasing. The outcome of that analysis indicated that the style ($\chi^2 = 3.85$, $SD = 1.122$) and price ($\chi^2 = 3.28$, $SD = 1.155$) were the two most important influencing factors in their decision-making.

Regarding the choice of wine consumption sites, respondents most frequently reported that consuming at their own home was their choice (34.1%); followed by consuming at friends' homes (25.8%). To drink wine, 76.5 % of the sample stated a preference for pairing food with wine. The choice of wine consumption sites and drinking style implies that consuming wine has become rooted in the life of the Auckland-residing Chinese in the sample and has become a lifestyle pattern of. Therefore, the dominant motivations of drinking for fashion or status for Chinese people in China might not apply to New Zealand Chinese.

Wine Visitors' Behaviour

To study wine visitors' behaviour, the influence of the factors of choice of destination, levels of wine purchasing, travelling expenditure, travelling styles, information sources and wine-related tourism motivations were examined.

Regarding the choice of winery destinations, 78.4% of the sample indicated that the Auckland wine region was their preferred choice. Such an outcome indicates the importance of geographical accessibility for wine visitors. Most of the sample (88%) reported purchasing wines during a wine tour; and most (42%) reported expenditure per day of below \$100 NZD. Unlike traditional mass tourism, the sample engaged in wine-related tourism was dominated by an independent travelling style (80.4%). To gain winery information, word-of-mouth (23%) was identified as the most popular approach while a website (22.3%) was the second popular source.

A Likert-scale (1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important.) was used to understand Auckland-residing Chinese winery visitors' motivation. As shown in Table 29, most of the wine tourists in the sample were highly motivated by the purpose of relaxation ($\chi^2 = 4.55$, $SD = 0.807$), appreciating scenery on the trip ($\chi^2 = 4.10$, $SD = 0.946$) and geographical accessibility of the wine tourism destinations ($\chi^2 = 3.94$, $SD = 0.628$). Accommodation was assessed as the least important influencing factor in the sample ($\chi^2 = 2.84$, $SD = 1.454$). In terms of being offered low cost or free-of-charge wine tasting (which is the case in much of New Zealand at present), to be able to have a wine tasting at a reduced-cost was found not important to most of the sample ($\chi^2 = 2.85$, $SD = 1.079$). Exploratory factor analysis was employed to summarize the 14 motivators investigated in the sample. Five clusters were identified as being influential: the wine, the winery service facilities, educational significance, recreational value and wine tourism destination image.

Results of the Exploratory and Explanatory Objectives

Informed by the results of the questionnaire analysis, follow-up questions were

developed for administration in the focus group and interviews to understand the reasons for those outcomes. Verification of those outcomes was also required, considering the possible bias caused by the restricted sample size. Also, as stated in the introduction and methodology chapters, the questions about perceptions addressed in the survey required corresponding qualitative interpretation for validity. To sum up, the questions addressed in the focus group about perceptions of wine-related tourism were classified into two levels: one concentrating on the characteristics of wine itself; and the other was about their perception from a tourism perspective.

Relationship between Perception of Wine-related Tourism and Wine Consumption Behaviour

For the sources of wine knowledge, the results of the questionnaire analysis demonstrated that friends and family were the main source used. In the focus group, the participants explained that social groups were the primary source of detailed information. As for websites as the second popular source, the participants in the focus group clarified that their preference was to access winery-owned websites to gain an initial impression of the wine region where the winery was located. However, general websites were preferred for obtaining wine information, considering the possible bias existing in the winery-owned websites.

According to the secondary data (as reported in the literature review chapter), Chinese people prefer to choose French wines because of their reputation. That idea was raised in the focus group and explained in further detail by the participants. For most Chinese people born in China, French wines have been widely promoted and advertised due to their global availability. Therefore, without a solid cultural background of wines, Chinese people in China were affected by the image of French wine from a marketing aspect and perceived that France was the producer of the best red wines and preferred to purchase and consume wines from France regardless of the wine quality and wine styles the Chinese people truly enjoyed. However, for most New Zealand Chinese, the information about wine from the New Zealand wine market

guided those Chinese to understand wines more thoroughly and acknowledge a greater variety in wine quality, styles and grape varieties. Meanwhile, the local lifestyle of drinking wine and pairing it with food further affected their wine consuming behaviour and appreciation of wine.

As described in the literature review chapter, the wine label was mentioned as the primary information communication channel between wine suppliers and wine consumers. The participants' views about the importance of the wine label were collected based on their explanations in the focus group. To sum up, the proficiency of the language used on the wine label and the wine consumers' wine knowledge levels were identified as two important influencing factors for Chinese people to comprehend the information about the wine from the wine label. Focus group participants reported that if Chinese people found it difficult to understand a wine label, they would conform to certain stereotypes, such as choosing French wine, reputable wines or selecting wines by the attractiveness or appeal of the bottle. According to the focus group participants' responses, the psychological influence of price and the possibility of a pre-tasting were also important for those curious wine-drinkers to choose a clean bottle wine. However, the participants in the focus group showed a higher level of requirement for specific characteristics of the taste of a wine, which implies that compared to Chinese people in China, New Zealand Chinese wine consumers may care more about the taste of a wine, rather than its public image and what was on the label. Besides the taste of wine, curiosity, affordable price with good quality, influence of social groups and cross-cultural background were also the variables that motivate the New Zealand Chinese' wine consumption.

When it comes to the topic of New Zealand wines, those participants in the focus group divided the Chinese market into two market segments. They were defined as: 1) New Zealand Chinese; and 2) Chinese outside New Zealand. From the participants' point-of-view, generally, New Zealand Chinese wine consumers have a more in-depth

knowledge of New Zealand wines and most of them have a preference for fruity-forward aromas when drinking wines. According to the group, this is influenced by the predominant local wine characteristics. Most of New Zealand-style wines emphasize the presentation of fruity-flavours and therefore New Zealand Chinese picked up that element most when drinking wines. As explained by the wine producers interviewed, Chinese people by-and-large prefer wines with a high content of sweetness regardless of alcohol content. However, according to the suppliers, the palate (i.e. wine style preference) of wine drinking would evolve along with the drinking experience and accumulation of understanding of different wine styles. Compared to Chinese people in China, New Zealand Chinese have more opportunities to engage in wine-related activities and train their wine palate as well as being educated with wine knowledge. For that reason, New Zealand Chinese wine consumers have a more in-depth understanding of wines and possibly could appreciate more sophisticated wines.

Relationship between Perception of Wine-related Tourism and Tourism Behaviour

For information about a winery, word-of-mouth was described by interview participants from both the consumers and wine suppliers in the study as the most commonly used source, due to the consideration of credibility in the source of information provided.

When it came to the topic related to wine-related tourism, two market segments were identified by the participants in the focus group: 1) domestic wine-related tourism and 2) inbound wine-related tourism. Participants from both the focus group and individual interviews explained that domestic Chinese are the main market compared to inbound Chinese tourists, because of their levels of wine knowledge and wine purchasing patterns. Participants identified that domestic Chinese winery visitors took part in more in-depth and extensive independent wine tours and were more likely to be actively involved in wine-related activities at cellar doors. In addition, domestic Chinese more

frequently revisited a winery due to the accessibility and convenience to the destination.

As described by the study participants interviewed, most inbound Chinese winery visitors are those on organised mass tours, organized by travel agencies. Wine-related tourism is just one theme of a package tour and they are not necessarily interested in that. From wine suppliers' perspective, they were hoping to educate more Chinese people to comprehend New Zealand wines and build up a good image. However, for most inbound Chinese winery visitors, they were passive and not engaged in wine-related activities; and the lack of proficiency in a second language (English in New Zealand) was a barrier to communication between wine producers and winery visitors (including the intermediaries such as tour guides). To educate those Chinese people calls for more strategies such as specialised advertising regarding wine and wine-related tourism to arouse their interest in wine and wine-related tourism. On the other hand, according to the promotion of New Zealand wines and wine-related tourism, more independent and high-end inbound Chinese winery visitors (i.e. businessmen and international wine traders) were expected to play roles as ambassadors for the further advertising of New Zealand wines and wine-related tourism industry.

Outcome of the Evaluative Objective

As reported in the literature review chapter, studies have found that wine knowledge level is an important indicator by which to classify wine consumers and those findings contributed to the development of the follow-up correlated studies related to wine knowledge levels. In this research, the knowledge levels of the survey sample were evaluated by their own assessments. 38.8% of the sample identified as a Novice, 42.4% of the sample as at Intermediate level, while 18.6% of the sample presented themselves as an Enthusiast. The following will clarify the detailed outcomes of correlation between wine-related tourism variables and wine knowledge levels.

Outcomes of the Correlation Objectives

Following the introduction and literature review chapters, the hypotheses regarding correlation between 1) wine-related tourism variables and wine knowledge levels; and 2) wine-related tourism variables and length-of-residence in New Zealand were put forward and examined by quantitative research. Based on the results of quantitative data analysis, conclusions were drawn and are presented below.

Relationship between Wine Knowledge Levels and Wine-related Tourism Variables

According to the results examining the correlation between wine knowledge levels and sources of wine knowledge, a significant difference was discovered between wine knowledge levels regarding the variables of formal wine education ($\chi^2 = 40.962$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$) and past experience ($\chi^2 = 28.879$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.001$), respectively. A tendency was discovered that the wine knowledge of the Enthusiast group in the sample was more based in formal wine education and past wine-related experience than the other two groups.

When it came to the preference of wine type, the proportion of the Novice and Intermediate groups who preferred white wine was higher than that of the Enthusiast group ($\chi^2 = 10.374$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.006$) while the 'Enthusiast' liked red wines ($\chi^2 = 18.038$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$).

For the choice of wines according to the influence of wine attributes (by Price, by Variety, By Style, By Country-of-Origin and by Brand), ANOVA indicated there was a statistically significant difference between levels of wine knowledge regarding the determinants of variety ($F = 3.288$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.042$) and country-of-origin ($F = 6.867$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.002$). For variety and country-of-origin, the Enthusiast group in the sample was discovered to have a more sophisticated requirement compared to the other two groups.

For the requirements of country-of-origin, the Enthusiast group was assumed to be more active in engaging in wine-related tour or activities, which was verified by Chi-Square ($\chi^2 = 15.312$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$). To gain wine tour information, the Enthusiast group tended to be more active in searching for the required information from websites ($\chi^2 = 6.712$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.035$), wine tour experience ($\chi^2 = 6.252$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.044$) and even wine clubs ($\chi^2 = 9.816$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.007$) compared to the other two groups. Such a substantial difference between the different levels of knowledge was due to the Enthusiast's higher activeness. The reason why the Enthusiast group was highly engaged in wine-related activities was due to their sophisticated needs. When endeavoring to explain the outcome above according to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the outcome revealed the limitations of Maslow's theory, which ignores the consideration of specific needs regarding different groups of people.

To sum up, the higher knowledge levels and demands in regards to wine, the more likely those wine-interested are to be engaged in wine-related activities. Regarding the purchasing levels at cellar doors/wineries, the Intermediate and the Enthusiast groups were found to be more likely to purchase ($\chi^2 = 9.620$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.008$). In addition, the Enthusiasts were more likely (47.4%) to choose wineries as consumption sites, ($\chi^2 = 13.253$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.001$), which was significant compared to the choice of the other groups.

An ANOVA analysis was conducted to comprehend the potential correlation between wine knowledge levels and wine tourism motivations. A significant difference was discovered between the factors of a guided wine tour ($F = 4.233$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.018$), past experience ($F = 9.687$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.000$), meeting the winemaker ($F = 7.768$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.001$) and onsite wine education ($F = 4.795$, $DF = 2$, $p = 0.011$) regarding different wine knowledge levels. For the factor of taking a guided wine tour, the Novice and the Intermediate groups were found more likely to take part than the Enthusiast group; while the Enthusiasts were more motivated by the factors of past experience

and meeting the winemakers. The different main motivators for taking a wine tour reflected the diverse needs of the different wine knowledge levels of the groups. Enthusiasts were more independent-thinking about wine than the other two groups. Therefore, they expected to have more opportunities to meet their own demands from wines and enhance their own value. In summary, the different levels of wine knowledge and corresponding interest of the different groups of wine-interested differentiated their wine-related tourism behaviours.

Relationship between Length-of-residence and Wine-related Tourism Variables

As stated in the introduction chapter, a hypothesis was put forward to investigate the possible correlation between length-of-residence and wine-related tourism variables. Chi-Square tests were conducted to examine the influence of different length-of-residence in the sample within each of the wine-related tourism variables. There was no significant difference between the length-of-residence and wine knowledge levels ($\chi^2 = 3.725$, $DF = 6$, $p = 0.714$). Such a result illustrates that the length of the sample resided in New Zealand did not have direct effect on the levels of wine knowledge reported. Therefore, the hypothesis of potential relationship between the length-of-residence and the levels of wine knowledge was refuted. However, the restricted sample size may result in bias regarding this objective, which calls for further study.

A significant difference was discovered whereby the longer those Chinese wine consumers in the sample had resided in New Zealand; the more potential they have of choosing wine shops to purchase wine. The reason for that behaviour was interpreted by the focus group members as being mainly due to the higher requirement of the purchasers on the wine itself and assistance of professionals.

Regarding drinking patterns, there was a significant difference within diverse length-of-residence groups ($\chi^2 = 8.425$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.038$). Those participants in the

sample who had resided two years or more in New Zealand had a higher likelihood of drinking wine with food. That outcome implies that two years might be a time margin where those participants' cultural recognition is reshaped and they become more accustomed to a new lifestyle. In addition, a significant difference was found between the length-of-residence in New Zealand and the choice of winery as a consumption destination ($\chi^2 = 8.873$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.031$). The longer the participants resided in New Zealand, the more frequently they tended to choose the winery as a location for wine consumption. Consuming wines in a winery might motivate people to take a wine tour. The positive correlation indicates that the length-of-residence in New Zealand may have an indirect influence on the likelihood of going on a wine tour. Combining the result of pairing wine with food and the result of wine consumption sites with the length-of-residence in New Zealand, the change of Chinese residents' behaviour in the sample reflected their gradual adaptation to the local culture as well as being subtly influenced by the local culture.

Two groups of Chinese in the sample were found highly likely to go on a wine tour ($\chi^2 = 15.800$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.001$). They were the 60% of Chinese wine consumers staying in New Zealand less than two years and the 79.1% of the sample residing for 10 years or more. In addition, the longer the sample resided in New Zealand, the higher their purchasing level of wines would be ($\chi^2 = 10.360$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.016$).

From the aspect of travelling behaviour, this study found there was a significant difference between the length-of-residence and the choice of independent travelling as the style ($\chi^2 = 10.049$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.018$). Auckland-based Chinese wine consumers staying more than two years (indicating residents) were more motivated by independent travelling.

For wine-related motivators, the outcome of the ANOVA indicated a significant difference between length-of-residence and past experience ($F = 3.025$, $DF = 3$, $p =$

0.034) or winery restaurant ($F = 3.665$, $DF = 3$, $p = 0.016$), respectively. The longer the participants in the sample resided in New Zealand, the more easily motivated by the factors of past experience and winery restaurant for going on a wine tour. The result of a winery restaurant as an influencer echoed the correlation of length-of-residence and the choice of a winery for wine consumption. Even though there was no significant difference between length-of-residence and the wine knowledge levels, past experience as a motivator implied the importance of gaining wine knowledge from wine-related tourism destinations.

Outcome of the Comparative Objective: Summary and Conclusions

As discussed in the literature review chapter, Hall (2000) conducted a survey of domestic winery visitors in terms of the socio-demographical and psychological aspects of consumer behaviour. The regular winery visitors were identified as male-dominated visitors with a high level of income and educational background (Hall, 2000; Mitchell & Hall, 2006). Their ages were reported as being to be mainly between 30 and 50 years old. Based on the outcome of the quantitative study in this research, the regular Chinese winery visitors were identified as male-dominated visitors with an annual income of \$40,000 NZD to \$60,000 NZD with an undergraduate university degree. In addition, a significant difference between Hall's study and the Chinese in this research was found. Most Chinese winery visitors were aged between 25 and 34 years old and appeared to be younger than the outcome from Hall's research. Further study is required to examine the validity of that result from different wine regions in New Zealand.

Other authors in the field (Getz, 2000; Hall, 2000) have found that most winery visitors prefer to visit wine-related tourism destinations within the wine regions that were near or close to where they lived. Those findings apply to those Auckland-residing Chinese in the sample as well.

Referred to in the literature review chapter by Shor and Mansfeld (2010), consumers

may behave differently due to the influence of culture. That result was verified in this research by explaining differences between inbound Chinese winery visitors and domestic Chinese winery visitors in New Zealand regarding their appreciation on wine and perceptions on New Zealand wine tourism. In general, New Zealand-residing Chinese have a more profound understanding of wine and wine tourism due to the opportunities of engaging in New Zealand wine-themed activities and developing the knowledge of local wine culture.

The findings of this research indicate that the local wine market and wine culture were important factors that affect the development of wine knowledge of Chinese. Auckland-resident Chinese were found to be more discerning about wine, especially New Zealand wines, than Chinese people in China. The longer the participants reside in New Zealand the more active they engage in wine-related activities. However, there was no significant relationship between the length-of-residence and wine knowledge levels. This implies that there is a more complex relationship between wine consumption, wine-related activities and residence. The interest levels was inferred to be potentially an important influencing factor for the study this issue in future.

Social groupings and the opportunity to increase knowledge about wine were identified as essential factors that contribute to an understanding of wine and the development of a discerning wine palate. This finding may provide useful reference for New Zealand wine association to make any strategies for Chinese market.

Compared to the perceptions of wine and wine-related tourism behavior from Auckland-resident with those from Chinese outside New Zealand, the distinguished knowledge and attitude on wine (e.g. French dry wine) and wine-related tourism implied the role of cross-cultural and social influence in wine-related tourism. In future study, the two factors should be concerned.

For wine-related tourism, besides language proficiency, general wine knowledge levels, in this research, the lacking of New Zealand wine and wine-related tourism public image was also found as disadvantages for Chinese market promotion. This finding implied that an accurate positioning of New Zealand wine image for Chinese market is required. It is also suggested by winery owners, Chinese wine consumers and Chinese wine tourists that linking New Zealand's clean, pure and green destination image with the features of New Zealand wines will attract increasing numbers of well-educated, relatively high income and young Chinese who are interested in wine. This will open a promising pathway for New Zealand wine and wine-related tourism.

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Appendix A

Name of Wineries in Auckland	Info in English(E) Chinese(C)	Website
1. Arahura Vineyard	E	http://www.arahuravineyard.co.nz/enquiry.html
2. Artisan Wines & Vineyard Restaurant	E	http://www.artisanwines.co.nz/
3. Ascension Vineyard	E	http://www.ascensionwine.co.nz
4. Awaroa Vineyard		
5. Awhitu Wines		http://www.awhituwines.co.nz/
6. Babich Wines Ltd	E	http://www.babichwines.co.nz/
7. Big Picture Wine	E	http://www.thewineexperience.co.nz/
8. Brick Bay	E	http://www.brickbay.co.nz/
9. Brown Brothers Wines NZ Ltd	E	http://www.brownbrothers.com.au/
10. Cable Bay Vineyards	E	http://www.cablebay.co.nz/
11. Collards		
12. Constellation Ltd	E	http://www.constellationnz.com
13. Contour Estate Vineyards Ltd	E	http://www.contourestate.co.nz/
14. Coopers Creek Vineyard Ltd	E	http://www.cooperscreek.co.nz/
15. Corazon Wines Limited	E	http://corazonwines.co.nz/
16. Coxhead Creek	E	
17. Daniel Le Brun		
18. David Papa Estate Wines		
19. Delegats Wine Estate	E	http://www.delegats.com/

20. Destiny Bay Wines	E	http://www.destinybaywine.com/
21. Edbrooke Vineyard		
22. Esvin Wine Resources Limited		
23. Fenton Estate		
24. Fino Valley Wines		
25. GalleryQ Wine & Art	E	http://www.galleryq.co.nz/index.html
26. Gillman Vineyard Ltd		http://www.gillmanvineyard.co.nz/
27. Gracehill Vineyard Estate		
28. Great Taste Tours	E	http://www.greastastetours.co.nz/
29. Green Rocket	E	http://www.volcanichills.co.nz/
30. Hallertau	E	http://www.hallertau.co.nz/
31. Hawks Nest		
32. Heron's Flight Vineyard	E	http://www.héronsflight.co.nz/
33. Hinchco Family Vineyard		
34. Hitchin Road Vineyard	E	http://www.hitchen.co.nz/
35. Huasheng Wines		
36. Hyperion Wines		http://www.hyperion-wines.co.nz/
37. Inverness Estate	E	http://www.inverness.co.nz/
38. Iron Hills		http://www.ironhills.co.nz/
39. Isola Estate		
40. Jurassic Ridge Vineyard		
41. Karaka Point Vineyard	E	http://www.karakapointvineyard.co.nz/

42. Kennedy Point Vineyard	E	http://www.kennedypointvineyard.com
43. Kerr Farm Wine	E	http://www.kerrfarmwine.co.nz/
44. Kumeu River Wines Limited	E	http://www.kumeuriver.co.nz/
45. La Pineta Vineyards Ltd		http://www.hinchcowines.co.nz/
46. Landmark Estate	E	http://www.landmarkestate.co.nz/
47. Lincoln Vineyards Ltd	E	http://www.lincolnwines.co.nz/
48. Mahurangi River Winery	E	http://www.mahurangiriver.co.nz/
49. Man O' War	E	http://www.manowarvineyards.co.nz/
50. Markovina Vineyard Estate	E	http://www.markovina.co.nz/
51. Matakana Estate		
52. Matua Valley Wines Ltd	E	http://www.matua.co.nz
53. Maven Wines Limited	E	http://www.mavenwines.co.nz/
54. Mazurans Vineyards Limited	E	http://www.mazurans.com/
55. Miro Vineyard	E	http://www.mirovineyard.co.nz
56. Montana Wines		http://www.brancottestate.com
57. Morton Estate Wines Ltd	E	http://www.mortonestatewines.co.nz
58. Mudbrick	E	http://www.mudbrick.co.nz/
59. Nobilo	E	http://nobilo.co.nz/
60. Obsidian Vineyard Ltd	E	http://www.obsidian.co.nz/
61. Odyssey Wines Ltd	E	http://www.odysseywines.co.nz/
62. Omaha Bay Vineyard	En	http://www.omahabay.co.nz/
63. Onetangi Road Vineyard		

64. Oyster Bay Wines	E	http://www.oysterbaywines.com/
65. Pakihi Island Winery		
66. Passage Rock Wines		http://www.passagerockwines.co.nz/
67. Peacock Sky Vineyard	E	http://www.peacocksky.co.nz/
68. Peninsula Estate		
69. Poderi Crisci Vineyard	E	http://www.podericrisci.co.nz/
70. Pukeko Grove	E	http://www.pukekogrove.co.nz/
71. Puriri Hills Winery		
72. Rannach Vineyard	E	http://www.rannach.co.nz/
73. Ransom Wines	E	http://www.ransomwines.co.nz/
74. Ridgeview Estate		
75. Rongopai Wines		http://www.rongopaiwines.co.nz/
76. Saltings Estate		http://www.saltings.co.nz/
77. Saratoga Estate Winery	E	http://www.saratogaestate.com/
78. Siebels		
79. Soljans	E/C(brochure)	http://www.soljans.co.nz/
80. St Jerome Wines	E	http://www.stjerome.co.nz/
81. Stonyridge Vineyard	E	http://www.stonyridge.com/
82. Takatu Vineyard		http://www.takatuwine.co.nz/
83. Te Motu Vineyard		http://www.temotu.co.nz/
84. Te Whau Vineyard Ltd	E	http://www.tewhau.com/
85. The Antipodean		http://www.theantipodeanwine.com/
86. The Castle Matakana	E	http://www.the-castle.co.nz/

87. The Hay Paddock		http://www.thehaypaddock.co.nz/
88. Topknot Hill Vineyard		http://www.wildonwaiheke.co.nz/
89. Turanga Creek Vineyard	E	http://www.turangacreek.co.nz/
90. Twilight Vineyards		www.twilightvineyards.com
91. Twin Totara Wines Ltd	E	http://www.twintotara.co.nz/
92. View East Vineyard		
93. Villa Maria Estate Ltd	E/C	http://www.villamaria.co.nz/
94. Village Winery Ltd		
95. Vin Alto Winery	E	http://www.vinalto.com/
96. Vine to Wine to Market Ltd	E	http://www.vinetowine.co.nz/
97. Waimarie Wines		http://www.waimariewines.co.nz/
98. Waitiri Creek Wines Ltd	E	http://www.waitiricreek.co.nz/
99. West Brook Winery	E	http://www.westbrook.co.nz/
100. Wild On Waiheke	E	http://www.wildonwaiheke.co.nz/

Appendix B

A questionnaire on the wine tourism behavior of Chinese in New Zealand

Hi, this is a questionnaire on the wine tourism behavior of Chinese in New Zealand. This questionnaire is designed in four parts: general wine knowledge, wine appreciation, wine tourism behavior and demographic profile. To complete this questionnaire, it will take around 10 to 20 minutes of your time. All the participants have the right to choose whether they answer the following questions. By completing this questionnaire you are indicating your consent to participate in this research.

General wine knowledge

1. Based on your current wine knowledge, how do you classify your level of expertise?

- ☐ Novice ☐ Intermediate ☐ Enthusiast ☐ Expert

2. Where most of you current wine knowledge come from? (Please tick more than one box if required)

- ☐ Friends/Family ☐ Formal Education ☐ Previous wine tour experience
☐ Radio/TV program ☐ Books/magazines ☐ Website
☐ Other: _____ (please state)

3. Can you identify which region(s) in New Zealand produce Sauvignon Blanc? (Please tick more than one box if required)

- ☐ Northland ☐ Auckland ☐ Bay of Plenty ☐ Gisborne ☐ Hawke's Bay
☐ Wairarapa ☐ Nelson ☐ Marlborough ☐ Canterbury ☐ Central Otago

4. Please illustrate some grape varieties that you consume(either Chinese or English is acceptable)

Wine appreciation

1. What type of wine do you prefer? (Tick more than one if required)

- ☐ Sparkling ☐ White wine
☐ Rosé wine ☐ Red wine

2. Where do you usually purchase wine? (Tick more than one if required)

- ☐ Winery/cellar door ☐ Supermarket ☐ Wine Shop ☐ Online order
☐ Other: _____ (please state)

3. Do you usually match food with wine?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

4. Where do you usually consume your wine? (Tick more than one if required)

- ☐ Restaurant/café ☐ Winery ☐ Event occasions
☐ Friends' home ☐ Your own home ☐ Other: _____ (Please state)

5. The attributes that affect you to purchase wine

*Please rate each statement using the following scale

1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important.

By Price	<div style="text-align: center;">  1 2 3 4 5 </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; padding: 0 10px;"> Not at all important Most important </div>
By Variety	<div style="text-align: center;">  1 2 3 4 5 </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; padding: 0 10px;"> Not at all important Most important </div>
By Style(dry, medium, sweet)	<div style="text-align: center;">  1 2 3 4 5 </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; padding: 0 10px;"> Not at all important Most important </div>
By Country of Origin	<div style="text-align: center;">  1 2 3 4 5 </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; padding: 0 10px;"> Not at all important Most important </div>
By Brand	<div style="text-align: center;">  1 2 3 4 5 </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; padding: 0 10px;"> Not at all important Most important </div>

If there is any other determinant for your wine purchase, please state: _____

Wine tourism behavior

***Wine tourism**, in this questionnaire, is defined as a visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a wine region.

1. Have you ever been on a wine tour?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

* If your response is **No**, please go to **Q7** directly;

* If your response is **Yes**, please continue to answer the following questions

2. Which area(s) have you been as a wine tourist? (Tick more than one if required)

- ☐ Northland ☐ Auckland ☐ Bay of Plenty ☐ Gisborne ☐ Hawke's Bay
☐ Wairarapa ☐ Nelson ☐ Marlborough ☐ Canterbury ☐ Central Otago

Others: _____ (Please state)

3. Do you usually purchase wine from your wine tour?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

4. How much (NZD) would you normally spend for a wine tour per day

(Accommodation is excluded)?

- ☐ Below \$100 ☐ \$100-\$199 ☐ \$200-\$299 ☐ \$300-\$399 ☐ \$400 or more

5. How do you prefer to travel as a wine tourist?

- ☐ Independent travel ☐ Packaged tour
☐ Other _____ (please state)

6. How do you gain information about wine tourism? (Tick more than one if required)

- ☐ Website ☐ Previous visits ☐ TV ☐ Word-of-mouth
☐ Road signs ☐ Wine clubs ☐ Magazine ☐ Visitor information center
☐ Other: _____ (please state)

7. The attributes that affect your decision for a wine tour

*Please rate each statement using the following scale

1= Not at all important, 2= Not very important, 3= Somewhat important, 4= Very important, 5= Most important.

1) Wine tasting – free of charge	
2) Wine tasting – a nominal cost (Reduced cost)	
3) Guided winery tour	
4) Previous experience/visit	
5) Wine sale	
6) Winery Restaurant	
7) Wine show/festivals	
8) Accommodation	
9) Accessibility for the location	
10) Scenery in wine region	
11) Meeting the wine-maker	
12) Wine/Wine-making Education	
13) Relaxation	
14) Socialising	

If there is any other determinant to affect your decision making to participant in a wine tour,
 please state: _____

Demographic profile

1. Please state your gender

- ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Please state your birthplace

- ☐ China born ☐ New Zealand born ☐ Other ☐ Prefer not to answer

3. Please state your age

- ☐ 18-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54
☐ 55- 64 ☐ 65 and over ☐ Prefer not to answer

4. If you were born in China, which area are you from?

- ☐ North China ☐ South China ☐ Taiwan ☐ Hong Kong/Macau

5. Annual income(NZD)

- ☐ Zero income ☐ \$1 - \$20,000 ☐ \$20,001-\$40,000 ☐ \$40,001-\$60,000
☐ \$60,001-\$80,000 ☐ \$80,001-\$100,000 ☐ \$100,001and more ☐ Prefer not to answer

6. The current highest qualification you have

- ☐ No qualification ☐ Secondary School ☐ University Undergraduate
☐ University Postgraduate ☐ Other ☐ Prefer not to answer

7. How long you have been in New Zealand? (Based on the Round off)

- ☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1 year ☐ 2 year ☐ 3 year
☐ 4 year ☐ 5 -9 years ☐ 10 year or more ☐ Prefer not to answer

8. Which regional council area are you currently living in New Zealand?

- ☐ Northland ☐ Auckland ☐ Waikato ☐ Bay of Plenty
☐ Gisborne ☐ Hawke's Bay ☐ Taranaki ☐ Manawatu-Wanganui
☐ Wellington ☐ Tasman ☐ Nelson ☐ Marlborough
☐ West Coast ☐ Canterbury ☐ Otago ☐ Southland

Thanks for your participation. When completed, please fold this questionnaire and put into the pre-paid AUT envelope and post it to the given address.

Questionnaire (Chinese version)

关于在新西兰消费葡萄酒的中国人的旅游行为分析的问卷

您好，这是一份关于在新西兰的中国人有关葡萄酒旅游行为分析的问卷调查。此问卷由四部构成：葡萄酒知识，葡萄酒鉴赏，葡萄酒旅游行为和人口学统计。完成此问卷需费时 10 至 20 分钟。您有权选择是否回答以下问题。如您完成了这份调查问卷，表明您同意参加这个调研。

葡萄酒知识

1. 基于您现在的葡萄酒知识，你将自己归为以下哪一类？

- ☐ 葡萄酒入门者 ☐ 普通爱好者 ☐ 葡萄酒发烧友 ☐ 葡萄酒行家

2. 您目前的葡萄酒知识主要从何而来？（如有需要请多选）

- ☐ 朋友/家人 ☐ 葡萄酒课程 ☐ 以往访问酒庄经历
☐ 广播/电话 ☐ 书/杂志 ☐ 网络
☐ 其它:_____ (请说明)

3. 请辨认新西兰长相思（Sauvignon Blanc）的产区？（如有需要请多选）

- ☐ Northland ☐ Auckland ☐ Bay of Plenty ☐ Gisborne ☐ Hawke's Bay
☐ Wairarapa ☐ Nelson ☐ Marlborough ☐ Canterbury ☐ Central Otago

4. 请您列举出您常喝的葡萄酒品种(中英文皆可):

葡萄酒鉴赏

1. 您喜欢哪个葡萄酒类型? (如需要请多选)

- ☐ 起泡酒 ☐ 白葡萄酒
☐ 桃红葡萄酒 ☐ 红葡萄酒

2. 您一般在哪儿购买葡萄酒? (如需要请多选)

- ☐ 酒庄 ☐ 超市 ☐ 酒铺 ☐ 网上订购
☐ 其它: _____ (请说明)

3. 喝葡萄酒时您一般搭配食物吗?

- ☐ 是 ☐ 不是

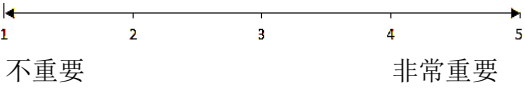
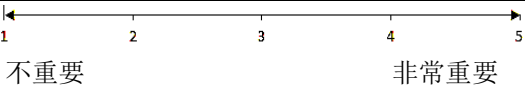
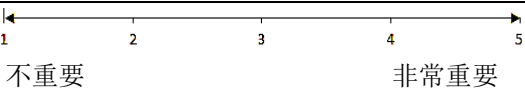
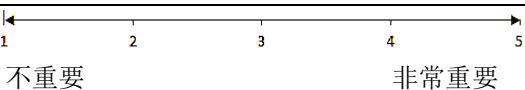
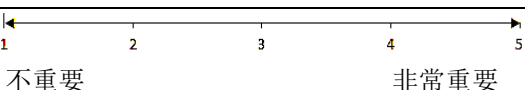
4. 您一般在哪儿饮用葡萄酒? (如需要请多选)

- ☐ 餐厅/咖啡厅 ☐ 酒庄 ☐ 生意场所
☐ 朋友家 ☐ 自己家 ☐ 其它: _____ (请说明)

5. 影响您购买葡萄酒的因素

*以下为可能影响您购买葡萄酒的因素。请根据每个因素的影响程度, 在相应的数字上画圈。

* 1=完全不重要, 2= 不太重要, 3= 有点重要, 4= 比较重要, 5= 非常重要.

价格	
葡萄品种	
葡萄酒类型(干或甜)	
葡萄酒原产地	
葡萄酒品牌	

如果有其他影响您购买葡萄酒的属性, 请注明: _____

葡萄酒旅游行为

葡萄酒旅游，在这份调查问卷中，被定义为造访葡萄酒庄园，葡萄酒酿酒厂，参加葡萄酒活动等以品酒或体验葡萄酒种植园区文化氛围的旅游行为。

1. 您是否有过葡萄酒旅行的经历？

- ☐ 是 ☐ 否

* 如果您的回答是“否”，请直接回到本部分**第七题**；

* 如果您的回答是“是”请继续回答以下题目

2. 请问你造访过以下哪个葡萄种植区？（如有需要请多选）

- ☐ Northland ☐ Auckland ☐ Bay of Plenty ☐ Gisborne ☐ Hawke's Bay
☐ Wairarapa ☐ Nelson ☐ Marlborough ☐ Canterbury ☐ Central Otago
☐ 其他:_____ (请说明)

3. 您在葡萄酒旅行中购买过葡萄酒吗？

- ☐ 是 ☐ 否

4. 您的葡萄酒旅游通常每天消费多少钱？（按纽币计算，不包括住宿）

- ☐ \$100 以下 ☐ \$100-\$199 ☐ \$200-\$299 ☐ \$300-\$399 ☐ \$400 以上

5. 您通常采用了哪个旅行方式？

- ☐ 全自助旅行 ☐ 跟团旅行
☐ 其他旅行方式_____ (请说明)

6. 您获得葡萄酒旅行信息的主要来源？（如需要请多选）

- ☐ 网络 ☐ 以前造访的信息 ☐ 电视 ☐ 口碑(朋友或亲戚)
☐ 道路标志 ☐ 葡萄酒俱乐部 ☐ 杂志 ☐ 游客服务中心
☐ 其它:_____ (请说明)

7. 影响您决定是否参加葡萄酒旅游的因素

*以下为可能影响您决定是否参加葡萄酒旅游的因素。请根据每个因素的影响程度，在相应的数字上画圈。

* 1=完全不重要, 2= 不太重要, 3= 有点重要, 4= 比较重要, 5= 非常重要

影响您参加葡萄酒旅游的因素	
1) 免费的品酒	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div> <div>不重要</div> <div>非常重要</div>
2) 象征性收取一定费用的品酒	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
3) 有向导带领的酒庄/酒厂游览	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
4) 以往的葡萄酒旅游经历	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
5) 葡萄酒促销	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
6) 酒庄的餐厅就餐条件	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
7) 葡萄酒相关的活动	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div> <div>不重要</div> <div>非常重要</div>
8) 酒庄的住宿条件	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
9) 去往酒庄的便利程度	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
10) 种植园区的风景	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
11) 拜访酿酒师	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
12) 关于葡萄酒或酿酒的教育	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
13) 放松心情	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div>
14) 社交需要	<div> <div>1</div> <div>2</div> <div>3</div> <div>4</div> <div>5</div> </div> <div>不重要</div> <div>非常重要</div>

如果还有其他可能影响您决定是否参加葡萄酒旅行的属性，请注明：_____

人口学统计

1. 请选择您的性别

- ☐ 男 ☐ 女

2. 请选择您的年龄段

- ☐ 18-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54
☐ 55-64 ☐ 65 以上 ☐ 不愿告之

3. 请选择您的出生地

- ☐ 中国 ☐ 新西兰 ☐ 其他地区 ☐ 不愿告之

4. 如果您是在中国出生，请选择您出生的地域

- ☐ 中国大陆北方 ☐ 中国大陆南方 ☐ 中国香港/中国澳门 ☐ 中国台湾

5. 请选择您的年收入(纽币)

- ☐ 无收入 ☐ \$1 - \$20,000 ☐ \$20,001-\$40,000 ☐ \$40,001-\$60,000
☐ \$60,001-\$80,000 ☐ \$80,001-\$100,000 ☐ \$100,001 以上 ☐ 不愿告之

6. 请选择您目前获得的最高学历

- ☐ 无学历 ☐ 中专学历 ☐ 大学本科学历
☐ 研究生学历 ☐ 其它 ☐ 不愿告之

7. 请选择您在新西兰的居住时间（请根据四舍五入选择）

- ☐ 不足一年 ☐ 一年 ☐ 两年 ☐ 三年
☐ 四年 ☐ 五到九年 ☐ 十年或十年以上 ☐ 不愿告之

8. 请选择您在新西兰目前的居住区域

- ☐ Northland ☐ Auckland ☐ Waikato ☐ Bay of Plenty
☐ Gisborne ☐ Hawke's Bay ☐ Taranaki ☐ Manawatu-Wanganui
☐ Wellington ☐ Tasman ☐ Nelson ☐ Marlborough
☐ West Coast ☐ Canterbury ☐ Otago ☐ Southland

感谢您的参与！完成调查问卷后，请将问卷折叠放入已预付款的奥克兰理工大学专用信封并寄往指定的地址。

Appendix C

Participant Information Sheet



(For Questionnaire)

Date: 7th May 2012

Project title: An exploratory study of wine tourism behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand

An invitation: I am Demi, a Master's student in tourism studies at AUT University. I am undertaking a research project which leads to a thesis and the completion of my qualification. The project is an exploratory study of wine tourism behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand. I am honoured to invite you to attend this research. Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time prior to the completion of data collection. Once you choose to withdraw, all the data related to you will be destroyed.

Purpose: This research aims to gain more knowledge about Chinese wine consumers and their relationship with wine tourism.

The recruitment of participants: The target people in this research should meet the following two conditions: a) Chinese; b) more than 18 years old (legal age for drinking in New Zealand). The questionnaire will be distributed via Wine Club and Chinese Centre.

The process of research: An anonymous questionnaire is employed in this research, which is composed of four sections: general wine knowledge, wine appreciation, wine tourism behaviour and demographic profiling. You are invited to complete this questionnaire. When the questionnaire is completed, please fold it and put into the pre-paid given envelope and post it to the given address (shown on the envelope).

The cost of participating: It will take 20 to 30 minutes of your time.

How to agree to participant the research: By completing the questionnaire you are indicating your consent to participate in this research.

To protect your privacy, there are no identifying questions in the questionnaire and your feedback will be confidential and anonymous.

Results of this research: The results of this research will be available on the website of New Zealand Tourism Institute: <http://www.nztri.org> in March, 2013. You are welcome to visit that website and view the findings.

If you have any concerns on this project, please feel free to contact the Project Supervisor Hamish Bremner, PhD, hamish.bremner@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 5898.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research, please contact with the Executive Secretary, AUTECH, Dr Rosemary Godbold, rosemary.godbold@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6902.

For any further information about this research, please feel free to contact

The researcher: Shenrui (Demi) Deng, jzw3830@aut.ac.nz

Secondary supervisor: Cameron Douglas, MS, Cameron.douglas@aut.ac.nz

Participant information sheet for questionnaire

(Chinese version)



参与者信息

问卷调查

日期: 2012 年 5 月 7 日

邀请函

在新西兰消费葡萄酒的中国人的葡萄酒旅游行为分析

您好,我是邓莘蕊(Demi),奥克兰理工旅游学硕士。基于学位需要,目前我正在进行一个有关在新西兰的中国人的葡萄酒旅游行为的课题研究。很荣幸能邀请您参加。此研究完全基于您的自愿。您有权选择在任何环节中退出。一旦您选择退出此调研,您的相关资料将立即被销毁。

此课题研究的主要目的是为了更好地了解中国人葡萄酒消费及葡萄酒旅游的相关信息。

此研究将以匿名问卷调查的形式开展。问卷调查的主要针对人群为达到新西兰法定饮酒年龄,饮用葡萄酒的中国人。鉴于您符合以上要求,我真诚地邀请您参加此份问卷调查。

此问卷调查的内容主要涉及四个方面:葡萄酒知识,葡萄酒鉴赏,葡萄酒旅游行为及人口学统计。

完成此份问卷需要花费您十到二十分钟的时间。通过完成问卷,表示你同意参加此课题研究。为保证您的隐私,此问卷调查结果将完全保密。当您完成此份问卷后,请折叠放入已预付款的指定信封内,并寄往指定的地址。

此课题研究的结果将于 2013 年 3 月公布于新西兰旅游研究所的网站上。其网址为: <http://www.nztri.org>。欢迎您登录此网站查看其研究结果。

如果您对此课题有任何疑问,欢迎与项目负责人/第一导师 Dr Hamish Bremner 博士联系。他的邮件地址为 hamish.bremner@aut.ac.nz; 办公室电话: 921 9999 转 5898 如果您有其他问题,请和奥克兰理工大学道德委员会行政秘书 Rosemary Godbold 博士联系,他的联系方式是 rosemary.godbold@aut.ac.nz; 办公室电话: 921 9999 转 6902。

如果您想进一步了解此次课题,欢迎联系:

课题调研人: 邓莘蕊(Demi) 旅游学硕士 Email: jzw3830@aut.ac.nz

第二导师: Cameron Douglas 国际品酒师(MS) Email: Cameron.douglas@aut.ac.nz



Participant Information Sheet

(For Focus Group)

18 June 2012

An exploratory study of wine tourism behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand

Dear focus group participants,

I am Demi, a Master student in tourism studies at AUT University. As part of my degree, I am undertaking a research project which leads to a thesis and the completion of my qualification. The project is to conduct an exploratory study of wine tourism behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand. By completing this research, more knowledge will be gained about Chinese wine consumers and tourism and their relationship.

My supervisor Hamish Bremner and I will attend this focus group. The content will be involved in wine tourism related questions. The notes will be taken during the focus group and it will also be recorded. The whole process will take one hour of your time. Before the focus group, please sign the consent form if you agree with the participation.

Your participation is voluntary and your information is highly confidential. You may withdraw at any time prior to the completion of data collection. Once you choose to withdraw, all the data related to you will be destroyed at the first time.

If you have any concerns on this project, please contact with my supervisor Hamish, Bremner, PhD. Concerns regarding the conduct of the research, please contact with the Executive Secretary, AUTEK, Dr Rosemary Godbold, rosemary.godbold@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6902.

Contact details:

Researcher Contact Details:	Project Supervisor Contact Details:
The researcher: Shenrui (Demi) Deng	Prime supervisor: Hamish Bremner, PhD
Contact detail: jzw3830@aut.ac.nz	Contact detail: hamish.bremner@aut.ac.nz
	Office phone: +64 9 921 9999 ext 5898
	Secondary supervisor: Cameron Douglas, MS
	Contact detail: Cameron.douglas@aut.ac.nz

参与者信息

小组讨论

日期: 2012 年 6 月 18 日

邀请函

在新西兰消费葡萄酒的中国人的葡萄酒旅游行为分析

您好,

我是邓莘蕊 (Demi), 奥克兰理工旅游学硕士。基于学位要求, 目前我在做一个探索性的课题研究。这个课题是调查在新西兰的中国人的葡萄酒旅游行为的研究。其调研目的是有助于更好地了解中国人葡萄酒消费和与葡萄酒旅游的相关信息。

我的导师 Hamish Bremner 和我将参加这个小组讨论。小组讨论时的谈话内容将被记录。此份调查需要花费您一个小时的时间, 小组讨论开始前, 请在同意书上签字。

此研究完全本着您自愿的原则, 你的信息将完全保密。如果您想在任何环节退出, 您的相关资料将立即销毁, 以保证您的隐私。

如果您有任何疑问, 欢迎与我的导师, Hamish Bremner 博士联系。如有任何和调研有关的问题, 请与奥克兰理工大学道德委员会行政秘书 Rosemary Godbold 博士联系, 他的联系方式是 rosemary.godbold@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 转 6902。

研究员信息:	导师信息:
研究员: 邓莘蕊 Demi	主要导师: Hamish Bremner 博士
联系方式: jzw3830@aut.ac.nz	联系方式: hamish.bremner@aut.ac.nz
March 27, 2012	第二导师: Cameron Douglas 国际侍酒师
	联系方式: Cameron.douglas@aut.ac.nz

Appendix D

Consent Form

For use when focus groups are involved.



June, 18, 2012

Project title: **An exploratory study of wine tourism behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand**

Project Supervisor: Hamish Bremner, PhD

Researcher: Shenrui(Demi) Deng

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated dd mmmm yyyy.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that identity of my fellow participants and our discussions in the focus group is confidential to the group and I agree to keep this information confidential.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the focus group and that it will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw, I understand that while it may not be possible to destroy all records of the focus group discussion of which I was part, the relevant information about myself including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will not be used.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.
- ☐ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes ☐
No ☐

Participant's signature:

Participant's name:

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

Date:

Consent form for focus group

(Chinese version)

采访同意书



接受采访者：葡萄酒消费者

日期：2012 年 6 月 18 日

论文题目：在新西兰消费葡萄酒的中国人的葡萄酒旅游相关的行为分析

导师： Hamish Bremner, PhD

采访者：邓莘蕊， 奥克兰理工大学旅游学硕士

- ☐ 我已阅读并了解了采访须知
- ☐ 我已询问了想了解的相关信息
- ☐ 我已知道采访时会做相关的记录
- ☐ 我知道我可以在任何时候任何情况下终止采访
- ☐ 如果我终止了采访，我提供的所有信息将被删除
- ☐ 我同意接受采访
- ☐ 我希望收到一份调查结果的报告，请划勾： 是 ☐ 否 ☐

接受采访者签名：

接受采访者姓名：

接受采访者联系方式（可不选）

采访日期

Consent Form

For use when interviews are involved.



July, 2013

Project title: **An exploratory study of wine tourism behaviour of Chinese in New Zealand**

Project Supervisor: Hamish Bremner, PhD

Researcher: Shenrui(Demi) Deng

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated dd mmmm yyyy.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.
- ☐ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes ☐
No ☐

Participant's signature:

Participant's name:

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

Date: