THE NEXUS BETWEEN TOURISM AND IMMIGRATION: A STUDY OF TRAVEL PATTERNS OF CHINESE NEW ZEALANDERS

A 52.787 Thesis

presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements

of the degree of Master of Business Study at Massey

University

KATHY L. FENG

98225420

1999

Abstract

With the worldwide increase in migration and tourism, the issue of ethnicity has become a major discriminating factor in population movements around the world. Therefore, there is a growing research interest in the area of ethnic tourism. This study examines the travel patterns and travel habits of the Chinese population in New Zealand, particularly, those of the recent immigrants to the country with a focus on the impact of family ties and kinship in motivating travel for family reunion. It also examines the impact of family reunion, Visiting Friends and Relatives travel and other factors in shaping the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand by comparing the Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns with the travel patterns of New Zealanders and the travel patterns of the Chinese from China. This study provides one example of ethnic tourism in gaining a better understanding of the nexus between tourism and immigration. This may also form a basis for comparative studies between different ethnic groups in terms of their patterns of outbound travel. The study also develops a number of themes which require further research and development to establish the extent to which such patterns are indicative of global processes shaping the travel habits of immigrant groups. This study commences with a review of the limited literature on the interface of tourism, migration and globalization as a basis for establishing the conceptual framework for the study. This is followed by a detailed study of the demographic profile of Chinese population in New Zealand to establish the context of Chinese immigration. A questionnaire survey was conducted in June 1999 to examine the tourism-migration nexus and the results were evaluated using correspondence analysis and other quantitative statistical methods to establish the dimensions and extent of ethnic outbound travel within New Zealand. Research that could further substantiate the results is also suggested in the conclusion.

CONTENTS

FIGURES

TABLES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am sincerely grateful to my supervisor, Professor Stephen Page for his immense encouragement, support, knowledge and contribution that I have received during writing this thesis. Professor Page spent many hours of his precious time on reading closely my early drafts of this thesis and gave valuable comments and advice which have improved this study. I also wish to acknowledge my gratitude to Dr Denny Meyer for her guidance and advice on the section of quantitative analysis. Lastly, I would like to thank my family for their love, support and encouragement throughout this research process.

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism has a close relationship with migration: tourism can generate permanent immigration, and in turn, permanent immigration can generate a demand for tourism, particularly for the purpose of visiting friends and relatives (hereafter VFR) (see Jackson, 1990; Murphy, Dwyer, Forsyth and Burnley, 1993; King, 1994; Paci 1994; King and Gamage, 1994; Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary, 1995; Seaton and Tagg, 1995; Williams and Hall, 1999). These studies argued that many forms of migration generate tourism flows, in particular through the geographical extension of friendship and kinship networks. The migrants themselves may travel back to their country of origin for VFR or other purposes. Moreover, the migrants to a new country may be followed by their friends and relatives who choose to visit them in their new country. These flows of tourism are very much structured by the life course of migration, with each round of migration creating a new spatial arrangement of friendship and kinship networks, which potentially represent VFR tourism flows. The extent to which these are activated depends both on the particular characteristics of those networks, such as their intensity, reciprocity and utilisation of different forms of sustaining contacts and the particularities of place (Williams and Hall, 1999). Tourism may also serve to generate migration flows. First, labour migration to provide services required by tourists. Second, consumption-related migration systems with a symbiotic relationship to tourism flows and spatial outcomes such as property ownership, second home development and retirement settlements.

Tourism-migration relationships are important for understanding not only this nexus, but also the two sets of processes in their own right. Furthermore, tourism-migration relationships also serve to illustrate the importance of an understanding of the impacts of contemporary global economic and political processes and the circulation of capital and labour on tourism (Williams and Hall, 1999). Within spatially-oriented research on tourism, there have been a number of attempts to develop a new research agenda which examines the relationships between tourism and migration. The recent International Geographical Union (IGU) project also highlights a core of over 40 researchers with an interest in this area although publication outputs still remain few in number although a special issue of *Tourism Geographies* in 2000 will be exploring

these relationships in detail. Williams and Hall (1999: 2) pointed out, with the exception of second home development, the relationship of tourism and migration is an area of tourism studies that has been relatively neglected. They further argue that 'the largely discreet literatures on tourism and migration have, at best, served to mark out the core areas of their research concerns, and fail to adequately conceptualise and define their fields of enquiry'. Such an assessment points to the interface of population geography, migration research and tourism studies as a largely unexplored domain.

In the 1990s, tourism has become the world's most important economic activity and is widely recognized as the world's largest industry. It is increasingly interconnected with the international economy though the relationship with international business is poorly articulated. Tourism is also highly dynamic and is strongly influenced by economic, political, social, environmental and technological change. The ability of tourism to generate foreign exchange revenue, create employment and absorb unemployment has provided it with an economic, political and social legitimacy in the developed and developing world. According to the World Tourism Organisation (hereafter WTO) (1996), tourism expenditure represented more than 8 percent of the world merchandise exports and one-third of world trade in services in 1995. In 1996, some 592 million international trips were made, and according to the WTO forecasts (1997), it will almost have trebled to some 1.6 billion international trips and worth some $2 trillion annually by the year 2020.

In the context of the Asia-Pacific region, it has been widely recognised that this region is the world's fastest growing tourist receiving region and the most dynamic area for the travel and tourism industry (Hall and Page, 2000). Forecasts point to the enormous potential of a region where few tourism markets have even begun to approach the maturity of, for example, those in Western Europe. For example, China recorded major growth in receipts ranking the 6th of the world's top tourism destinations in 1994 from ranking the 19th in 1980 (WTO, 1996). International tourism grew faster in developing countries both for arrivals and receipts reflecting a wider redistribution of tourism revenues in favour of the traditional and new emerging tourism destinations in the third world (Hall and Page, 1999). At the same time, the rapid expanding tourism industry in the region would also increase the migratory

movement. Thus, this provides a meaningful opportunity to study the interrelationship between tourism and migration of this dynamic region, in particular, a study of the Chinese ethnicity for the global and regional distribution of its population.

In the past decades, the world had been experiencing changes and uncertainty. Political and economic forces, technology development and social and lifestyle changes had led to the globalisation and regionalisation of products and services, and in turn these factors exert powerful influences on the globalisation and regionalisation of tourism and migration. The increasing uncertainty and change of economic growth in the global environment has attributed greater labour market volatility and has a major impact on population flows. Careers now have more discontinuities, and job changes have become more frequent, therefore, possible multiple careers in one lifetime. As Williams and Hall (1999) argued this has two important consequences. First, by contributing to the tendency for early retirement, it thereby changes the scope for retirement migration. Second, there has been increased labour mobility, both sectorally and spatially, which has contributed to the geographical dispersion of friendship and family networks. These phenomenon indicate that not only the links between tourism and migration become more important in determining mobility, but also they are increasingly being expressed at the international scale as opposed to the intra-national scale as a result of the globalisation of tourism markets, tourism capital, changes in post-working lives and changes in the reorganisation of the labour process. Therefore, globalisation and regionalisation have been typical causes of international migratory movements since 1990 (Jean-Pierre, 1992).

With the emergency and globalisation of the world economy, migration has 'exploded' at all geographical scales and become a major concern amongst governments and policy-makers and the most important branch of demography to be studied in the last quarter of the century (Walmsley and Lewis, 1993). The implication of globalisation and labour mobility has resulted in more migration and numerically greater population flows. According to a report by P. Martin and J. Widgren (1997) for the Population Reference Bureau in the United States, international migration was at an all-time high in the 1990s and would likely increase further in the near future. About 125 million people now live outside of their country of birth or citizenship. This is roughly equal to the population of Japan and accounts for a full two percent of

3

the total world population. The number is also increasing by two to four million a year. Factors such as family reunification, political instability, and wage differences across countries are all contributing to this increase. As a result, the international migration demonstrates a greater dynamism in population flows and is contibuting to major changes to demographic patterns. For example, migrant workers are beginning to change the demographic structure of developed countries. Seven of the world's wealthiest countries - Germany, France, the United Kingdom, the United States, Italy, Japan, and Canada - are host to about one-third of the world's migrant population, and migrant workers now account for a large percentage of those countries' annual population growth. In fact, they account for all of such growth in Germany and about one third of it in the United States.

In the context of globalisation, this has had a catalytic effect upon the Chinese economy and society as Chinese political leaders have developed a nationalist rhetoric of inclusion that seeks to encompass a population that extends far beyond China's borders (Schiller, 1999). Since the implementation of 'open door' policy in China in 1978, there have been increased migratory movements in the country. China has emerged as a major exporter of labour, and brought economic benefits to the country of $8 billion in 1994 from remittances (Migration News, 1997). Furthermore, a significant number of skilled and professional people, students, business investors and other sorts have emigrated overseas. This has certainly increased since the takeover of Hong Kong. The Chinese migratory wave is part of a worldwide trend of ethnic Chinese people on the move. In turn, this migration of the Chinese is a manifestation of the 'global village' phenomenon, when people of all races worldwide have become much more mobile and move in search of a lifestyle that suits them better.

Understanding this dynamic of migration is very complex, especially when tourism is superimposed on it as a wide range of relationships emerging. These include the relationship of tourism and migration with changes in the life course, travel careers, family and friendship networks, government and governance, and the distribution of cultural/economic/environmental impacts (Williams and Hall, 1999). Thus, the main unknown relationship is how migration and tourism interact, especially among migration groups with a new outbound travel habit, particularly where the family networks have expanded and evolved into a global network. They may be a new

phenomenon which the wider tourism literature constantly talks about (eg. Hall, 1997), but few have understood how closely related migration is to their travel habits.

Ethnic-ties are also an emerging area of study. Ethnicity is increasingly being recognised as a powerful driver of return visits to relatives and friends in the country of origin of the immigrant. In terms of Chinese immigrants' travel habits and patterns of both domestic and international travel, relatively little is known. In a New Zealand context, local, regional and global processes may be shaping migration, which is inter-connected with travel and patterns of tourism emerging that are distinctive and complex. Considering the increased global demand for business, and significance of consumer behaviour that incorporates ethnicity, tourism and international trade, and the significant volume of immigration-induced tourism in tourism flows, ethnic tourism is a fruitful area for research (Rossiter and Chan, 1998). Given the limited degree of understanding and research on the interface of population geography, migration and tourism, this study of Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns will consider the impact of family reunion, VFR travel and other factors in shaping the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand by comparing them with the travel patterns of New Zealanders and the travel patterns of the Chinese from China. It will provide one example of ethnic tourism to gain a better understanding of the relationships between tourism and immigration. This study will also be a basis for comparative studies between different ethnic groups in terms of their patterns of outbound travel.

This study comprises several chapters. The first chapter introduces the topic, purpose and objectives of this research. The second chapter examines the literature which is germane to the various elements associated with the multidisciplinary context of a topic which incorporates a range of different subjects. In particular, the literature review examines the relationships that exist between various components of the study associated with: tourism, migration (including immigration and emigration) and the relationship between these components. The areas for consideration are: the concepts and definitions of tourism; the nexus between tourism and migration; tourism, VFR and family travel; and the process of migration-immigration to New Zealand. The review will provide a context in which this study can make a contribution to an

evolving area of study, particularly in relation to the nexus between tourism and immigration.

The third chapter explores the profile of the Chinese population in New Zealand in order to identify specific factors impact upon their travel patterns and habits. It examines the demographic and socioeconomic profile of Chinese New Zealanders. This is because the profile can provide relevant information regarding age, sex, income, education, employment and other related characteristics of Chinese New Zealanders which are essential to understand the factors influencing and shaping their outbound travel. By constructing this profile from secondary data sources, one can gain better insights of specific determinants of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel which may be influenced by specific variables such as country of origin, ethnic ties and VFR. Therefore, the areas of examination contain: how to understand travel behaviour; the meaning of 'Asian' in a New Zealand context; the Chinese population in New Zealand from a historical perspective; the Chinese community in New Zealand; demographic and socioeconomic profile of Chinese immigrants; and travel habits of Chinese population in New Zealand.

The fourth chapter outlines the methodology used to prepare the primary research reported in this study. It explains the sample design, questionnaire design, data collection and data analysis processes with an emphasis on correspondence analysis. It also highlights the limitations of this research. The fifth chapter presents the outcomes of the questionnaire survey. It also analyses and interprets the results of the survey. Discussion of the result is also carried out in this chapter focusing on issues such as the sample representativeness of this survey; a statistical description of the characteristics of the sample; and the patterns of travel of Chinese New Zealanders. It also discusses the results and findings which may contribute to existing knowledge in the context of the relationship between tourism and immigration. The last chapter summarizes the main themes in the research, especially the results and findings. It highlights the implications and limitations of this research and also provides suggestions for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter examines the literature which is germane to the multidisciplinary context of this study, which involves a discussion of a range of different subjects. In particular, this literature review examines the relationships that exist between various components of the study that are associated with: tourism, migration (including immigration and emigration) and the interrelationship of these components. This necessitates a consideration of the following areas:

- The concepts and definitions of tourism;
- The nexus between tourism and migration;
- Tourism, VFR and family travel; and
- The process of migration-immigration to New Zealand.

The review will provide a context in which this study can make a contribution to an evolving area of study, particularly in relation to the nexus between tourism and immigration. For this reason, the initial discussion begins by focusing on the context of the study which is tourism.

2.1 Tourism

In the 1990s, tourism has become the world's most important economic activity and is widely recognized as the world's largest industry. According to the WTO (1996), tourism expenditure represented more than 8 percent of the world merchandise exports and one-third of world trade in services in 1995. In 1996, some 592 million international trips were made (1997), and according to the WTO forecasts, by the year 2020 this will almost have trebled to some 1.6 billion international trips, worth some $2 trillion annually. The ability of tourism to generate foreign exchange revenue, create employment and absorb unemployment has provided it with an economic, political and social legitimacy in the developed and developing world. For instance, the travel and tourism industry has become the principal source of job creation in many countries and employs more than 100 million people worldwide. So what is tourism since it is recognised as having such a global significance?

2.1.1 Concept and Definition of Tourism

The terms travel and tourism are often interchanged within the published literature on tourism. According to Chadwick (1994: 65), they are normally meant to encompass 'the field of research on human and business activities associated with one or more aspects of the temporary movement of persons away from their immediate home communities and daily work environments for business, pleasure and personal reasons'. It is widely acknowledged that the two terms are used to 'describe' three concepts (Chadwick, 1994: 65 cited in Hall and Page, 1999: 58):

- the movement of people;
- a sector of the economy or an industry;
- a broad system of interacting relationships of people, their needs to travel outside their communities and services that attempt to respond to these needs by supplying products.

In a historical context, Burkart and Medlik (1981: 41) identify the historical development of the term 'tourism', noting the distinction between the endeavours of researchers to differentiate between the concept and technical definitions of tourism. The concept of tourism refers to the 'broad notional framework, which identifies the essential characteristics, and which distinguishes tourism from the similar, often related, but different phenomena'. In contrast, technical definitions have evolved through time as researchers modify and develop appropriate measures for statistical, legislative and operational reasons implying that there may be various technical definitions to meet particular purposes (Hall and Page, 1999: 58).

Burkart and Medlik's (1981) approach to the concept of tourism continues to offer a valid assessment of the situation where five main characteristics are associated with the concept:

- Tourism arises from the movement of people to, and their stay in, various destinations.

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

- The journey and the stay take place outside the normal place of residence and work, so that tourism gives rise to activities which are distinct from those of the resident and working populations of the places, through which tourists travel and in which they stay.

- The movement to tourist destinations is of a temporary, short-term character, with the intention of returning home within a few days, weeks or months.

- Destinations are visited for purposes other than taking up permanent residence or employment remunerated from within the places visited.

(Burkart and Medilk 1981: 42)

On the basis of Burkart and Medlik's (1981) concept of tourism, the essential characteristics of tourism can best be interpreted to embrace a wider concept. All tourism includes some travel but not all travel is tourism, while the temporary and short-term nature of most tourist trips distinguish it from migration. Therefore, from the broad interpretation of tourism, it is possible to consider the technical definitions of tourism.

2.1.2 Technical Definitions of Tourism

Technical definitions of tourism normally have three principal features (Hall and Page, 1999: 59):

- Purpose of travel (eg. the type of traveller, be it business travel, holidaymakers, visits to friends and relatives or for other reasons);

- The time dimension involved in the tourism visit, which requires a minimum and a maximum period of time spent away from the home area and the time spent at the destination. In most cases, this would involve a minimum stay of more than 24 hours away from home and less than a year as a maximum;

- Those situations where tourists may or may not be included as tourists, such as cruiseship passengers, those tourists in-transit at a particular point of embarkation/departure and excursionists who stay less than 24 hours at a destination (eg. the European duty free cross-channel day trip market).

9

In 1991, the WTO defined tourism as 'the activities of a person travelling outside his or her usual environment for less than a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited', where 'usual environment' is intended to exclude trips within the areas of usual residence and also frequent and regular trips between the domicile and the workplace and other community trips of a routine character where 'less than a specified period of time' is intended to exclude long-term migration, and 'exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited' is intended to exclude only migration for temporary work. The following definitions were also developed by the WTO (WTO cited in Chadwick 1994: 66):

- International tourism: consists of inbound tourism and outbound tourism.
- Visits to a country by non-residents and outbound tourism residents of a country visiting another country.
- Internal tourism: residents of a country visiting their own country.
- Domestic tourism: internal tourism plus inbound tourism (the tourism market for accommodation facilities and attractions within a country).
- National tourism: internal tourism plus outbound tourism (the resident tourism market for travel agents and airlines).

2.1.3   What is International Tourism?

International tourism normally involves a tourist leaving their country of origin to cross into another country which normally (but not always) involves documentation, administration formalities and movements to a foreign environment. International tourism consists of inbound tourism and outbound tourism. Inbound tourism involves non-residents travelling in another country, and outbound tourism involves residents travelling in another country (Vellas and Becherel, 1995: 2).

Hall and Page (1999: 64) point out that there are two principal organisations which collate data on international tourism – the WTO and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Such statistics contain summaries of the most

salient tourism statistics for countries and territories, and most of the main generating and receiving areas.

Statistics on international tourism are normally collected to assess the impact of tourism on a country's balance of payments by the governments. They are also utilised by marketing arms of National Tourism Organisations to base their decisions on who to target in international marketing campaigns. The wider tourism industry also makes use of such data as part of their strategic planning and for more immediate purposes where niche markets exist. There are concerns about the approaches taken by national and international agencies associated with international tourism statistics with respect to the procedures and methodology used to measure international tourism. For instance, one debate concerns whether business travel should be considered as a discrete activity in relation to tourism (Chadwick, 1994: 75, cited in Hall and Page, 1999: 64). This leads to situations where tourists may or may not be included as tourist and their purpose of travel. The result as Hall and Page (2000) shows in parts of the Asia-Pacific region, is a lack of a united approach to data collection for international and domestic tourism. Even where data exists, it does not necessarily allow a discussion of the patterns and motivation associated with tourist travel.

2.1.4 Typologies and Classifications of Tourists

In order to improve statistical collection and improve understanding of tourism, the United Nations (UN) (1994) and the WTO (1991) recommended differentiating between visitors, tourists and excursionists. The WTO (1991) recommended that *an international tourist* be defined as: 'a visitor who travels to a country other than that in which he/she has his/her usual residence for at least one night but not more than one year, and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited'. *An international excursionist*, eg. cruise ship visitors, is defined as 'a visitor residing in a country who travels the same day to a country other than which he/she has his/her usual environment for less thin 24 hours without spending the night in the country visited and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited' (WTO 1991; UN 1994).

The term '*domestic visitor*' describes any person residing in a country, who travels to a place within the country, outside his/her usual environment for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.

It is clear from the above consideration of technical definitions that tourism mainly involves a temporary movement, the emphasis is on the intention of returning home, and not taking up permanent residence. This is significant, because trips have a return function that is not necessarily present in other forms of migration in the shorter term. This, therefore, raises the issue of more permanent migration, such as staying in another country for more than 12 months of the time limits, or taking up employment remunerated from within the places visited.

2.2 Relationships between Tourism and Migration

Tourism to a country can generate permanent immigration, and permanent immigration, can in turn, generate increased tourism, particularly for the purpose of visiting friends and relatives (Murphy, Dwyer, Forsyth and Burnley, 1993). For example, research by Williams, King and Warnes (1997: 115) shows that retirement migration from the UK to the Mediterranean has been shaped by previous patterns of travel and tourism. For the purpose of this study, the relationships among tourism, migration and globalisation will be the focus of discussion.

2.2.1 Definitions of Migration, Immigration and Emigration

Boyle, Halfacree and Robinson (1998: 34) argue that 'migration is usually defined spatially as movement across the boundary of an areal unit and it is generally agreed that there will be some permanence to a move described as a migration'. This movement function is reiterated in the Encyclopedia of Sociology (Borgatta, 19xx), where *migration* is defined as the relatively permanent movement of individuals or groups over varying distances to change one's place of residence; permanence and distance are its major defining dimensions. Migration is a type of geographic mobility status. Furthermore, *international migration* is a term used to refer to change of usual residence between nations. The number of international migrants is always

very much less than the total number of persons traveling across international frontiers, because the overwhelming majority of such travellers do not intend to change their usual residence. International migration contrasts with *internal migration,* which refers to a change of usual residence within a nation. The term *immigration* is used to denote the flow of persons establishing a usual residence in a given nation whose last residence was in some other countries. The term *emigration* is used to denote the flow of persons relinquishing usual residence in a given country to establish residence in some other nation. Therefore, there are a wide range of inter-related terms used within the literature on migration and these have not been developed with any concern for travel or tourism research.

2.2.2   Tourism and Migration Interrelationships

As mentioned in the previous section, tourism does have a relationship with migration. That is, tourism can generate permanent immigration, and in turn, permanent immigration can generate a demand for tourism (see Jackson, 1990; Murphy et al, 1993; King, 1994; Paci, 1994; King and Gamage, 1994; Braunlich and Nadkarni, 1995; Meis, Joyal and Trites, 1995; Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary, 1995; Morrison and O'Leary, 1995; Seaton and Tagg, 1995; Yuan, Fridgen, Haieh and O'Leary, 1995; Seaton and Tagg, 1995; and Williams and Hall, 1999). These studies argued that many forms of migration generate tourism flows, in particular through the geographical extension of friendship and kinship networks. The migrants themselves may travel back to their country of origin for VFR or other purposes. Moreover, the migrants to a new country may be followed by their friends and relatives who choose to visit them in their new country. These flows of tourism are very much structured by the life course of migration, with each round of migration creating a new spatial arrangement of friendship and kinship networks, which potentially represent VFR tourism flows. The extent to which these are activated depends both on the particular characteristics of those networks, such as their intensity, reciprocity and utilisation of different forms of sustaining contacts and the particularities of place (Williams and Hall, 1999). The significance of VFR and family ties will be reviewed in the later part of the literature review.

Studies also point out that tourism may also serve to generate migration flows (eg. Coppock 1977; Monk and Alexander, 1986; Oakes, 1992; Snepenger, Johnson and Rasker, 1995; Williams, 1999; Aitken and Hall, 1999; Butler 1999; Williams and Hall, 1999, and Kang and Page, 2000). First, labour migration to provide services required by tourists. It is mainly through the demand generated for labour which, if it cannot be met locally, will stimulate labour migration. In addition, King (1994) argues that such labour mobility may be differentiated by nationality, gender, ethnicity, and skills depending on the particular features of the tourism industry, and of the local labour market. Moreover, migration by entrepreneurs to establish small businesses with niche markets or lifestyle factors. Second, consumption-related migration systems with a symbiotic relationship to tourism flows and spatial outcomes such as property ownership, second home development and retirement settlements. For example, the case of permanent migration recently investigated and identified as a function of retirement migration (Williams, King and Warnes, 1997; Williams and Hall, 1999). These studies examined the scale and geography of these migration flows in Europe and the implications for host communities, and the development of migration where migrants are attracted by the quality of life in the destination areas with a metropolitan economy.

Kang and Page (2000) highlight, within the context of geographical research on tourism, that there have been a number of attempts to develop a new research agenda which examines the interrelationships between tourism and migration, particularly in terms of production and consumption. The studies regarding the relationship between immigration and tourism have largely been carried out in Australia. One reason for this is that Australia has one of the world's highest intakes of immigration per capita and also has a rapidly expanding tourism industry (Dwyer, Forsyth, Burnley and Murphy, 1995). Some examples of these studies are: *Factors affecting demand for international travel to and from Australia* (Smith and Toms, 1978); *Determinants of demand for travel to and from Australia* (Hollander, 1982); *VFR Tourism: Is it underestimated?* (Jackson, 1990); *Tourism - Immigration Linkages: Some implications for infrastructure* (Murphy et al, 1993); *The impact of migration on Australian inbound and outbound tourism* (Forsyth, Dwyer, Murphy and Burnley, 1993); *Economic impacts of migration induced inbound tourism* (Dwyer et al, 1995). The results of these studies show a strong relationship between the number of persons

in Australia who were born in other countries and the 'visiting relatives' category of tourist for both inbound and outbound travel. The studies also indicate that not only the links between tourism and migration become more important in determining mobility, but also they are increasingly being expressed at the international as opposed to the intra-national scale (Dwyer et al. 1992).

2.2.3   Globalisation, Tourism and Migration

In the past decades, the world had been experiencing changes and uncertainty. Political and economic forces, technology development and social and lifestyle changes had led to internationalisation of products and services, and in turn these factors exert powerful influences on globalisation, tourism and migration. Williams (1999) and Williams and Hall (1999) explain the development of migration flows with a distinct tourism dimension as a function of the globalisation of tourism markets, the internationalisation of tourism capital, changes in post-working lives and changes in the reorganisation of the labour process. Other factors which are influential include: the ageing of populations and social changes in work and non-work. The outcome is tourism-related migration and a wide range of social, cultural, economic and political issues for individual migrants, host communities and governments. This was reaffirmed by Hitchcox (1994: 218) who argued that 'migration is a social process that is historically situated in a political-economic context'.

Williams and Hall (1999) argue that increasing uncertainty of growth in the developed world can be attributed to a degree of greater volatility in the labour market. Careers have more discontinuities, and job changes have become more frequent. There are two important consequences of these changes. First, by contributing to the tendency to early retirement, it thereby changes the scope for retirement migration. Second, there has been increased labour mobility, both sectorally and spatially, which has contributed to the geographical dispersion of friendship and family networks.

Studies by Aislabie, Lee and Stanton (1994) and Dawkins, Kemo and Cabalu (1995) note that the globalisation of the economy has led not only to the globalisation of financial resources, but also of human resources in labour markets. As Williams and Hall (1999) highlight, the growth of transnational tourism capital has created a greater

need for skilled international migration, particularly of senior management. International labour migration, especially of skilled workers, has internationalised the potential networks of visiting friends and families tourism. In addition, there are increasing numbers with experience of working and living abroad, which both increases their search spaces at retirement and removes the barrier of lack of familiarity with living abroad.

2.2.4 Issues and Implications of Tourism and Migration

Williams and Hall (1999) recognise that the rapid expansion of tourism in the twentieth century had two important implications for migration. First, the scale and speed of destination and resort growth had implications for the requirement for labour migration. Secondly, it widened the search spaces of the first and subsequent generations of mass tourist as they progressed through the various stages of the life course. In addition, local demographic, social and economic structures will condition the availability of local labour and the requirement for in-migration. Comparative wage differentials, levels of education and training, working conditions and job status in tourism and other sectors all influence the availability of workers, as also does the overall level of unemployment. In the case of labour shortages, labour has to be met through permanent immigration and temporary work-permits for appropriately skilled foreign staff (Industries Assistance Commission 1989).

However, the need of appropriately skilled foreign labour through immigration could have many implications. Kang and Page (2000) argue that once the individual/family emigrates, the conditions in the host country and process of adaptation are taken into account together with the challenge posed by a new culture, expatriate acculturation process, sociological factors (eg. language ability and family and kinship ties) and the opportunities in the local labour market which also affect the individual/family's perceived assimilation into the host community. In a study of Taiwanese immigrants to New Zealand, Boyer (1996) indicated that over 21,000 Taiwanese had immigrated to New Zealand on the basis of their skills, qualifications and work experience by the end of June 1995. Although expecting a fall in income as well as some language difficulties, the net result has been unemployment and underemployment and many of these immigrants have had to relocate one or all of the family members back to

Taiwan. This is part of a process which has been labelled 'semigration'. Although in a few early cases, semigration is attributable to lifecycle factors such as family responsibilities (Richmond, 1969), since the early 1990s, this 'semigration' phenomenon appears to have become more involuntary. Unable to obtain employment in New Zealand and thereby support their families, many immigrant males have been forced to separate from their families and return to their home of origin to work. In some cases, this separation can be semi-permanent with husbands returning to New Zealand only for 'holidays' adding a new dimension to the tourism-migration relationship.

To summarise, the principal findings of the literature regarding the relationship between tourism and migration are as follows: many migration flows are typically explained in terms of 'push and pull factors', and models of specific migrations flows have been developed (eg. refugee movements and labour flows from Eastern to Western Europe using temporary travel visas). But the wider implications and linkages to tourism have been neglected. Despite the obvious relationship with migration, researchers in the demographic literature have tended to overlook the growth of tourism and its relationship to population movements and border crossings in the context of migration research (eg. Cohen 1996a, 1996b; White and Jackson 1995). Williams and Hall (1999) argue that 'the largely discreet literatures on tourism and migration have, at best, served to mark out the core areas of their research concerns, and fail to adequately conceptualise and define their fields of enquiry.' This points to the interface of population geography, migration research and tourism studies which remain a largely unexplored domain.

2.3 Tourism, VFR and Family Travel

Tourism has a close relationship with migration since immigrants remain emotionally attached to their country of birth. Many make return visits to the home region, often visiting or staying with friends and relatives (King and Gamage, 1994). This section will review the literature regarding ethnic tourism, VFR tourism and family reunion, the demand for travel and tourists motivations to travel.

2.3.1 Ethnic Tourism

Studies of ethnic tourism are few in number and are scattered across a range of topic areas. Most of the studies that have discussed the phenomenon have done so in the context of travel motivations and travel patterns. The topics are usually associated with VFR and are often seen as closely related to patterns of migration (Nguyen and King, 1998: 350). The term 'ethnic tourism' has been used to convey three different meanings in the tourism literature. The first meaning is used for travelling with a purpose for the consumption of exotic culture and people; the second meaning relates to travel for ethnic reunion purposes, and the third meaning is applied to 'multi-cultural tourism' or 'minority tourism' that normally is regarded as a tourism product. The last category of ethnic tourism is related to the supply side of tourism whereas the previous two categories are related to the demand side. The more frequent use of the term ethnic tourism is travel motivated primarily by the search for first hand, authentic and sometimes intimate contact with people who remain emotionally attached to their country of birth. Thus, many make return visits, often visiting friends and/or relatives (Thanopoulos and Walle, 1988; Jackson, 1990; King and Gamage, 1994; Liu, Var and Timur, 1984; Forsyth, Dwyer, Murphy and Bumley, 1993; Seaton, 1994; Ostrowski, 1991).

Studies of ethnic tourism have been largely case study based with little contribution to any theoretical development of the literature. Countries that have been the focus of research have included Poland (Ostrowski, 1991), Sri Lanka (King and Gamage, 1994), Australia (King, 1994), and Greece (Thanopoulos and Walle, 1988). Ethnic tourist markets can be important for both host countries and for generating countries (Ostrowski, 1991). Most VFR studies have also been case study based and there have been fewer studies on VFR than on holiday and business travel (Morrison and O'Leary, 1995).

Examples of ethnic tourism include travellers from North America tracing their ancestry in Ireland or Scotland. In China, one tourism bureau (China Travel Service or CTS) exists to attract and host external ethnic Chinese from Taiwan, Macau and Hong Kong (King, 1994). Several international publications outline the economic and cultural importance of ethnic tourism. According to international tourist arrivals in

Ireland in 1988, the generating countries ethnically linked to Ireland hold the top positions: first the UK with 1, 465, 000 visits a year and second the USA with 373,300 (tourist arrivals in 1988 totalled 2,346,000). The statistics of tourist arrivals to the UK are another example. Out of 15.8 million visitors to the UK in 1988, the major proportion (16.6 Percent) were from the USA, with the next largest group coming from West Germany (Ostrowski, 1991). Israel is one of the other countries where ethnic tourist arrivals constitute a significant proportion of total tourism arrivals. Out of 1.4 million foreign visitors in 1987, the highest number were from the USA - 293,000, with West Germany second - 182,000 (King, 1994; Ostrowski, 1991).

Despite the significance of this category of ethnic tourism in relation to tourism demand, the term ethnic tourism appears frequently in the tourism literature as the search for exotic cultures, but travel by expatriates to their country of birth has merited less attention (King and Gamage, 1994). There are two studies in the latter category. Thanopoulos and Walle (1988) examined Greek Americans in Ohio and concluded that of the one million plus Greek-Americans in the United States, 30 percent are potential travellers to Greece. In a survey conducted at the Polish frontier by Ostrowski (1991), 38 percent of respondents were Polish born.

These exploratory studies established a basic research framework for the marketing of tourism to a specific ethnic group. The differences between ethnic travellers and nonethnic travellers have been highlighted in a study by King and Gamage (1994), with particular reference to their economic impact. Liu, Var, and Timur (1984) concluded that ethnic travellers accounted for higher income multipliers than nonethnic travellers, implying that ethnic travellers can be very valuable to the host country. To summarise, these studies indicate that ethnic tourism has significance from two perspectives - the 'generating country' and the 'host country'.

2.3.2 Visiting Friends and Relatives: A Neglected Area of Tourism Research

There is a very close relationship between ethnic tourism and visiting friends and relatives (VFR) tourism. Ethnic tourists' primary motivation is ethnic reunion, which also includes a desire to delve into family histories through travel to their country of birth. Due to such motivational factors, this type of ethnic tourism has tended to be

19

regarded as virtually synonymous with VFR tourism (King, 1994). The recent publication of a special issue of the *Journal of Tourism Studies* (1995) on VFR travel reflects a growing awareness in the literature of the complexity and magnitude of this tourism phenomenon. A study by Jackson (1990: 13) has asserted a strong link between VFR traffic and migration patterns that countries which were recently populated by migrants, may have inbound and outbound tourism flows associated with the ethnic roots of new immigrants:

> ... the total flow of VFRs as proportion of the size of country of birth migrant groups is significantly and directly related to the proportion of recent migrants.
>
> (Jackson, 1990: 13)

Despite the potential significance of such associations, the VFR market tends to be underestimated (Jackson, 1990). Furthermore, King (1994: 174) points out one of the problematic aspects with regard to the close use of VFR and ethnic tourism is:

> The use of the VFR label as an alternative to ethnic tourism has come about for reasons of convenience. National and regional tourism organisations, for example, seem to prefer the term VFR, thereby categorising visitors by the type of accommodation used rather than by their motivation. ... The categorisation may in fact result in a failure to gain a full understanding of a significant market.
>
> (King, 1994: 174)

What King (1994) is alluding to is the difficulty of disaggregating VFR and ethnic tourism, a feature which Dann (1993) also highlighted in relation to the use of nationality in establishing the origin of visitors.

With regard to the scope of VFR tourism, Seaton (1994: 317) argues that 'the VFR category is ambiguous: visiting friends and relatives can be a primary motivation, the reason for a trip, or merely a trip descriptor, meaning simply that friends and relatives provided accommodation, irrespective of whether they were the main reason for the trip'. Seaton and Palmer (1997) describe the former as motivational VFRs and the latter as accommodation VFRs. Then, they argue that motivational VFRs are the only true VFRs. Yuan, Fridgen, Hsieh and O'Leary (1995) also see VFR tourism as the

major purpose for the trip. Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary (1995: 48) reinforce this context of the definition by stating that:

It involves travel with the purpose of visiting friends and/or relatives. However, as might be the common perception, it does not necessarily mean that VFR travellers share the living accommodations of their friends and/or relatives.

(Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary, 1995: 48)

Paci (1994) classifies VFR to tourism as a distinctive segment of the travel market which should not be undervalued and suggests that VFR ethnic tourism has strong growth potential, demonstrating a strong propensity to travel repeatedly to a single destination. This proposition has been consistently neglected in the literature and yet is a critical issue for tourism planners and marketers. Paci (1994) claimed that 'VFR tourism remains poorly documented and under-researched and such data [sic] available is poor'. The scale and significance of the VFR market is underestimated by many National Tourism Organisations (Danman, 1988; Jackson, 1990; Seaton, 1994), partly because VFR tourists make less use of commercial accommodation facilities and are consequently assumed to be of less economic importance than other tourists. Destination organisations whose membership consists of a significant number of accommodation enterprises are discouraged from undertaking VFR research and marketing by their own members who perceive little potential benefits from the results of such initiatives.

To clearly identify VFR tourism as a significant travel market within international tourism one needs to understand the VFR category from a motivational perspective rather than an accommodation perspective. There is another concern about the VFR tourism which is that VFR as an aggregate category may conceal differences between those who visit friends (VF) and those who visit relatives (VR). Seaton and Tagg's (1995) research undertaken in Northern Ireland highlights the distinction between VF, VR and VFVR (visiting both friends and relatives). These VF categories were less likely to have ethnic connections with Ireland while VR and VFVR categories were more likely to have ethnic connections with Ireland. As the Northern Ireland research suggests, in order to overcome non-consumer-oriented and imprecise measures of the VFR category, Seaton (1994) suggests splitting the VFR category into three groups:

21

(i) visiting friends; (ii) visiting relatives; (iii) visiting friends and relatives. Seaton (1994) established, through a survey, that the VFR trips taken by Asian ethnic minorities in Britain, are actually VRs - family trips back to Pakistan or India and other ex-commonwealth countries where members of the extended family are living. Also, through the Northern Ireland example, Seaton and Tagg (1995: 16) make the following points:

Splitting the VFR category has particular value for the analysis of ethnic tourism. It allows precise, quantified profiling of its main subjects, showing them to be, in Northern Ireland, first generation émigré or emigrant VRs returning to the places where they were born.

(Seaton and Tagg, 1995: 16)

Thus, it can be deduced that the purpose of ethnic tourism is more likely to be visiting relatives (VR) rather than visiting friends (VR). This implies that splitting VR and VF category can reflect more precise market trends particularly in relation to ethnic tourism trends.

King (1994: 174) examined the role of tourism as a form of migration, noting that travel for ethnic reunion is closely linked with VFR travel. He stated that such travellers display 'a sense of belonging to or identifying with a way of life that have been left behind'. King further suggested that the links between ethnic tourism and migration need to be clarified where family connections and shared cultural values are involved. Yuan, Fridgen, Hsich, and O'Leary (1995) and Meis, Joyal, and Trites (1995) have viewed VFR tourism as a special segment of international tourism.

Despite the growing interest in ethnic reunion, the prevailing literature remains case study driven and no attempt has been made to draw the existing findings into a framework to look at the totality of the process and to highlight where further research may be needed to fill in gaps within existing knowledge (Kang and Page, 2000).

King (1994) has emphasised that, to gain a proper understanding of ethnic tourism, one needs a fuller understanding of the motivation for travel rather than the mode of accommodation used, and there should be more effort expended to reassess the

present VFR category. Only then, will the link between ethnic tourism and VFR tourism be more clearly assessed, so that ethnic tourism as a market segment within international tourism would gain more attention from the industry as well as the academics.

2.3.3 The Demand for Travel and Tourist Motivations: A Dichotomous Relationship

Why do tourists seek to travel? Where do they go? And when do they travel and how do they get there? These seemingly simple propositions remain one of the principal challenges for tourism research. According to Hall and Page (1999: 50), these basic issues have spatial implications in terms of the patterns of tourism, where tourism impacts will occur and the nature of management challenges for destinations which may attract a 'mass market' or be seeking to develop tourism from a low base. In other words, an understanding of tourism demand is a starting point for the analysis of why tourism develops, who patronises specific destinations and what appeals to the client market. Research in this subject has been led by psychologists, sociologists, marketers and economists. The area of tourist behaviour has a more developed literature within the field of social psychology, highlighted by the seminal study by P. Pearce (1982) and more recently by P. Pearce (1993).

The precise approach to the analysis of tourism demand is largely dependent upon the disciplinary perspective of the researcher. However, demand and motivation are not synomous with each other even though the literature sometimes use them inter-changeably. Geographers view demand in a uniquely spatial manner as 'the total number of persons who travel, or wish to travel, to use tourist facilities and services at places away from their places of work and residence' (Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 1), whereas in this context demand 'is seen in terms of the relationship between individuals' motivation [to travel] and their ability to do so (D.G. Pearce, 1995: 18)' with an attendant emphasis on the implications for the spatial impact on the development of domestic and international tourism. In comtrast, the economist emphasises 'the schedule of the amount of any product or service which people are willing and able to buy at each specific price in a set of possible prices during a specified period of time'. Psychologists view demand from the perspective of

motivation and behaviour (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill, 1993: 15). Nevertheless, the factors which shape the tourist decision-making process to select and participate in specific forms of tourism is largely within the field of consumer behaviour and motivation (Hall and Page, 1999: 52).

Tourist motivation studies are the basis of many consumer analyses in tourism. The general issue of understanding consumer needs in tourism falls within the area of the psychology of tourist behaviour although there is growing evidence of an emerging literature on consumer behaviour. Thus, a major focus of consumer studies which look at the psychology of tourist behaviour is the study of tourist motivation (Pearce, 1995; Ryan and Page, 2000). Needless to say, it is imperative that the tourism industry properly understands why their customers choose one product over another since understanding their motivation is critical for the success of their business. Goodall (1990) identifies motivation as a factor influencing holiday choice and D.G. Pearce (1988) regards these as a key factor in explaining observed holiday patterns. D.G. Pearce (1995) sees tourism demand in terms of the relationship between individuals' motivation to travel and their ability to do so. Morrison (1989) also argues that tourist motivation as well as marketing, destination features and contingency factors such as money, health and time forms tourism demand. Therefore, it should be understood that tourist motivation represents a significant part of tourist demand. Further, this also means that analysing the motivation of tourists is not synonymous with the distinctiveness of tourist behaviour (Leiper, 1990).

Tourist motivation is an incredibly complex area of research. P. Pearce (1993: 114) outlined a 'blueprint for tourist motivation', arguing that in an attempt to theorise tourist motivation one must consider the following issues:

- the conceptual place of tourism motivation;
- its task in the specialism of tourism;
- its ownership and users;
- its ease of communication;
- pragmatic measurement concerns;
- adopting a dynamic approach;
- the development of multi-motive perspectives;

- resolving and clarifying intrinsic and extrinsic motivation approaches.

Cooper et al. (1993:20) view the individual as a central component of tourism demand to understand what motivates the tourist to travel. Their research acknowledges that:

no two individuals are alike, and differences in attitudes, perceptions and motivation have an important influence on travel decisions [where] attitudes depend on an individual's perception of the world. Perceptions are mental impressions of ... a place or travel company and are determined by many factors which include childhood, family and work experiences.

Hall and Page (1999: 52) argue that if one views the tourist as a consumer, then tourism demand is formulated through a consumer decision-making process, and therefore one can discern four elements which initiate demand:

- energisers of demand (eg. factors that promote an individual to decide on a holiday);
- filterers of demand which means that even though motivation may exist, constraints on demand may exist in economic, sociological or psychological terms;
- affecters which are factors that may heighten or suppress the energisers that promote consumer interest or choice in tourism; and
- roles where the family member involved in the purchase of holiday products and the arbiter of group decision-making on choice of destination, product and the where, when and how of consumption.

These factors underpin the tourist's process of travel decision-making although it does not explain *why* people choose to travel.

Ryan's (1991: 25-9) analysis of tourist travel motivators (excluding business travel) identified the following reasons commonly cited to explain why people travel to tourist destinations for holidays, which include:

- a desire to escape from a mundane environment;

- the pursuit of relaxation and recuperation functions;
- an opportunity for play;
- the strengthening of family bonds;
- prestige, since different destinations can enable one to gain social enhancement among peers;
- social interaction;
- educational opportunities;
- wish fulfilment; and
- shopping.

Within most studies of tourist motivation these factors emerge in one form or another (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Dann, 1981; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1990; Pearce, 1993, 1995).

The influence of friends and relatives becomes important when examining the dynamics of group decision-making processes for travel. The role of the spouse/partner and children has tended to be emphasised, though there has been a growing recognition of the role of other relatives and of friends (Crompton, 1981). A study by Gitelson and Kerstetter (1994) concluded that friends and/or relatives are influential throughout the decision-making process prior to, during, and/or after the trip has begun. The assumption that consumers will only purchase an item if it is seen as satisfying a 'need' is probably valid in the case of VFR and ethnic tourism - people may visit both the homes of friends and relatives and visit tourist attractions that reflect the local culture. Many are repeat visitors who rely significantly on their friends and family to plan their itinerary and to recommend things to do and places to see (Paci, 1994). Friends and relatives play a crucial role in the decision-making process for a number of reasons: First, the VFR tourism experience tends to be a highly social event. Secondly, friends and/or relatives will typically be more knowledgeable about the destination area and hence in a good position to provide advice. Lastly, the friend/relatives may themselves form part of the group visiting a particular attraction.

In many cases, the potential traveler may consider him or herself to be under an obligation to make a particular trip. In some cultures persons are required by social

convention to attend particular *rites de passage,* to care for the graves of their ancestors, or to marry members of particular families in the presence of their relatives. The extent to which VFR travel is subject to obligation has been given little consideration in the literature (Seaton, 1994) although Nguyen and King (1998) explore the subject briefly.

In their recent study of Vietnamese migrants' travel patterns from Australia to Viet Nam by Nguyen and King (1998), they indicate that the form and extent of social obligations for migrant Vietnamese in Australia vary according to religion, age, the social position of his/her family, and his/her birth order. In societies influenced by Confucian principles, the network of social obligations extends to almost every aspect of daily life and involves the extended family. A Vietnamese defines himself/herself by reference to his/her family, and the family and its members are seen as the most important priority (Muzny, 1985; Nguyen, 1994; Te, 1962). The Vietnamese travel phenomenon may be a case of travel to reaffirm family membership. Travel may be undertaken to protect the social circumstances of the participants including the right to inherit property, and to ensure that their children are included within the extended family (Nguyen and King, 1998: 351).

Even though there is already a wide range of literature dealing with the topics of tourism demand and motivation, more research is needed that is empirical and which uses appropriate methodology in order to have a better understanding of this topic than exists at present. D.G. Pearce (1995: 178) emphasises that 'as tourism grows into an increasingly sophisticated consumer industry, the need to understand the needs of travellers will increase and the motivation of tourists will become a core part of all tourism studies'. Therefore, having examined the tourism context and literature relevant to this study, attention now turns to the issue of migration and the significance in a New Zealand setting.

2.4 The Process of Migration – Immigration to New Zealand

New Zealand is a country which has largely been populated by immigration. As *the 1986 Review of Immigration Policy* noted, the entire population is ultimately the

consequence of immigration to this country over more than 1,500 years. For the first 1,200 years, the source of migrants was restricted to the Pacific, and most immigrants were Polynesian. The immigration history of the last 300 years shows greater diversity with settlers from the British Isles, France, other parts of Europe, Australia and Asia. The Chinese were the first non-European group to emigrate to nineteenth century New Zealand, and they are collectively the biggest immigrant group of Asian origin in this country, followed by Indian and Filipino Asian groups according to *Statistics New Zealand* (Statistics New Zealand, 1995, 1998).

2.4.1 History of Chinese Immigration

There are several studies examining Chinese immigration issues in New Zealand (eg., Chan, 1983; Fong, 1959; Greif, 1974; Ip, 1990; Ng, 1993; Pearson, 1990; Murphy, 1994). These studies are scattered across a range of topic areas, such as the Chinese assimilation in New Zealand; life stories of Chinese women in New Zealand; the origins of ethnic conflict in the country; the poll-tax in New Zealand; and issues regarding immigration and national identity in New Zealand. However, a few studies have focused on the history and background of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. Ng (1993), whose study of the history and earlier Chinese settlers in New Zealand is an exception to this.

The Chinese who emigrated to the Pacific-Rim nations in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries all originated from the Pearl River delta area of the southern Chinese province of Guangdong. At that time, Guangdong was a place of desperate poverty. The California goldrush of 1848 caused a sensation in Guangdong province, and by 1854 more than 40,000 Chinese goldminers had emigrated there. The Chinese called the United States 'Gold Mountain'. When gold was discovered in Australia two years later, Chinese began emigrating there. They differentiated the two places by calling the United States 'Old Gold Mountain' and Australia 'New Gold Mountain'. According to various historical archival records (eg. the Otago Witness, Dunstan Times, Don, A. Diary, cited in Ng, 1993), in 1861, gold was discovered in the Otago region precipitating a major goldrush. Thousands of miners from Australia flooded into the country. By 1863, the goldfield population totalled 24,000. However, by 1865 both Otago and Dunedin found themselves suffering a decline in business activity.

28

The Dunedin Chamber of Commerce remedied the situation by inviting Chinese miners from Australia to Otago to fill the gap left by departing European miners. The arrangements were made by a Victorian merchant, Ho Ah Mee, and in early 1866 the first 12 Chinese miners arrived. These were soon followed by others. By 1867 there were 1,270 Chinese miners in the province, and by late 1869 over 2,000. The Chinese coming from Victoria were soon supplemented by compatriots arriving direct from China.

However, as the number of immigrants rose, severe restrictions were imposed on those who were regarded as 'race aliens' and, from 1881, the particularly stringent constraints against Chinese immigrants - the *Chinese Immigrants Act* was passed. A poll-tax of £10.00 had to be paid by every Chinese entering the country. The tax was raised to £100.00 in 1896. This poll-tax was unique as no other ethnic group was required to pay such a tax to enter the country. In 1934, payment of the tax was waived by the Minister of Customs, and in 1944 the tax was officially repealed. Between 1882 and 1934, the New Zealand Government earned approximately £308,080 from the exploitation of the Chinese people of New Zealand through levying this tax (The New Zealand Select Committee on Chinese Immigration, 1871, cited in Murphy, 1994).

Ng (1972: 34) argued that Chinese history in New Zealand may be divided into three eras. The first dates from 1866 (upon the arrival of the first party of Chinese goldseekers) to 1900. This was the New Zealand-Chinese goldseekers' era, when the migrants were virtually all men, goldmining was their principal occupation and they were sojourners in outlook. The second era dates from 1900 to 1951 when the New Zealand-Chinese remained as aliens in the land, were still predominantly male, but were seeking the settlement of their families here and an end to the legal discrimination against them. They were mainly established in market gardens, fruit shops and laundries (Ng, 1972 cited in Ng, 1993: 7). The third and continuing era dates from 1951 when the New Zealand-Chinese gained the right of naturalisation, and the discriminatory laws and regulations against them had almost all been repealed. Many Chinese families had been reunited in New Zealand. Following the communist victory in China in 1949, most Chinese New Zealanders also abandoned

the long cherished idea of returning to China to live. These factors, combined with the relaxation of anti-Chinese legislation, led Chinese settlers and migrants to begin to regard New Zealand as home. From 1951, the Chinese in New Zealand who gained New Zealand citizenship could freely emerge with a new ethnic identity to realise their full potential. They entered the professions, become medical superintendents, scientists, manufacturers, financiers, farmers, teachers, city councillors, fashion designers and artists. They served on voluntary bodies, became active in sports and recreation, and are an integral part of the general community. Intermarriage, the dreaded 'miscegenation' of old, is now accepted within the wider society and is becoming commonplace (Greif, 1974).

2.4.2 New Zealand Government Policy and Immigration: Towards an Asian Focus

The migration of people of Asian ethnicity to New Zealand is closely linked to the country's political, social and migration history and government policy. As mentioned earlier, *the 1986 Review of Immigration Policy* noted, New Zealand is a country of immigration. Despite the history of government policy towards Chinese immigration, since 1986, New Zealand's *Immigration Policy Review* established a new objective of enriching the 'multicultural social fabric of New Zealand society', thus opening the door to more Asian immigration (Burke, 1986). Furthermore, New Zealand's Immigration Service introduced four main categories of government residence policy – general skills (often called 'point system'), business investor, family and humanitarian categories. The points system along with a more expansive pro-immigration policy, affirmed this intent by aiming 'to attract quality migrants from a wider catchment of countries' (New Zealand Immigration Service, 1991).

As a result of the new policy, people who were born in New Zealand made up 82.5 percent of New Zealand's resident population in the 1996 Census, a slight decrease from 1991 (New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1998). Between 1991 and 1996 New Zealand's overseas-born population increased by almost 78,000 people, with 72 percent of that number having been born in Asia, particularly in Northeast Asian countries such as China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and South Korea, which together accounted for an increase of almost 37,000 people. Subsequently, the total Chinese

residents in New Zealand increased to 70,227 in 1996 (Statistics New Zealand Census, 1996). In 1996, more than half (44,184) of the country's Chinese New Zealanders resided in Auckland. Although the number of Asian immigrants has increased since the 1980s, people of Asian ethnicity only comprise about 3 percent of New Zealand's total population.

In recent years, the subject of immigration to New Zealand, particularly Asian immigration and more specifically Chinese immigration, has been a topic of heated public debate within New Zealand. Numerous researchers (eg. Ip, 1995; Greif, 1995; and Brooking and Rabel, 1995), point to the 'Business Roundtable', representing New Zealand's largest international trading companies, pushing for more rapid opening of the country to Asia so that skilful entrepreneurs can bring in their managerial know-how, their trade connections with their home countries, and their investment capital. On the other hand, there is the 'New Zealand Defence Movement' which claims to protect Maori and Pakeha common interests against the invasion of alien Asian capitalists. However, one should not forget the Asian immigrants who were at the centre of the debate. What about the challenges and difficulties they have to face in their new adopted country?

As noted in Boyer's study (1996: 60), 'despite being based on a points system which rewarded education, few migrants were aware that gaining points and gaining recognition of qualifications by professional bodies were two quite different things. As a result, many immigrants have been denied access to employment opportunities commensurate with their qualifications'. The challenges and difficulties that the immigrants have to face include lack of English skills, unfamiliarity with the New Zealand economy and business culture, and the older age of many migrants, often compounded lack of recognition of their skills in New Zealand. The net result of these has been unemployment, underemployment and semigration of immigrants as emphasised in the previous section.

Richmond (1969) pointed out that many foreign-born migrants in a host country experience 'downward occupational mobility' as a consequence of geographic mobility. According to Leventman (1981), underemployment occurs when employees take on a job which is less interesting, less challenging, less secure or less well

remunerated than their previous job, or requires a level of skill and knowledge utilization far below the employees' level of qualification or experience. As Richmond (1969) stated, particularly where there are substantial linguistic barriers, significant cultural differences or discrimination against migrants by employers, the opportunity to obtain employment at or above the former employment status of the migrant is limited. Studies undertaken in Australia and New Zealand (eg. Khoo and Kee, 1992; Chapelle, 1992; Ip, 1995; Boyer, 1996) show that Asian immigrants take the longest time to find employment, and many of them are underemployed or unemployed. Some of them have to return to their counties of origin to work and support their families in New Zealand (so-called 'semigration' though much of this remains based on anecdotal evidence). Greif (1995) highlighted that immigration policy has always been enshrouded in controversy and tied to an economic strategy. This underlies the fundamental question of what kind of New Zealand its population wants.

2.4.3 Immigration to New Zealand: Patterns and Trends in the 1990s

In most immigrant receiving countries, immigration is the result of changing economic requirements and immigration policy. In the post-war period, New Zealand encouraged relatively high levels of immigration when sustained economic growth and industrialisation created a strong demand for foreign workers. Research by Trlin and Spoonley (1992) highlighted the changing nature of immigrant flows to New Zealand, which has been a major contributor to the post-war development of New Zealand's economy and society. Kritz and Zlotnik (1992) conceptualised these migration flows in terms of vanishing frontiers, the rise of transnational labour markets and freer exchange of labour and capital.

Traditionally New Zealand recruited skilled manual and white-collar migrants from Britain and Northern Europe, while most of the demand for unskilled or low skilled migrants was met from the Pacific Islands. Ongley and Pearson (1995) in a comparative analysis of immigration policy in Canada, New Zealand and Australia observed the change from discriminatory policies towards non-European immigrants to non-discriminatory assessment (see also Inglis 1992; Jones 1994). In the case of New Zealand, they noted the relationship of immigration to labour demand, with

policy adjusted to meet specific targets. Nash (1994: 87) summarised the interest in such flows where 'skilled migrants continue to receive attention, especially those migrating under business migration programmes to destinations such as Canada and New Zealand, where the benefits appear to favour metropolitan cities'.

The country's immigration policy initially maintained a preference for British or European immigrants and restrictions on non-European immigration, but these policies were gradually eroded. Le Heron and Pawson (1996) examined changes in government policy post-1989 and its contribution to net immigration from North Asia. This was a corollary of official government encouragement, the attraction of a peaceful and hospitable environment and concerns with changes in the political environment in Hong Kong post-1997. Castles (1998) examined the political consequences of growing immigration from Asia in the context of Australia and the increase in racism towards new immigrants from non-European source areas.

In respect of the Chinese immigration to New Zealand, Ip (1995) has argued that, 'when we look at the 'new wave' of Chinese immigrants to New Zealand, it is important not to view them in isolation, but to remember that they are part of a worldwide trend of ethnic Chinese people on the move'. In turn, this migration of the Chinese is a manifestation of the 'global village' phenomenon, when people of all races all round the world become much more mobile and move in search of a lifestyle that suits them better (Appleyard, 1992, cited in Ip, 1995). According to a study by the International Organisation for Migration (1992) on contemporary migration patterns, more than one million people leave their homelands permanently every year. A more recent study revealed that about 125 million people live outside of their country of birth (Martin and Widgren, 1997). This international migration demonstrates a greater dynamism in population flows and changes demographic patterns.

2.5 Summary

As emphasised earlier in this chapter, tourism represents the world's largest industry, and has a significant impact on the world's economy. For this reason, it is important to understand the nature and functions of tourism and the processes shaping distinct forms of tourist activity and behaviour. Although tourism definitions recognise that

tourism mainly involves a temporary movement, the emphasis is on the intention of returning home, and not taking up permanent residence elsewhere. This is significant, because trips have a return function that is not necessarily present in other forms of migration in the shorter term. Thus, this raises the issue of more permanent migration such as taking up employment from the places visited and the interrelationship with tourism flows. It also indicates the interrelationship between tourism and migration, that is, tourism to a country can generate permanent immigration: permanent immigration may generate increased tourism, particularly for the purpose of visiting friends and relatives as elaborated earlier in this chapter. In other words, there are two types of population flows at work: first the migration for employment; second the travel patterns of these migrants after emigrating, often to visit relatives back in the home country. Research which has been carried out in this area exhibits a strong relationship between people born overseas and the VFR category of tourist, particularly the VR category for both inbound and outbound travel. These studies also indicate that not only the links between tourism and migration become more important in determining mobility, but also they are increasingly being expressed at the international scale as opposed to the intra-national scale as a result of the globalisation of tourism markets, tourism capital, changes in post-working lives and changes in the reorganisation of the labour process.

The Chinese population has been the largest immigrant group of Asian origin in New Zealand since the nineteenth century when they first arrived in the country. There have been dramatic increases in the Chinese population since the implementation of New Zealand' new immigration policy in 1986. New Zealand, like many countries around the world, has increasingly become more multiracial and multicultural. It is apparent that there is growing interest in understanding the different aspects of the ethnic groups. This is imperative for the success of the nation as a whole and its industries including the tourism sector. Considering the increased global demand for business and consumer behaviour that incorporate ethnicity, due to the growth in migration, tourism and international trade, and the significant volume of immigration-induced tourism in tourism flows, ethnic tourism is a fruitful area for research (Rossiter and Chan, 1998). Given the limited degree of understanding and research on the interface of population geography, migration and tourism, this study of Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns will consider the impact of family reunion, VFR

travel and other factors in shaping the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. It will provide one example of ethnic tourism in gaining a better understanding of the relationships between tourism and immigration. This study may also form the basis for further comparative studies between different ethnic groups in terms of their patterns of outbound travel. Attention now turns to the profile of the Chinese population in New Zealand to establish the nature and characteristics of this group prior to considering their travel habits.

3. THE PROFILE OF CHINESE-NEW ZEALANDERS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out to explore profile of Chinese population in New Zealand in order to identify specific factors which impact upon their travel patterns and habits. It examines the demographic and socioeconomic profile of Chinese New Zealanders. This is because the profile can provide relevant information regarding age, sex, income, education, employment and other related characteristics of Chinese New Zealanders which is essential to understand the factors influencing and shaping their outbound travel. Thus, through the profile, one can gain better insights into the specific determinants of Chinese New Zealander's outbound travel which may be influenced by specific variables such as country of origin, ethnic ties and VFR. Therefore, this chapter will examine the following areas:

- How to understand travel behaviour;
- The meaning of 'Asian' in a New Zealand context;
- The Chinese population in New Zealand from a historical perspective;
- The Chinese community in New Zealand;
- Demographic and socioeconomic profile of Chinese immigrants; and
- Travel habits of Chinese population in New Zealand

3.2 Understanding Travel Behaviour

Seaton (1996: 56) contends that 'understanding tourism behaviour involves two different levels of analysis: macro-analysis which seeks to identify the patterns and determinants of aggregate demand; and micro-analysis which involves insight into individual tourist behaviour'. For the purpose of this study, the former will be the focus of this study. Based on Seaton's contention, identifying the Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns and habits can be understood as a form of macro-analysis because macro-analysis is concerned with examining collective tourism movements in terms of number of visitors, trips and revenue generated from them. Thus, an examination of collective tourism movements of Chinese New Zealanders of this study is a form of macro-analysis.

Aggregate demand for tourism is influenced by many factors including commodity prices; disposable income; exchange rate; economic environment such as inflation or deflation in the host and generating countries; economic structure of industries relevant to tourism such as cost of accommodation and travel, and demographic changes. According to Seaton (1996), the main approaches to macro-analysis derive from economics and demography. Therefore, it is essential to examine patterns of Chinese-New Zealanders' demography such as age, income, education, employment and other related characteristics in order to identify how specific factors impact upon their travel habits. In particular, the unique demographic characteristics of Chinese New Zealanders as a group of immigrants in New Zealand could influence their travel patterns and so their demographic profile is likely to have a significant effect on the nature of this study. In other word, it is argued that new migrants and more established migrants from specific ethnic groups may have specific determinants of their outbound travel influenced by their country of origin, ethnic ties and VFR.

The data used here are derived from the 1986, 1991 and 1996 New Zealand Census of Population and Dwellings - Ethnic Groups (Statistics New Zealand, 1987, 1992, 1997) which contains data on demographic trends of the Chinese population in New Zealand. The data was mainly collected from the 1996 Census of Population and Dwellings, New Zealand's 30th national census, held on 5 March 1996. It contains data on the population characteristics, including duration of residence in New Zealand, birthplace, languages spoken, age distribution, family type, labour force status, household income, education and location of Chinese ethnic group in New Zealand. However, due to inconsistencies in the data availability from different censuses, 1991 data have been used in this study in the event that 1996 data were not available. One of the principal reasons for using census data is that it is the more readily available data source to profile the target group of this study, so as to build a more detailed understanding of the group and their characteristics in New Zealand. It is argued that if the group exhibits significantly different characteristics to the resident population, then it is likely to have different determinants of outbound travel.

3.3 The Meaning of 'Asian' in a New Zealand Context

Until the 1950s, a vast majority of immigrants from Asia came to New Zealand from China and India. Since then, the source of these immigrants has become more diverse as the discussion later will show. Therefore, it would be useful to look at the term 'Asian' and the confusion surrounding its usage. In Britain, in the domestic context, Asian is used mostly to refer to persons from the South Asian countries of India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh, or more commonly termed the Indian Sub-continent. In South Africa, it is used chiefly to refer to Indians. However, in the United States the term, along with 'Orientals', is employed mostly to refer to the peoples from the regions of East Asia and Southeast Asia; Indians are referred to as East Indians to distinguish them from the indigenous Indians. Clearly there is no particular logic to the usage in a global context.

Vasil and Yoon (1996) note that in New Zealand, especially following the recent controversy in Auckland relating to Asians, the term 'Asian' has led to the development of its own peculiar usage. Asian is used essentially to refer to Chinese, Japanese and South Korean people in New Zealand. In the case of the Chinese, the term 'Asian' is used not only to refer to Chinese from China (including Taiwan and Hong Kong) but also to those who have migrated from countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Cambodia, Viet Nam, Indonesia and Thailand. Indians, Indonesians, Filipinos and others from South and Southeast Asia are not grouped together and are looked at on the basis of their own individual ethnic identity. For reasons of accuracy, the broad term ethnic Chinese immigrants (eg. those from China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia, Cambodia, Viet Nam, Indonesia and Thailand) are referred to as 'Chinese' or 'Asians' in this study.

3.4 The Chinese Population in New Zealand: A Historical Perspective

Chinese immigration to New Zealand dates back to 1866 when the first organised group of Chinese arrived in New Zealand as emphasised earlier. These were miners from the gold-fields of Australia, brought over to Otago at the invitation of the Dunedin Chamber of Commerce. The Chinese were enthusiastically recruited in the

early part of this period because the Otago gold-fields became desperately short of labour after a large number of miners left for the West Coast gold-fields (Ng, 1993).

Up to 1911, the Chinese comprised almost all of New Zealand's Asian population with the exception of a small number of Indian settlers. According to Statistics New Zealand (1995), the latter, however, never exceeded 50 during this time, although the first Indian settler arrived in New Zealand around 1820, about 45 years before the first Chinese settlers. As Ng (1993) noted, almost all those Chinese who emigrated to New Zealand were Cantonese, who arrived either directly from Hong Kong and Guangdong, or by way of the Australian gold-fields. Almost all worked as gold-miners, and tended to leave the country after a relatively short time. In the 1890s, as Alexander Don's '*Roll of the Chinese*' shows, many were beginning to turn to shopkeeping and market gardening and others were taking up permanent residence. By now, the Chinese population were distributed throughout the country, with significant communities in Otago, Westland and Coromandel.

New Zealand's 1867 Census included the earliest 'birthplace count' of the country's Chinese population. There were 1,219 people born in China living in New Zealand in 1867, and all but six were male (Statistics New Zealand, 1995). Although initially welcomed, as the number of immigrants rose, European prejudice against Chinese immigrants soon turned the tide of opinion. As early as 1871 demands were made that restrictions to Chinese immigration be imposed. One suggestion was a poll-tax, a tax to be paid by every Chinese entering the country. To reiterate an earlier point, by 1881 public demand for restrictions reached such a level that the *Chinese Immigrants Act* was passed, severe restrictions were imposed on those who were regarded as 'race aliens', and the government also imposed a £10.00 entry tax on every Chinese immigrant. In 1896 the tax was raised to £100.00. In 1934, payment of the tax was waived by the Minister of Customs, and in 1944, the tax was officially repealed. As Murphy (1994) argued the questions raised by the Chinese poll-tax are highly pertinent to the history of New Zealand and its identity. When the poll-tax was imposed the Chinese were viewed as a threat to New Zealand, a threat to the supposed purity of the white race in this country, and a threat to the image of the country that white New Zealanders wished to build. To preserve this image, an image of a morally and racially pure white nation or 'fairer Britain of the South Seas', New Zealand

passed anti-Chinese immigration legislation that was discriminatory. The poll-tax was the mainstay of this legislative attempt to keep the Chinese out of New Zealand. It singled out a particular race for discriminatory treatment, and in the process, caused much suffering to the people singled out for that treatment (Ng, 1993, Murphy, 1994, Ip, 1995).

In 1951 the Chinese gained the right to be naturalised in New Zealand. By this time most of the laws discriminating against them had gone. Family reunification became an important basis for immigration, especially after the 1949 revolution in China. This gave a more stable social structure to the community, and the Chinese population doubled between 1945 and 1966 to reach 11,040 people, and doubled again between 1966 and 1986 to 21,933 (Statistics New Zealand, 1986). However, the numbers entering the country were not great up to the 1970s as Figure 3.1 shows, natural increase among those residents in New Zealand remained the dominant factor in the growth of the Chinese population up until the mid 1980s (Statistics New Zealand, 1995).

Figure 3.1: Distribution of Chinese by Birthplace, 1921-1991
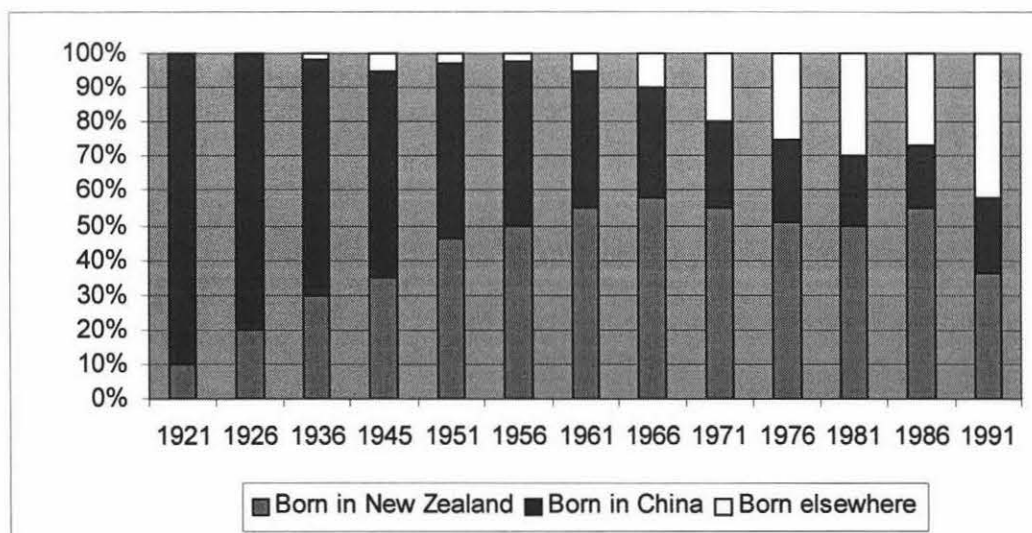
Source: Statistics New Zealand (1995)

In 1986, however, the removal of immigration barriers based on ethnicity diversified the ethnic base of the population. For the first time, barriers were effectively removed and this became the main factor in the growth of the Chinese population by

immigration. In fact, this accounted for 83 percent of growth between 1986 and 1991; and 75 percent of growth between 1991 to 1996 (New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1998). This resulted in the Chinese population increasing to 40,158 people in 1991 and 70,227 in 1996 (Statistics New Zealand Census, 1991, 1996). As a result, the Chinese ethnic group constituted the largest minority group of Asian origin in New Zealand in 1996. More than half (44,184 in 1996) of the country's Chinese New Zealanders live in Auckland, and more than half of these were newcomers to this society. This is illustrated in Table 3.1 which shows Chinese resident in New Zealand by birthplace in 1996, and Table 3.2 illustrates the population of Chinese residents in New Zealand between 1986 to 1996 (Statistics New Zealand, 1997).

Table 3.1: The Population of Chinese Residents in New Zealand by Birthplace, 1996

	NZ	Australia	Pacific Island	UK and Ireland	Europe and former USSR	North America	Asia
Male	8,085	90	159	102	36	75	24,990
Female	7,578	84	162	87	33	90	27,894
Total	15,663	174	321	192	69	162	52,881

	Other	Total Overseas Born	Not Specified	Total	Total NZ
Male	117	25,569	255	33,909	1,777,461
Female	141	28,488	252	36,318	1,840,839
Total	255	54,057	504	70,227	3,618,303

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

According to Table 3.1, about 77 percent Chinese were born overseas, particularly in Asia. This data indicates that the majority of Chinese New Zealanders are first generation settlers which may imply a great degree of linkage between the Chinese immigrants and their countries of origin. This has particular implications for tourism which are explored later in this chapter.

Table 3.2: The population of Chinese Resident in New Zealand, 1986, 1991, 1996

	1986	1991	1996
Male	11,133 (0.69)	19,971 (1.20)	33,909 (1.91)
Female	10,803 (0.66)	20,187 (1.18)	36,318 (1.97)
Total	21,933 (0.67)	40,158 (1.19)	70,227 (1.94)

Percentage of New Zealand population in brackets

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

However, the problem with the New Zealand Census here is that the statistics are listed under the country of origin of the immigrants, rather than their ethnicity. A feature of Chinese immigration since Second World War is its diversity. Not only were Chinese emigrating from a wide variety of countries other than China, but they were more ethnically diverse, with almost all of the larger Chinese ethnic groups represented, such as, Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam, Laos, Cambodia, Taiwan and Hong Kong. As a result, the use of the term 'country of origin' is not a simple surrogate as a measure of ethnicity.

Another possible way to examine the number of Chinese residents who are ethnic Chinese is to look at the number of residence visas granted to China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan by the New Zealand government to deduce that the majority of migrants from these areas are ethnic Chinese. However, it is less than straightforward when it comes to countries like Malaysia, Indonesia, Viet Nam, and Kampuchea. There is a quite sizeable proportion of immigrants listed as being from Malaysia, Indonesia, and Viet Nam that are of ethnic Chinese origin. Each of these countries has a bitter history of being anti-Chinese, partly owing to ethnic jealousy towards the over-successful Chinese business people; partly owing to historical resentment against the Chinese middlemen who were favoured by the respective former colonial governments; and partly owing to the fear of Chinese communism (Ip, 1995). Therefore, it can be safely assumed that at least 50 percent of the immigrants from these regions are ethnic Chinese rather than native Malay, Indonesian, or Vietnamese.

A problem of using New Zealand Immigration Service's statistics to calculate the number of Chinese immigrants is that the number of visas granted is not equal to the number of people who actually come to New Zealand. Quite typically, business people in Taiwan and Hong Kong would try to delay their arrival for as long as possible before actually emigrating because they still retain business interests in Hong Kong and Taiwan which need to be managed. Under these circumstances, New Zealand immigration statistics can only be used as indicators of how many Chinese people might come to New Zealand, rather than how many are actually emigrated to the country. As Ip (1995) argues for reasons of accuracy and in keeping with the new trends of migration - that ethnic Chinese are arriving largely from outside China - it might be advisable for future studies to be based on 'Asian arrivals' rather than on 'Chinese arrivals'.

Table 3.3 examines the duration of Chinese residence in New Zealand by 1996. More than 70 percent of Chinese migrants came to New Zealand after the new immigration policy commenced, particularly after 1991 when the 'Point System' was introduced. Therefore, the majority of Chinese immigrants are relatively recent to this country which is supported by the median years of stay of 4.06 years. This indicates there could be a close linkage between the Chinese migrants and their countries of origin. Thus, it is hypothesized that due to the potential close linkage with their countries of origin, Chinese immigrants in New Zealand would make more frequent visits to their countries of origin, such as China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia and so forth, than other destinations for their international travel for whatever purposes. This is because of the strength of family ties and kinship in Chinese Society and is supported by the literature on ethnic tourism, VFR and migration, discussed in Chapter 2.

Table 3.3: Duration of Residence in New Zealand (in years)

Years:	0	1	2	3	4	5 - 9	10 - 19
Male	4,596	3,120	2,241	2,073	1,749	7,005	2,031
Female	5,226	3,600	2,592	2,388	2,067	7,338	2,277
Total	9,822	6,720	4,833	4,461	3,816	14,343	4,308

	Born in NZ	Not Specified	Total	Median years	NZ Median years
Male	8,085	1,176	33,906	4.17	17.01
Female	7,578	1,284	36,318	3.96	16.13
Total	15,663	2,460	70,224	4.06	16.56

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

In spite of the fact that the Chinese population had a high growth rate during the inter-censual years, it is important to keep this in perspective by stressing that by 1996, the Chinese comprised only 1.9 percent of the total population of New Zealand. In other words, although the percentage increase is high, the proportion of total Chinese population still remains comparatively low.

3.5 The Chinese Community in New Zealand

Although there has been a dramatic increase in the number of immigrants from Asia since 1986 following the removal of immigration barriers based on ethnicity, it is important to recognise that Asian migrants do not (and are not likely to in the future) constitute an Asian community. Vasil and Yoon (1996) point out that New Zealanders of Asian origin are not homogeneous and they cannot easily develop themselves into a large and powerful monolith Asian bloc. Sharp intra-ethnic divisions among many of the Asian Sub-groups, especially the Chinese and Indian ethnic groups, make it extremely difficult even for individual ethnic groups to unite and develop a strong sense of community.

Instead, Asians tend to present themselves as Chinese New Zealanders, Indian New Zealanders, Korean New Zealanders and so forth. They rarely lose their ethnic identity and in many cases this is based upon the country of their origin. They zealously seek to retain and guard that primary identity, to the extent of attempting to ensure that in this regard even their children follow in their footsteps. For example, Chinese parents send their children to learn Chinese in Chinese language schools, or attend Chinese painting or art classes to retain their cultural value.

Many Asian immigrants exhibit evidence of making a special effort to establish contact with the larger New Zealand society, especially the dominant group of the Pakeha, and attempt to mix and mingle with them. However, not many of them, especially the first generations, attempt to step outside their own ethnic groups to intermingle with and develop close social or other relationships with migrants from elsewhere in Asia. According to Statistics New Zealand (1995) the rate of inter-marriage between Chinese and other migrants from Asia is considerably lower than that between them and New Zealanders (non-Asian) except in the case of immigrants from Viet Nam, Cambodia, Laos, Malaysia and Thailand. Many immigrants from these five countries are ethnically either Chinese or part-Chinese and they naturally tend to marry Chinese or part-Chinese from other Asian countries.

The Chinese community groups are well organised and have built up a variety of their own, mostly exclusive, all-New Zealand social, cultural and recreational bodies with branches or affiliates in different parts of the country such as, New Zealand Chinese Sports Club and New Zealand Chinese Association. Outside the desirable contact with the Pakeha and with some of Chinese voluntary associations, Chinese migrants' relationships and social life revolve mostly around other members of their own ethnic groups. They primarily belong to and participate in the activities of their own social and cultural associations. Recreational activities, however, often take them beyond the confines of their own ethnic groups.

As Ip (1995) and Vasil and Yoon (1996) argue, even though significant divisions based upon clan, region and dialect exist among the Chinese, they tend not to be deeply divided in New Zealand as they have a common written language. Their sense of a shared common culture, heritage, history and values (and even cuisine) is strong

enough to make the ethnic Chinese groups think of themselves as part of a Chinese community. Furthermore, the absence of any serious religious differences among these groups makes it relatively easy for them to intermarry with members of other clans and dialect groups. The major societal divisions that exist among Chinese in New Zealand are based upon the following:

- The duration of their stay in New Zealand, their sense of belonging to New Zealand and the level of their adaptation to the New Zealand way of life;
- The country or territory of their origin, whether they or their forebears came from China, Taiwan, Hong Kong or the Chinese diaspora, especially in the countries of Southeast Asia;
- The clan they belong to, the dialect they speak and the region of China from where their people originated.

Chinese immigrants who emigrated to New Zealand during the earlier years had suffered extreme hardship and discrimination, and their descendants, see themselves alone as Chinese New Zealanders. They were mostly Cantonese-speaking and originated from Guangdong Province in Southern China (Ng, 1993). Due to the political chaos, war and revolution in China, they lost almost all contact with the homeland. Most of the pre-1949 immigrants have never been back to their homeland. It is only recently, after New Zealand established normal diplomatic and trading relationships with China, that some of their descendants have been able to re-establish links with the homeland. In general, their contacts and ties with the homeland are not as close and strong as those of the recent immigrants.

Their descendants, the Chinese New Zealanders, consider New Zealand as home. They have developed a way of life of their own, part-Chinese and part-Kiwi. That distinguishes them from more recent Chinese immigrants. As a result, the established immigrant groups view the latter only as expatriate Chinese, and they find it difficult to develop a strong sense of community or oneness with them. They tend to find spouses within their own community and do not easily marry among the different groups of Chinese who have arrived more recently (Ip, 1996; Vasil and Yoon, 1996).

More recent Chinese immigrants have emigrated to New Zealand from a variety of different countries and territories - China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia, Viet Nam, Cambodia, Laos, Thailand and the Philippines. Even though they are all Chinese in terms of their ethnic identity, they represent enough differences based upon their countries of origin to make it difficult for them all to belong to a common Chinese community in New Zealand. Those among them who were born in the various countries of Southeast Asia bring with them their distinctive identities as Sino-Thai, Singaporean Chinese, Malaysian Chinese and Indonesian Chinese. Almost all of them speak fluently the language of the country of their birth and they reflect in a considerable way the culture and way of life of the indigenes of those countries. As a result, such immigrants may feel more at home among the Chinese of their own kind and largely restrict their relationships to them among the Chinese in New Zealand. Even Chinese from Taiwan and Hong Kong, who come from an almost entirely Chinese environment in their home territories, tend to reflect the same attitudes (Vasil and Yoon, 1996). Mandarin-speaking Taiwanese mix mostly with other Taiwanese and Hong Kong Chinese who are more Westernised and have a better command of English, and largely seek out other Hong Kong Chinese for social contact and relationships. They do not even easily inter-marry with each other.

As Ip (1995) indicates the new Chinese immigrant community manifest all the classic signs of a newly transplanted group. In order to satisfy the need and desire to stay close to each other, new immigrants have formed numerous associations. Many of these new groups have achieved admirable results, serving the particular current needs of the new migrant Chinese community. However, owing to the fact that the origins of the new Chinese migrants are so divergent, a certain degree of rivalry is probably inevitable. Selfishness and the desire to outshine others at all costs - negative features of many such organisations during this transitional period - are easily recognisable among the new Chinese communities. Also, many of these associations devote their energy to in-group services and pay little attention to their relationship with mainstream New Zealanders.

3.6 The Demographic and Economic Profile of Chinese Immigrants

3.6.1 General Characteristics of Chinese Immigrants in New Zealand

The new Chinese migrants of the 1980s and 1990s are very different from their predecessors who came in the late nineteenth or early twentieth centuries. Even their country of origin is different. Instead of coming directly from mainland China, they also came from Hong Kong, Taiwan, Malaysia, Singapore and other parts of Asia (New Zealand Immigration Service, 1987, 1989). They are no longer from humble peasant stock. Instead, most are successful business people, entrepreneurs, or technocrats (Trlin and Kang, 1992). New immigration policies introduced in many industrialized countries in the 1970s and 1980s emphasized age, education, occupation and business skills, and most Chinese migrants in New Zealand qualified on one or more of these grounds (Ip and Friesen, 1995). These immigrants do not represent a typical cross-section of the populations from which they come. They are generally more adventurous than the resident population of a country. People who uproot themselves and often their families to move are taking a risk in seeking new opportunities and a new living environment. Many of the migrants who have come to New Zealand in recent years have been younger and better educated than their fellow compatriots who stayed behind as the discussion later will show.

The immigrants also emigrated to New Zealand for very different reasons. Instead of being economic refugees in search of a higher standard of living, the new Chinese migrants are mostly 'reluctant exiles' who left their countries of origin with ambiguous feelings (Skeldon, 1994). Quite often, these migrants are leaving homelands which enjoy a higher GNP than New Zealand. With the economic takeoff of Asian regions, New Zealand no longer enjoys the historical advantage of offering migrants a higher income. The per capita GNP of Singapore, Hong Kong and Taiwan have overtaken New Zealand's. Thus, it appears that many migrants do not come to New Zealand to expand their economic opportunities, but rather to enhance their quality of living in other ways, such as quality of schooling, relative value of housing and environmental considerations.

As Ip (1995:188) points out, migrants from Hong Kong mostly came to New Zealand in search of a political haven, as China's 1997 takeover loomed large to New Zealand. Taiwanese migrants shared similar but less immediate political worries. According to a survey conducted by the Taiwan Overseas Chinese Commission, 'getting a good education for the children' is one of the most popular reason given by emigrants leaving Taiwan (cited in Boyer, 1996). In contrast to the New Zealand system, the Taiwanese education system is perceived as far too competitive and elitist.

The rationale for Chinese to leave their home countries are similar to those of Hong Kong people and Taiwanese. Ip and Friesen (1995) argue that the fear of the unpredictability of communist governments, (in the form of ageing leadership in China) played a great part in preempting people to leave as a 'push' factor. Factors of environment and education may also be significant, but little research has been undertaken to understand 'pull' factors.

Most Malaysians arriving are ethnic Chinese, who do not enjoy equal status in their homeland under 'democracy in a pluralistic society' in which priority is given to Malays. Comparatively few Singaporeans seek to emigrate to New Zealand long term. Malaysians and Singaporeans prefer to keep their original citizenship status instead of taking on New Zealand nationality. The economic development of their home countries is still very attractive to return to, should the time come. Overall, many immigrants from Asia emigrated to New Zealand in search of a more relaxed lifestyle. However, the majority of them also realised that they were giving up a higher standard of living and higher income in leaving the vibrant and rapidly expanding economies of their countries of origin.

For New Zealand, these new Chinese immigrants form part of the overseas Chinese network which is inter-connected with the economies of 'the little Asian dragons' and 'Asian tigers'. With the exception of South Korea, one common feature that these dragons and tigers share is that they either have a largely ethnic Chinese population (as in the cases of Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan), or, if their ethnic Chinese sector is a minority, Chinese business people still dominate their economy (as in the cases of Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand). This noticeable feature has become a topical research area in recent years. Economic necessity dictates that New Zealand

should look to the Asia-Pacific region (instead of Europe) for trading partners and for export markets as European countries have set up their own trading blocks. Therefore, these Chinese immigrants are valuable assets in the country's future ventures because they know the Asian market, have the credit, understand the trading practices, can link into the existing network, and speak the language. When the immigrants have the chance to become active agents offshore for New Zealand, their potential will be unlimited.

3.6.2 Age, Sex and Family Structure

The age and sex structure of any population is the result of its fertility, mortality and migration history. According to Statistics New Zealand (1995), for New Zealand's Chinese population, immigration has been the dominant force in shaping its age and sex composition than it has been for New Zealand's total population. Chinese have a younger age structure than New Zealand as a whole and a greater proportion of children and working age people in its population. As Table 3.4 shows that the median age of Chinese was 29.68 while New Zealand's median age was 32.95 in 1996. The relatively younger age structure of Chinese population could influence their travel patterns including activity choices and duration stay at destinations. For example, they may travel for business purpose as they are of working age, or take shorter holidays as they need to travel back to work. There were only 3.5 percent Chinese aged 65 and over compared to 11.3 percent of all New Zealanders in 1996. This is because older Chinese people can usually only gain entry to New Zealand under family reunification schemes or on compassionate grounds, which make up only a small percentage of Chinese migrants to the country.

Table 3.4: Chinese Residents in New Zealand by Age Group, 1996

Age Group	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54
Male	2,538	2,610	3,306	4,557	3,270	2,028	3,339	2,784	2,634	2,394	1,317
Female	2,310	2,439	3,030	4,194	3,489	2,691	3,744	3,429	3,483	2,661	1,269
Total	4,851	5,049	6,336	8,754	6,756	4,722	7,083	6,213	6,120	5,052	2,586

	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85+	Total	Median Age	NZ Med. Age
Male	1,089	768	582	348	186	93	63	33,909	26.7	32.2
Female	1,017	816	669	447	303	183	147	36,318	30	33.65
Total	2,106	1,581	1,251	795	489	273	207	70,227	28.68	32.95

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

From 1987 (the implementation of the 1987 Immigration Act) to November 1991 (the introduction of the 'Points System'), the Business Immigration scheme was the chief avenue by which Chinese people gained entry into New Zealand. The government had introduced the Business Immigration Policy (BIP) aiming to attract investors and entrepreneurs with the capital and skills to establish new ventures with the potential to provide employment. Many Asians have constituted the majority of successful applicants (Ministry of Commerce 1989; Trlin and Kang, 1992; Inglis and Wu, 1992; Nash, 1987).

Trlin and Kang (1992: 53) analysed 334 sample cases and created a profile of the archetypal 'Asian entrepreneur'. The person is typically male, married, middle aged (43.2 years old if he is from Hong Kong, and 39.2 years old if he is from Taiwan). The average Taiwanese entrepreneur is usually tertiary-educated but has inferior English language skills when compared with his Hong Kong counterpart. Most of them had proposals involving investment projects costing something between $200,000 and $400,000.

The Points System, on the other hand, allows immigrants to come into the 'general category' where their personal qualities of education, professional qualification, work experience, age, skills, and settlement funds are all given numerical values and then added up. Those who score points around the upper 20s qualify for automatic permanent residency. Whether the applicant has a definite job offer or a plausible business development plan no longer counts. The system is weighted favourably towards people who have tertiary education (preferably with a science degree worth 15 points); those who are young (eg. those who are aged between 24 and 29 are allocated 10 points); those with a track record of gainful employment (up to 10 points for 20 years' work relevant to their qualifications). Settlement funds of $100,000 also carry an extra point.

By the end of 1992, just over 12 months after the introduction of the 'Points System', 43 percent of immigrants who qualified for permanent entry (a total of 25,7 73) came through this general category. Incidentally, the number of business migrants dropped sharply. Only 307 came through the 'Business Immigration Category' in that year (New Zealand Immigration Services, 1992). By the end of 1993, over 68 percent of a total of 28,443 immigrants came through the general category, while only 518 came as business migrants. The general category, therefore, is currently the most popular and common channel by far. The typical immigrants who qualified under the 'Points System' tended to be middle-class, educated, young professionals rather than very well-off entrepreneurs.

Through the points system, New Zealand's immigration policy strongly favours younger migrants. The highest number of points are allocated to those aged 24 to 29 with adjacent younger and older groups slightly less. The number of points declines steadily to none for those aged 50 and over, and the maximum age of the primary migrant is 55. Not surprisingly, at the 1996 Census, recent migrants (from all sources) were relatively young with 68 percent aged between 15 and 45 compared to 51 percent in the general population. Asian migrants were even more concentrated in these cohorts with 72 percent of all recent migrants in this category.

According to Ip and Friesen (1995), in the school-age cohorts, migrants from Asian countries represented 18 percent which was higher than the proportion of the total

population in this cohort representing 16 percent. This suggests that for some Asian migrant groups, schooling may be an important motivation for emigration. For instance, recent migrants from Taiwan and Hong Kong with 34 and 27 percent respectively of their migrant populations being made up of five to fifteen year olds.

Ip and Friesen (1995) further note that from oral history evidence, it is evident that many Chinese families chose to move into the Auckland 'Grammar Zone', an area that has two state schools well-known for their academic standards and reputation of all-round excellence. Their convergence in the Pakuranga-Howick area is also greatly influenced by the perception that there are good schools in that area. Immigration consultants and real estate agents routinely supply lists of Auckland's High Schools to their Asian clients, complete with details of numbers of scholarships, A bursaries gained, as well as percentage of students who achieved good School Certificate results. Eminent high schools attract Asian parents who traditionally value academic achievement.

Overall, the sex ratio of Chinese is similar to that of all New Zealanders. With nearly equal numbers of females and males, the sex ratio for all recent migrants is remarkably balanced in contrast to some earlier streams in which there was a strong male bias. For Chinese migrants the sex ratio is generally balanced, suggesting the importance of family migration. The main exception is the sex ratio of 117 for Taiwanese migrants (females per 100 males). One reason may be that the departure of the chief income-earner of the immigrant household (often the husband) resulting in semigration or the so-called 'astronaut spouse' syndrome (Ip, 1995). Such households are characterised by a lack of employment and income among the New Zealand members, and dependence on overseas income support. In terms of family relationships, such arrangements are highly stressful and may increase the fluidity and lack of commitment of these new immigrant families.

Table 3.5 indicates that 12 percent of Chinese population comprise a household which consist of one parent with children. To a certain degree (as it is uncommon for children to be born out of wedlock because of Chinese tradition and culture), this may indicate that the stress and frustration of the settlement process have contributed to the family relationships, in particular, family break-ups. Also, according to Table 3.5, 75

percent of Chinese population comprise a household which consist of couple with children. Thus, it might be deduced that Chinese residents' travel patterns are likely to be family oriented and children might influence the time of travelling, for instance, school holiday period.

Table 3.5: Family Type among Chinese Residents in New Zealand, 1996

	Couple without Children	Couple with Children	One Parent with Children	Total
Male	3,630	21,690	2,985	28,305
Female	4,110	21,957	4,212	30,285
Total	7,740	43,647	7,197	58,587

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

Table 3.6 illustrates extended family structures among Chinese residents. There are 64 percent of Chinese population comprising a household which consist of three or more generations. This is a true reflection of Chinese tradition and family culture and value. It may also suggest that Chinese residents' travel patterns are likely to be family-oriented.

Table 3.6: Extended Family Type among Chinese Residents in New Zealand, 1996

	One Generation	Two Generations	Three or More Generations	Total
Male	195	2,151	3,909	6,255
Female	216	2,358	4,776	7,350
Total	411	4,509	8,685	13,605

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

3.6.3 Education

Educational qualifications, or a lack of them, can impact on many aspects of a person's life. They can influence employment opportunities and income levels. For people who were born overseas, level of education may have been a deciding factor in

gaining residence in New Zealand. The search for a suitable educational institution may also have been a factor influencing people born overseas to seek residence in New Zealand.

According to Statistics New Zealand (1998), educational achievements will vary according to an individual's preferences, abilities and opportunities, and will often show some variation by birthplace. As Table 3.7 indicates, at the time of the 1996 Census a greater proportion of people born overseas than those born in New Zealand reported they had educational qualifications. Overseas-born people were also more likely to have tertiary qualifications, while New Zealand-born people were marginally more likely to have a school qualification as their highest qualification.

Table 3.7: Highest Qualification of Overseas and New Zealand Born People, 1996

Highest qualification	Overseas-born (%)	New Zealand-born (%)
Degree qualification	13.3	7.3
Other post-school qualification	26.6	25.1
School qualification	19.7	32.4
Overseas school qualification	10.6	0.2
No qualification	29.8	34.9

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwelling (1996)

Education and qualifications held by Chinese migrants show similar trends and patterns as for the general overseas-born immigrants, especially the more recent arrivals. This represents a large pool of the highly educated and skilled people. As indicated in Table 3.8, 18.6 percent of them possess a university qualification, compared to 8.1 percent for the general population of New Zealand. This suggests the importance the Chinese population traditionally placed on education. From this, it might be deduced that Chinese residents may have more disposable income due to their well educated background. Therefore, they may travel more frequently and spend more at their travel destinations. Furthermore, Table 3.8 also indicates that only 23 percent of the Chinese have no educational qualification compared with 32

percent of New Zealand's total population. Consequently, the Chinese population generally have better educational background which has enabled them to occupy a significantly larger proportion of high level positions as managers and professionals as illustrated in Table 3.9.

Table 3.8: Highest Educational Qualification of Chinese and New Zealand Population, 1996

Qualification	Chinese (%)	New Zealand (%)
University qualification	18.6	8.1
Other post-school qualification	5.4	6.4
School qualification	36.5	46.1
Overseas school qualification	12.1	2.1
No qualification	23.7	32.1

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Now Asian New Zealanders (1995)

Table 3.9: Occupation of Chinese and New Zealand Population, 1996

Occupation	Chinese (%)	New Zealand (%)
Legislators, administrators and managers	17.1	11.6
Professionals	14.1	11.7
Technicians and associated professionals	10.5	10.9
Clerks	10.0	13.3
Services and sales workers	19.2	13.9
Agriculture and fishery workers	4.5	9.4
Trade workers	4.6	9.1
Plants and machine operators and assemblers	6.7	8.3
Elementary occupations	4.4	6.8

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

As most of the Chinese immigrants come to New Zealand having already acquired their high level of education and skills in the country of their origin or elsewhere in

advanced Western countries, they potentially represent a very considerable gain in human resources for New Zealand. Their countries of origin and the individual migrants have made a huge investment in their education and training, and New Zealand may be able to utilise their services without having to expend additional expense. These immigrants constitute a valuable resource for the desperately needed economic growth and expansion in the countries of their origin and as such their migration to countries like New Zealand represents a massive loss to those countries, as a significant 'brain drain'.

3.6.4 Labour Force, Employment, Occupation and Income

In most Western immigrant receiving countries, clear patterns of segmentation are evident in the contrasting positions of different immigrant groups in the labour market. For instance, New Zealand encouraged relatively high levels of immigration in the post-war period when sustained economic growth and industrialisation created a strong demand for foreign workers. Skilled manual and white collar migrants were largely recruited from Britain and Northern Europe, while most of the demand for unskilled or low skilled migrants were from the Pacific Islands (Ongley and Pearson, 1994). These patterns are determined not just by the background of the immigrants themselves but also by the manner in which changing economic requirements and related changes in immigration policy have served to channel succeeding waves of migration from different countries into different sectors of the economy.

As Ongley and Pearson (1994) note that the removal of discriminatory barriers in New Zealand coincided with a structural shift in employment demand from manufacturing industries to service industries, and from unskilled to skilled and professional workers. As a result, an increasing proportion of such demand has been met by Asian immigration. At the same time, less skilled migrants from various sources continue to make up substantial proportions of the immigration flows to New Zealand, entering under family reunion provisions or as refugees or temporary labour migrants.

The Asian region became the most important source of new immigrants for New Zealand in the late 1980s (Castles, 1992; Richmond, 1991; Trlin, 1992). The new

Asian migrants selected in the independent categories were therefore more likely to be highly educated and qualified than earlier waves of European immigrants (Basavarajappa and Verma, 1985; Hassan and Tan, 1990). The movement of highly skilled Asian migrants has been facilitated by the extension of Western educational systems to Asian countries so that professional and technical training is often directly transferable (Bolaria and Li, 1988: 210). Another policy development attracting new Asian immigrants to high status occupations has been the business immigration programmes introduced by New Zealand during the 1980s.

A major exception to this pattern of skilled and wealthy Asian immigrants is the Indochinese refugee movement. During the peak years of this movement from 1975 to 1985, New Zealand admitted just over 6,000 Indochinese refugees (Hawkins, 1989: 182; Hawley, 1986: 59). And clearly, New Zealand has not been able to exercise the same degree of selectivity in respect of refugees as they have with other Asian migrants. The Indochinese movement has therefore included far greater proportions of unskilled or low skilled workers and non-English speakers than the flows from other Asian countries, while occupational opportunities for the more highly skilled have been restricted by non-recognition of their qualifications (Coughlan, 1992; Montgomery, 1986; Farmer, 1988).

It should also be noted that the increased volumes of Asian independent and business migrants and refugees provide a base for the growth of family reunion migration, the composition of which is largely beyond the control of the receiving country and therefore includes higher proportions of unskilled or low skilled migrants than the independent flows (Li, 1988:83). This has also been accompanied by a new trend-unemployment among the new immigrants.

In the late 19th century, Chinese migrants came to New Zealand with the sole aim of making money. At that time, unemployment amongst the immigrant community was almost non-existent, with the majority of Chinese being involved initially in mining, and later, in market gardening, greengrocery and laundry work (Fong, 1959). The unskilled Chinese easily found employment in occupations the Europeans had rejected as monotonous, dangerous or demeaning, and were often actively sought by European employers for their strong work ethic. In contrast to their predecessors, the

new Chinese immigrants do not aim to come to New Zealand in order to increase their monetary incomes or achieve greater returns on their investments. Indeed, as research survey of Taiwanese immigrants in New Zealand by Boyer (1996) revealed, not one respondent cited an economic reason for having settled in New Zealand. This was further explained by McLauchlan (1992: 119) in the following quotation: "if your primary motive for emigration is to do business and make money, why come to New Zealand? We've got a poor economy with a small domestic market and light years away from international markets". New Zealand's competitive advantage with respect to Chinese migrants lies instead with its environmental and social attributes, a feature also highlighted in the country's international image as a tourist destination.

However, this is not to say that new immigrants are unconcerned about their economic prospects in New Zealand. The great majority of immigrants come to the country with the intention of working, and they do concern the chances of obtaining satisfactory employment upon arrival in New Zealand. However, these new immigrants who have been 'filtered' by the stringent immigration policy, while the more highly skilled and experienced, have not been as successful as their predecessors in obtaining employment in New Zealand. According to Table 3.10, 64 percent Chinese population in New Zealand had full time employment, while nearly 14 percent of the Chinese population were unemployed in 1996. The unemployment rate was higher than New Zealand's rate which was 7.7 percent at the 1996 Census. Both unemployment and underemployment are becoming increasingly common problems amongst the Chinese community. The unexpected difficulties encountered in entering New Zealand's labour force are consequently having adverse effects on the community, adding to the stress and frustration of the settlement process and, in an increasing number of cases, separating families both physically and culturally. From the economic point of view, unemployment can influence the Chinese income status, and in some cases, the chief income earners have to return to their homes of origin to work in order to support their families that were left behind in New Zealand. With regard to the linkage to tourism, this study considers the extent to which unemployment and income may affect their travel habits and patterns in terms of their frequency of travel, destination choice and spending.

Table 3.10: Labour Force Status of Chinese Residents in New Zealand, 1996

	Full-time Employed	Part-time Employed	Total Employed	Un-employed	Total Labour Force	Not in the Labour Force	Total
Male	10,095	2,388	12,483	1,911	14,394	11,058	25,452
Female	7,743	3,219	10,962	1,734	12,696	15,840	28,536
Total	17,838	5,607	23,445	3,645	27,090	26,898	53,991

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

Among the recent immigrant population, variations in labour force participation levels are also apparent by birthplace (Statistics New Zealand, 1998). Less than half of recent Asian immigrants were participating in the labour force at the time of the 1996 Census. These broad birthplace groupings indicate overall participation levels, but hide variations between countries. An analysis of participation in the labour force by individual birthplace countries shows disparities, even within regions. Labour force participation levels range from more than 80 percent for recent immigrants born in UK and Ireland to less than 30 percent for recent immigrants born in Taiwan, Hong Kong and Malaysia. The differences in participation levels can partly explained by the age structures of these groups. While more than three in every three recent immigrants from Malaysia and more than two in every five from Hong Kong and Taiwan were aged 15 to 24 years. People in this younger age bracket are the most likely not to be in the labour force as they continue their education (Statistics New Zealand, 1998).

Other factors affecting Chinese labour force participation levels may have been the country's economic environment and structure and as well as immigration policy. The majority of Chinese business talents excel in manufacturing, service industries, international finance and brokering while New Zealand has little infrastructure in place for such highly sophisticated economic activities. The country's economy is still overwhelmingly dependent on agriculture and primary products. Important products like meat, wool, and fruit are all controlled tightly by producer boards which

hold monopolies. Very few innovative projects can get off the ground when bureaucrats running the producer boards are content to sell in familiar old ways to familiar old markets. Many new immigrants are skilful in import-export businesses. While they have good connections with their own domestic markets, they are unable to loosen the stranglehold of the monopolises of the host country. Their talents in arriving at deals with suppliers at competitive prices, which stimulate production at the home front and ensures foreign markets, have little chance to come into much use in New Zealand.

Asian immigrants, especially those from Taiwan and South Korea, are unprepared for the difficulty of finding suitable jobs. They are often over-qualified, and possess professional qualifications which give them high 'points' in the general category for immigration, but which are not recognised by New Zealand professional bodies. For example, medical doctors or veterinarians from South Korea or Taiwan will score 15 points by virtue of their degree, but will not be able to practise in New Zealand (Boyer, 1996; Ip and Friesen, 1995).

As noted in Boyer's study (1996), 'despite being based on a points system which rewarded education, few migrants were aware that gaining points and gaining recognition of qualifications by professional bodies were two quite different things. As a result, many immigrants have been denied access to employment opportunities commensurate with their qualifications. Table 3.11 illustrates that 23 percent Chinese cannot speak English. It is estimated that even under the 'English Spoken' category, many have limited English comprehension. Lacking of English skills, unfamiliarity with the New Zealand economy and business culture, and the older age of many migrants, often compounded lack of recognition of their skills in New Zealand. The net result has been unemployment, underemployment and semigration of immigrants'. This is supported by Friesen's study (1992) that many migrants in New Zealand were not able to practise the occupations through which they gained immigration points through 1991 Census. In fact, 1996 Census data show that South Koreans and Taiwanese tend to be the most unemployed and underemployed group in spite of their high level of education and professional qualifications. In contrast, less qualified and less well-off Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees, are more likely to be in paid

employment, possibly due to the fact that they are more ready to take up blue-collar jobs, and because they have fewer economic options.

Table 3.11: Selected Languages Spoken by Chinese Residents in New Zealand, 1996

	English	Chinese	French	German	Not Specified	No English
Male	25,080	25,266	114	45	993	6,978
Female	25,389	28,242	174	69	1,098	9,051
Total	50,472	53,511	291	111	2,091	16,029

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

Ip and Friesen's study (1995) note that the most common occupational sector for recent migrants of Chinese ethnicity in Auckland was the sales and service sector (19 percent of all employed), followed by administrators-managers (16 percent) and professionals (15 percent). Many of the new immigrants are engaged in sales and service sector specialising in serving their own communities such as Taiwanese land agents selling mainly to Taiwanese. At the same time many also own small businesses like dairies, bread-shops, fish shops and takeaways which serve the wider community. Such typically labour-intensive and low-capital enterprises are often run by family members. While starting up their own business, many Chinese migrants also encounter unexpected difficulties. Their unfamiliarity with New Zealand council by-laws and commercial laws make them ready victims for unscrupulous land agents and business partners. Their entrepreneurial spirit and skills in import-export business are often hampered by unfamiliar bureaucratic procedures. As Ip and Friesen (1995) point out that the supposedly unfailing Asian business acumen has difficulty functioning in an environment where access to products may be difficult. Disheartened by the smallness of the New Zealand domestic market and thwarted in their export venture, many new immigrants find it easier to return to their countries of origin where opportunities are better. Their frequent commuting has earned them the title of 'astronauts'.

From a broad universal point of view, unemployment and underemployment are common characteristics of many Asian immigrant communities throughout the world, particularly in English speaking countries (Brah, 1986). Among the early Chinese sojourners in New Zealand, occupational development was hindered by an inadequate knowledge of the English language and Western methods of business, and by various forms of discrimination practised by the dominant society (Fong, 1959). Such factors are still evident today amongst the Chinese community (Boyer, 1995). Despite this widely accepted pattern, governments have been slow to recognise the need to assist such migrants. Australian studies show consistently that Asian immigrants take the longest time to find suitable employment. In their first year of settlement, only 30 percent of the adults achieved employment (Ho and Coughlan, 1994). A 1992 Canadian survey gives broadly similar results and concludes '...They [Hong Kong migrants] often settled for a job in a different, usually lower paid, field... Close to two-thirds of the respondents had jobs in lower occupational status than their pre-immigration jobs' (Lary and Luk, 1994: 154).

The use of income data is problematic as a means of generalising on the socioeconomic status of recent migrants since they do not account for other measures of wealth such as the ownership of assets. Table 3.12 shows that a high proportion of Chinese have either nil or negative income status, with 20 percent in this category (excluding 'not specified'). There are nearly 66 percent of personal income of the total Chinese population below New Zealand median income of $15,603. Table 3.12 also reveals that very low proportions are in the highest income category among the Chinese population.

This income data is an obvious outcome of unemployment and underemployment of many Chinese in their new settlement. However, many of the Chinese immigrants came to New Zealand under business investor category, or in middle or above middle class in Hong Kong, Taiwan and China with a high level of educational attainment and financial security. Hence, one needs to consider that even while their reported income shown in Table 3.12 is quite low, that does not exactly reflect the Chinese real income status. The nature of Chinese immigration to this country is not for economic improvement but based on life style. In addition, Chinese tend to be reluctant to reveal their true financial status. It is commonly understood among the Chinese

population that they need to have a capital reserve which they brought with them from their countries of origin, and many of them rely on the income which was obtained overseas. It is also evident that many of them still retain business or assets overseas. Thus, it is not reliable to judge that due to the low income status shown in Table 3.12, the Chinese travel ability would be limited. Kang (1998) revealed that about 65 percent of the South Korean immigrants in New Zealand travelled overseas in her survey despite the South Koreans' high unemployment rate and low income status. It is a good example of interpreting official statistics with caution and the need to understand the cultural context which affects different ethnic groups and their behaviour.

Nevertheless, the data may also indicate that the non-match of occupational qualifications for their actual employment in New Zealand, as well as the fact that some migrants were probably still in transition at the time of the census. Those who had only recently set up a small business were likely to be in the lowest income categories. Others may be intentionally living off of assets rather than seeking employment. Comparatively affluent Asian immigrants can afford to stay temporarily unemployed so that they can spend time learning English and getting to know the market better.

Table 3.12: Personal Income of Chinese Residents in New Zealand, 1996

	Nil or Loss	$1-5000	$5,001-10,000	$10001-15,000	$15,001 20,000	$20,001 25,000	$25,001-30,000	$30,001-40,000
Male	4,074	4,461	3,258	2,181	1,683	1,476	1,488	1,686
Female	5,766	6,063	4,071	2,631	1,878	1,446	1,320	1,401
Total	9843	10,524	7,329	4,812	3,564	2,925	2,808	3,090

	$40,001-50,000	$50,001-70,000	$70,001-100,000	$100,000 +	Not Specified	Total	Median Income	NZ Median
Male	1,143	1,050	483	420	2,043	25,455	9,864	22,041
Female	693	462	174	111	2,514	28,539	6,450	12,609
Total	1,836	1,515	657	534	4,557	53,991	7,968	15,603

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

3.6.5 Settlement Patterns

When new immigrants arrive in a country they have traditionally tended to live near main entry points or in established ethnic communities, and then move to other places as time passes. This model of immigration-settlement and geographical distribution is usually focused on larger gateway cities. According to Statistics New Zealand (1995), historically, Chinese immigrants to New Zealand have followed this trend. However, recent Chinese immigrants to New Zealand have not. This may be because they have been living in New Zealand for only a short time and have not had the opportunities to move around the country. Conversely, it could be due to the fact that the majority of recent Chinese immigrants come from highly urbanised countries and want to continue living an urban lifestyle, thus perhaps they are more resistant to dispersal.

As Vasil and Yoon (1996) point out that immigrants normally tend to establish themselves either around the points of entry into the country of their migration or in places where there is an already established concentration of members of their own ethnic group. Their dispersal elsewhere in the host country tends to occur later, after they get to know the country and are in a position to evaluate better the comparative advantages and disadvantages of different choices of location in terms of opportunity of employment or business, children's education and the general quality of life. The process of their move away from the places of their first location is often a slow one.

Recent Chinese immigrants have tended not to follow this process of dispersal and have remained concentrated in the city of Auckland, thereby creating a special problem with regard to their ready acceptance by Aucklanders. Their mostly urban background in their countries of origin tends to give them a natural disposition to seek to settle in a city in New Zealand. In terms of opportunities for employment and business (and being able to live in cities where large numbers of people of their own kind are settled), New Zealand does not offer much choice. It should also be

emphasised that Auckland alone represents half the combined population of the five major cities of New Zealand (Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Hamilton and Dunedin). Table 3.13 shows the geographical distribution of Chinese residents in New Zealand in 1996. A distinctive feature is that the Chinese mainly live in the five major cities of New Zealand, particularly, Auckland (containing about 63 percent of Chinese population).

Table 3.13: Geographical Distribution of Chinese Residents in New Zealand, 1996

	Northland	Auckland	Waikato	Bay of Plenty	Gisborne	Hawke's Bay
Male	171	21,240	1,284	378	99	441
Female	162	22,944	1,374	408	114	435
Total	333	44,184	2,658	786	213	876

	Taranaki	Manawatu-Wanganui	Wellington	Tasman	Nelson	Marlborough
Male	174	1,347	4,041	24	153	33
Female	177	1,317	4,317	18	168	30
Total	354	2,664	8,358	42	321	63

	West Coast	Canterbury	Otago	Southland	Outside Region	Total
Male	15	3,150	1,224	123	3	33,906
Female	18	3,351	1,383	99	-	36,318
Total	33	6,504	2,607	225	-	70,227

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997)

The main source of information on the settlement pattern of migrants is the census, since the Immigration Service does not monitor the location and settlement characteristics of migrants. According to 1996 Census, Auckland has the greatest concentration of new immigrants from all ethnic groups. The population of Auckland City is therefore becoming increasingly ethnically and culturally diverse. In 1996, 63 percent of Chinese were resident in the Auckland region. This is substantially higher

than the national figure of 30 percent who live in Auckland, yet, it is lower than Pacific Islanders, 72 percent of whom are in Auckland. Besides the ethnic Chinese, other Asian new immigrants have also preferred to stay in Auckland. Over 50 percent of the total population of Indian and South Korean groups live in Auckland; and over 40 percent of Filipino, Khmer, Japanese, Middle Eastern, Latin American, and African immigrants similarly prefer to live in Auckland. The result is that Auckland has a much higher proportion of 'overseas-born' population (25.3 percent) than the rest of the country (15.8 percent) as a whole in 1996. This metropolitan bias is similar to Asian migrant concentrations elsewhere, for example the concentrations of Asian migrants in Sydney, Australia (Hugo 1992: 115).

Location within Auckland may be related to socioeconomic status as well as employment location and historical settlement patterns set by earlier migrants. One notable point is the highly localised pattern of Chinese settlement within the Auckland region. There is a spatial concentration of ethnic Chinese in affluent suburbs such as Epsom, Remuera, Takapuna and Howick-Pakuranga. While the prestigious central areas have always been sought-after by the upper middle class irrespective of ethnic origins, the rapid development of Howick-Pakuranga in the east was the direct result of urbanised immigrant Chinese seeking out modern-style, low maintenance brick-and-tile homes. These suburbs have now earned the name 'Far Eastern suburbs'.

The socioeconomic diversity of Chinese migrants, that to some extent explains their spatial distribution, results in considerable variation in residential tenure in the Auckland region. Table 3.14 shows that 40 percent of migrants of Chinese ethnicity lived in houses which appear to have been bought outright compared to only 16 percent of all recent migrants who are in this category in the Auckland region. However, there are substantial differentials according to the area in which the migrants have settled, ranging from 21 percent of those in Waitakere City to 60 percent of those in Manukau City. An even starker contrast is shown with migrants of Indian ethnicity, of whom only 6 percent owned their houses outright, and 55 percent were renting.

Table 3.14: Residential Tenure by Territorial Local Authority and Ethnicity of Recent Migrants in Auckland Region

	Own with Mortgage (%)	Own with No Mortgage (%)	Rent (%)
Chinese Ethnicity			
North Shore City	32	48	17
Waitakere City	54	21	19
Auckland City	29	33	33
Manukau City	26	60	10
Auckland Region	27	40	28
Indian Ethnicity			
Auckland Region	36	6	55
All Recent Immigrants	35	16	45

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1995)

A comparison of the location of recent Chinese migrants from different countries reveal different patterns (Ip and Friesen, 1995). Migrants from Hong Kong and Taiwan were highly concentrated in the Howick-Pakuranga area and to a lesser extent in the central isthmus area. These are generally areas of higher socioeconomic status and higher property prices. Migrants from China were much more dispersed with larger concentrations in the Mount Eden to Mount Roskill areas, reflecting a less wealthy population, and different occupational profiles. It is useful to draw a parallel with the pattern of settlement of the American Chinese, where the wealthy, educated and highly sophisticated new immigrants as well as the local-born Chinese move into the affluent suburbs, leaving the old 'Chinatowns' to the very old early settlers as well as the poorer illegal immigrants (New Yorker, 1993).

Based on the above discussion, one can summarise the salient fearures thus. There have been two highly significant immigration policy changes throughout the history

of Chinese settlement in New Zealand. One was the post-1945 relaxation when Chinese women and children were allowed to come in for family reunion, thus paving the way to the growth of indigenous Chinese family units in New Zealand. The other was the economic deregulation of the 1980s and subsequent pro-active policy of seeking quality migrants to shape up the country's performance. The latter has been the main wave of Chinese immigration to New Zealand, particularly since the 1990s. Thus, the majority of the Chinese population in this country is less than a decade old, and this explains that most of Chinese immigrants are first generation and speak Chinese language fluently. These conditions strongly support the hypothesis that the Chinese immigrants would keep a close tie with their countries of origin, particularly through frequent contact with families and relatives in their home countries. This implies that due to the close ties with families in their homes of origin, many Chinese New Zealanders would visit their native lands for the purpose of VFR. In addition, considering that 83 percent of Chinese New Zealanders comprise a family household, it is expected that their travel is a family-oriented activity. To understand the travel behaviour of the Chinese residents in New Zealand, it is useful to examine the travel activities of overall market for New Zealand outbound travel, outbound travel from China and Chinese visitor arrivals in New Zealand to establish the typical types of travel behaviour in the absence of data on New Zealand Chinese outbound tourism.

3.7 Travel Habits of Chinese Population in New Zealand

The analysis of tourism, the tourist and their propensity to travel and previous travel patterns is 'a complex process...involving not only the visitor and his movements but also the destination and host community' (Latham, 1989: 55). Therefore, it is necessary to study New Zealand outbound travel, particularly Chinese outbound travel from New Zealand to identify specific factors which impact upon Chinese travel habits. However, due to the lack of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel data, which will be discussed later in this chapter, this section will focus on general New Zealand outbound travel. It will also discuss Chinese outbound travel from China to establish some of the most likely travel patterns and habits of Chinese which may influence their outbound travel from New Zealand. Much of the ensuing discussion is derived from the recent synthesis of outbound travel trends by Page (1999).

3.7.1 Outbound Travel from New Zealand

New Zealand is a mature outbound market, despite its distance from many other parts of the world. As Page (1999) points out the New Zealand outbound market has experienced continued growth during the 1990s despite the relatively small size of the resident population of 3.7 million. In spite of a number of factors, such as currency devaluation, variable economic conditions and rising unemployment, outbound travel has continued to grow to over 1 million overseas trips for the year ended October 1998. The range of popular outbound destinations has remained fairly constant during the 1990s (eg. Australia, Fiji, the USA and UK) despite annual fluctuations in the market share of each destination. In the late 1990s, the growing effect of ethnic tourism and VFR has also had an impact on the growing diversity of secondary destinations which New Zealanders are travelling to. The New Zealand outbound market is significant compared to Australia's outbound market where only 2,932,000 outbound Australian trips were recorded for 1997 considering it is almost six times the size of New Zealand. This implies that New Zealand has a significant propensity to generate outbound travel.

Data on New Zealand outbound travel is limited, since government resources are focused on collecting statistical data for the income generating inbound markets linked to the focus on international arrivals. However, the neglect of the outbound market is now proving to be very short-sighted by researchers: in the year ended September 1998, 1,457,361 international visitors entered New Zealand while 1,162,757 trips were made overseas (Page, 1999). The central government agency - Statistics New Zealand operates in a market-driven economic environment and does not publish much of the data it collects. Instead, it charges clients for each search it actions. Summary data on outbound travel (eg. departures by purpose of travel by month and year) are available in the monthly publication *Key Statistics* although current data are always a few months old on publication. Page (1999) indicates that other data relating to New Zealand outbound can be obtained through statistical reports for the key destinations visited by New Zealand residents (eg. The Australian

Bureau of Tourism Research's *International Visitor Survey*). New Zealanders' expenditure on overseas travel is documented in the *Consumer Expenditure Series* (previously known as the Household Expenditure and Income Survey) and summary data is available via the Statistics New Zealand Web Page (http://www.stats.govt.nz). As the number of Chinese residents in New Zealand is very small (comprising 1.9 percent of total population), the data regarding Chinese outbound travel is even more scarce than the already limited national outbound data. The data on outbound trips is normally revealed under 'North Asian Countries' or 'Other' categories, therefore, it is often difficult to track down the precise numbers on Chinese New Zealanders' travel movements. Such data would also conceal the ethnic origin of the travellers who are classified as 'Asian'.

There are number of factors which affect the propensity for outbound travel, such as the spatial distribution of the population; the age structure and ethnicity of the population; the performance of the New Zealand economy; patterns of consumer expenditure on overseas travel; holiday entitlement and air fares. In the context of the Chinese population in New Zealand, many of these factors have been examined in the previous section. In New Zealand, there are three main centres which have outbound airline services: Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch. Auckland is by far the most important source area for outbound travel with the widest range of direct services and connections to 21 countries. Additional connections are available through transport hubs in Sydney, Singapore and Los Angeles to onward destinations where direct services do not exist in New Zealand.

According to Statistics New Zealand (1997), there are 69 percent of the economically-active population who may be likely to travel between age 15-65 years. Two age groups which have a strong propensity towards outbound travel are the 15-29 year olds who comprise 21 percent of the population. This group often pursue the traditional New Zealand 'overseas experience' (OE) prior to or after tertiary education, which combines a personal growth experience with temporary work and VFR travel in Australia, North America and Europe. The other group is the mature traveller (50-70 age group) who comprise 17 percent of the population. Ethnicity is increasingly being recognised as a powerful driver of return visits to relatives and friends in the country of origin of the immigrant. Table 3.15 is a good indication of

the significance of ethnicity among the resident New Zealand population. It comprises all of the people who specified their ethnic group, whether as their sole ethnic group or as one of several ethnic groups. It illustrates the diversity of ethnic groups who were born in New Zealand or overseas. One notable trend in the 1990s is the growth of the Asian ethnic group following the New Zealand government's immigration policy to encourage entrepreneurs and more prosperous migrants from China, Taiwan, South Korea and Hong Kong. This is reflected in the 128,292 of residents who record their birthplace as Asia as emphasised in the previous section. Similarly, the traditional Pacific Island countries are a significant source of immigration to New Zealand.

Table 3.15: Ethnicity of New Zealand Population by Birthplace in 1996

Ethnicity	NZ Born	Overseas Born	Not Specified	Total
All people of European Ethnicity	2,458,515	389,301	31,269	2,879,085
All people of NZ Maori Ethnicity	506,650	7,422	9,099	523,374
All people of Pacific Island Ethnicity	115,215	83,991	3,030	202,233
All people of Asian Ethnicity	43,401	128,292	1,809	173,505
All other Ethnicity	4,629	11,631	165	16,422
Not Specified	40,893	10,776	124,434	176,103
Total	3,169,503	631,413	169,806	

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997) cited in Page (1999)

The performance of the New Zealand economy has direct impact on the confidence, prosperity and population's predisposition to travel overseas which is independent of variables such as ethnicity. Page (1999) explains that discretionary income and the population's willingness to spend on overseas travel fluctuated during the 1990s, and this is often attributed to the performance of the economy. According to the Economic Intelligence Unit's (EIU) quarterly Country Reports on New Zealand, real GDP growth dropped from 3.5 percent in 1996 to 3 percent in 1997 and was expected to drop to 1.5 percent in 1998 and 1999. This reflects a contraction of GDP in the early months of 1998 and the impact of the Asian crisis on export markets and inbound tourism. As for outbound travel, the greatest impact is in more expensive costs in the overseas destination with the sharp depreciation of the New Zealand dollar (NZ$) with other currencies. As a result, the major airlines (eg. Air New Zealand, Qantas, Cathay Pacific and Singapore Airlines) responded in 1998 and 1999 with major discounting strategies to fill surplus capacity and potential drops in demand. Despite the economic downturn, stimulated by special promotions from Australia and other overseas destinations, a growth had achieved in outbound New Zealand trips to 1.16 million for the year ended October 1998.

According to Table 3.16, the average expenditure on overseas travel varied considerably by income, financial commitments, age and relative prosperity of ethnic groups (eg. Asian residents). The breakdown of overseas expenditure by household is also shown in Table 3.16 which highlights the relatively competitive nature of the air fare component, with accommodation and other costs consuming the greatest element of expenditure. The other factor which impinges upon the expenditure on overseas travel is holiday entitlement. The average holiday entitlement in New Zealand is three weeks and the popular holiday season is the summer vacation period around late December and January. According to Departure Card data, up to 70 percent of outbound trips during the 1990s were for less than three weeks, although almost 20 percent of trips were of one-six months duration reflecting the VFR and OE component of these trips.

Table 3.16: Consumer Expenditure on Overseas Travel for New Zealand in 1997: Key Indicators (All statistics are weekly expenditure in NZ$)

Income Group	Expenditure
Under $13,100	14.90
$13,100 - 18,499	5.80
$18,500 - 22,499	11.40
$22,500 - 27,799	12.50
$27,800 - 34,699	14.50
$34,700 - 43,399	18.40
$43,400 - 53,899	24.20
$53,900 - 68,199	26.70
$68,200 - 87,999	41.40
$88,000 plus	68.20

Household Tenure	Expenditure
Rent-paid	11.60
Rent-free	21.40
Own home with mortgage	22.50
Own home without mortgage	32.70
All Tenures	23.80

Expenditure by Age-group

Age group	Expenditure
15 - 24	15.60
25 - 29	22.40
30 - 39	22.70
40 - 49	35.00
50 - 59	42.20
60 - 64	39.70
65 plus	28.30
All age groups	30.20

Ethnic Origin	Expenditure
European/Pakeha	31.60
New Zealand Maori	10.30
Pacific Island	24.40
Other	43.70
All Ethnic Groups	30.20

Breakdown of Weekly Expenditure on Overseas Travel

Component	Average Expenditure	As a percentage of total net weekly expenditure
Overseas Air Fares	6.60	0.96
Other overseas trip costs paid in New Zealand	13.60	2.00
Expenditure paid out overseas	10.00	1.46
Total overseas expenditure	30.20	4.42

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1997) cited in Page (1999)

A recent press release from Statistics New Zealand, summarising unpublished results for overseas travel in the year ended October 1998. This recorded 1.16 million New Zealander trips overseas which comprised travel to four principal destinations:

• 615,000 trips to Australia

• 81,000 trips to the USA

• 68,700 trips to the UK

• 66,200 trips to Fiji.

   (Page, 1999: 10)

These countries have remained the main destinations for outbound travel during the 1990s despite annual fluctuations in the market share of each destination. Table 3.17 provides a summary of New Zealand residents overseas trips by destination. Australia remained the dominant outbound destination. Table 3.17 confirms that, despite fluctuations in arrivals up to 1994, Australia has continued to be a dominant destination with departures rising significantly during 1994-97. The main beneficiary of expanding New Zealand arrivals in the 1990s was Fiji, as both the Cook Islands

and Niue experienced a decline. Other destinations that have benefited from a steady growth are the UK, the USA and Japan while modest changes have occurred in other destinations. Data on Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel is not available from Table 3.17. It is compounded under the 'Other' category. Therefore, it is necessary to explore China outbound travel later in this chapter to see if the Chinese travel patterns and habits indicate any linkage with the Chinese population in New Zealand, or potential similarity or diversity to those Chinese from New Zealand.

Table 3.17: New Zealand Residents Departing Temporarily (intended absence less than 12 months) by Main Country of Destination 1991 - 1997

Year	Australia	United States	Canada	United Kingdom	Japan	Nether land
1991	415,542	66,387	7,529	46,928	10,750	4,135
1992	388,142	67,749	8,025	43,686	11,446	4,572
1993	418,738	60,180	9,358	48,621	12,824	4,442
1994	407,408	59,024	10,323	52,514	14,284	4,646
1995	460,266	75,539	10,369	57,604	14,995	4,768
1996	587,488	83,259	11,263	60,053	17,882	4,866
1997	598,612	85,398	12,023	65,733	18,422	4,405

Year	South Africa	Cook and Niue Islands	Fiji	Western Samoa	Other	Total
1991	1,419	13,834`	31,201	9,124	172,107	778,956
1992	2,567	15,965	38,313	11,314	159,116	750,895
1993	1,805	15,074	41,351	12,621	174,645	799,659
1994	2,927	14,678	51,833	13,220	192,977	823,834
1995	6,301	14,077	54,496	13,400	208,292	920,107
1996	7,018	13,721	59,044	14,400	233,885	1,092,879
1997	5,945	13,536	65,001	13,672	248,935	1,131,682

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1998) cited in Page (1999)

Table 3.18 illustrates the proportion of travel for each destination motivated by VFR. For example, in 1997, 27 percent of trips to Australia were VFR-related compared to

16.4 percent of trips to the USA, 33 percent for Canada, 41.5 percent for the UK and 52.8 percent for the Netherlands. Whilst these variations confirm the importance of the VFR market, historical ties to the UK and the relationship to waves of immigration, comparatively little is known about the travel habits of new immigrant groups from North Asia, such as Chinese immigrants, and the impact of VFR on outbound travel with exception of the Korean-New Zealanders. A study of tourism and ethnicity among Korean-New Zealanders by Kang (1998) found that 61 percent of trips were to South Korea, usually for 3-4 weeks or 1-2 weeks with VFR the main purpose of travel among 74 percent of those surveyed.

Table 3.18: New Zealand Residents Departing Temporarily (intended absence less than 12 months) by Main Country of Destination and VFR as Main Purpose of Visit

Year	Australia	United States	Canada	United Kingdom	Japan	Germany	Singapore
1991	124,441	9,919	2,900	21,024	1,435	1,133	1,421
1992	122,442	10,697	3,419	21,431	1,825	1,332	1,659
1993	126,600	11,226	3,599	23,129	2,219	1,334	1,858
1994	119,639	11,392	4,122	24,127	2,852	1,865	1,983
1995	125,899	12,426	3,576	24,838	2,628	1,691	1,959
1996	164,602	13,407	4,217	25,974	3,322	1,621	1,948
1997	162,368	14,140	4,200	27,999	3,631	2,128	2,262

Year	North Asian	Nether-lands	Nord-ic	Switzer-land	Pacific Islands	Latin American	Other	Total
1991	4,922	2,453	560	661	15,009	385	24,106	210,369
1992	7,878	2,816	642	531	18,539	492	19,851	213,554
1993	10,671	3,109	608	601	19,527	493	19,406	224,380
1994	13,536	3,002	665	588	19,613	525	21,174	225,083
1995	17,389	3,016	761	766	19,463	786	26,040	241,238
1996	22,590	3,033	987	821	19,753	770	29,824	292,869
1997	26,047	2,902	816	792	20,514	935	30,900	299,654

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1998) cited in Page (1999)

In terms of the origin of outbound travellers, Table 3.19 shows that demand from main cities (eg. Auckland, Christchurch and Wellington) has seen a strengthening from Auckland throughout the 1990s. Some 46 percent of main city resident departures were from Auckland in 1991 rising to 49.4 percent in 1993 and 51 percent in 1997. Departures from urban residents in the main cities shows that airports such as Wellington have seen a drop in patronage along with Christchurch and Dunedin.

Table 3.19: New Zealand Residents Departing Temporarily (intended absence less than 12 months) by Origin 1991 - 1997

Year	Auckland City	Wellington City	Christchurch City	Dunedin City
1991	127,792	59,302	71,059	18,994
1992	132,844	55,744	67,366	17,727
1993	147,067	58,656	72,772	19,027
1994	159,263	58,908	74,205	19,341
1995	190,953	64,488	79,514	22,857
1996	213,158	77,296	102,727	26,499
1997	226,845	84,518	104,002	26,196

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1998) cited in Page (1999)

The future prospects for growth in the outbound market look promising, as outbound travel almost equals inbound travel. As Page (1999) argues although the New Zealand outbound market is not numerically large in international terms, the recent pattern of growth since 1995 has been strong for a small country. VFR, business travel, holiday trips and a broad mix of short and long haul travel of varying durations indicates a growing complexity and sophistication in the profile of outbound travellers. The growing ethnic mix of new immigrants are generating a demand for a wider range of destinations to travel to. This trend is likely to continue into the next decade. As the data regarding Chinese outbound travel from New Zealand is even more scarce than the already limited national outbound data, it is often difficult to track down the precise numbers on Chinese New Zealanders' travel movements.

Under such circumstances, therefore, it is necessary to explore Chinese outbound travel from China to see if the Chinese travel patterns and habits indicate any linkage with the Chinese population in New Zealand, or represent any potential similarity or differences in terms of the destinations they travel to.

3.7.2 Outbound Travel from China

Historically, the tourism industry in China has been geared to servicing the needs of inbound business and leisure travelers. Between 1949 and 1978, outbound travel was negligible since China's official regulations prohibited Chinese residents from travelling overseas. A relaxation of restrictions occurred in 1983 though leisure travel was still confined to those visiting relatives overseas and growth was modest. Since 1990, travel agencies have been allowed to engage in outbound tourism activity for the first time, promoting a more vigorous growth of outbound travel (Li, King and Turner, 1998). Table 3.20 illustrates the growth of China outbound travel in the 1990s.

Table 3.20: Chinese Citizen Departures from China, 1990-97

Year	Total* (000s)	Annual Change (%)
1990	620.0	24.0
1991	2,134.2	244.2
1992	2,929.7	37.3
1993	3,740.0	27.7
1994	3,733.6	-0.2
1995	4,520.0	21.1
1996	5,061.0	12.0
1997	5,320.0	5.1

* Includes travel to Hong Kong and Macau.

Sources: China National Tourism Administration (1998) cited in Bailey (1998)

Growth in outbound travel from China has expanded dramatically since 1991 with 2.1 million departures from China in 1991 compared with 620,000 in 1990. In 1992 and early 1993, growth in arrivals from China to a limited number of destinations in Asia expanded three-fold, making China into one of the top ten sources market for certain

Asian destinations. The surge in outbound travel was halted in the summer of 1993 when a general crackdown on corruption in China stopped growth almost totally from August. The effect of the corruption purge began to wear off by the middle of 1994, and steady growth was experienced for much of that year. There followed a rebound in outbound travel in 1995 which continued strongly in 1996 when the Chinese government relaxed its foreign exchange policy for outbound travel, thereby overcoming a major constraint to outbound tourism (Li, King and Turner, 1998). Departures grew 21 percent in 1995 to just over 4.5 million, and 12 percent in 1996 to 5 million. In 1997, however, growth slowed to 5 percent to just over 5.3 million primarily because of restrictions imposed by China on travel by Chinese citizens to Hong Kong due to takeover of Hong Kong. However, more outbound agencies have been waiting to be licensed in 1998, which could indicate that strong growth is to follow.

Data on China outbound travel is limited. Bailey (1998) points out that China's outbound travel patterns are not well documented since the formation of the People's Republic of China in 1949. There has always been some official and business travel, but private travel was not technically permitted until 1983 when Chinese nationals were allowed to join organised tours to visit their relatives in Hong Kong. More data on outbound travel became available when it became a sizeable market during the 1990s. Most data emanate in some form from the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) which was created in 1964 (initially named as the Travel and Tourism Bureau) as a policy-making body to direct and control travel agencies. Now, its role has expanded to cover most aspects of travel. Also, data from major receiving destinations and the WTO provide some information on Chinese visitors.

China has a population in excess of 1.2 billion, and its labour force numbers around 660 million. Official figures put the unemployment level in China at around 3 percent (some 36 million) but many believe the figure is far higher - perhaps 50 million. Since adopting its 'open door' policy in 1978, China's economy has grown 15-fold, and GDP is now close to US$500 billion. China's main export markets are Hong Kong, Japan, the USA, South Korea and Germany, and its main imports suppliers are the same five countries, but in slightly different order - Japan, the USA, Hong Kong, South Korea and Germany. This may imply that these major import and export

markets could be China's major outbound destinations for business or combined leisure purpose.

Outbound travel from China is categorised into several types - which differ from international norms and which are closely related to the type of passport used for travel. As Bailey (1998) notes Chinese nationals travel on passports or travel permits for visits to Hong Kong or Macau. There are four types of passports: private, official, ordinary (sometimes called 'official ordinary') and diplomatic. Official and ordinary passports are essentially the same, but the official passport is issued to a higher level or status of traveller. Hence, there are private travel and official/business travel as a type. Private travel is funded through personal sources, whereas, official/business travel is funded by companies or government organisations. This is one possible reason that the percentage of official travel increased faster than private travel's shown in Table 3.21. Nevertheless, both types of travel grew significantly in the given period.

Table 3.21: Outbound Travel from China by Passport Type, 1991-1993

Year	Official	% Change	Private	% Change
1991	1,254,200	na*	880,000	na*
1992	1,736,300	38.4	1,193,400	35.6
1993	2,280,000	31.3	1,460,000	22.3
*Data not available				

Source: China National Tourism Administration cited in Bailey (1998)

The first international tours offered in China known as 'relative-visiting tours' were to Hong Kong. The tours, which were mostly by coach from the nearby city of Guangzhou and Shenzhen on the Hong Kong/China border, allowed travellers to stay with their relatives during part of the tour. According to the CNTA, with the introduction of visa-free status for stays by Chinese nationals of up to seven days in transit, Hong Kong has become the biggest beneficiary of the outbound boom with arrivals reaching 2.3 million in 1995. Hong Kong has been the main destination for travellers from China and the main gateway for travel from China to overseas. Almost half of all Chinese outbound travellers visit Hong Kong or Macau (43 percent

in 1997). According to the Hong Kong Tourism Authority, China is the third largest source market after Taiwan and Japan. Now that Hong Kong has been incorporated within China, travel flows will increase further, though such flows will become more correctly regarded as a form of domestic tourism.

Apart from Hong Kong, the major breakthrough in outbound travel came in May 1991, when Chinese nationals were allowed to join leisure tours organised by the China Travel Service (CTS) to Asia. Destinations benefiting from China's outbound growth were Thailand where arrivals reached 381,094 in 1995, and Singapore which attracted 201,900 arrivals in the same year. In the latter case, China outbound travel has helped compensate for the fall off in arrivals from Japan, European countries and the USA (Li, King and Turner, 1998). Arrivals to South Korea reached 179,387 in 1995. Following intensive lobbying and public relations activity by the receiving countries over a three-year period, Australia and New Zealand were added to the destination list in 1998. The impact of these changes are yet to be seen.

Table 3.22 provides series of insights into the destinations most visited by Chinese travellers. Data comes from the WTO, based on cumulative arrivals of Chinese around the world. By far the largest share goes to the East Asia Pacific region, which received 84.5 percent of Chinese outbound travellers in 1996 and 83.2 percent in 1995. Europe attracted 10 percent in 1996, the Americas 4.3 percent (of which almost 88 percent were in the USA), Africa 0.5 percent and South Asia 0.5 percent. The Middle East accounted for a mere 0.2 percent. Table 3.22 also shows that China' major trading counties were among its main outbound destinations.

Table 3.22: Major Destinations for Chinese Outbound Travellers, 1994-96

Destination	1994	1995	1996	% Change 1996/95
Africa	9,012	23,703	25,913	9.3
Nigeria	650	11,835	13,715	15.9
Americas	175,498	192,062	238,947	24.4
USA	157,887	166,520	209,604	25.9
Brazil	4,975	7,749	10,618	37
Costa Rica	2,643	4,565	5,025	10.1
Belize	2,981	4,724	4,975	5.3
Peru	3,099	3,241	3,493	7.8
East Asia Pacific	3,383,901	4,108,342	4,654,211	13.3
Hong Kong	1,943,678	2,243,245	2,311,184	3
Macau	423,415	547,527	539,919	-1.4
Thailand	257,455	375,564	456,912	21.7
Viet Nam	14,381	62,640	377,555	502.7
Japan	193,486	220,715	241,525	9.4
Singapore	164,893	201,965	226,685	12.2
South Korea	140,985	178,359	199,604	11.9
Malaysia	95,789	103,130	135,743	31.6
Australia	29,700	42,600	54,000	26.8
Mongolia	42,043	47,721	30,478	-36.1
Europe	491,925	578,189	552,489	-4.4
Russian Federation	328,368	390,470	349,449	-10.5
Germany	102,723	117,069	132,950	13.6
UK	19,000	31,000	31,000	0
Spain	13,944	14,477	15,010	3.7
Middle East	6,657	7,776	8,703	11.9
Egypt	4,292	5,930	7,001	18.1
South Asia	22,928	26,046	26,537	1.9
Pakistan	7,192	9,105	9,104	0
World	4,089,921	4,936,118	5,506,800	11.6

Source: World Tourism Organization, cited in Bailey (1998)

The CNTA and other Chinese sources do not routinely release data on the characteristics of outbound travellers. According to Bailey (1998), the last detailed

breakdown was for 1992. The CNTA indicated that approximately half the total of outbound travellers left the country by land - assumed to be mainly crossing the border to Hong Kong, Mongolia, Russia, Viet Nam, Myanmar and India. The southeastern province of Guangdong (adjacent to Hong Kong and Macau) is by far the largest source of private travel, comprising as much as half of the total. Other major sources are: Heilongjiang Province in northeast China where it shares its borders with Russia and Mongolia, and the adjacent Liaoning Province which also borders Russia. In the southwest, Guangxi Province shares a border with Viet Nam and Yunnan Province has borders with Viet Nam, Myanmar and India. Other outbound generating areas are the influential and comparatively wealthy municipalities of Beijing and Shanghai as well as the rich coastal province of Zhejiang which lies to the southwest of Shanghai.

Apart from VFR, leisure travel dominates outbound travel. For instance, Chinese stay in Thailand longer than in Hong Kong or Singapore. Many Chinese tourists travelling abroad prefer attractions with a strong local culture and flavour according to travel agents. For example, many Chinese tours visit local attractions such as Ocean Park in Hong Kong and a transvestite show in Pattaya in Thailand. This suggests that Chinese tourists are no different from many other tourists. According to surveys conducted by host countries, such as Hong Kong Tourist Association, Singapore Tourist Promotion Board and Tourism Authority of Thailand between 1993 to 1997, travellers from China were predominantly male (in most cases, male taking 60-80 percent of total travellers); over 70 percent aged between 25-54; and they were mainly for holiday purpose between 40-95 percent (countries like Singapore and Thailand have no breakdown for VFR travel), business travels taking 5-30 percent. The average length of stay were between 4-10 days, and nearly 75-99 percent stayed in hotels.

There are no precise figures on spending abroad by Chinese, but there are a few general indicators. According to the WTO, travellers from China spent US\$3.7 billion on outbound travel in 1996 and US\$4.5 billion in 1997, an increase of 21.3 percent. Some analysts consider that the spending potential of Chinese travellers is underestimated. A Chinese traveller should be viewed as a small group of people not as one person. As most Chinese still cannot travel overseas, someone who does travel may buy items on behalf of his colleagues, friends or even neighbours (Bailey, 1998).

Outbound travel from China is the responsibility of CNTA which is the controlling body for the whole of China's travel industry. It oversees the China Travel Service (CTS) which deals primarily with Overseas Chinese and visitors from Hong Kong and Macau; the China International Travel Service (CITS) which deals with foreign visitors; the China Youth Travel Service (CYTS) which was established in 1978; and most recently China Comfort which was formed. These agencies are the major travel agency groups handling outbound travel. Their headquarters are in Beijing, with largely autonomous branches and subsidiaries throughout China.

There is one important exception to CNTA's remit with regards to outbound travel. Agencies that represent airline ticketing are controlled by the Civil Aviation Administration of China (CAAC) while in most other countries, ticketing would be licensed by the same body that handles other aspects of travel arrangements. In China, although an outbound travel agency can sell international tours, it cannot, for instance, issue the airline ticket in connection with the tour - or issue an air ticket for a separate trip, whether leisure, business or official.

Aviation in China was tightly controlled until decentralisation began in the mid-1980s. CAAC was divided into separate airlines. According to Hong Kong-based consultancy Travel Business Analyst (TBA), there are over 40 Chinese airlines listed in China, and about ten Chinese airlines that operate international routes (excluding airlines in Hong Kong and Macau). The tightest control remains on international routes. Nevertheless, 27 cities have international services.

Although the number of international trips taken annually represents just 0.4 percent of China's population, numerically China is the third largest outbound market in Asia, after Japan and Taiwan. At present, there are some encouraging signs. The recently licensed outbound travel agencies could indicate a mini-boom. Furthermore, international airlines are still adding flights into China (partly because China has been less affected by the regional economic downturn than some other markets). Within the Asia-Pacific region, there has been considerable expansion in routes and services between Japan and China and between South Korea and China. As Bailey (1998) indicates if China had no passport/outbound controls on exiting the country, no visa

requirements in destinations and sufficient airline seat capacity, then an estimate of its outbound market potential could be 20 million. If these factors were incorporated, extrapolating this figure to forecast the likely outbound market means that a figure of up to 50 million by 2005 is quite realistic. This may not be far from the view held by the WTO which forecasts 100 million outbound Chinese trips by 2020.

3.7.3   Chinese Visitor Arrivals in New Zealand

Outbound travel from China has grown dramatically in the 1990s as emphasised in the earlier section, generating 5.3 million outbound travellers in 1997. In view of the relationship of Chinese immigration to New Zealand, it is useful to consider a number of questions which assist in understanding the interrelationship between migration, Chinese tourism flows to/from New Zealand and likely consequences for market development in New Zealand. In other words, how many Chinese have travelled to New Zealand? How long have they stayed here for? What did they do when they arrived? What were the characteristics of these Chinese visitors? Was there any similarity to those who visited other destinations? How significant was VFR as a prime motivation for visiting?

There is very limited primary data on Chinese travellers to New Zealand except for variables on age and gender of arrivals, port of entry and average intended length of stay and visitor arrivals by purpose which are shown in Table 3.23-3.27.

Table 3.23: Age and Gender of Visitor Arrivals from China for Year Ended June 1999

	Under 15	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+	Total
Male	215	473	2,002	3,791	3,197	1,609	551	11,838
Female	234	316	1,392	1,595	1,161	849	240	5,787
Total	449	789	3,394	5,386	4,358	2,458	791	17,625

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1999)

Table 3.23 shows that 67 percent of the Chinese travellers are male, and about 75 percent of the travellers are aged between 25-54. Table 3.23 indicates a similar age and sex profile of outbound travellers to those surveys conducted by Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand tourism associations and authorities. This implies that the Asia-Pacific region receives outbound Chinese travellers with a similar age and sex profile. In comparison to New Zealand outbound travellers, age is a significant factor, because people from both New Zealand and China are typically aged 25-65. This is similar to the outbound profile of New Zealand travellers as noted by Page (1999). However, Page (1999) did not discuss the gender of outbound travellers.

Table 3.24: Port of Entry of China's Visitor Arrivals for Year Ended June 1999

Auckland	Wellington	Christ-church	Hamilton	Queens-town	Dunedin	Other air	Sea	Total
13,401	1,580	2,329	0	12	0	0	303	**17,625**

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1999)

According to Table 3.24, over 98 percent of Chinese travellers entered New Zealand predominantly through Auckland where 76 percent of visitors arrived. As the largest city and transport centre, Auckland is by far the most important source area for outbound travel and inbound Chinese arrivals and has the highest air traffic flow in New Zealand as discussed in the previous section. In this instance, Auckland is both the dominant entry and exit point for inbound and outbound travel for New Zealand.

Table 3.25: Visitor Arrivals from China, 1997-1999 for Year Ended June

1997	1998	1999
17,018	16,814	17,625
(57.70%)	(-1.2%)	(4.80%)

Percentage change in brackets

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1999)

Table 3.25 shows the growth rates of the travellers from China. The numbers of arrivals during the stated period may not appear to be significant. However, if visitors

from Hong Kong were included, the number would be more significant since legally Hong Kong has returned to China since 1997.

Table 3.26: China's Visitor Arrivals by Purpose for Year Ended June 1999

	Holiday	VFR	Business
1999	6,141	2,817	6,187
% Change	-6.2	15.5	1.7

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1999)

Table 3.26 indicates that most visitors from China came to New Zealand for the purposes of holiday or business, and about 16 percent for VFR. A 15.5 percent growth of the VFR market could imply that the increase of Chinese immigrants to this country may increase the VFR traffic. Therefore, the potential interrelationship between Chinese VFR travellers and the number of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand should not be overlooked. However, given the current data, VFR flows from Chinese visitors to New Zealand is still in its infancy.

Table 3.27: Average Intended Length of Stay of Visitors from China
For Year Ended June 1999

	Holiday	VFR	Business	Total
1999	9.8	68.9	19.9	28.3
% Change	-	-	-	9.3

Source: Statistics New Zealand (1999)

According to Table 3.27, Chinese average intended length of stay for hoildaying in New Zealand was about 10 days. This compares with the length of their stay in Asian destinations, which is usually between 4-10 days. It is also normal for organised tour groups to stay for that length of time as most leisure travellers from China took organised tours rather than travelled individually. Generally for VFR travel, visitors from China would be granted a visa which is valid for three months. As a result, the average intended length of stay would be less than a three month period. In this instance, it was about 69 days.

3.8 Summary

The Chinese have been the largest immigrant group of Asian origin in New Zealand since the nineteenth century when they first arrived to work in the gold-fields. One characteristic of the Chinese population in New Zealand is its diversity, particularly the split between old established immigrants and new immigrants. As discussed earlier in this chapter, there have been two highly significant immigration policy changes throughout the history of Chinese settlement in New Zealand. The first was the post-1945 relaxation of immigration rules when Chinese women and children were allowed to come in for family reunion, thus, paving the way to the growth of indigenous Chinese family units in New Zealand. Hence, this group of Chinese have been classified as 'the old established immigrants'. The second change was the economic deregulation of the 1980s and subsequent pro-active policy of seeking quality migrants regardless of ethnicity to improve the country's economic performance. The latter has comprised the main wave of Chinese immigration to New Zealand, particularly since the 1990s. It is this group of Chinese immigrants who are probably best categorized as 'new immigrants'. As a result, the Chinese population reached just over 70,000 in the 1996 Census indicating that immigration has been the main contributory factor to the growth of Chinese population in New Zealand.

The other principal characteristic of the Chinese in New Zealand is its cultural diversity. Apart from those Chinese who originated directly from China, it is apparent that they also emigrated from a wide variety of countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam, Laos, Cambodia, Taiwan and Hong Kong. As a result, the use of the term 'country of origin' is not a simple surrogate as a measure of ethnicity. Furthermore, even though they are all Chinese in terms of their ethnic identity, they represent distinctive differences based upon their countries of origin. Almost all of them fluently speak the language of their native country of birth. They also reflect the culture and way of life of the indigenes of those countries. As a result, such immigrants may feel more at home among the Chinese of their own kind and largely restrict their relationships with these specific groups amongst the Chinese in New

Zealand. This may also lead them to seek family ties and kinship back in their countries of origin, and their travel habits and patterns may also be influenced.

Ethnic ties are also an emerging area of study. Ethnicity is increasingly being recognised as a powerful driver of return visits to relatives and friends in the country of origin of the immigrant. A study of tourism and ethnicity among Korean-New Zealanders by Kang (1998) found that 61 percent of trips were to South Korea with the VFR as the main purpose of travel among 74 percent of those surveyed. The South Korean immigrants usually travel overseas with family and use South Korean travel agencies. In terms of Chinese immigrants' travel habits and patterns of both domestic and international travel, relatively little is known.

In spite of the relatively small size of the resident population of 3.7 million, the New Zealand outbound market has experienced continued growth during the 1990s. It had reached over 1 million overseas trips for the year ended October 1998. This implies that New Zealand has a significant propensity to generate outbound travel. The range of popular outbound destinations has remained fairly constant during the 1990s (eg. Australia, Fiji, the USA and UK) despite annual fluctuations in the market share of each destination. In the late 1990s, the growing effect of ethnic tourism and VFR has also had an impact on the growing diversity of secondary destinations which New Zealanders are travelling to.

Despite the growth of New Zealand outbound travel, knowledge of outbound Chinese as an ethnic group is negligible. The data on outbound trips made by Chinese New Zealanders is rare and normally revealed under 'North Asian Countries' or 'Other' categories. Therefore, it is often difficult to track down the precise travel movements of Chinese New Zealanders. In addition, virtually no research has been carried out on patterns of Chinese travllers, as well as tourism and ethnicity among Chinese New Zealanders. The knowledge of Chinese determinants of travel and their motivating factors is also negligible. Under such circumstances, therefore, it was necessary to explore Chinese outbound travel from China to see if the Chinese travel patterns and habits indicate any linkage with the Chinese population in New Zealand, or represent any potential similarity or differences in terms of the destinations they travel to.

Outbound travel from China has really expanded dramatically in the 1990s. The popular series of destinations for outbound travel from China remains fairly constant such as Hong Kong and Macau (as traditional VFR and other purpose destinations), Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam, South Korea, Japan and other Asian countries; USA; Russia, Germany and other European countries. In comparison to New Zealand popular destinations such as Australia, USA, UK and Fiji and other secondary destinations such as Asian countries show convergence in tourism flows. This may indicate a continuity in the destinations chosen regardless of current country of residency reflected in the concept of destination familiarity. This means that outbound travellers from China tend to choose destinations with a familiar culture and ties with China where they may have relatives or friends. This familiar culture and a sense of belonging with the ethnic groups is likely to be a formative influence for these destinations. For example, this may apply to Hong Kong, Macau, Singapore and countries where Chinese are either the dominant population or a large ethnic group. There may also be a degree of destination familiarity for those Chinese prior to emigrating to New Zealand. In such cases, it may also influence their travel decision when they became permanent residents of New Zealand. For instance, they may choose VFR trips to their countries of origin, or somewhere with familiarity and ties reflecting their own ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Other than seeking destination familiarity, the first major wave of outbound Chinese from China and New Zealand may also be limited to 'safe' sets of destinations.

Consequently, a series of relationships may exist in terms of:

- *Recent emigration trends to New Zealand may involve countries with resident Chinese population.* As the Chinese population in New Zealand increases, this may encourage more Chinese to emigrate to this country as they may have relatives or friends in the country, since they may have a cultural familiarity with their own ethnic background.

- *The process of globalization of the economy which has led to the globalization of labour markets.* This encompasses both skilled and unskilled labour. Therefore, people of all races have become much more mobile and move in search of a lifestyle that suits them better; migration becomes a common theme. International labour migration, especially of skilled workers, has internationalised the potential

networks of visiting friends and families for tourism. In addition, there are increasing numbers with experience of working and living abroad, which both increases their search spaces at retirement and removes the barrier of lack of familiarity with living abroad.

- *Once the individual/family emigrates, the conditions in the host country and process of adaptation are taken into account together with the challenge posed by a new culture, expatriate acculturation process, sociological factors (eg. language ability and family and kinship ties) and the opportunities in the local labour market.* These may affect the individual/family's perceived assimilation into the host community. In the case of New Zealand, unemployment and underemployment are common among the new Chinese immigrants. As a result, many of these immigrants (especially the chief income earners) have to return to their countries of origin to work in order to support their families that were left behind in New Zealand - a phenomenon has been labelled as 'semigration' since the migrant may still hold permanent residency status. In some cases, the immigrants have to relocate all of the family members back to their countries of origin. With regards to the linkage to tourism, this semigration could affect their travel habits and patterns in terms of travel, frequency of travel, destination choice and spending.

In brief, local, regional and global processes may be shaping migration, which are inter-connected with travel and patterns of tourism emerging that are both distinctive and complex to deconstruct in a New Zealand context. For this reason, the next chapter examines the research study conducted to explore the tourism-migration nexus in New Zealand in relation to Chinese New Zealanders.

4. METHODOLOGY

Within spatially-oriented research on tourism, a number of empirical studies are beginning to emerge on the interrelationships between tourism and migration, the relationship of emigration, travel habits and the manner in which travel habits are shaped by social factors such as family ties and kinship, although the latter have not been fully developed (Williams, 1983). In a recent study of outbound travel from New Zealand, Page (1999) highlighted the growing significance of new immigrants and their growing contribution to the country's travel patterns. In another recent exploratory study of travel patterns of South Korean immigrants in New Zealanders, Kang and Page (2000) examined the patterns and travel habits of recent South Korean immigrants to New Zealand with a focus on the impact of family ties and kinship in motivating travel for ethnic reunion. It developed a number of themes which require further research and development to establish the extent to which such patterns are indicative of global processes shaping the travel habits of immigrant groups. All these studies each identified a range of methodologies pertinent to this study.

To further the research in the area of ethnic groups' travel patterns, this research project focused on the study of the relationship between tourism and immigration by examining the impact of family reunion, VFR travel and other factors in shaping the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. This study conducted primary research to understand the cultural and behavioural factors which affect and impact upon the lifestyles, economic status and potential travel patterns of Chinese immigrants. As there have been no research-based surveys of the travel patterns of the Chinese population in New Zealand, this study provides an opportunity to undertake a survey to assess the situation in relation to Chinese travel habits and patterns in New Zealand. Such a survey is, by its very nature, likely to be descriptive in exploring these issues because no baseline data exists. The aim of this survey was not only to undertake statistical comparisons and analyses, but also to obtain a 'snapshot' of the current situation of travel habits and patterns of Chinese in New Zealand. This initial survey can then be used as a basis for further analysis. Therefore, this study will provide one example of ethnic tourism in gaining a better understanding of the relationship between tourism and migration. This study will also

be a basis for comparative studies between different ethnic groups in terms of their patterns of outbound travel.

4.1 Research Methods

A questionnaire survey-based approach was selected as the most appropriate method to use in order to obtain the necessary primary data. This type of survey method has a number of advantages including low costs, minimal staff requirements and provision of more anonymity for respondents even though there are disadvantages including low response rates and no interviewer intervention to assist in probing or explaining (Cooper and Emory, 1995). Much of the data could also have been obtained by in-depth focus groups and by other nonquantitative methods, but in this case the survey method was chosen in the first instance because of the limited financial resources, time, personnel input, anonymity and possible language difficulties of many of the Chinese immigrants. Many potential respondents were expected to have limited formal knowledge of English and desire for the survey to be anonymous due to the nature of the survey. Therefore, a method had to be selected to accommodate these potential problems. A questionnaire survey method was considered to be the optimal solution to overcome the potential problems.

Due to limitations of money and time, a convenience sampling process was employed which derived a random cluster sample. This sampling method randomly picked different Chinese groups in Auckland to derive a range of respondents. The questionnaires were distributed randomly through Massey University, Auckland University and through various agencies of the Chinese Community in Auckland to derive a likely representative range of respondents. The questionnaire consisted of 38 questions in total. A pretest using 10 respondents was undertaken to ensure that the questions were unambiguous and clear.

4.2 Sample Design

The target population for this study were the Chinese residents in New Zealand. However, considering that more than 63 percent of Chinese immigrants were residing in the Auckland region according to the 1996 Census, the sample for this study was

derived from the population of Chinese residents in the Auckland region. Therefore, the sample frame seeks to select a representative sample of Chinese from Auckland rather than outside of Auckland due to their current vocational attributes. In general, the targeted respondents needed to be 20 years of age or over and permanent residents or citizens of New Zealand, in order to be representative of one household to achieve a more reliable and valid data for this survey. However, respondents of at least 15 years of age were allowed to represent their household in the event of their parents were not in New Zealand. This caveat on responses was included because in some cases, both parents had moved back to their home countries to secure work to support the families back in New Zealand. However, the number of such households was expected to be very small.

4.3 Questionnaire Design

A self-administered questionnaire survey was used to obtain the data. In order to overcome the possibility that the language of the written questionnaire was not clearly understood, two versions of the document were prepared: one in English and the other in standard Chinese to accommodate new arrivals and old settlers whose families migrated to New Zealand several generations ago (see Appendix 1, 2). The questionnaires were given to a number of translators to ensure that the translation was of equivalent meaning in both documents. Respondents were allowed to use the Chinese language version if their English language skills were limited or if they so chose. A number of researchers in tourism and migration research were also consulted with a view to developing various elements in the questionnaire. This was seen as essential in a multidisciplinary area such as tourism and migration to gain a range of perspectives related to key concepts and questions which need to be covered in this area of study.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections with 38 questions in total. The first section focused on the demographic data; the second section focused on outbound travel habits and patterns of the potential respondents. As mentioned in the previous section, before the questionnaires were distributed, a pilot test had been carried out among 10 researcher's Chinese acquaintances in order to detect weakness in questionnaire design and instrumentation (Cooper and Emory, 1995). The

questionnaire was designed to elicit responses from household as the questions in the questionnaire ask about household trends rather than individual patterns.

4.4 Data Collection

The survey was conducted in June 1999. It used a two month time frame for the completion of questionnaire responses, and subsequently, data collection was finished by the end of July 1999. Data were collected through the use of self-administered questionnaires given directly to respondents. A total of 600 surveys were distributed through Universities and other organisations of the Chinese Community in Auckland. A covering letter also accompanied the questionnaire explaining the purpose of the survey (see Appendix 1, 2). An addressed reply paid envelope was supplied if the respondent could not complete the questionnaire immediately. A total of 365 were returned, seven were subsequently discarded because of noncompletion, resulting in a final total sample of 358 which was equivalent to 60 percent response rate. According to Dillman (1978, cited in Cooper and Emory, 1995) mail surveys and self-completion surveys without a researcher present with a return of about 30 percent are often considered satisfactory. Thus, a 60 percent response rate for this study is to be considered as very acceptable particularly in a large urban centre where direct mailing and other social surveys compete for respondents' time.

4.5 Data Analysis

In order to analyse the data a statistical computer software package, MINITAB was used. This was employed so that both descriptive statistics could be calculated and to show what relationships exist between variables.

The specific methods of the data analysis depend upon the type of question and the questions used in the questionnaire. A chi-squared goodness of fit test was used to test if the sample was representative of the research project. Also, chi-square tests were applied where appropriate to assess the statistical significance of the relevant associations between variables. Cross tabulations were performed as they could be used for any type of variables such as nominal/ordinal variables. In addition, in order

to derive variables which were linked with the propensity to visit China, correspondence analysis was employed.

In terms of the objectives of this study, much of data required for undertaking the analysis were qualitative, retrospective and factual in order to establish relationships between different variables so that the actual patterns could be reconstructed rather than focusing on perceptions and attitudes towards travel. Therefore, the nature of questions asked in the questionnaire contained nominal variables to facilitate the formation of actual patterns and relationships for this research rather than employing ordinal variables commonly used in Likert scales to test attitudes and values. For this purpose, correspondence analysis was used to facilitate the data analysis process as it is the most appropriate method of analysis to quantify the more qualitative and descriptive data commonly associated with nominal variables (Greenacre, 1993; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1995). The correspondence analysis can transform the nonmetric data to a metric-level form and perform dimensional reduction to determine the degree of association among variable categories.

According to Hair et al (1995), correspondence analysis was a statistical technique recently developed which facilitates dimensional reduction and conducts multidimensional scaling. It can be classified as a compositional technique because it creates a perceptual map based on the association between objects and a set of descriptive characteristics or attributes. Thus the association is based on the attributes specified by the researcher. Among the compositional techniques, factor analysis is probably the most similar equivalent statistical technique, but correspondence analysis has been extended past the application of factor analysis. Its most direct application is in portraying the 'correspondence' of categories of variables, particularly those measured in nominal terms. This correspondence then becomes the basis for developing perceptual maps or 'pictures'. The correspondence analysis is particularly useful to give a more accurate picture on how multi-dimensional objects are related to each other (Hair et al, 1995). For this study, it is essential to acquire perceptual image of the travel patterns of the Chinese population in New Zealand.

4.6 Limitations of the Study

The sample was derived from Chinese residents in the Auckland region even though the target population was the entire Chinese population in New Zealand. Although, the proportion of Chinese-Aucklanders comprised more than 63 percent of the total Chinese population in New Zealand in the 1996 Census, the remaining Chinese New Zealanders who were living in other regions were not included in this study due to limitations of financial resources and time. Thus, the results of the study cannot easily be viewed as indicative of as Chinese New Zealanders' trends due to the focus on Auckland.

Since a convenience sample (a random cluster sample) was used, this may have introduced bias in the sample (Zikmund, 1991). A bias towards different groups such as students, church groups, social clubs and other Chinese associations occurred because of the reliance on these groups for distribution purposes. In general, a cluster sample will not be as representative of the population as a random sample (Zikmund, 1991).

For most respondents, English was a second language and the meaning of the questions written in English may not have been understood properly by the respondents. Conversely, the Chinese language reading skills of respondents may also have been inadequate. Despite this, only seven respondents gave responses which were excluded from the analysis since they were answered in such a manner that was meaningless. In this respect, the survey can be viewed as a successful exercise in deriving a representative sample given the length of the questionnaire and time it required respondents to spend in completing it. Despite these limitations, the data generated provides a useful insight into the nature of this study.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter sets out to present the outcomes of the questionnaire survey. It also analyses and interprets the results of the survey. There will be several themes discussed in this chapter, such as the sample representativeness of this survey; a statistical description of the characteristics of the sample; and the patterns of travel of Chinese New Zealanders. It will also highlight the results and findings which may contribute to existing knowledge in the context of the relationship between tourism and immigration.

5.1 Tests for Goodness of Fit for the Sample Size of this Survey

The survey was conducted in the period of June-July 1999. Data were collected through the use of self-administered questionnaires given directly to respondents. A total of 600 surveys were distributed through Universities and other organisations of the Chinese Community in Auckland. A total of 365 were returned, seven were subsequently discarded because of noncompletion, resulting in a final total sample of 358 which was equivalent to a 60 percent response rate.

In order to find out how representative this survey's sample was of the population, chi-squared tests for goodness of fit were employed, particularly in terms of sex, age, birthplace and family type which were the important components for this study. These tests compared the counts obtained from the survey (observed count) with the corresponding counts (expected count) for the population. Due to the availability and comparability of certain population data, goodness of fit tests were applied where appropriate in this survey.

According to the 1996 Census, there were total of 70,227 Chinese population in the country (see Table 3.2). Males accounted for 48.3 percent of the total population; while females accounted for 51.3 percent of the entire population. Figure 5.1 illustrates the observed count of the sex category. Figure 5.1 shows the observed count is similar to the population which may imply the sample is representative of the population. However, this needs to be tested further by conducting a chi-squared test. The results of the chi-squared test were shown in Table 5.1.

Figure 5.1: The Observed Count of the Sex Category

1 (180, 50.3%)

2 (178, 49.7%)
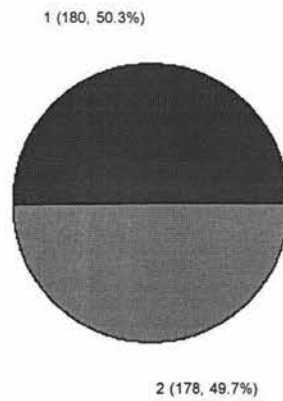
(1=Male, 2=Female)

Table 5.1: Goodness of Fit Test for 'Sex' Variables of Sample Size against Population

Category	Male	Female	Total
Observed count (O)	180	178	358
Expected count (E)*	173	185	358
(O-E)²/E	0.28	0.27	0.55

* Expected count was derived from the 1996 Census

Table 5.1 illustrates the observed, expected count and chi-squared value of the sex category of the survey. With two categories in Table 5.1, the Degrees of Freedom (DF) is 1; therefore, the tabulated chi-squared value is 3.84. Through calculation, the chi-squared value is 0.55; this figure is within the tabulated chi-squared value of 3.84. This indicates that the observed counts are similar to the expected counts. In other words, it means that the sample is representative of the population in terms of the sex category.

According to the 1996 Census, Chinese residents had a younger age structure than the entire New Zealand population as a whole and a greater proportion of children and

working age people in its population (see Table 3.4). There were approximately 36 percent of the population under 20 years of age, and they were not the survey's primary target. As discussed in the previous chapter, the target groups for this survey were primarily people who were aged 20 years and over because the survey questionnaire was designed to ask about the household trends rather than individual patterns. Although the survey allowed persons who were over 15 years of age to represent their family in the event of their parents were not in New Zealand, the number of such cases was very small (less than one percent respondents were in the under 20 age group category in this survey). Therefore, this group aged between 0-19 years of age were taken out the sample and population in this instance. Those respondents in the age group between 20-30 years of age accounted for 25.4 percent of the population; while those in the age group between 30-50 accounted for 54.1 percent of the population; and age group which was over 50 years of age accounted for 20.5 percent. Table 5.2 illustrates the observed, expected count and chi-squared value of the age group category of the survey.

Table 5.2: Goodness of Fit Test for Age Group of Sample Size against Population

Category	20-30	30-50	50>	Total
Observed count (O)	72	212	73	357*
Expected count (E)*	91	193	73	357
(O-E)²/E	3.97	1.87	0	5.84

* Expected count was derived from the 1996 Census. One respondent did not specify the age group.

With three categories in Table 5.2, the DF is 2; therefore, the tabulated chi-squared value is 5.99. Through calculation, the chi-squared value is 5.84; this figure is within the tabulated chi-squared value of 5.99. This means that the sample is representative of the population in terms of the age group category.

According to the 1996 Census, there were over 75 percent Chinese residents born in Asia (see Table 3.1). This indicates that the majority of Chinese New Zealanders are the first generation settlers which may imply a great degree of linkage between the Chinese immigrants and their countries of origin. It also has particular implications

for tourism such as the choice of destinations to travel and purpose to travel. In the survey, the sample accounted 96 percent of respondents born in Asian countries. This indicates that the result may over-represent the population. However, considering that the purpose of this research was to study the relationship between tourism and immigration by examining the impact of family reunion and other factors in shaping the travel patterns of the Chinese immigrants in New Zealand, the ratio issue would not be likely to significantly influence the outcomes of this survey. The result also indicates that recent immigrants have not followed the traditional settlement process as emphasized in Chapter 3. Instead of living near main entry points initially and then moving to other places as time passes, recent Chinese immigrants are more resistant to dispersal due to the fact that the majority of them come from highly urbanized countries and want to continue living an urban lifestyle (Statistics New Zealand, 1995; Vasil and Yoon, 1996). As a result, Auckland has the greatest concentration of new immigrants from all ethnic groups and has a much higher proportion of 'overseas born' population than the rest of the country according to the 1996 Census. In this respect, one can argue that a focus on Auckland is justified to capture a more representative sample of 'immigrant experiences'. Under such circumstances, choosing Auckland as the survey area would be likely to have more overseas-born Chinese rather than New Zealand-born Chinese in the sample. It would also be interesting to know the proportion of New Zealand-born Chinese residing in Auckland. However, such information is not available from the published statistical data. There were 75 percent of Chinese population comprising a household which consisted of a couple with children according to New Zealand's 1996 Census (see Table 3.5). A couple with no children accounted for 13.2 percent of the total population; while couples with children and one parent with children accounted for 86.8 percent of the population. Table 5.3 illustrates the observed, expected count and chi-squared value of the family type category of the survey.

Table 5.3: Goodness of Fit Test for 'Family Type' of Sample Size against Population

Category	Couples with no children	Couples with children	Total
Observed count (O)	47	239	286
Expected count (E)*	38	248	286
$(O-E)^2/E$	2.13	0.33	2.46

* Expected count was derived from the 1996 Census

With two categories in Table 5.3, the DF is 1; therefore, the tabulated chi-squared value is 3.84. Through calculation, the chi-squared value is 2.46; this figure is within the tabulated chi-squared value of 3.84. This means that the sample is representative of the population in terms of the family type category.

Tests for goodness of fit for other important components such as duration of residence in New Zealand and income should have been carried out for this survey. However, as discussed in Chapter 3 and earlier in this section, considering the comparability, sensitivity, reliability and validity of the data from the sample and the population, such tests had not been conducted. But judging from above tests for goodness of fit, it is reasonable to assume that the sample is likely representative of all aspects of the population for this survey, since the vital indicators of demographic characteristics are statisitically representative. Furthermore, a comparison of the statistical characteristics of these target groups with other published studies indicates that this study was a meaningful sample. This study compares favourably with the study of Greek Americans (Thanopoulous and Walle, 1988), where a sample of 448 usable questionnaires was derived from a total population of over one million Greek Americans; with the study of Australian Sri Lankans (King and Gamage, 1994), where a sample of 122 questionnaires were used, but no specification of the Australian Sri Lankan population was indicated in the article; with a recent study of Australian Vietnamese (Nguyen and King, 1998), where a sample of 364 questionnaires were collected from a possible 150,000 Australian Vietnamese population resident in Australia during the 1991 Census. Therefore, a sample size of

358 usable questionnaires selected from 70,227 Chinese population in New Zealand seems to be a good outcome given the nature of other recent samples derived in internationally published studies of ethnic tourism. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the sample used in this study is likely to be both representative and valid and certainly of a depth and breadth comparable, if not better than, the existing published studies.

5.2 The Profile of the Sample of Chinese New Zealanders

Data were collected through the use of self-administered questionnaires handed directly to respondents through a random cluster sampling process. As mentioned earlier, a total of 600 surveys were distributed through Universities and other organisations of the Chinese Community in Auckland resulting in a final total sample of 358. That sample has been used for this study and the characteristics of the respondents are summarised in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Characteristics of the Sample of Chinese New Zealanders

Socioeconomic Descriptor	Respondents Count	Percentage of Total
Gender		
Male	180	50.28
Female	178	49.72
Country of birth		
New Zealand	12	3.35
China	235	65.64
Hong Kong	64	17.88
Taiwan	25	6.98
Singapore	8	2.23
Malaysia	12	3.35
Australia	2	0.56
Duration of residence in NZ		
Less than 1 year	24	6.98
1-Mar	153	44.48
4-Jun	133	38.66
7-Sep	12	3.49
10-Dec	12	3.49
More than 12	10	2.91
Immigration category		
General	175	50.87
Business	41	11.92
Marriage	17	4.94
Family reunion	104	30.23
Others	7	2.03
Retain business		
Yes	38	10.98
No	308	89.02
Future intention		
Yes	110	30.73
No	67	18.72
Donot know	181	50.56
Age (years)		
Under 20	3	
20-30	69	1.95
31-40	157	40.91
41-50	55	40.91
51-60	29	14.94
61 and over	44	1.3
Marital status		
Married	151	99.35
Unmarried	3	0.65

Number of children		
0	47	16.43
1	116	40.56
2	98	34.27
3	21	7.34
4 or more	4	1.4
Highest education		
None	1	0.28
elementary school	11	3.09
Middle school	33	9.27
High school	21	5.9
College	32	8.99
University	211	59.27
Above Bachelor degree	47	13.2
Occupation		
Self-employed	36	10.06
Company employee	95	26.54
Housewife	31	8.66
Student	105	29.33
Unemployed	80	22.35
Others	11	3.07
Number of household people		
1	30	8.38
2	50	13.97
3	101	28.21
4	99	27.65
5 or more	78	21.79
Number of household employed		
0	91	25.49
1	125	35.01
2	123	34.45
3	14	3.92
4	3	0.84
5 or more	1	0.28
Annual income		
Under $30,000	199	58.36
31,000-40,000	43	12.61
41,000-50,000	31	9.09
51,000-60,000	30	8.8
Over 60,000	38	11.14

The sex ratio of the sample is similar to that of the Chinese population as analyzed in the previous section for all New Zealanders. With nearly equal numbers of females and males, the sex ratio in the sample is remarkably balanced. This outcome is in line with the demographic profile of the Chinese in New Zealand discussed in Chapter 3. The sex ratio for all recent Chinese migrants was highly balanced in contrast to some earlier migration streams in which there was a strong male bias. As Ng (1993) noted up to 1951, the Chinese population in New Zealand still remained as aliens, and were still predominantly male and seeking the settlement of their families still located overseas. Therefore, the balanced sex ratio suggests the importance of family reunion and family migration for Chinese immigrants in New Zealand as Ng (1993) and Ip (1995) have identified.

The countries of birth of the respondents in the sample contained a diverse mix of Chinese population born in New Zealand, China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia and Australia. These outcomes reflect the Chinese population in New Zealand. As discussed in Chapter 3, since Second World War, Chinese immigration to New Zealand became more diverse, particularly in the past decade (Statistics New Zealand, 1995; Ip and Friesen, 1995; Vasil and Yoon, 1996). Apart from those Chinese who originated directly from China, it is apparent that they also emigrated from a wide variety of countries and regions such as Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam, Laos, Cambodia, Taiwan and Hong Kong. Even though such migrants are all Chinese in terms of their ethnic identity, they represent distinctive differences based upon their countries of origin. As a result, such immigrants may feel more at home among the Chinese of their own kind and largely restrict their relationships with these specific groups amongst the Chinese in New Zealand. This may also lead them to seek family and kinship ties back in their countries of origin, and their travel habits and patterns may also be influenced which will be analysed later in the chapter.

There were 96 percent of Chinese born in Asian countries in the sample. This figure is higher than that for the Chinese population recorded in the 1996 Census (75 percent). This has a number of implications. First, it indicates that the majority of Chinese New Zealanders are the first generation settlers which may imply a greater degree of linkage between the Chinese immigrants and their countries of origin. In terms of tourism, this may influence the migrants' choice of destinations and purpose

to travel. Second, it indicates that the result may over-represent the population. Considering Auckland had a much higher proportion of 'overseas born' population than the rest of the country as a whole according to the 1996 Census, therefore, choosing Auckland as the survey area would be likely to have more overseas-born Chinese rather than New Zealand-born Chinese in the sample. However, as discussed earlier in this chapter, it would not be likely to significantly influence the outcomes of this survey. In this respect, one can argue that a focus on Auckland is justified to capture a more representative sample of 'immigrant experiences'. Last, it also indicates that recent immigrants have not followed the traditional settlement process to disperse elsewhere as time passes due to their urban background. Consequently, the new immigrants choose to settle in the main cities of New Zealand such as Auckland.

In relation to the duration of residence in New Zealand, the characteristics of the sample reflect the results of the 1996 Census. There were more than 90 percent of the Chinese immigrants who had resided in New Zealand for less than 6 years in the sample, while less than 10 percent of the migrants had resided in the country for more than 7 years. The 1996 Census revealed that more than 70 percent of Chinese migrants emigrated to New Zealand after the new immigration policy commenced, particularly after 1991 when the 'Point System' was introduced. The median years of stay was 4.06 years. Therefore, the majority of Chinese immigrants are relatively recent to this country. Thus, the survey sample reflects the results of the 1996 Census.

There were 50 percent of the sample who had emigrated to New Zealand under the 'Point System'; nearly 12 percent of the sample migrated here under business immigration scheme; while 30 percent of the sample migrated to the country under the family reunion scheme; and the rest came to New Zealand under either marriage or other categories. These outcomes reflect New Zealand's immigration policies as discussed in Chapter 3. New Zealand Immigration Service (1992) revealed that the general category known as the 'Point System' was the most popular and common channel for emigrating to New Zealand. For instance, just one year after the introduction of the 'Points System', 43 percent of immigrants who qualified for permanent entry (a total of 25,773) came through this general category. Only 307 came through the business emigration category in that year (New Zealand

Immigration Services, 1992). By the end of 1993, over 68 percent of a total of 28,443 immigrants entered through the general category, while only 518 came as business migrants. These immigration data are reflected in the survey sample. A high percentage of family reunion category in the sample indicates the importance of family migration. It also suggests that people who were not qualified to emigrate independently under the general or business categories would gain entry to New Zealand under the family reunification category or through other schemes. Ongley and Pearson (1994) pointed out since the implementation of New Zealand's new immigration policy, that the country's demand for skilled and professional workers had been increasingly met by immigration. At the same time, less skilled migrants from various sources continue to make up substantial proportions of the immigration flows to New Zealand, entering under family reunion provisions or as refugees or temporary labour migrants. Therefore, the increasing numbers of Chinese immigrants may also increase the numbers of less skilled migrants and unemployment. As such, unemployment becomes an increasing problem among Chinese immigrants in New Zealand which will be discussed later in the section.

Some 89 percent of the sample had not retained business interests in their home countries, while nearly 11 percent of the respondents indicated that they had retained business interests at home. This may indicate a certain level of association with the 'semigration' process as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. This is where some families' chief income earners had moved back to their home countries to work to support their families who were left behind in New Zealand, or became 'astronaut spouses' travelling between New Zealand and their home countries as a result of unemployment and underemployment in New Zealand (Ip, 1995, Boyer, 1996). One issue here is that this may help to interpret the income status reported by new immigrants from the survey and from the 1996 Census which will be analysed in depth later in this section.

The highest proportion (50 percent) of the sample were not sure whether they would continue to live in New Zealand or not; some 30 percent of the sample indicated that they intended to live in New Zealand, and some 18 percent of the sample indicated that they intended to leave the country. Again, such a high percentage of 'uncertain' and 'intend to leave' categories may highlight a causal relationship with the

'semigration' process, often induced or stimulated by a long period of unemployment and underemployment. On the other hand, there have been suggestions that some business migrants use New Zealand as a staging post en route to other countries, as New Zealand citizenship can be helpful if a person wants to move to other parts of the world (McLoughlin, 1994; Hsaio, 1995; Statistics New Zealand, 1995). Furthermore, since the majority of Chinese immigrants are the first generation settlers, it is not uncommon to show some degree of uncertainty among new immigrants and their long term mobility patterns.

The age distribution of the sample shows a similar trend to that of the Chinese New Zealanders' age grouping in the 1996 census. The age groups between 20-50 years of age were similar to those recorded in the 1996 Census (see Table 3.4); the remaining age groups represented 21 percent of the sample. Chinese residents had a younger age structure than the New Zealand population as a whole reflecting New Zealand's new immigration policy of attracting primarily young and highly educated professionals and business investors to the country. The smaller percentage of older Chinese immigrants reflects the family reunification policy of New Zealand's new immigration policy. This result also shows a certain degree of association with the extended family structure of the Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. In fact this is further supported by the results from the sample that there were 21 percent who had five or more people in a household, and that there were less than 9 percent of the families in the sample who indicated that they had three or more children. Thus, this is a good reflection of the extended family structure as part of Chinese tradition and family values as emphasised in Chapter 3. In relation to family type, the characteristics of the sample also closely mirrors those of the 1996 Census. The results from the sample show that 84 percent of families have children, while about 16 percent of families have no children. At the same time, the highest proportion (77 percent) of the sample are families with three or more members in the households. Thus, these results may indicate that the Chinese immigrants' travel patterns are likely to be family-oriented and children may influence the time of travelling which will be discussed later in the chapter.

In relation to educational attainment, over 72 percent of the sample have at least a Bachelor's degree, while some 27 percent of the sample have below college

qualifications. Compared to the educational profile of the Chinese population in New Zealand (19 percent of the Chinese residents had university qualifications in the 1996 Census), this outcome seems to be highly skewed towards university qualifications even though a university degree was one of the favoured emigration requirements for Chinese immigrants to gain entry to New Zealand. However, the high percentage of immigrants with university degrees reflects the importance the Chinese population traditionally placed on education. This also suggests that Chinese immigrants may have more disposable income due to their well-educated background. This may influence their potential travel patterns as to the frequency of travel and spending at the destination.

In terms of occupational status in New Zealand, some 29 percent of the sample were students; nearly 27 percent were company employees; while 10 percent were self-employed; some 22 percent were unemployed in this survey. A high proportion of the sample which were students may be the result of a random cluster sampling process. The survey sample is likely to not have the same degree of variety as a random sample. However, the sample does highlight a few commonalties among the Chinese community in New Zealand. For instance, Ip and Friesen's study (1995) noted that many recent Chinese immigrants owned small businesses like dairies, bread-shops, fish shops and takeaways. Such typically labour-intensive and low-capital enterprises are often run by an individual or in conjunction with family members. High levels of unemployment and problems of underemployment are becoming endemic problems amongst the Chinese community. According to the 1996 Census, some 64 percent Chinese population in New Zealand had full-time employment, while nearly 14 percent of them were unemployed (see Table 3.10). In fact, the 1996 Census data shows that the South Korean and Taiwanese population have the greatest predisposition to be unemployed and underemployed in spite of their high levels of education and professional qualifications. In relation to the household employment status of the survey, close to 75 percent of households in the sample had one or more members employed, while about 25 percent of the households had no one employed. This confirms the issue of occupational status discussed earlier in this paragraph.

Over 58 percent of the sample belonged to 'under $30,000 annual income' category, close to 13 percent of the sample had an annual income which is between $30,000 to

$40,000, nearly 18 percent had an annual income between $40,000-$60,000, and about 11 percent had an annual income over $60,000. These results reflect a similar income distribution to that in the 1996 Census while nearly 11 percent of the Chinese population had an annual income of over $70,000 and the median income of $ 7,968. Compared with the median income of New Zealand which was $15,603 in the 1996 Census, the income of Chinese immigrants seems to be rather low. Income status has normally been associated with one's occupational status. Higher income is usually associated with higher occupational status, whereas, lower income status probably associates with unemployment, or being a student, or underemployed. One should also consider that many Chinese immigrants emigrated to New Zealand in search of a more relaxed lifestyle. They did not seek to come to New Zealand in order to increase their monetary incomes or achieve greater returns on their investment. New Zealand's competitive advantage with respect to Chinese migrants lies instead with its environmental and social attributes (Boyer, 1996; Mclauchlan, 1992; Ip and Friesen, 1995).

As discussed in Chapter 3, the use of income data is problematic as a means of generalising about the socioeconomic status of recent migrants since it does not account for other measures of wealth such as the ownership of assets. In addition, the issue of retained overseas business interests also obscures the true patterns of prosperity. It is commonly understood among the Chinese population that they need to have a capital reserve, which many brought with them from their countries of origin, and upon which many of them rely. Kang (1998) also acknowledged a similar situation and trend among South Korean immigrants in New Zealand. In addition, the Chinese population tend to be reluctant to reveal their true financial status. One also needs to consider that 'no employment' does not equal to 'not working'. Due to taxation, social welfare and other factors, some people including some Chinese immigrants may choose to work in the 'black economy'. Thus, in terms of tourism, it is not accurate to assert or associate low income status with the Chinese disposition for outbound travel. It is also a good example of interpreting statistics with caution and the need to understand the cultural context which affects different ethnic groups and their behaviour.

One of the objectives of this study was to examine the travel patterns and habits of Chinese New Zealanders, particularly to examine their propensity to travel to China and their motivation for doing so, and to identify surrogate measures which can be used to predict the likelihood of a pilgrimage to one's ultimate place of origin. This is apparent from the survey of 448 Greek Americans in Ohio by Thanopoulos and Walle (1988) which focused on outbound travel propensity among Greek Americans. According to Thanopoulous and Walle (1988), Greek Americans were an ideal subject for an exploratory study of ethnic identity and its impacts on consumer behaviour involving international travel. Greek Americans are relatively heterogeneous in respect of the duration of residence in the USA, and a large proportion of respondents were born in the USA due to the long immigration history to the USA. In this respect, Chinese New Zealanders share similar characteristics. It would also provide a basis for comparative study which is neglected in tourism research (Kang and Page, 2000). Thanopoulous and Walle (1988) argued that over one million Greek Americans were potential travellers to Greece. What would be Chinese New Zealanders' propensity to travel? Would it be similar to those Greek Americans in Thanopoulous and Walle's study? Do travel patterns for Chinese immigrants differ from travel patterns for New Zealanders?

5.3 Chinese New Zealanders' Outbound Travel Patterns

Within the context of outbound travel, there are a number of determinants which affect the propensity for outbound travel such as the spatial distribution of the population; the age structure and ethnicity of the population; the performance of the New Zealand economy; patterns of consumer expenditure on overseas travel; holiday entitlement and air fares as previously discussed in Chapter 3. In the context of the Chinese population in New Zealand, many of these factors have been examined in the previous section. However, the sample survey needs to be further examined in relation to Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel to identify the dominant forces that influence the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand, and to compare the travel patterns of Chinese New Zealanders with those of New Zealanders in general. It will also provide a better understanding with regard to the relationship between tourism and immigration.

5.3.1 Frequency of Travel

How often do Chinese immigrants in New Zealand travel overseas? Table 5.5 indicates that 23 percent of Chinese New Zealanders travelled overseas once between January 1997 and June 1999 which was a period of two and half years. During the same period, 19 percent travelled overseas twice, 10 percent took three trips, 2 percent travelled four times, and nearly 4 percent travelled five times or more, while 41 percent did not take any overseas trip. In other words, 59 percent of Chinese New Zealanders took at least one overseas trip in the past two and half years. Meanwhile, New Zealanders made 1,162,757 overseas trips in the year ended September 1998 (Page, 1999). Given an estimated total population of 3,792,000 for New Zealand (New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1998), at most 31 percent of New Zealanders made a visit to overseas. In other words, New Zealanders' gross travel propensity in 1998 which represents the total number of departures as a percentage of the total population was 31 percent (Page, 1999). Thus, the proportion of Chinese New Zealanders who make an overseas visit is quite substantial compared to that of the overall New Zealand population even though the measurement period was longer for Chinese New Zealanders than for New Zealanders. This confirms the fact that stated income is not a surrogate for outbound travel habits. In fact, this may even call into question the validity of aggregated statistics in government surveys such as the consumer expenditure survey and how much New Zealanders' spent on overseas travel (see Page, 1999). The significance of the proportion of Chinese New Zealanders' visiting overseas becomes even greater when compared with that of Chinese departures from China. A total of 5,320,000 Chinese departed China in 1997 which means that at most only half a percent of Chinese population in China had a chance to visit overseas for the year of 1997 (Bailey, 1998). However, due to lack of outbound travel data from countries and areas such as Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan and Hong Kong, it is difficult to estimate Chinese ethnic groups' outbound travel propensity. Nevertheless, it is evident that a significant proportion of Chinese New Zealanders are likely to visit overseas. In addition, Kang (1998) found that 65 percent of South Korean immigrants in New Zealand travelled outbound within the previous 19 months. Both results indicate that the growing effect of ethnic tourism on the propensity for outbound travel in New Zealand in the 1990s despite variable

economic conditions and rising employment as Page (1999) has identified in the study of New Zealand outbound travel.

Table 5.5: Number of Overseas Visit, January 1997-June 1999 (N=358)

Number of Overseas Visit	Respondents Count	Percentage of Total
0	148	41.46
1	83	23.25
2	68	19.05
3	37	10.36
4	8	2.24
5 or more	13	3.64
Not specified	1	

5.3.2 Outbound Destinations

Table 5.6: Outbound Travel Destinations, January 1997–June 1999

Country	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
China	104	50.00
Australia	64	30.77
Japan	3	1.44
Singapore	23	11.06
Hong Kong	93	44.71
South Korea	1	0.49
Taiwan	21	10.19
Thailand	7	3.37
USA	19	9.13
Canada	10	4.81
UK	2	0.97
France	3	1.44
Malaysia	15	7.21
Indonesia	2	0.96
Fiji	6	2.88
Other countries	7	3.37

Where do Chinese New Zealanders travel overseas? Table 5.6 shows that China is a dominant destination for Chinese New Zealanders as 50 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time visited China. As Chinese immigration to New Zealand became more diverse after the Second World War, it is necessary to explore the major components comprising the Chinese ethnic groups in the sample to examine whether their outbound travel are unique or similar. Among the respondents who travelled to China, more than 91 percent of them were born in China. The remaining percentage of the respondents originated from Hong Kong, New Zealand and Taiwan. Thus, it is apparent from the survey that those who were born in China are more likely to visit China as one of their outbound travel destinations.

Hong Kong was ranked as the second most popular destination in the survey. There were nearly 45 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time that visited Hong Kong as shown in Table 5.6. Among the respondents who travelled to Hong Kong, over 48 percent of the respondents originated from China, some 45 percent of them were born in Hong Kong, and the rest were from New Zealand, Taiwan and Australia. There are a few possible explanations why China-born respondents comprise the largest group visiting Hong Kong. First, nearly 65 percent of the sample were from China, and 18 percent were from Hong Kong. Therefore, it is possible that respondents born in China were the largest group visiting Hong Kong. Secondly, it is widely accepted in the tourism and migration literature that many Mainland Chinese took Hong Kong residency, and re-emigrated to New Zealand. Thirdly, there were no direct flights from New Zealand to China except for a few irregular charted flights. As a result, those people visiting China travel via Hong Kong, Singapore, Australia or South Korea. Lastly, Hong Kong is the most dominant outbound destination (though technically it should be regarded as domestic destination since July 1997) for Chinese residents (Bailey, 1998; Li, King and Turner, 1998). It is also possible that Chinese travellers share similar interests and tastes in the choice of destinations compared with Chinese New Zealanders. This argument posits that those outbound travellers from China have a similar cultural background, continuity in the destinations chosen regardless of current country of residence which is reflected in the concept of destination familiarity as discussed and summarised in Chapter 3. In other words, there could be a degree of destination familiarity for those Chinese prior to emigrating to New Zealand. Hence, it is possible to argue that those who were born in Hong Kong are more likely to visit Hong Kong as one of their outbound travel destinations regardless of country of residence.

Australia was ranked the third most popular outbound travel destination from the sample. There were almost 31 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time who visited Australia. Among the respondents who travelled to Australia, nearly 61 percent of the respondents were born in China, about 14 percent of them were born in New Zealand, and close to 11 percent of them were from Hong Kong, some 4 percent of the respondents were from Taiwan, another 4 percent of the respondents came from Malaysia, Australian-born took 3 percent, and Singapore took the remaining percentage which is less than 2 percent. There were only two

respondents in the sample that were born in Australia, it is difficult for it to be representative of the sample. However, these two respondents indicated Australia as one of their outbound travel destinations and also travel for VFR purposes. Australia is one of the major outbound destinations for Chinese New Zealanders indicated from the respondents who originate from China, New Zealand, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Malaysia and Singapore. This result shows similar trend to the principal outbound destination for New Zealanders who choose Australia as the main short-haul destination as discussed in Chapter 3 (for further detail see Page's 1999 study on New Zealand outbound travel). In this instance, Chinese New Zealanders' travel pattern is similar to that of New Zealanders'.

According to Table 5.6, about 11 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time visited Singapore. Among the respondents who travelled to Singapore, about 52 percent of the respondents were born in China, some 13 percent of them came from Hong Kong, about 17 percent of them were from Malaysia, nearly 9 percent of them were born in Singapore, the remaining percentage of the respondents were from New Zealand and Taiwan. As there were only 2 percent of the sample that were originating from Singapore, it is difficult for it to be representative of the sample. However, those Singapore-born respondents indicated Singapore as one of their outbound travel destinations and also travel for VFR purposes. The main Chinese ethnic groups which travelled to Singapore were from China, Hong Kong, Malaysia. This indicates that Chinese outbound travellers from New Zealand tend to choose destinations with familiar cultural and ties. Again it may suggest some form of destination familiarity which reflects their prior travel history and may somewhat contradict concepts developed in the travel motivation literature such as Pearce's (1993: 125) travel career ladder which assumes 'travel motives may change over time, starting at different levels, they are likely to change levels during their life-cycle and they can be prevented from moving by money, health and other people'. Also, some Chinese use Singapore as a transit point en route to China as there are no direct flights to China. However, there no detailed data is available on this topic.

Table 5.6 shows that about 10 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time visited Taiwan. Among the respondents who travelled to Taiwan, about 95 percent of the respondents were born in Taiwan. Nearly 5 percent of them

(which in this case was only one person who was born in New Zealand) indicated that he had visited Taiwan. Therefore, it is evident from the survey that those who were born in Taiwan are more likely to visit Taiwan as one of their outbound travel destinations than any other competing location. One interesting point to note here is that no one had visited Taiwan who was born in China. There is a great degree of complication for China-born travellers to gain Taiwan entry visas because of the outstanding sovereignty issue between China and Taiwan, even for the Chinese who already gained foreign citizenship.

Some 9 percent of the respondents who had travelled in the given period of time had visited the USA. Among the respondents who travelled to the USA, nearly 37 percent of the respondents were born in China, about 21 percent of them were born in New Zealand, about 36 percent of them (18 percent for each group) were from Hong Kong and Taiwan respectively, and the balance were from Singapore. This result shows a similar trend to the major New Zealand outbound destinations in terms of the USA destination. In this instance, Chinese New Zealanders' travel pattern is similar to New Zealanders'.

Table 5.6 also shows that 7 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time visited Malaysia. Among the respondents who travelled to Malaysia, nearly 40 percent of the respondents were born in Malaysia, China-born comprised nearly 27 percent, New Zealand-born 13 percent, and the remaining respondents were born in Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore. As the sample of people born in Malaysia is very small, and barely representative of the population. However, those Malaysian-born respondents indicated Malaysia as one of their outbound destinations and also travelled for VFR purposes.

The countries which were also listed by the respondents as their outbound travel destinations in the survey include: Asian countries such as South Korea, Japan, the Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia; North American; a number of European countries such as the UK, France, Germany; and South Pacific Island countries such Fiji, Tahiti. However, the sample is very small and regarded as insignificant, it would be difficult to interpret a meaningful result. In comparison to China outbound, there is an interesting similarity between Chinese New Zealanders and Chinese from China in

terms of their outbound destinations. It is evident that the Chinese from China and New Zealand generally travel to Asia, Oceania, North America and Europe, and seldom choose Africa and South Asia as their travel destination. They share a high degree of similarity in their choices of outbound travel destinations as discussed earlier in the section. According to Statistics New Zealand's unpublished results for overseas travel in the year ended October 1998 (Page, 1999), New Zealanders' five most popular overseas travel destinations were Australia, the USA, the UK, Fiji and Hong Kong in this order. Besides visiting their home countries in Asia, Chinese New Zealanders also share a degree of similarity to New Zealanders in their outbound travel destinations as discussed earlier in the section.

If 'ethnic tourism' is related to immigrants choosing their countries of origin as their outbound travel destination, the results from this reveal a high predisposition towards ethnic tourism among the Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. As discussed earlier in the section, the New Zealand Chinese ethnic groups in the survey tend to travel back to their countries of birth as their principal choice of outbound destination. This indicates the close linkage between the Chinese immigrants' adopted country-New Zealand and their countries of birth. This is particularly the case when the majority of the Chinese population are recent immigrants as the family ties and ethnic links would still be close. The arguement is supported by the study of Australian Vietnamese travel patterns (Nguyen and King, 1998). That study revealed that the Australian Vietnamese known as Viet Kieu (most of the first generation) exhibit positive views towards visiting Viet Nam. Most of them expressed a desire to travel back to reaffirm their ethnic links as soon as they had the opportunity to do so. As a result of the close linkage between their adopted country and their countries of origin, it is suggested that Chinese New Zealanders could have high demand for travelling for ethnic reunion purposes. This, according to King (1994), implies that ethnic reunion has a high level of awareness owing to family connections and shared cultural values. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that Chinese New Zealanders' purpose of travel could comprise a high proportion of VFR.

5.3.3 Purpose of Travel

Table 5.7: Purpose of Travel, January 1997-June 1999

Purpose	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
VR	151	72.60
VF	40	19.23
Business	53	25.48
Holiday	45	21.63

Why do Chinese New Zealanders travel? Table 5.7 shows that VR and VF took nearly 92 percent together in the sample. In other words, about 73 percent of respondents travel for VR purpose and some 19 percent of them travel for VF reason. Splitting VR and VF category can reflect more precise market trend particularly in relation to ethnic tourism trends (Seaton and Tagg, 1995a). It is evident that VR was the predominant reason for Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel. This is in line with Seaton and Tagg's research results (1995a) which focused on Northern Ireland and drew upon the necessity of splitting VF and VR categories. They found that VF category was less likely to have ethnic connections with Ireland compared to VR and VFVR (Visiting Friends and Relatives). Thus, it is apparent that ethnic tourism is more closely aligned with the VR category rather than the VF category. This is obvious when considering that one of the main motivations of ethnic tourism is for family reunion and the enhancement of kinship relationships through travelling to the country of birth (Thanopoulous and Walle, 1988).

If 'ethnic tourism' is related to VR and travel for ethnic reunion purposes, the results of the survey reveal a very high predisposition towards ethnic tourism among the Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. This is because of more than two thousand years of deep Confucian influence in Chinese culture. The Confucian-based philosophy as practiced by most Chinese places a heavy emphasis on family and family-related activities and maintaining family connections across the globe. Therefore, VR is the predominant purpose of travel among Chinese New Zealanders. In other words, the Chinese immigrants' primary motivation to travel is for ethnic reunion, which includes a desire for the enhancement of family ties and kinship relationships through

travel to their countries of birth as Thanopoulous and Walle (1988) identified in their study for the Greek Americans' travel motivation. This was also confirmed by the study of Australian Vietnamese (Nguyen and King, 1998) that the travel purpose of Viet Kieu to Viet Nam was to reaffirm their ethnic links, as the Vietnamese society was also influenced by Confucius principles. In addition, many Vietnamese immigrants were of Chinese ethnic origin as discussed in Chapter 3, and Confucian philosophy is deeply rooted among Chinese regardless of their countries of birth.

Due to the fact that the majority of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand are recent immigrants, the result also demonstrates that there is a strong link between VFR traffic and migration patterns. Jackson (1990) has argued that the total flow of VFR as a proportion of the size of the country of birth and relationship with migrant group is significantly and directly related to the proportion of recent migrants. King (1994) examined the role of tourism as a form of migration, noting that travel for ethnic reunion is closely linked with VFR travel. He suggested that the links between ethnic tourism and migration need to be clarified further where family connections and shared cultural values are involved. King (1994:176) further argued that 'travel for ethnic reunion purposes is a significant activity in all parts of the world. On a global scale, one can even argue that tourism is, itself, the largest migratory force in human history'. King's argument is reflected in the outcomes of this survey. For example, the chi-squared test of association for VR purpose category and visiting China category illustrated in Figure 5.2 shows that there is a significant association between these two variables. Through cross-tabulation, all expected values exceed 5 which means that the chi-square analysis is reliable. DF is 1; so the tabulated value should be 3.84. However, the calculated chi-square value is 4.084 which is bigger than the tabulated value of 3.84. This suggests that there is an association between 'VR' and 'Visiting China'. In addition, the P-value is 0.043 less than 0.05 which means that the association between 'VR' and 'Visiting China' is significant. Figure 5.2 shows that 57 respondents did not travel for VR purposes including 22 respondents who travelled to China in the given period of time. There were 151 respondents who travelled for VR purposes including 82 of them who travelled to China in the given period of time. There were 150 respondents who did not travel in the given period of time. Thus, the majority of the respondents (about 79 percent) who travelled in the given period of time visited China for the purposes of VR.

Chi-squared tests of association for 'VF purposes and visiting China', for 'holiday purposes and visiting China', for 'business purposes and visiting China' have also been carried out. The results suggest that the association between 'VF' and 'Visiting China' is significant, while there are no association between 'Holiday' and 'Visiting China', and between 'Business' and 'Visiting China'. Therefore, Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel was mainly for VFR purposes. This outcome also highlights the need for a better understanding of ethnic tourism to more closely understand its relationship to migration generally (King, 1994). As a result, tourism planners and managers may benefit significantly from an important segment of the market by improving their knowledge and understanding of the ethnic market (Liu, Timur and Var, 1984; Thanopoulous and Walle, 1988; King, 1994; Paci, 1994).

Figure 5.2: The Association between 'VR' and 'Visiting China'
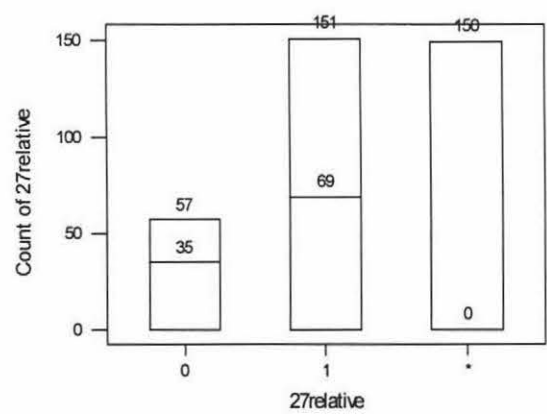
(0=No, 1=Yes, *=Respondents who did not travel outbound during the given time)

The result from Figure 5.2 further implies that VFR ethnic tourism has a strong propensity to travel repeatedly to a single destination as illustrated in Table 5.8. Paci (1994: 36) classified VFR as 'a distinctive segment of the travel market which should not be undervalued' and suggested that VFR ethnic tourism has strong growth potential, demonstrating a strong propensity to travel repeatedly to a single

destination. This is evident as Table 5.8 has shown with 44 percent of respondents who travelled to China in the given period of time who made one trip to China; nearly 26 percent of them visited China twice; about 15 percent of them travelled to China three times; and 5 percent of them visited China four times, while more than 8 percent of them travelled to China at least five times.

Table 5.8: Number of Visits to China, January 1997-June 1999 (N=104)

Number of Visit	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
1	46	44.23
2	27	25.96
3	16	15.38
4	6	5.77
5 or more	9	8.65

Referring back to Table 5.7, besides VFR travel, there were 25 percent of respondents who travelled for holiday purposes, and nearly 22 percent travelled for business purposes. Comparing Chinese outbound travel from New Zealand with Chinese outbound from China, it is apparent that the main purpose of travel is different. Chinese outbound travel from China mainly comprised holiday motivation for travel, followed by travel for business purposes. In the case of Chinese visitor arrivals in New Zealand in 1999, travel for business purposes and travel for holiday purposes had almost the same percentage, while VFR took a smaller percentage as detailed in the previous chapter (see Table 3.26). Since the purpose of travel is different between the Chinese from New Zealand and the Chinese from China, it is apparent that the main motivations of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel are different from those of the Chinese in China. The travel motivations of Chinese visitors from China are to see different countries, to experience different cultures, to explore business opportunities and to visit friends and relatives; while Chinese New Zealanders visit overseas mainly for family reunion and for the enhancement of family ties and kinship relationships, or as King (1994:174) described 'to display a sense of belonging or identifying with a way of life that have been left behind'. In terms of comparing Chinese New Zealanders' travel purpose with overall New Zealanders' travel purposes, the survey of Chinese New Zealanders' found that the purpose of travel was

significantly different from those of all New Zealanders. In 1997, 49 percent of New Zealanders travelled on holiday, 26.5 percent for VFR, 19.8 percent for business and 4.7 percent for other purposes (Statistics New Zealand, 1998). Thus, the characteristics of Chinese New Zealanders as immigrants, particularly the majority who were recent immigrants; significantly influenced their purpose for outbound travel. It also illustrates the close relationship which exists between immigration and ethnic tourism as King and Gamage (1994) identified in their study of Sri Lankan residents in Australia, where tourism had a close relationship with migration since immigrants remain emotionally attached to their country of birth. Many immigrants make return visits, often visiting or staying with friends and relatives. To further demonstrate the relationship between tourism and immigration, correspondence analysis was employed to illustrate a two-dimensional display of a four-dimensional association among variables of 'VR', 'China by birth', 'Visiting China', and 'Duration of residence in New Zealand (NZ)' in the survey. These four variables are distinctive indicators to best demonstrate the relationship between tourism and immigration. Table 5.9 exhibits the percentage distribution of these four variables which consists of the row and column contributions. These contributions assist in determining the quality of display of each point in the scaling and in ascertaining more precisely how each principal axis has been constructed (see Figures 4a and 4b). Through correspondence analysis, one can identify whether the immigrants born in China would be likely to visit China as their outbound travel destination for the purpose of VR. One can also identify whether recent immigrants would be more likely to visit their country of birth for VR purposes than the established immigrants. Thus, one can gain a clearer picture with regards to the association between tourism and immigration.

Table 5.9: Distribution of Variables Illustrating the Link between
Tourism and Immigration

Variables	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total
VR (N=358, including no trip and missing data*)	42.18	57.82	100
Visiting China (N=358 including no trip and missing data*)	29.05	70.95	100
China by birth (N=358)	65.64	34.36	100
Duration of residence in NZ (N=358 including missing data*)	90.5(<6yrs)	9.5(>7yrs)	100

(*There were 148 respondents who have not travelled in the given period of time. There were a number of missing data in each variable.)

Figure 5.3a: Multidimensional Scaling among Variables of 'VR', 'Visiting China','China by birth' and 'Duration of residence in NZ'
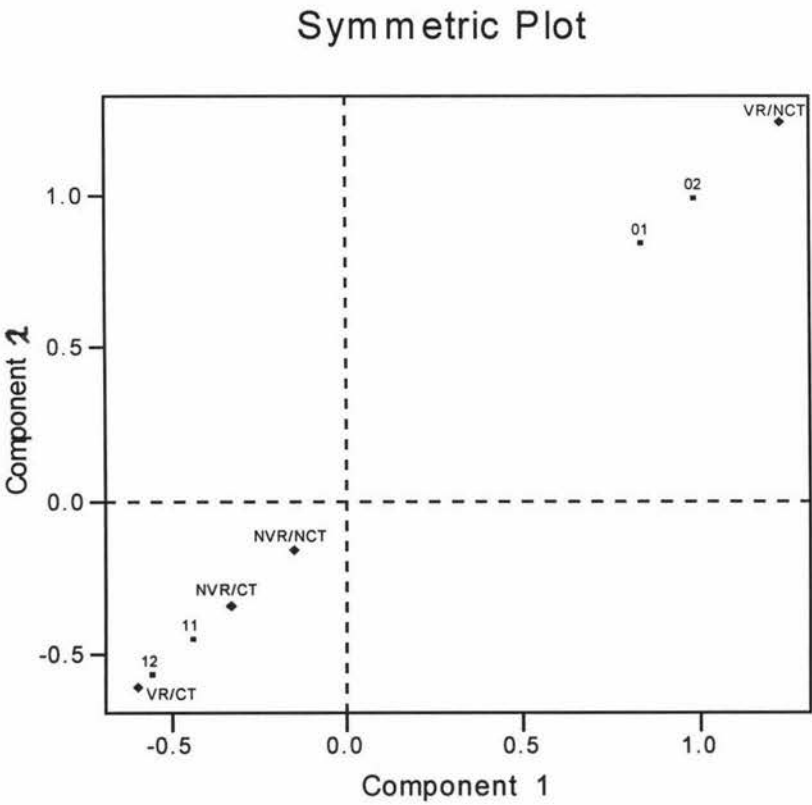
(01=Not born in China, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is six years or less including missing data; 02=Not born in China, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is seven years or greater; 11=Born in China, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is six years or less including missing data; 12=Born in China, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is seven years or greater; NVR/NCT=Not travel for VR purpose, also did not visit China; NVR/CT=Not travel for VR purpose but visited China; VR/NCT=Travel for VR purpose but did not visit China; VR/CT=Travel for VR purpose also visited China)

Figure 5.3a shows a graphical presentation in a symmetric plot of the row names consisting of 'travel for VR purpose' and 'visiting China' two variables; and the column names consisting of 'China by birth' and 'duration of residence in New Zealand' two variables. The symmetric plot is the most popular option in the correspondence analysis according to Greenacre, the founding member of correspondence analysis (Greenacre, 1993). In a symmetric plot, the separate configurations of row profiles and column profiles are overlaid in a joint display, even though they emanate from different spaces. Therefore, in a symmetric plot, both row and column points are displayed as principal co-ordinates. The convenience of such a display is that, whatever the absolute level of association might be, there always have both clouds of points equally spread out across the plotting area (see quadrants of Figures 4a and 4b). In other words, in a symmetric plot the co-ordinates are adjusted so as to give a good picture. This means that row and column co-ordinates are not directly comparable (Greenacre, 1993). As Table 5.9 provides the percentages or measurement of these variables, therefore, the purpose of employing a symmetric plot is to give a clear picture of these variable profiles displayed in the principal co-ordinates. Furthermore, a chi-squared test for associations among these variables was performed. The total inertia (association) was 176.35, and the DF was 9 which means the tabulated value should be 16.9. It is apparent that 176.35 is greater than the tabulated value of 16.9. Therefore, it suggests a strong association among these variables.

In the bottom left quadrant of Figure 5.3a it is apparent that the immigrants born in China regardless their duration in New Zealand were closely associated with visiting

China for the purpose of VR and as well as for other purposes of travel to China. It also demonstrates that people who were born in China travelled for non VR purpose to outbound destinations other than China. In the upper right quadrant of Figure 5.3a, a strong correlation exists between people who were not born in China regardless their duration of residence in New Zealand, who travelled for VR purposes to other outbound destinations except China. This is quite understandable since some ethnic Chinese born in other countries, may visit their home countries for VR purposes instead of visiting China. It is apparent that nearly 96 percent of the respondents in the survey were born in Asian countries, as the first generation New Zealanders, their ethnic ties still remain close to their home countries. In this respect, the duration of residence in New Zealand is not a significant variable to affect their outbound travel patterns and habits. The result of the correspondence analysis indicates the strong association between tourism and immigration as identified by a number of research studies such as Murphy et al (1993) and King and Gamage (1994) which indicate a close relationship between tourism and migration. Tourism to a country can generate permanent immigration, and permanent immigration, which in turn, can generate increased tourism, particularly for the purpose of VFR. As discussed in Chapter 2, immigration contributes to tourism flows in two ways (Smith and Toms, 1978; Hollander, 1982; Forsyth et al, 1993; Qiu and Zhang, 1995; Dwyer et al, 1995). The first way is that immigrants themselves may travel back to their country of origin for VR or other purposes which is termed as ethnic tourism. The second way is that immigrants to a new country may be followed by their friends and relatives who choose to visit them in their new country. For the purpose of this study, only the former relationship was studied. However, this also highlights that a more thorough study of the two-way flows may be necessary to further understand the relationship between tourism and migration to fully appreciate the complexities of ethnic tourism.

To further demonstrate the relationship between tourism and immigration, regrouping the same four variables ('China by birth', 'Visiting China', 'VR', and 'Duration of residence in New Zealand') into different rows and columns allows one to illustrate the correlation between the variables by employing another symmetric plot using correspondence analysis. Figure 5.3b provides a graphical display in a symmetric plot of the row names consisting of 'China by birth' and 'visiting China' variables; and the

column names consisting of 'travel for VR purpose' and 'duration of residence in New Zealand' variables.

Figure 5.3b: Multidimensional Scaling among Variables of 'China by birth', 'Visiting China', 'VR' and 'Duration of residence in NZ'

Symmetric Plot
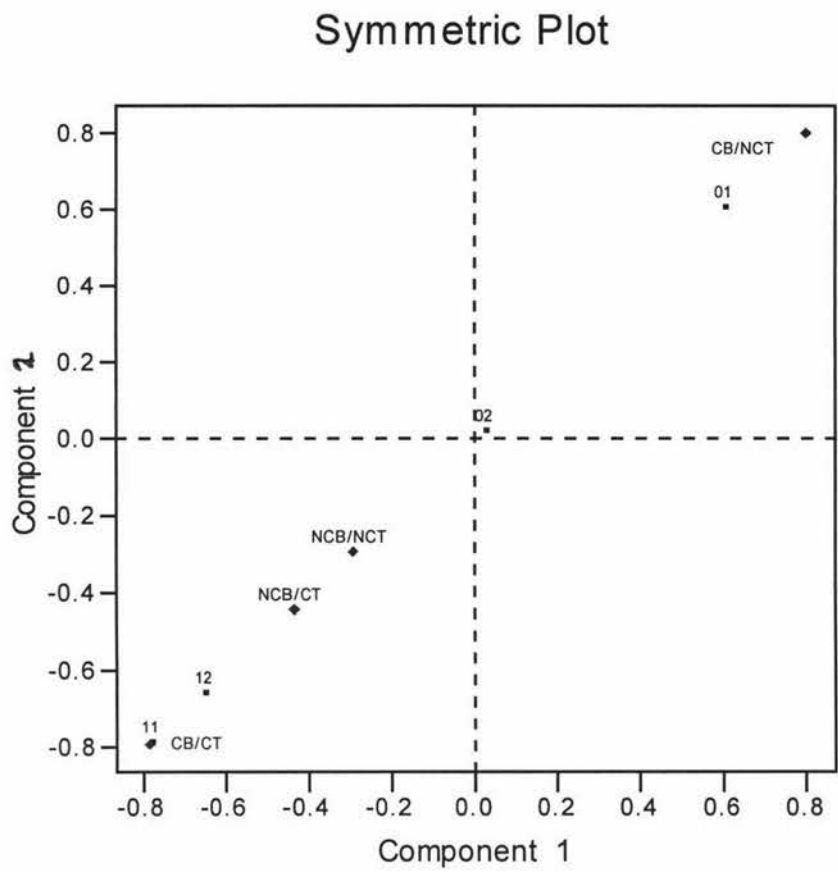
(01=Not travel for VR purpose, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is six years or less including missing data; 02=Not travel for VR purpose, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is seven years or greater; 11=Travelled for VR purpose, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is six years or less including missing data; 12=Travelled for VR purpose, and 'Duration of residence in NZ' is seven years or greater; NCB/NCT=Not born in China, also did not visit China; NCB/CT=Not born in China, but visited China; CB/NCT=Born in China, but did not visit China; CB/CT=Born in China, also visited China)

In the bottom left quadrant of Figure 5.3b, the plot shows that the immigrants born in China are strongly associated with visiting China. It also shows that they travelled to China for the purpose of VR regardless of their duration of residence in New Zealand. This is because of 96 percent of the sample were born in Asian countries. Being the first generation New Zealanders, the Chinese immigrants still retain close ties with their countries of birth. Figure 5.3b also illustrates that people who were not born in China would visit China as their outbound travel destination for the likely purpose of VR. This suggests that some ethnic Chinese who were born in other countries may still have relatives and family ties in China. Figure 5.3b also shows that people who were not born in China and did not visit China have certain degree of association with travelling for VR purposes. This is quite understandable since some ethnic Chinese born in other countries may visit their home countries for VR purposes instead of visiting China. In the upper right quadrant, Figure 5.3b shows a strong correlation with people who were born in China who travelled to other outbound destinations other than China for non VR purpose. In other words, these people visited destinations such as Australia, Hong Kong Singapore and the USA for holiday and business purposes. This is in line with the results of the survey as discussed earlier in the section.

5.3.4 Length of Travel

How long do Chinese New Zealanders travel for? Table 5.10 illustrates that 49 percent of the respondents who travelled between January 1997 to June 1999, travelled for five weeks or more, 27 percent of them travelled for three to four weeks, 17 percent of them travelled for one to two weeks, and about 6 percent of the respondents travelled for less than a week.

Table 5.10: Length of Outbound Travel, January 1997-June 1999

Duration of Stay	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
Less than one week	13	6.25
1 week - 2 weeks	36	17.31
3 weeks - 4 weeks	57	27.4
5 weeks or more	102	49.04
Total	208	100

Table 5.11 illustrates the length of stay by purpose of travel of the survey. It shows that in general Chinese New Zealanders' length of outbound travel is much longer than the Chinese visitors in New Zealand even though the former's given period of time is longer. In terms of VFR, both Chinese New Zealanders and Chinese visitors in New Zealand tended to take long period of time for holidays. In 1999 the average intended length of stay for Chinese visitors in New Zealand was 9.8 days for a holiday visit, 19.9 days for a business visit, while 68.9 days for a VFR visit (see Table 3.27). In comparison to overall New Zealanders' intended length of trip overseas, Chinese New Zealanders' duration of outbound travel is also much longer. According to Statistics New Zealand (1998), 54 percent of New Zealand residents travelled for less than two weeks, about 18 percent of the country's residents travelled between two to three weeks, and 9 percent of people travelled between three weeks to one month. Due to a lack of data on length of stay by purpose of travel for New Zealand outbound travel, it is difficult to assess if the longer length of stay is related to VFR travel in this instance. However, based on the information from the length of stay and purpose of travel for Chinese New Zealanders and Chinese visitors in New Zealand, the issue of length of travel needs to be understood in relation to the different purposes for travelling. For example, travel for VFR usually requires a longer time period than travelling for holiday or business as discussed earlier. This is in line with the study by King and Gamage (1994) which identified that Sri Lankan Australians who took longer length of trip when travelling back to their country of birth for VFR purposes.

Table 5.11: Length of Stay by Travel Purpose of Respondents, January 1997-June 1999

| Duration of Stay	Holiday (%)	VR (%)	VF (%)	Business (%)
Less than one week	11.32	3.31	7.5	8.89
1 week - 2 weeks	20.75	11.26	12.5	20
3 weeks - 4 weeks	20.75	34.44	22.5	8.89
5 weeks or more	47.17	50.99	57.5	62.22
Total	100	100	100	100

5.3.5 Travel Companion

Who do Chinese New Zealanders travel with overseas? Table 5.12 indicates that the highest proportion (62 percent of the respondents in the survey) travelled overseas with family, and 37 percent of them travelled alone. Travelling with friends accounted for a low proportion (seven percent), and the lowest proportion was about three percent who travelled with colleagues. Thus, family travel has emerged as another characteristic of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel habits. To further detect the relationships between family travel and purposes of travel, chi-squared tests of association for family travel and four purposes of travel were conducted. The chi-squared test of association for 'travel with family' and 'VR' is illustrated in Figure 5.4. Through cross-tabulation, all expected values exceed 5 which means that the chi-square analysis is reliable. The DF is 1, so the tabulated value should be 3.84. The calculated chi-square value is 15.65 which is bigger than the tabulated value of 3.84. This suggests that there is an association between 'VR' and 'travel with family'. In addition, the P-value is 0.000 less than 0.05 which means that the association between 'VR' and 'travel with family' is significant.

Figure 5.4 shows that 79 respondents did not travel with their family including 45 respondents who travelled for VR purpose in the given period of time. There were 129 respondents travelled with their families including 106 of them who travelled for VR purpose in the given period of time. There were 150 respondents who did not travel in the given period of time. Thus, the majority of the respondents (82 percent)

who travelled with their families in the given period of time for the purpose of VR. This again indicates the primary motivation of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel was for the enhancement of family and kinship ties. In societies influenced by Confucian principles, family connections, networks and family obligations extended to almost every aspect of daily life and involves the extended family. Family and its members are seen as the most important priority (Muzny, 1985; Nguyen, 1994). Therefore, a family travelling together for the purpose of VR remained the most common travel phenomenon amongst Chinese New Zealanders.

Figure 5.4: The Association between 'Travel with Family' and 'VR'
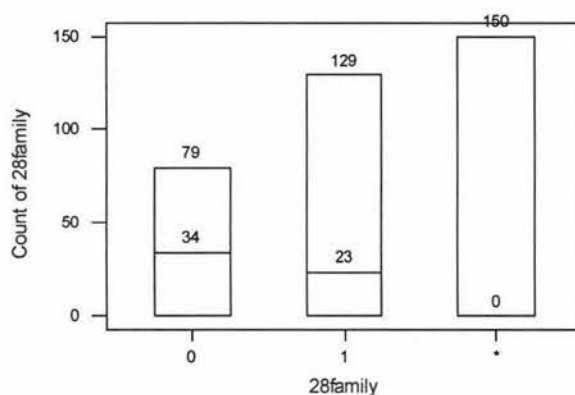
(0=No, 1=yes, *=people who did not travel overseas during the given time)

Chi-squared tests of association also show that there are associations between 'travel with family' and 'travel for holiday purpose'; and between 'travel with family' and 'travel for business purpose'. These results suggest that 'family orientation' is a major characteristic of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel because families travel for VR, holiday and even for business reasons. This may also imply that many Chinese New Zealanders are involved in family businesses as discussed in Chapter 3. Thus, it can be deduced that family conditions such as stage in the family life cycle

and family structure significantly influence travel decision-making behaviour. Therefore, tourism planners should pay attention to such issues in order to understand the demand aspects of the tourism market (Seaton, 1996). Furthermore, there is no association between 'travel with family' and 'VF' which could suggest that travel with family for family reunion (VR) is more important than VF for Chinese New Zealanders. This is quite usual among the Chinese population under the influence of Confucian philosophy where 'family' is the centre or focus as discussed earlier in the section.

Table 5.12: Travel Companions, January 1997-June 1999

Type of Companion	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
Alone	77	37.02
Family	129	62.02
Friend	15	7.25
Colleague	6	2.88

5.3.6 Travel Decision-Making and Travel Booking

Table 5.13 shows that the adults/family are the most influential decision-makers for outbound travel among Chinese New Zealanders with nearly 63 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time. This was anticipated because of the high proportion of family travel shown in Table 5.12. 'Wife' took a slightly higher percentage than 'husband' as the key decision maker in the survey which may suggest that the husband had left New Zealand to secure work to support the family left behind in some households as mentioned in the previous chapter. It also confirms assumptions in the tourism literature that women play a major role in family holiday taking habits, especially in the planning and booking stages. It may also reflect the fact that 'wife' is more a decision-maker than 'husband' among Chinese New Zealanders. Seaton and Tagg (1995b) interviewed children from four European countries (the UK, Belgium, Italy and France) and found out that the final vacation decision was most commonly a joint one between mother and father (Italy 75 percent, France 64 percent, Belgium 63 percent and UK 60 percent). In those cases, where the

holiday was not seen as a joint decision, the mother was slightly more likely to be seen as the final decision-maker. Holloway and Plant (1992: 60) found that twice as many women as men were responsible for the planning and organisation of a holiday in the UK, even though the whole family were involved. The findings for the European countries regarding overseas trip decision-makers are quite similar to Chinese New Zealanders'. Only one percent of children made any decision for overseas trips because their parents were not in the country. As the sample is too small for the children category, it is difficult to see the association between children category and travel decision-making. Nevertheless, based on the discussion, adults/family remain the most important decision-makers for outbound travel among Chinese New Zealanders. Therefore, it is important for tourism planners and marketers to know the nature of the decision-making process for each market before they engage upon promotional programmes (Seaton, 1996).

Table 5.13: Decision-Makers for Outbound Travel

Decision-Maker	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
Husband	36	17.31
Wife	38	18.27
Children	3	1.44
Adults/Family together	131	62.98
Total	208	100

According to Table 5.14, the highest proportion (80 percent) of Chinese New Zealanders made travel arrangement for their outbound travel through Chinese travel agencies, while only 18 percent used New Zealand travel agencies. Less than one percent of Chinese made overseas travel arrangement by themselves. Most Chinese travel agencies in New Zealand are located in the downtown area of Auckland. They mainly concentrate on selling air tickets particularly between Auckland and China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and other Asian destinations such as Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand and South Korea with accommodation packages. Some larger Chinese travel firms also organise guided tour packages. The majority of Chinese travel agencies advertise through Chinese newspapers, magazines and via Chinese radio

stations. The Chinese travel agencies are known to offer cheaper prices on airfares and tour packages than New Zealand travel agencies. Therefore, competitive pricing is an important reason for many Chinese New Zealanders choosing Chinese travel agencies. Another main reason for many Chinese choosing Chinese agencies can be related to the language difficulty many Chinese encounter in Auckland. According to the 1996 Census (see Table 3.11), about 23 percent of Chinese residents in New Zealand cannot speak English. Therefore, it is likely to contribute to the high preference of using Chinese travel agencies by Chinese New Zealanders. Kang's study (1998) on South Korean immigrants in New Zealand also revealed similar trends in terms of travel decision-making and travel arrangements amongst the South Korean community in New Zealand. This highlights the unique Asian cultures and behaviours with regards to their travel habits. It provides a better understanding and insights into Asian travel habits for the tourism planners and managers. Based on above discussion, it is clear that family is the key player for outbound travel decision-making for Chinese New Zealanders, and majority of the Chinese New Zealanders would likely make their outbound travel arrangement through Chinese travel agencies in New Zealand.

Table 5.14: Travel Arrangement for Outbound Travel

Travel Arrangement	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
New Zealand travel agency	38	18.36
Chinese travel agency	167	80.68
Others	2	0.96
Not specified	1	

5.3.7 Plan for Future Outbound Travel

Figure 5.5: Chinese New Zealanders' Outbound Travel Plan
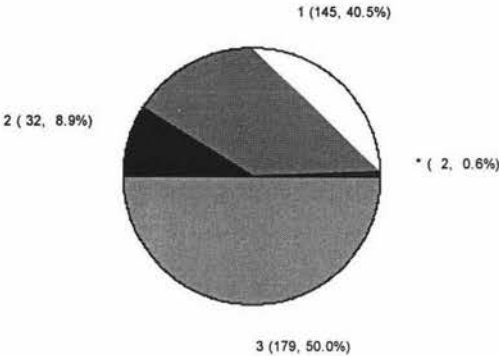
(1=Yes, 2=No, 3=Do not know, *=Not specified)

Figure 5.5 shows that nearly 41 percent of Chinese New Zealanders were planning to take an overseas trip between July 1999 to December 2000; nearly 9 percent of the respondents will not travel overseas, and 50 percent did not know whether they would travel overseas during the survey conducting period. According to the survey, close to 44 percent of the respondents who plan to travel outbound indicate that they would take the outbound trip this year, and about 56 percent of the respondents may choose to travel overseas in the year 2000. This outcome indicates that many households plan outbound travel well in advance. Table 5.15 illustrates where the respondents plan to visit. Table 5.15 shows that 40 percent of the respondents plan to visit Australia in the next 18 months. About 33 percent of the respondents plan to visit China, nearly 17 percent of them plan to visit North America, and some 16 percent plan to visit Hong Kong. There are about 6 percent who plan to travel to Europe, while the remaining percentage was shared equally among destinations such as Singapore, Malaysia, Taiwan. Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel plans show that a significant portion of ethnic tourism exists in Chinese New Zealanders' future outbound travel patterns. Thus, tourism industry planners and managers need to have an understanding of the existence of this ethnic market since this study of Chinese

New Zealanders which may also have wider implications for the marketing to other ethnic groups. Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel plans also reveal that there is a degree of similarity with outbound travel of New Zealanders in general. Other than China, the choices of popular outbound destinations such as Australia, the USA, Hong Kong and Europe from the survey show that Chinese New Zealanders and overall New Zealanders have similar choice of outbound destinations.

Table 5.15: Planned Outbound Destinations for Future Chinese Travel, 1999-2000

Country/Region	Respondents Count	Percent(%)
China	47	33.1
Hong Kong	23	16.2
Taiwan	4	2.82
Singapore	4	2.82
Malaysia	4	2.82
Australia	56	40
North America	24	16.9
Europe	9	6.34

5.3.8 Ethnic Tourism in Chinese New Zealanders' Patterns of Outbound Travel

It has been shown through the Chinese New Zealanders' overseas destination choices that ethnic tourism is an important phenomenon in their patterns of outbound travel. Table 5.8 also highlights the significance of ethnic tourism in terms of Chinese New Zealanders' tourism demand. According to Table 5.8, about 44 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time made one visit to China between January 1997 and June 1999, nearly 26 percent visited China twice, some 15 percent made three trips to China, about 6 percent made four trips to China, and 8 percent travelled to China five times or more. Overall, 50 percent of the respondents who travelled in the given period of time travelled to China at least once. This indicates the growing effect of ethnic tourism and VFR traffic has had an impact on

the growing diversity of secondary destinations which New Zealanders are travelling to (Page, 1999).

5.3.8.1 Respondents' timing of visit to China

According to Table 5.16, about 25 percent of the respondents who visited China in the given period of time travelled during the months of January and February between 1997 to 1999. The next most popular time for the respondents to travel to China were the months of August, September and December between 1997 to 1999. The flow of the other months during the given time was relatively insignificant. Normally, the Chinese New Year's Festival (also known as Spring Festival) falls in the month of January or February each year. It is the Chinese tradition for a family reunion celebration during the Spring Festival, family members quite often are obligated to travel home for the family reunion from afar. The Spring Festival is the most important holiday for family reunion for Chinese. Travelling in January and February to China in the survey suggests that Chinese New Zealanders travel back to their home country for the Spring Festival event. It also shows the importance of traditional family values with Chinese society. Other times such as December, August and September suggest that people take holidays during school breaks as the majority of Chinese families have children in New Zealand. This result confirms the discussion in the earlier section that the Chinese immigrants' travel patterns are likely to be family-oriented and children could influence the time of travel. The result of flow of visitors by month also highlights the importance of family reunion for Chinese New Zealanders. This is specially the case for the recent immigrants whose families or extended families may be still left behind in their home countries. In other words, their family ties are still very close to their countries of birth. This outcome also provides a better understanding of the links between migration and travel for ethnic reunion purposes (King,1994).

Table 5.16: Flow of Visitors to China by Month, January 1997-June 1999

Month	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
January 1997	16	12.12
February	15	11.36
March	7	5.3
April	4	3.03
May	6	4.58
June	5	3.79
July	6	4.55
August	10	7.58
September	12	9.16
October	4	3.03
November	7	5.38
December	11	8.4
January 1998	19	14.39
February	14	10.69
March	5	3.79
April	6	4.58
May	6	4.58
June	7	5.38
July	4	3.08
August	13	9.92
September	4	3.05
October	4	3.05
November	9	6.87
December	12	9.09
January 1999	23	17.56
February	16	12.21
March	12	9.09
April	7	5.34
May	9	6.82
June	10	7.58

5.3.8.2 Accommodation arrangements

Table 5.17 shows that the majority of the respondents (near 79 percent) stayed in their own homes during their visits in China. This indicates that other than retaining business interests, many Chinese immigrants retained their own properties in China. Over 16 percent of the respondents stayed in hotels while visiting China. A chi-squared test of association between 'staying at hotel' and 'travel for business' shows that there is a significant association between these two variables. This suggests that

these people travelled for mainly business purpose. Some 24 percent of the respondents stayed with their relatives in China, while only a small proportion (about 7 percent) of Chinese New Zealanders stayed with friends as their main source of accommodation while visiting China. Compared to purpose of travel (see Table 5.7), the proportion of people who stayed with their relatives and friends is obviously smaller than the proportion of VFR. However, King (1994) argued that the VFR category should be measured by the motivational factors rather than accommodation types used. Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary (1995:2) further argued that 'VFR involves travel with the purpose of visiting friends and/or relatives. However, as might be the common perception, it does not necessarily mean that VFR travellers share the living accommodations of their friends and/or relatives'. Therefore, this sample is a true reflection of the above arguments.

In comparison to New Zealand's outbound travel accommodation arrangements, Australian Bureau of Tourism Research (1997) provided a survey on 'type of accommodation used by New Zealand tourists in Australia in 1997' which could be used for comparision purpose. In the survey, there were about 44 percent of New Zealanders who stayed with relatives and friends, about 25 percent of them stayed in the hotels, motels, resorts or hostels while visiting Australia. The remaining visitors rented or stayed in boats and other forms of accommodation. Other than the common types of accommodation such as staying with relatives, friends, or hotels which Chinese New Zealanders and overall New Zealanders shared, a high proportion of Chinese New Zealanders also stayed in their own properties. This is a result of being immigrants particularly recent immigrants, where their ties in many aspects with their countries of birth still remain close. This result further confirms that tourism has a close relationship with migration, as immigrants not only remain emotionally attached to their countries of birth (King and Gamage, 1994), but they are also attached to their countries of birth in many other ways particularly financially in terms of retaining properties, business interests and even "semigration". This is possibly a unique characteristic among Asian immigrants as Kang (1998) also found that about 26 percent of Korean New Zealanders stayed in their own home while visiting South Korea.

Table 5.17: Accommodation Used during the Visit in China

Accommodation	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
Relative's home	32	24.06
Friend's home	9	6.77
Own property	105	78.95
Hotel	22	16.54

5.3.8.3 Length of stay in China

Table 5.18 shows that almost half of the Chinese New Zealanders who visited China stayed for five weeks or more in the survey; about 33 percent of the respondents stayed in China for three to four weeks; and 15 percent of them stayed there for one to two weeks, while only one and half percent of the respondents stayed in China for less than a week. These results are in line with the length of stay of outbound travel for Chinese New Zealanders (see Table 5.10) because the majority of the Chinese New Zealanders chose China as their outbound destination. Chinese New Zealanders also stayed in China much longer compared with New Zealanders' outbound travel in terms of length of stay. As discussed in detail in earlier sections, the issue of length of stay needs to be related to the the purpose of travel. Thus, the longer the time of stay in China for Chinese New Zealanders is associated with the high proportion of VFR purpose trip.

Table 5.18: Length of Stay in China

Length of stay	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
Less than a week	2	1.5
1 week - 2 weeks	20	15.04
3 weeks - 4 weeks	44	33.08
5 weeks or more	67	50.38

5.3.8.4 Travel Activities in China

Table 5.19 indicates the activities that Chinese New Zealanders undertook when they visited China in the survey. Nearly 85 percent of Chinese New Zealanders travelled

to China for VR purposes. VF, shopping, business and travel were among the most common activities for the Chinese New Zealanders while visiting China. A reasonable proportion of people travelling for business indicates many Chinese New Zealanders retain business interests in China or keep business connections with China. This also suggests that a reasonable proportion of people indicating travel as one of the activities while in China as many business activities involved travelling.

Table 5.19: Travel Activities in China

Activities	Respondents Count	Percent (%)
Travel	26	19.55
Business	31	23.31
VR	113	84.96
VF	41	30.83
Shopping	35	26.32

5.3.8.5 Variables linked to Chinese New Zealanders' outbound patterns

One of the objectives of this study was to assess the factors influencing travel patterns and habits of Chinese New Zealanders. Therefore, it is necessary to identify the variables in the sample which relate to the propensity to travel for Chinese New Zealanders. These variables can then be used as indicators by tourism professionals for various uses for the industry. A significant amount of data was collected through the survey with respect to times of visitation to the homeland, gender, place of birth, marital status, age, education, income, employment status, occupation, duration of residence in New Zealand, immigration category for entering into the country, retaining business interests in the birthplace, future intention of residence, vacationing patterns, subscription to Chinese magazines and newspapers, listening to Chinese radio stations, access to Chinese Web-sites on the Internet. Chi-squared tests for associations between these variables and visitation to China were performed. Table 5.20 illustrates the results of significant associations between these variables through cross-tabulations.

Table 5.20: Summary of Significant Cross-tabulations of Variables Associated with Visiting China

Variables	Chi-square	DF	P-Value
Place of birth	110.672	6	0.000
Duration of residence in NZ	11.852	5	0.037
Immigration category	23.609	4	0.000
Retain business at birth place	4.332	1	0.037
Age	19.517	5	0.002
Marital status	12.574	4	0.014
Number of children	13.183	4	0.010
Income	11.174	4	0.025
Listen to Chinese radio programme	14.858	5	0.011
Subscribe Chinese newspapers	7.166	1	0.007

From this analysis ten variables were identified which significantly relate to the propensity to the China visit. These variables include:

- Being first generation New Zealanders or born in China;
- Being recent immigrants (eg. with less than six years of residence) in New Zealand;
- Those who qualified to emigrate to New Zealand under 'general' category or the 'point system' and as well as under 'family reunification' category;
- Those who retained businesses in China and as well as who did not retain business in China (most of them retain properties in China);
- Those who were age between 30-40 years of age, and as well as those who were aged over 50 years old;
- Those who were married;
- Those families which had one or two children;
- Those whose annual income was under $30,000, and as well as over $60,000 per annum (this may not be a proper indicator as discussed earlier in the section);
- Those who listened to Chinese radio stations; and
- Those who subscribed Chinese newspapers.

Through identifying the significant indicators which relate to the propensity to travel to China, it was also found that some variables were not related to the propensity of Chinese New Zealanders' preference to visit China, but could be easily misleading people. In other words, these variables are inappropriate indicators of Chinese New Zealanders' travel propensity. These variables include: gender, education, occupation and number of employed in a household and other socioeconomic variables; and visiting Internet Chinese newspaper Web-sites. The variables were not statistically correlated with a higher rate of visitation to China even though some of the variables are clearly linked to the Chinese New Zealanders' subculture. However, by identifying the insignificant indicators can be useful to the effectiveness of marketing efforts.

In comparison to Thanopoulos and Walle's study (1988), where they identified variables which significantly relate to the propensity of Greek Americans to actually visit Greece. These identified variables include:

- Being first-generation Americans or born in Greece;
- Speaking Greek fluently;
- Corresponding with Greece on a regular basis;
- Subscribing to Greek magazines and newspapers;
- Participating in folk societies which relate to a specific region of Greece;
- Having lower levels of education; and
- Listening to the Greek radio stations.

There are some common variables influencing the propensity to travel to one's homeland from these two studies. For example, both the Chinese New Zealanders and the Greek Americans being the first generation of the emigrated countries; listening to their own languages' radio stations; subscribe their own languages' newspapers. However, different variables were also identified from these two studies that influenced the travel propensity for the respective ethnic group. These may attribute to different research questions; different countries, ethnicities and cultures. For example, being recent immigrants to New Zealand, the Chinese New Zealanders still retained close ethnic ties with their countries of birth; these immigrants' up-

bringing significantly influenced by Confucian philosophy where family is the priority and centre for Chinese. These may lead to having different variables which influencing the travel propensity to the respective homeland. Nonetheless, both research studies reinforce the findings from a growing number of examples (eg. Crompton, 1979; Cohen, 1981; Esman, 1984; cited in Thanopoulous and Walle, 1988) which indicate that ethnicity has a profound impact upon the motives and behaviours of certain type of tourists.

One of the principal objectives of this study was to assess the factors influencing travel patterns and habits of Chinese New Zealanders by identifying the variables in the survey which relate to the propensity to travel for Chinese New Zealanders. These variables can then be used as indicators by tourism professionals for various uses for the industry, such as being used as marketing tools for Chinese ethnic market. King (1994) argued that ethnic tourism, a form of tourism and in turn, a form of migration, has been largely neglected as an important segment of market by tourism planners. This study confirms that ethnic tourism is emerging as an attractive market to be neglected. As discussed earlier in the section, Chinese New Zealanders have a high predisposition towards ethnic tourism in their outbound travel. This means that there is a high demand or need for ethnic tourism in this ethnic consumer market. Thus, by gaining a better understanding of cultures, behaviours, travel patterns and habits of Chinese and other ethnic groups will help tourism professionals to develop business strategies to cater to the needs of Chinese ethnic groups and as well as other ethnic groups which are emerging as a particularly attractive market (Thanopoulous and Walle, 1988).

5. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter sets out to discuss the implications of this study. It also summaries the main findings of the research which may contribute to existing knowledge in the context of the relationship between tourism and immigration. The chapter will also provide recommendations for future research.

Considering the worldwide increase in migration and tourism, ethnicity has become an increasingly significant issue in many countries around the world. Thus, the global demand for business that incorporates ethnicity has been increasing due to the growth in these areas. As a result, the interface between tourism and migration is a fruitful area for research. Given the limited degree of understanding and research on the interface of different forms of mobility, this study of Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns has focused on the impact of family reunion and VFR travel. It has also emphasised other factors in shaping the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand by comparing the Chinese travel patterns with the travel patterns of New Zealanders. This study of Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns has considered the impact of family reunion, VFR travel and other factors in shaping the travel patterns of Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. It provides one example of ethnic tourism in gaining a better understanding of the relationship between tourism and immigration.

The outbound travel patterns of Chinese New Zealanders demonstrate a significant ethnic tourism trend. The results of the survey indicate that Chinese New Zealanders take much more outbound trips than New Zealanders and the Chinese in China. According to the survey, 59 percent of Chinese New Zealanders took at least one overseas trip between January 1997 and June 1999 including 36 percent of them who travelled overseas more than twice. This significant result indicates that the growing effect of ethnic tourism on the propensity for outbound travel in New Zealand in the 1990s. Other characteristics of Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel patterns are as follows:

- In terms of outbound destinations, the five most popular destinations were in the order as: China, Hong Kong, Australia, Taiwan and the USA. China was the most

dominant destination of which 50 percent of Chinese New Zealanders visited China in the survey;

- The survey shows that Chinese New Zealanders travelled to their countries of birth as their predominant outbound travel destination and followed by other choices of destinations indicating strong ties with countries with ethnic ties;

- In terms of purpose of travel, VFR, particularly VR, was the predominant purpose of travel for Chinese New Zealanders which accounted for a total of 92 percent of all VFR travel (including 72 percent for VR), followed by business and holiday purposes;

- In addition, a significant proportion (about 79 percent) of Chinese New Zealanders visited China for the purpose of VR;

- VFR ethnic tourism had a strong propensity to travel repeatedly to a single destination which was China in this case. This confirms that the level of linkage between an ethnic group and their country of origin is likely to determine the volume of ethnic tourism among an ethnic group as King and Gamage (1994), Thanopoulos and Walle (1988), and Ostrowski (1991) have identified through their target ethnic groups;

- Travelling for business purposes was linked to the propensity of Chinese New Zealanders retaining business interests in their countries of birth;

- In terms of length of travel, Chinese New Zealanders most commonly travelled overseas for the period of five weeks or more, and the second common travel period was for three to four weeks which was longer than New Zealanders in general indicating a strong association with travelling for VR purposes;

- In relation to travel companion, Chinese New Zealanders most commonly travelled overseas with family, followed by travelling alone which indicates family-oriented travel habits;

- With regard to decision-making, the survey indicates that adults/family travelling together was the most common travel decision-making framework for Chinese New Zealanders;

- In respect of travel booking and travel arrangement, the highest proportion (about 80 percent) of Chinese New Zealanders made travel arrangement for their outbound travel through Chinese travel agencies;

- For future travel plans, Australia, China, the USA and Hong Kong were the most popular chosen destinations for future travelling; and
- In terms of the characteristics of 'China Visits' when Chinese New Zealanders visited China, the survey revealed that ethnic tourism was an important phenomenon in Chinese Zealanders' patterns of outbound travel. This was exemplified by the following findings:

  - most Chinese New Zealanders travelled during the Chinese New Year Festival period and school holidays indicating strong family-oriented travel habits for ethnic family reunion purposes for the Chinese New Zealanders;
  - most Chinese New Zealanders stayed in their own properties during the visit to China, followed by staying with their relatives which indicated strong ties with their country of birth;
  - most Chinese New Zealanders stayed in China for the period of more than five weeks, and followed by three to four weeks indicating a strong association with travel for VR purposes; and
  - the most common travel activities in China were VFR, shopping and business.

With the existence of a significant proportion of ethnic tourist trips in Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel patterns, variables which were significantly related to Chinese New Zealanders' propensity to travel to their countries of birth were examined. These variables were subsequently identified as: being first generation New Zealanders; being recent immigrants in New Zealand; those who qualified to emigrate to New Zealand under 'general' category and 'family reunification' category; those who retained businesses (including properties) in their county of birth; those who were age between 30-40 years of age and were aged over 50 years old; those who were married; those families which had one or two children; those who listened to Chinese radio stations, and those who subscribed Chinese newspapers. These variables can be used as indicators by tourism professionals for various uses for the industry.

Considering the limited literature available and lack of studies on this area as discussed in the previous chapters, this study contributes to an understanding of the relationship between tourism and migration by showing Chinese New Zealanders'

unique travel patterns. Besides a lack of research on ethnic groups and their travel patterns, the study shows that the statistical data provided by Statistics New Zealand is weak and limited, especially in the area of outbound travel. In relation to Chinese outbound data from New Zealand, the data is even more scarce. However, the neglect of the outbound market is now proving to be very short-sighted: in the year ended September 1998, 1,457,361 international visitors entered New Zealand while 1,162,757 trips were made overseas. This should bring the issue to the government's attention in view of the effect on the travel deficit. The government through its marketing agency – the New Zealand Tourism Board needs to have a spread of tourism programmes and incentive schemes to encourage more domestic travel in order to help the balance of payments or to achieve an even better result by generating more domestic tourism income. By ignoring outbound travel and the relationship with two-way flows of inbound/outbound tourism, the entire area of ethnic tourism and its contribution to the New Zealand tourism economy is a largely unexplored area.

The results of the study clearly show that ethnic tourism is a significant phenomenon in Chinese New Zealanders' outbound travel patterns like the case of Greek-American ethnic group, Polish visitors and Sri Lankan ethnic group in Australia. As frequent travellers, Chinese New Zealanders demonstrated an even stronger outbound travel propensity than many New Zealanders. For the tourism industry, considering Chinese New Zealanders' travel frequency and the potential two-way flows as emphasised in the previous chapter, suggests that this ethnic group is a potential niche market which is frequently overlooked. For example, the airlines may miss potential business opportunities as there are no direct flights from New Zealand to China. Of course, there are other implications which airlines need to consider before opening new routes. Moreover, King (1994) argued that ethnic tourism, as a form of tourism and in turn, as a form of migration, has been largely neglected as an important segment of market by tourism planners. This study confirms that ethnic tourism is emerging as an attractive market which one should not neglect. Not only do Chinese New Zealanders travel frequently, but they also travel repeatedly to their countries of birth. In addition, from the close examination of outbound travel from China and outbound travel from New Zealand, it is apparent that the global distribution of Chinese population and their global patterns of travel create a degree of destination familiarity in their travel habits, thereby seeking culturally appropriate locations such Hong Kong

and Singapore besides visiting their countries of birth primarily. This means that there is a high demand and unique need for ethnic tourism in this largely unexplored consumer market. Thus, by gaining a better understanding of the culture, behaviours, travel patterns and habits of Chinese and other ethnic groups, tourism professionals may more clearly align their business strategies to cater to the needs of Chinese ethnic groups and as well as other ethnic groups which are emerging as a particularly attractive market. In addition, this study has established a framework with which to conceptualise and accomplish the marketing of tourism to a specific ethnic group and it also provides a direction for further analysis in this area.

This study examined the necessity of considering ethnic travel motivation as a significant part of tourism motivation which the tourism literature has thus neglected. The study has confirmed that the travel motivation of Chinese New Zealanders is related to ethnic reunion, the enhancement of family ties and kinship as Crompton (1979), Thanopoulos and Walle (1988) and King (1994) have identified in their research on ethnic travel motivation. Thus, the strong ethnic tourism feature of Chinese New Zealanders' travel patterns also raises the necessity for tourism researchers to pay attention to the areas of ethnic tourism, in particular, travel for VR purposes which was created by ethnic reunion and family ties. The study also indicated that the concept of VFR needs extensive reconsideration. Studies by Seaton (1994) and King (1994) have highlighted a number of difficulties associated with the VFR concept. The findings of this study further confirm such difficulties (eg. the vagueness of using the term of VFR to describe travel motivation) and suggest the need to further explore the composition of VFR travel and conduct comparative studies. Considering the worldwide increase in migration and the increasing ethnic diversity in New Zealand, it is very valuable to undertake similar studies of other ethnic groups so that it may determine whether other ethnic groups behave in ways analogous to that of the sample in this study. It is expected that such research could result in a general model of ethnicity in travel patterns and the propensity to travel to a country of origin basing on the empirical studies, particularly in light of the growth of tourism in Asia-Pacific region.

The study further indicates that the concept of migration needs reconsideration. Walmsley and Lewis (1993) study has highlighted that a large number of research

outputs exist on migration study, based on the family life-cycle, residential evaluation, spatial searching and behavioural approaches which were all examined within a migration decision-making framework. Furthermore, such research was conducted in the narrow context of population studies where migration was studied as an independent issue with migration flows/emigration/immigration largely related to a household decision-making processes which were mainly involved in the consideration of the provision of housing and to a certain degree, employment. However, these studies did not make the critical link to leisure time, holidays and travel (eg. in their published book on people and environment, a separate chapter was devoted to leisure and recreation but migration and tourism were not discussed together). Thus, in light of the results of this study, it suggests that the traditional concept of migration needs to be reconsidered and that the tourism context needs to be considered as part of the concept.

Furthermore, migration to a country generates two-way flows as discussed in the previous chapters. The first way is that immigrants themselves may travel back to their country of origin for VR or other purposes which is termed ethnic tourism. The second way is that immigrants to a new country may be followed by their friends and relatives who choose to visit them in their new country. This reciprocal relationship is an area of tourism studies which has been largely neglected and warrants further research to get a better understanding of the nexus between tourism and migration in order to fully appreciate the complexities of ethnic tourism.

With the emergence of a world economy and globalization of products and services, migration has increased at all geographical scales and become the most important branch of demography in the last quarter of the century. The major implication of a more global system of migration is attributed to a greater labour mobility and more dynamism in population flows as the principal driver of demographic patterns. As a result, migration may be a major component of the patterns of global tourism flows. In other words, the patterns of global tourism flows show a degree of similarity with the global migration flows especially in the Asia-Pacific region. According to the WTO forecasts to the year 2000 and beyond (1994), the major determinants of travel and variables which change tourism patterns include: socio-demographic changes; electronic information and communications systems; a more knowledgeable and

demanding consumer; a deregulating marketplace; financial factors; environmental concerns and the growing importance of ethnic ties worldwide. These determinants add to the concept of tourism and migration whereby the processes of change now at work indicate that: the strong growth in VFR tourism will be marked in respect of migrants' communities visiting their countries of origin and in time a reverse flow will occur; a global workforce is emerging among professionals resulting a more mobile population reflected in migration which leads to the need to understand the demographic profile of consumers (eg. migrants) as to how and why motivation such as the influences of family, kinship and global family networks can affect population flows and travel patterns in an era of global travel and migration.

At a macro-level, what this study has developed is the concept of time-space analysis of tourist behaviour in relation to immigration and tourism. In other words, in the 1990s with cheaper travel, faster travel times and the time-space convergence in travel patterns, new relationship between tourism and migration are evolving (Page, 1999). The Chinese New Zealanders, most of them being recent immigrants, and as tourists have specific attributes which could be subject to time-space analysis. Being migrants, Chinese New Zealanders may have different travel activities while travelling outbound; also they may choose their countries of birth as their outbound destination rather than other countries or travelling domestically in New Zealand. The Chinese New Zealanders make their travel decision within the constraints or choices of the time-space framework based on their unique ethnic motives, preference and experience which may differentiate them from other ethnic groups or general New Zealanders, and hence, the different assemblages comprising the supply of attractions and activities. Therefore, at a micro-level, this study has closely examined the time-space analysis of Chinese New Zealanders as VR/VFR tourists by adding to the typology not in a recreational context, but in relation to a migration history and the immigration context. The study shows how the Chinese New Zealanders' unique travel habits contribute to the distinctive time-space patterns of the New Zealand outbound Chinese tourism. More specifically, Chinese New Zealanders most likely travel to their countries of birth as their primary outbound destinations and VR/VFR is a dominant purpose of travel. In other words, their travel activities will be revolved around fulfilling the VR/VFR purposes.

International migration has had an important impact on the size and composition of the New Zealand population. Consequently, the New Zealand economy and society in general have been affected by migration in many ways. This current research interest in the nexus between tourism and migration is also a manifestation of a worldwide trend towards in-depth research of the two-way interrelationship between economic and demographic change (Poot, Nana and Philpott, 1988). That is, that population change through migration affects the economy, but levels of emigration and immigration themselves depend on the state of the economy. As the most important economic activity, tourism plays a significant role in this nexus. Understanding this dynamic relationship between tourism and migration is very complex. This study can be a basis for comparative studies between different ethnic groups in terms of their patterns of outbound travel and a basis for further studies in this area. What this study indicates is that the patterns of travel amongst new immigrants may not be analagous with the resident population's travel patterns even though they choose similar destinations. For new immigrants there are more complex motivating factors and drivers of travel that are not necessarily linked to pleasure travel and traditional western notions of rest and relaxation. As a result the study has attempted to highlight some of these factors and their relationship to tourism and immigration.

REFERENCES

Aislabie, C., Lee, J. and Stanton, J. (1994). *Australian Cultural Diversity and Export Growth.* Canberra: Office of Multicultural Affairs.

Aitken, C. and Hall, C.M. (1999). Migration and international skills and their relevance to the tourism industry: Fact and fiction in the New Zealand context. Paper presented at the Association of American Geographers Conference, Hawaii, March.

Appleyard, R. (1992). *International Migration: Challenge for the Nineties.* Geneva: International Organisation for Migration.

Bailey, M. (1998). Outbound Market: China Outbound. *Travel and Tourism Analyst.* No 3. P.19-39.

Barkan, E. R. (1992). *Asian and Pacific Island Migration to the United States: A Model of New Global Patterns.* Connecticut: Greenwood Press.

Basavarajappa, K. G. and Verma, R. B. P. (1985). Asian immigrants in Canada: Some Findings from the 1981 Census. *International Migration.* 23 (1): 97-121.

Bell, M. (1999). Comparing permanent migration with temporary mobility: An analysis of Australian data. Paper presented at the Association of American Geographers Conference, Hawaii, March.

Bolaria, B and Li, P.S. (1988). (eds), *Racial Oppression in Canada* (2nd ed). Toronto: Garamond Press.

Borgatta, E. and Borgatta, M. (1992). (eds), *Encyclopedia of Sociology*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Boyer, T. (1995). Instant Kiwis? The migration and adaption of the Auckland Taiwanese Community. Master of Arts thesis, Geography Department, Auckland University.

Boyer, T. (1996). Problems in paradise: Taiwanese immigrants to Auckland, New Zealand. *Asia Pacific Viewpoint.* 37(1): 59-79.

Boyle, P.J., Halfacree, K.H. and Robinson, V. (1998). *Exploring Contemporary Migration.* Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman.

Brah, A. (1986). Unemployment and Racism: Asian Youth on the Dole. In S. Allen, A. Waton, K. Purcell and S. Wood (eds), *The Experience of Unemployment.* London: Macmillan Press.

Braunlich, C.G. and Nadkarni, N. 1995. The importance of the VFR market to the hotel industry. *Journal of Tourism Studies*. 6(l): 38-47.

Brooking, T. and Rabel, R. (1995). Neither British nor Polynesian: A Brief History of New Zealand's Other Immigrants. In S. W. Greif (ed.), *Immigration and National Identity in New Zealand*. Palmerston North: The Dunmore Press Ltd.

Burkart, A. and Medlik, S. (1981). *Tourism, Past, Present and Future*, 2nd edition. London: Heinemann.

Burke, K. (1986). *Review of Immigration Policy*. Wellington: Government Print.

Butler, R. (1999). Tourism and migration: The changing role of second homes. Paper presented at the Association of American Geographers Conference, Hawaii, March.

Castles, S. (1992). The 'new' migration and Australian Immigration Policy. In C. Inglis (ed), *Asians in Australia: The Dynamics of Migration and Settlement*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Castles, S. (1998). New migrations in the Asia-Pacific region: A force for social and political change. *International Social Science Journal*. 50(2): 214-229.

Chadwick, R. (1994). 'Concepts, definitions and measures used in travel and tourism research', in J.R. Brent Ritchie and C. Goeldner (eds) *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers,* 2nd ed., New York: Wiley.

Chan, A. B. (1983). *Gold Mountain: The Chinese in the New World*. Vancouver: New Star Books.

Chapelle, M. (1992). The Wok ethnic. *Metro*. October: 91-98.

Cohen, E. (1981). Paper presented at the Pilgrimage: The Human Quest Conference at University of Pittsburgh, May.

Cohen, R. (1996a). (ed). *Theories of Migration*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Cohen, R. (1996b). (ed). *The Sociology of Migration*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Cooper, C.P., Fletcher, J., Gilbert, D.G. and Wanhill, S. (1993). *Tourism: Principles and Practice*. London: Pitman.

Cooper, D. and Emory, C.W. (1995). *Business Research Methods* (5th ed.). Chicago: Irwin.

Coppock, J. T. (1977). *Second Homes: Curse or Blessing?*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Coughlan, J. E. (1992). Patterns of settlement in Australia of Indochinese refugees. In Inglis, C. (ed), *Asians in Australia: The Dynamics of migration and Settlement*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Crompton, J.L. (1979). Motivation for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research.* 6: 408-422.

Crompton, J.L. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination. *Journal of Travel Research.* 17(Fall):18-23.

Crompton, J.L. (1981). Dimensions of the social group role in pleasure vacations. *Annals of Tourism Research.* 8 (4): 550-567.

Danman, R. (1988). A response to the VFR market. BTA/ETB Consultancy Report. P. 7.

Dann, G. (1981). Tourism motivation: an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research.* 8(2): 187-219.

Dann, G. (1993). Limitations in the use of 'nationality' and 'country of residence' variables. In D. G. Pearce and R. W. Butler (Eds), *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*. London: Routledge. P.88-112.

Dawkins, P., Kemo, S. and Cabalu, H. (1995). *Trade and Investment with East Asia in Selected Service Industries: The Role of Immigrants.* Canberra: Bureau of Immigration and Population.

Don, A. (1899-1907). *Diary.* Item 686, 1906.

Dunstan Times. (14 May 1869). The first Chinese goldseekers came to Otago from Victoria. P.5.

Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., Burnley, I. and Murphy, P. (1992). *Tourism-Immigration Interrelationships*. Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.

Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., Burnley, I. and Murphy, P. (1995). *Economic Impacts of Migration Induced Inbound Tourism*. Aix-En-Provence: Centre Des Hautes Etudes Touristiques.

Ellis, J. and Williams, D. (1995). *International Business Strategy*. London: Pitman Publishing.

Esman, M.R. (1984). Tourism as ethnic preservation: The Cajuns of Louisiana. *Annals of Tourism Research.* 11: 451-467.

Farmer, R. (1988). The Experiences of the 1983-85 Southeast Asian refugees in New Zealand. *New Settlers and Multicultural Education Issues.* 5(3): 34-38.

Fong, N. B. (1959). *The Chinese in New Zealand: A Study of Assimilation.* Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Forsyth, P., Dwyer, L., Murphy, P. and Burnley, I. (1993). The impact of migration on Australian inbound and outbound tourism. In *Building a Research Base in Tourism.* Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.

Friesen, W. (1992). *New Asian migrants in Auckland: Issues of employment and status.* Labour, employment and work in New Zealand. Department of Geography, Victoria University, Wellington.

Gitelson, R. and Kerstetter, D. (1994). The influence of friends and relatives in travel decision-making. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing.* 3(3): 59-68.

Goodall, B. (1990). The dynamics of tourism place marketing. In G.J. Ashworth and B. Goodall (eds), *Marketing Tourism Places.* London: Routledge. P. 259-279.

Graburn, N. (1989). Tourism: the sacred journey. In V. Smith (ed.), *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism.* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.

Greenacre, M. (1993). *Correspondence Analysis in Practice.* San Diego: Academic Press Limited.

Greif, S.W. (1974). *The Overseas Chinese in New Zealand.* Singapore: Asia Pacific Press.

Greif, S. W. (1995). (ed), *Immigration and National Identity in New Zealand.* Palmerston North: The Dunmore Press Ltd.

Hair, J., Anderson, R., Tatham, R. and Black, W. (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis with Readings* (4th ed). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Hall, C.M. and Page, S.J. (1999). *The Geography of Tourism and Recreation: Environment, Place and Space.* London: Routledge.

Hall, C.M. and Page, S.J. (2000). (eds), *Tourism in South and South East Asia: Critical Perspectives.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Harron, S. and Weiler, B. (1992). Review: Ethnic Tourism. In B. Weiler and C.M. Hall (eds.), *Special Interest Tourism.* P. 83-94. London: Belhaven Press.

Hassan, R. and Tan, G. (1990). Asian migrants in Australia: A socio-economic Study. *Immigrants and Minorities.* 9(1): 21-45.

Hawkins, F. (1989). *Critical Years in Immigration: Canada and Australia Compared.* Kensington: New South Wales University Press.

Hawley, C. (1986). The resettlement of Indochinese refugees. In A. Trlin and P. Spoonley (eds), *New Zealand and International Migration: A Digest and Bibliography, Vol 1*. Palmerston North: Department of Sociology, Massey University.

Hitchcox, L. (1994). Relocation in Viet Nam and outmigration. In J. Brown and W. Foot (ed.), *Migration: The Asian Experience*. Basingstoke: Macmillan. P.202-220.

Ho, C. and Coughlan, J. (1994). The Chinese in Australia: a socioeconomic profile base on the 1991 Census. Paper presented at The Last Century pf the Chinese Overseas: Comparative perspectives, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.

Hollander, G. (1982). Determinants of demand for travel to and from Australia (Working Paper No.26). Canberra: Bureau of Industry Economics.

Holloway, J.C. and Plant, R.V. (1992). *Marketing for Tourism*. London: Pitman.

Hsaio, S. (1995). How many emigrants are turning back? *Sinorama*. 20(4):2-3.

Hugo, G. (1992). Knocking at the door: Asian immigration to Australia. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*. 1(1): 100-144.

Industry Assistance Commission. (1989). *Tourism Accommodation and Training*. Canberra: Department of Sport, Recreation and Tourism.

Inglis, C. (1992). *Asians in Australia: The Dynamics of Migration and Settlement*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Inglis, C. and Wu, C. (1992). The 'new' migration of Asian skills and capital to Australia. In C. Inglis (ed), *Asians in Australia: The Dynamics of Migration and Settlement*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin. P.193-230.

Ip, M.Y. (1990). *Home Away from Home: Life Stories of Chinese Women in New Zealand*. Auckland: New Women's Press.

Ip, M.Y. (1995). Chinese New Zealanders: Older settlers and new immigrants. In S. W. Greif (ed.), *Immigration and National Identity in New Zealand*. Palmerston North: The Dunmore Press Ltd.

Ip, M. Y. and Friesen, W. (1995). Asian immigration: Recent trends and future possibilities. Paper presented at New Zealand Asian Studies Conference, Auckland, July.

Ip, M.Y. (1996). *Dragons on the Long White Cloud*. Auckland: Tandem Press.

Iso-Ahola, S. (1980). *The Social Psychology of Leisure and Recreation*. Springfield, Illinois: C.Thomas.

Jackson, R. (1990). VFR tourism: Is it underestimated? *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 1(2): 10-18.

Jean-Pierre, G. (1992). International migration: Facts, figures, policies. *OECD Observer.* Jun/Jul (176):18-24.

Jones, H. (1994). Immigration policy in Australia. In W.Gould and A. Findlay (eds) *Population and the Changing World Order.* Chichester: Wiley. P.161-172.

Kang, S. (1998). Tourism, Migration and Ethnicity: An Exploratory Study of Korean-New Zealanders' Travel Patterns. Masters in Business Studies Research Report, Massey University Albany, Auckland.

Kang, S. and Page. S.J. (2000). Tourism, migration and emigration: Travel patterns of Korean-New Zealanders in the 1990s. *Tourism Geographies*, 2(1).

Khoo, S. and Kee, P. (1992). *Asian Immigrant Settlement and Adjustment In Australia.* Melbourne: Bureau of Immigration and Population Research.

King, B. (1994). What is ethnic tourism? An Australian perspective. *Tourism Management.* 15(3): 173-176.

King, B. and Gamage, M.A. (1994). Measuring the value of the ethnic connection: Expatriate travellers from Australia to Sri Lanka. *Journal of Travel Research.* 33(2): 46-50.

Kritz, M., Lim, L. and Zlotnik, H. (1992). *International Migration Systems: A Global Approach.* Clarendon: Oxford.

Lary, D. and Luk, B. (1994). Hong Kong immigrants in Toronto. In R. Skelton (ed), *Reluctant Exiles?* Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Latham, J. (1989). The statistical measurement of tourism. In C. P. Cooper (ed), *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management. Vol 1.* London: Belhaven. P.55-76.

Le Heron, R. and Pawson, E. (1996). (eds), *Changing Places.* Auckland: Longman Paul.

Leiper, N. (1990). *Tourism Systems: An Interdisciplinary Perspective.* Palmerston North: Department of Management Systems, Massey University.

Leventman, P. (1981). *Professionals Out of Work.* New York: The Free Press.

Li, P.S. (1988). *Ethnic Inequality in a Class Society.* Toronto: Wall and Thompson.

Li, Z., King, B. and Turner, L. (1998). The China outbound market: An evaluation of key constraints and opportunities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing.* 4(2): 109-119.

Liu, J., Var, T. and Timur, A. (1984). Tourism income multipliers for Turkey. *Tourism Management.* 5(4): 280-287.

Martin, P. and Widgren, J. (1997). *International Migration: A Global Challenge.* Washington D.C.: Population Reference Bureau.

Mathieson, A. and Wall, G. (1992). *Tourism, Economic, Physical and Social Impacts.* Harlow: Longman.

McIntosh, R. and Goeldner, C. (1990). *Tourism: Principles, Practices and Philosophies.* New York: Wiley.

McIntosh, R., Goeldner, C. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (1995). *Tourism: Principle, Practices, Philosophies* (7th ed.). New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

McLauchlan, M. (1992). Far eastern suburbs. *Metro.* November: 114-124.

McLoughlin, D. (1994). Immigration out of control. *North and South.* April: 44-55.

Meis, S., Joyal, S. and Trites, A. (1995). The US repeat and VFR visitor to Canada: Come again, eh!. *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 6(1): 27-37.

Migration News. (1997). October, University of California at Davis (accessible at http://migration.ucdavis.edu).

Ministry of Commerce. (1989). Survey on BIP (Business Immigration Policy) Immigrants. April.

Montgomery, R. (1986). The economic adaptation of Vietnamese refugees in Alberta: 1979-84. *International Migration.* 24(4): 749-768.

Morrison, A. (1989). *Hospitality and Travel Industry Marketing.* New York: Delmar Publishers.

Morrison, A.M., Hsieh, S. and O'Leary, J.T. (1995). Segmenting the visiting friends and relatives market by holiday activity participation. *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 6(1): 48-63.

Morrison, A.M. and O'Leary, J.T. (1995). The VFR market: Desperately seeking respect. *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 6(1):2-5.

Murphy, N. (1994). The Poll-tax in New Zealand: A Research Paper. Commissioned by The New Zealand Chinese Association.

Murphy, P., Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P. and Burnley, I. (1993). *Tourism-Immigration Linkages: Some Implications for Infrastructure.* Aix-En-Provence: Centre Des Hautes Etudes Touristiques.

Muzny, C.C. (1985). The Vietnamese in Okalahoma City: A study of ethnic change. Ann Arbor, MI: UMI Dissertation Services, A Bell and Howell Company.

Nash, A. (1994). Population geography. *Progress in Human Geography*. 18(1): 84-91.

New Zealand Immigration Service. (1987). *New Zealand Immigration Report*. Wellington: Government Print.

New Zealand Immigration Service. (1988). *New Zealand Immigration Report*. Wellington: Government Print.

New Zealand Immigration Service. (1989). *New Zealand Immigration Report*. Wellington: Government Print.

New Zealand Immigration Service. (1991). *New Zealand Immigration Policy*. Wellington: New Zealand Immigration Service.

New Zealand Official Yearbook. (1998). *New Zealand Official Yearbook*. Wellington: Department of Statistics.

Ng, J. (1972). Who are the New Zealand Chinese? *Otago Daily Times*. 22, 29 July 1972. P.17.

Ng, J. (1993). *Windows on a Chinese Past*. Dunedin: Otago Heritage Books.

Nguyen, X. T. (1994). *Vietnamese Studies in a Mutlicultural World*. Melbourne: Vietnamese and Culture Publication.

Nguyen, T.H. and King, B. (1998). Migrant homecomings: Viet Kieu attitudes towards travelling back to Viet Nam. *Pacific Tourism Review*. 1: 349-361.

Oakes, B. (1992). Workers in the Bristish Virgin Islands: The complexities of residence and migration. *Social and Economic Studies*. 41(1): 67-87.

Ongley, P. and Pearson, D. (1994). Immigrants and occupational status In New Zealand: Some cross-national comparisons. *New Zealand Sociology*. 9(2):272-299.

Ongley, P. and Pearson, D. (1995). Post-1945 international migration-New Zealand, Australia and Canada compared. *International Migration Review*. 29(3):765-793.

Ostrowski, S. (1991). Ethnic tourism: Focus on Poland. *Tourism Management*. 12(2):125-131.

Otago Witness. (8 May 1869). The first Chinese goldseekers came to Otago from Victoria. P.5.

Otago Witness. (21 October 1897). Regarding northern Manchuria. P.18.

Paci, E. (1994). Market segments-the major international VFR markets. *Travel and Tourism Analyst*. 6: 36-50.

Page, S. J. (1999). New Zealand outbound. *Travel and Tourism Analyst*. 2: 21-40.

Page, S.J., Forer, P. and Lawton, G. (1999). Tourism and small business development: Terra incognita. *Tourism Management*. 20(4) 435-60.

Pearce, D. G. (1988). Tourism time-budgets. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 15(1): 106-120.

Pearce, D. G. (1995). *Tourism Today: A Geographical Analysis*. 2nd ed, Harlow: Longman.

Pearson, D. (1990). *A Dream Deferred: The Origins of Ethnic Conflict in New Zealand*. Wellington: Allen and Unwin.

Pearce, P. (1982). *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behaviour*. Oxford: Pergamon. P.113-134.

Pearce, P. (1993). The fundamentals of tourist motivation. In D. Pearce and D. Bulter (eds), *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*. London: Routledge. P113-34.

Poot, J., Nana, G. and Philpott, B. (1988). *International Migration and the New Zealand Economy: A Long-Run Perspective*. Wellington: Victoria University Press.

Richmond, A.H. (1969). Sociology of migration in industrial and post-industrial societies, in J.A. Jackson (ed.), *Migration*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richmond, A. H. (1991). Immigration and multiculturalism in Canada and Australia. *International Journal of Canadian Studies*. 3: 87-110.

Rossiter, J. and Chan, A. (1998). Ethnicity in business and consumer behaviour. *Journal of Business Research*. 42(2): 127-134.

Ryan, C. (1991). *Recreational Tourism: A Social Science Perspective*. London: Routledge.

Ryan, C. and Page, S.J. (eds) (2000). *Tourism Management In the New Millennium*. Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Schiller, N.G. (1999). Citizens in transnational nation-states: The Asian experience. In K. Olds, P. Dicken, P. Kelly, L. Kong and H.Yeung (ed.), *Globalization and the Asia-Pacific*. London: Routledge.

Seaton, A.V. (1994). Are relatives friends? Reassessing the VFR category in segmenting tourism markets. In A. V. Seaton, C. Jenkins, R. Wood, P. Dieke,

M. Bennett, L. R. MacLellan and R. Smith (eds) *Tourism: State of the Art.* Chichester: Wiley. P.316-321.

Seaton, A.V. (1996). The analysis of tourism demand: market segmentation. In A.V. Seaton and M. M. Bennett (eds), *Marketing Tourism Products: Concepts, Issues, Cases.* London: International Thomson Business Publishing. P.28-87.

Seaton, A. V. and Palmer, C. (1997). Understanding VFR tourism behaviour: The first five years of the United Kingdom survey. *Tourism Management.* 18(6): 345-355.

Seaton, A.V. and Tagg, S.J. (1995a). Disaggregating friends and relatives in VFR tourism research: The Northern Ireland evidence 1990-1993. *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 6(1): 6-18.

Seaton, A.V. and Tagg, S.J. (1995b). The European family vacation: Paedonomic aspects of choices and satisfactions. *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 4(1): 1-21.

Skeldon, R. (1994). (ed), *Reluctant Exiles: Migration from Hong Kong and the Overseas Chinese.* Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press. P.27.

Smith, V. L. (1977). (ed.), *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism.* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Smith, V. L. (1989). (ed.), *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism.* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Smith, A.B. and Toms, J.N. (1978). *Factors Affecting Demand for International Travel to and from Australia.* Canberra: Bureau of Transport Economics.

Snepenger, D., Johnson, J. and Rasker, R. (1995). Travel-stimulated entrepreneurial migration. *Journal of Travel Research.* 34(1): 40-44.

Statistics New Zealand. (1987). *The 1986 Census.* Wellington: Statistics New Zealand.

Statistics New Zealand. (1992). *The 1991 Census.* Wellington: Statistics New Zealand.

Statistics New Zealand. (1995). *New Zealanders now: Asian New Zealanders.* Wellington: Statistics New Zealand.

Statistics New Zealand. (1997). *The 1996 Census.* Wellington: Statistics New Zealand.

Statistics New Zealand. (1998). *New Zealand now: People Born Overseas.* Wellington: Statistics New Zealand.

Te, H.D. (1962). Vietnamese cultural patterns and values as expressed in proverbs. Ann Arbor, MI: UMI Dissertation Services, A Bell and Howell Company.

Thanopoulos, J. and Walle, A. (1988). Ethnicity and its reference to marketing: The case of tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*. 26 (3).

Trlin, A. (1992). Change and continuity: New Zealand's immigration policy in the late 1980s'. In A. Trlin and P. Spoonley (eds), *New Zealand and International Migration: A Digest and Bibliography, Vol 2*. Palmerston North: Department of Sociology, Massey University.

Trlin, A. and Kang, J. (1992). The Business Immigration Policy and the characteristics of approved Hong Kong and Taiwanese applicants, 1986-1988. In A. Trlin and P. Spoonley (eds), *New Zealand and International Migration: A Digest and Bibliography, Vol 2*. Palmerston North: Department of Sociology, Massey University.

Trlin, A and Spoonley, P. (1992). (eds), *New Zealand and International Migration: A Digest and Bibliography, Vol 2*. Palmerston North: Department of Sociology, Massey University.

van den Berghe, P.L. (1994). *The Quest for the Other: Ethnic Tourism in San Cristobal, Mexico*. Seattle: University of Washington Press.

van den Berghe, P.L. and Keyes, C. (1984). Introduction, tourism and re-created ethnicity. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 11(3): 343-351.

United Nations (UN) (1994). *Recommendations on Tourism Statistics*. New York: United Nations.

Vasil, R. and Yoon, H. (1996). *New Zealanders of Asian Origin*. Wellington: The Printing Press.

Vellas, F. and Becherel, L. (1995). *International Tourism*. Basingstoke: MacMillan.

Walmsley, D.J. and Lewis, G.J. (1993). *People and Environment: Behavioural Approaches in Human Geography*. (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

White, P. and Jackson, P. (1995). Research review: I (Re) Theorizing population geography. *International Journal of Population Geography*. 1: 111-124.

William, A.M. (1999). International retirement migration in Europe: From tourism to residence in the Mediterranean regions. Paper presented at the Association of American Geographers Conference, Hawaii, March.

William, A.M. and Hall, C.M. (1999). Tourism and migration: new relationships between production and consumption. Paper presented at the Association of American Geographers 95th Annual Meeting, Honolulu, Hawaii.

William, A.M., King, R. and Warnes, A. (1997). A place in the sun: International retirement migration from northern to southern Europe. *European Urban and Regional Studies.* 4(2): 115-134.

Wood, R.E. (1984). Ethnic tourism, the state and cultural change in Southeast Asia. *Annals of Tourism Research.* 11(3): 353-374.

World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1991). *Resolutions of International Conference on Travel and Tourism, Ottawa, Canada.* Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.

World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1994). Global Tourism Forecasts to the Year 2000 and Beyond: East Asia and the Pacific. Vol (4): 30-69.

World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1996). *International Tourism Statistics.* Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.

World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1997). *Tourism 2020 Vision.* Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.

Yuan, T., Fridgen, J.D., Hsieh, S. and O'Leary, J.T. (1995). Visiting friends and relatives travel market: The Dutch case. *Journal of Tourism Studies.* 6(1): 19-26.

Zikmund, W.G. (1991). *Business Research Methods* (4th ed). Chicago: Dryden Press.

Appendix 1

RE: Relationship between Travel Patterns and Immigration of Chinese-New Zealanders Research Project

Dear Sir / Madam, 尊敬的女士/先生,

The enclosed survey is being conducted by Centre for Tourism Research at Massey University to examine the relationship between patterns of travel and the migration habits of the Chinese population residing in Auckland.

We would be most grateful for your help in completing the survey. If there are any parts to the survey you do not wish to answer, please leave them blank.

Please return the questionnaire in the reply-paid envelope. Your responses are anonymous and will be treated in strictest confidence and no comments will be released.

此项调查由梅西大学旅游学研究中心主持进行,调查 在奥克兰开展,
目的是为了研究纽西兰华人移民的文化习惯与旅游模式。梅西大学对您能抽出宝贵时间填
写调查表深表感谢。如果表内有问题您不便回答, 请空出此问题。您的答案是不记名的,
内容是保密的。请将填好的表格, 用我们提供的邮资已付的信封寄回给我们。非常感谢。

Yours sincerely

Professor Stephen Page
Director, Centre for Tourism Research

Questionnaire

1. Gender   Male □   Female □

2. Country of Birth
New Zealand □   China □   Hong Kong □   Taiwan □
Others (Please specify) _____

3. Country of Citizenship
New Zealand □   China □   Hong Kong □   Taiwan □
Others (Please specify) _____

4. What was the last country of residence prior to coming to New Zealand? If born in New Zealand, please go to Question 9.
China □   Hong Kong □   Taiwan □
Others (Please specify) _____

5. How long did you live there?
Less than a year □   1-10 years   □   11-20 years   □
21-30 years   □   31-40 years   □   41-50 years   □
50 years plus   □

6. How long have you been resident in New Zealand?
Less than a year □   1-3 years   □   4-6 years   □
7-9 years   □   10-12 years □   Over 12 years □

7. In which category did you enter New Zealand?
Professional category □   Business category □   Marriage □
Family reunion   □
Others (Please specify) _____

8. Do you retain business interests in your home country?
Yes □   No □   Others (Please specify) _____

9. Do you intend to live in New Zealand over the next 5 years?
Yes □   No □   Don't know □

10. What age group are you in ?
Under 20 □   20-30 □   31-40 □   41-50 □   51-60 □   Over 60 □

11. What is your marital status?
Never married □   Married □   Divorced □   Separated □
Others (Please specify) _____

12. If you are married, how many children do you have?
None □   1 □   2□   3 □   More than 4 □

13. What is your highest educational attainment?

None ☐   Elementary school ☐   Middle school   ☐
High school ☐   College ☐   Bachelor degree ☐
Above Bachelor degree ☐

14. What is your occupational status in New Zealand, or which of these best describes your work status?

Self-employed ☐   Company employee ☐   Housewife ☐
Student   ☐   Unemployed   ☐
Others (Please specify) _____

15. What was your occupational status in your country of origin?

Self-employed ☐   Company employee ☐   Housewife ☐
Student   ☐   Unemployed   ☐
Others (Please specify) _____

16. How many people are there in your household?

1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5 or more ☐

17. Where were they born?

       New Zealand ☐   China ☐   Hong Kong ☐   Taiwan ☐

Person 1
      2
      3
      4
      5

Others (Please specify)_____

18. How many people are actively employed in your household?

0 ☐   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5or more ☐

19. How often do you listen to Chinese language radio programmes?

Everyday   ☐ Once every two or three days ☐   Once every four or five days ☐
Once a week ☐   Nearly none   ☐   None   ☐

20a. How many Chinese magazines do you subscribe to?

None ☐   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 or more ☐

20b. If you subscribe to Chinese newspapers, please name them:

_____

21a. How often do you visit the Internet Chinese newspaper web-sites?

Everyday   ☐ Once every two or three days ☐   Once every four or five days ☐
Once a week ☐   Nearly none   ☐   None   ☐

21b. If you read Chinese newspaper(s) on the Internet, which newspaper(s) do you read?
(Please tick as many boxes as apply)
Youth Daily □   People's Daily □   Guangming Daily □
Nanfang Daily □   Jiefang Daily □   Singtao Daily □
Apple Daily □   Ming Daily   □
Others (Please specify)_____

22. From January 1997 to June 1999, how many overseas trip did you take?
None □   1 □   2 □   3 □   4□   5 or more □

If you did not travel overseas during the given time, please go to Question 33a.

23. If you travelled overseas during the given time, which country did you go to?
(Please tick as many boxes as apply)
China □   Australia □   Japan   □   Singapore □   Hong Kong □
Korea □   Taiwan   □   Thailand □   USA   □   Canada   □
UK   □   France   □   Malaysia □   Indonesia □   Fiji   □
Others (Please Specify) _____

24. How many days or weeks did you stay at the destination(s)?
Less than a week □   1-2 weeks □   3-4 weeks □   5 weeks or more □

25. What was the main reason for travelling? (Please tick as many boxes as apply)
Holiday □   Visiting friends □   Visiting relatives □   Business □
Others (Please specify)_____

26. Who did you travel with? (Please tick as many boxes as apply)
Alone □   Family □   Friends □   Company colleague/senior □
Others (Please specify)_____

27. Where did you make your travel reservations?
New Zealand travel agency □   Chinese travel agency □
Others (Please specify)_____

28. Who usually makes a decision in your household for your overseas travel?
Husband □   Wife □   Children □
Adults □   Adults and other family members □
Others (Please specify)_____

29. In which month did you travel to China from January 1997 to June 1999?
(Please tick as many boxes as apply)

January'97   □ February'97 □ March'97 □ April'97   □ May'97   □
June'97   □ July'97   □ August'97 □ September'97 □ October'97 □
Novermber'97 □ December'97 □
January'98   □ February'98 □ March'98 □ April'98   □ May'98   □
June'98   □ July'98   □ August'98 □ September'98 □ October'98 □
Novermber'98 □ December'98□

January'99   □ February'99 □   March'99 □ April'99   □ May'99   □
June'99   □

30. Where did you stay in China? (Please tick as many boxes as apply)
Relative's □   Friend's □   Own house □   Hotel/motel □
Others (Please specify)_____

31. How long did you stay in China?
Less than a week □   1-2 weeks □   3-4 weeks □   5 weeks or more □

32. What did you do whilst staying in China? (Please tick as many boxes as apply)
Travel□   Business□   Visiting friends□   Visiting relatives□   Shopping□
Others (Please specify))_____

33a. Between July 1999 and December 2000, do you intend travelling overseas?
Yes □   No □   Don't know □

33b. If yes, when_____and where_____?

33. Which income group do you belong to? (per year, NZ$)
Under $30,000   □ $31,000-40,000 □ $41,000-50,000 □
$51,000-60,000 □   Over $ 60,000   □

34. Would you be prepared to talk to a bilingual researcher on this topic for a 15
minute follow-up interview?
Yes □   No □

If yes, could you provide a phone number and contact name.

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

Appendix 2

梅西大学旅游学研究中心社会调查问题:

请在选择答案后或右边划

1 性别 男 女

2 出生地 中国 香港 台湾
  其它国家或地区_____。

3 国籍 纽西兰 中国 香港 台湾
  其它国家或地区_____。

4 来纽西兰前居住国家或地区，如果出生在纽西兰请答第九题。
  中国 香港 台湾
  其它国家或地区_____。

5 您在那里居住多久？
  少于1年 1至10年 11至20年 21至30年
  31至40年 41至50年 50年以上

6 您成为纽西兰居民有多久了？
  少于1年 1至3年 4至6年
  7至9年 10至12年 12年以上

7 您是怎样移民来纽西兰？
  技术移民 投资移民 婚姻移民 家庭团聚
  其它形式(请具体说明)_____。

8 您在原居住国还保留事业或生意吗？
  是 否 其它情况(请具体说明)_____。

9 您在未来的5年里计划居住于纽西兰吗？
  是 否 其它情况(请具体说明)_____。

10 您属于以下哪个年龄组？
   20岁以下 20至30岁 31至40岁 41至50岁 51至60岁 60岁以上

11 您的婚姻状况
   未婚 已婚 离异 分居
   其它情况(请具体说明)_____。

12 如果已婚，您有几个孩子？
   没有 1个 2个 3个 4个以上

13 您的最高学历是什么？
   没有 小学 中学 高中
   中专技校 大学本科 本科以上

14 您在纽西兰的职业状况
   自己开业 公司雇员 家庭主妇
   学生 失业
   其它情况(请具体说明)_____。

15 您在原居国的职业状况
　　自己开业　　　　　　　　　　　　公司雇员　　　　　　　　　　　　家庭主妇
　　学生　　　　　　　　　　　　　　失业
　　其它情况(请具体说明)_____。

16 您的家庭有多少成员组成？
　　1个　　　　　　2个　　　　　　3个　　　　　　4个　　　　　　5个或以上

17 他们在哪里出生？
　　　　　　　　　　　纽西兰　　　　中国　　　　香港　　　　台湾
　　成员1
　　成员2
　　成员3
　　成员4
　　成员5
　　其它国别(请具体说明)_____。

18 您的家庭有多少成员工作？
　　没有　　　　　　1个　　　　　　2个　　　　　　3个　　　　　　4个　　　　5个或以上

19 您经常收听中文电台广播吗？
　　每天一次　　　　　　　　每两三天一次　　　　　　　　每四五天一次
　　每星期一次　　　　　　　很少收听　　　　　　　　　　从不收听

20 您定阅中文杂志吗？
　　不定　　　　　　一本　　　　　　两本　　　　　　三本　　　　　　四本或以上

21 如果您定阅中文报纸，请具体说明报纸名称_____。

22 您经常上网读中文报纸吗？
　　每天一次　　　　　　　　每两三天一次　　　　　　　　每四五天一次
　　每星期一次　　　　　　　很少阅读　　　　　　　　　　从不阅读

23 如果您上网读中文报纸，您是读哪种报纸(请标出您读的所有种类)？
　　人民日报　　　　　光明日报　　　　　　南方日报　　　　　解放日报
　　青年日报　　　　　星岛日报　　　　　　苹果日报　　　　　明报
　　其它日报(请具体说明)_____。

24 自1997年1月至1999年6月，您去了几次海外？如果您没有去海外旅行，请答第35题。
　　无　　一次　两次　　　　三此　　　　四次　　　　五次或以上

25 如果您在上述期间去了海外旅行，那么您都去了哪些国家？
　　中国　　　　　　　澳大利亚　　　　　　日本　　　　新加坡　香港
　　韩国　　　　　　　台湾　　　　　　　　泰国　　　　美国　　　加拿大
　　英国　　　　　　　法国　　　　　　　　马来西亚　　印尼　　　菲济
　　其它国家或地区请具体说明_____。

26 您在旅行地呆了多少天或星期？
　　少于一周　　　　　1至2周　　　　3至4周　　　　5周或以上

27 旅行的原因 (可填写多种)
　　渡假　　　　　　　　　探亲　　　　　　　访友　　　　　　　商务
　　其它情况请具体说明_____。

28 您是否与其他人同行 (可填写多种)
独行　　　　　　　　　家人　　　　　　　　朋友　　　　　　　　同事
其它情况请具体说明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿。

29 您在哪里作的旅行安排？
纽西兰当地人旅行社　　　　　　　　　　　华人旅行社
其它旅行社请具体说明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿。

30 通常家里由谁来作旅行决定？
丈夫　　　　　　　　妻子　　　　　　　　孩子　　　　　　　成年人
成年人与其他家人
其它情况请具体说明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿。

31 自1997年1月至1999年6月，您是在哪个月份去中国旅行的？(可填写多次)
97年1月　　97年2月　　97年3月　　97年4月　　97年5月　　97年6月
97年7月　　97年8月　　97年9月　　97年10月　　97年11月　　97年12月
98年1月　　98年2月　　98年3月　　98年4月　　98年5月　　98年6月
98年7月　　98年8月　　98年9月　　98年10月　　98年11月　　98年12月
99年1月　　99年2月　　99年3月　　99年4月　　99年5月　　99年6月

32 您在中国旅行住在哪里？(可填写多种)
亲戚家　　　　　朋友家　　　　自己家　　　　宾馆饭店
其它情况请具体说明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿。

33 您在中国停留多久？
少于一周　　　　　1至2周　　　　3至4周　　　　5周或以上

34 在中国期间，您都做了些什么？
旅行游览　　　　商务　　　　探亲　　　　访友　　　　购物
其它情况请具体说明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿。

35 从1999年7月至2000年12月，您计划去海外旅行吗？
是　　　　　　　　　否　　　　　　　　　不知道

36 如果答案是肯定的，那么您计划去哪里＿＿＿＿＿＿，在何时＿＿＿＿＿。

37 您的收入属于以下哪个范围？
少于3万　　　　3至4万　　　　4至5　　　　5至6万 6万以上

38 您是否愿意抽出15分钟时间，就我们的研究课题，
接受我们通晓中英文的研究员采访？
是　　　　　　　　否

如果可以，请提供您的姓名和电话号码以便我们与您联络。

非常感谢您抽出时间回答我们的调查问卷。