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DETERMINANTS OF CULTURAL EVENT TOURIST MOTIVATION

by

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the determinants of tourist motivation to ascertain the new audience potential of Western and Asian tourists for locally-based, cultural attractions and events, and the associated effective marketing strategies necessary to attract these tourism markets. A research model, developed from the literature, conceptualises the tourist motivational process comprised of four latent constructs - attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained - from which the related behavioural outcome of satisfaction/dissatisfaction is inferred. It draws upon Alzua et al.'s (1998) procedural model for segmenting cultural tourist markets and Iso-Ahola's (1989) seeking/avoiding dichotomy theory for tourist motivation dimensions, empirically testing these for cultural group differences using exploratory factor analysis to identify the underlying dimensions for each of the model constructs that are then tested for model fit with confirmatory factor analysis. While the hypothesised dimensions primarily including hedonic, escape, and seeking dimensions were supported with good measurement properties, the findings for the constructs differing by cultural group were not as expected. Significant cultural differences between Western and Asian tourists were not found, but a new finding of this study was significant differences between English-speaking tourists in their motives for attending cultural experiences. Market segmentation and marketing strategy implications of these findings are then presented.

DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY

I, Pandora Kay, declare that the PhD thesis entitled, Determinants of Cultural Event Tourist Motivation, is no more than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signature: 

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LIST OF PUBLICATIONS FROM THIS THESIS

A number of publications were produced during the course of this study, which are subsequently listed.

Journal Article

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Book Chapter

Kay, P. (2004). Cultural Event Tourism: Modelling Performing Arts Tourism Events and Effective Marketing Strategies. In P. Long and M. Robinson (Eds.), *Festivals and Tourism: Marketing, Management and Evaluation*. (pp. 15-31). Sunderland, UK: Business Education Publishers Ltd.

Refereed Conference Papers

Kay, P. (2006). Modelling Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Attitudes for International Tourists. In *Proceedings of the ACSPRI Social Science Methodology Conference*. (pp.1-21). Sydney: Australian Consortium for Social and Political Research Inc.

Kay, P. (2006). Understanding Tourists' Cultural Experiences: Benefits and Satisfaction at the Queen Victoria Market, Melbourne. In J. Drennan, *Proceedings of the ANZMAC 2006 Conference.* Brisbane: School of Advertising, Marketing and Public Relations, Queensland University of Technology.

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Kay, P. (2004). Conceptualising the Measurement and Analysis of Authenticity and Cultural Tourist Motivation: An Under-Researched Issue. In R. MacLellan, T. Baum, A. Goldsmith, J. Kokkranlkal, E. Losekoot, S. Miller, A. Morrison, D. Nickson, J.S. Taylor & K. Thompson (Eds.), *Tourism State of the Art II* (pp. 1-20). Glasgow: The Scottish Hotel School, University of Strathclyde.

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Kay, P. (2003). Consumer Motivation in a Tourism Context: Continuing the Work of Maslow, Rokeach, Vroom, Deci, Haley and Others. In R. Kennedy (Ed.), *Proceedings of ANZMAC 2003* (pp. 600-614). Adelaide: University of South Australia.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

In Australia and many other Western cultures, there is a history of financial difficulty for locally-based cultural attractions and events. This is evidenced by detailed documented inquiries into the performing arts in Australia and the United States (McCarthy et al., 2001; Nugent, 1999). It is also recently evidenced by major cultural attractions deciding to reduce their operations to balance their budget. In Melbourne, Australia, the National Gallery of Victoria (NGV) will be the only state art gallery that closes one day a week from October 3, 2005 despite extraordinarily high attendances at the institution's two galleries bringing it into the world's top 20 most popular art institutions. Closing one day a week is consistent practice with some of the world's most prestigious and popular galleries in Europe and the United States, but contrasts with Britain, where the Blair Government has made a commitment that all institutions would be open free seven days a week (Vaughan cited in Usher, 2005). These attendances at the NGV are all the more significant because 75 percent of people come from within Victoria (Usher, 2005). Of the remaining balance, the next largest market is domestic tourists from interstate and then international visitors. Unlike Europe or the US, cultural institutions in Australia generally do not have high numbers of international visitors. One challenge then is how to increase tourist visitors to these major cultural attractions and events, especially international visitors.

Other cultural attractions and events need to increase attendances per se. This is a current problem for many performing arts organisations in Western cultures as they experience declining audience attendances, engagement and participation according to the experienced arts director, Vallejo Gantner, the artistic director of New York's Performance Space 122, previously director of Dublin's curated Fringe Festival and former artistic associate of Melbourne's International Arts Festival. He argues that, "theatre and performance is in a deeply troubled state, reflected largely in a decline of audience attendance, engagement and participation ... across the non and for-profit sectors ... despite often glowing reviews, ... and significant talents of those involved" (Gantner, 2005, pp.1-2).

Related to the need to increase attendances at cultural attractions and events are the problems of increasing competition and changing entertainment trends for some key markets. Direct competition for audiences is increasing due to an expanding number of cultural attractions and events on offer, both locally and elsewhere (e.g., Australia Council for the Arts, 1999; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2000; McCarthy et al., 2001; Nugent, 1999), to which highly mobile audiences are willing to travel. Indirect competition comes from an ever-expanding range of entertainment options largely associated with new technology and changing entertainment preferences in some key markets such as the youth market. Even the live contemporary music scene laments declining audiences as the youth market increasingly prefers in-home entertainment options such as

television and videos, burning their own CDs, internet-based entertainment; computer games and play stations (Kemp, 2000; Nugent, 1999). More recently, in relation to theatre experiences, it has been suggested that audiences "will at some point decide on the more attractive option of staying at home, saving on tickets and cabs, and watching the television that theatre has so assiduously replicated, while being able to eat their tea at the same time" (Gantner, 2005, p.2). He recommends that theatre practitioners and artists involved must develop audience attendances by creating experiences that are stimulating, engaging and interactive and, "speak beyond ... look past the already converted" (Gantner, 2005, p.3).

Growing tourist markets, namely selected significant Asian and other international markets to Australia, and selected significant interstate markets, represent a new market for locally-based cultural attractions and events, but the challenge for these organizations is how to attract more tourists to attend. Many destinations, such as Melbourne, Australia, are renowned for their cultural attractions and events and are positioned and marketed as 'cultural capitals' and 'event capitals', ***yet little is known about tourists' attendance at cultural experiences, especially the more temporal performing arts-based cultural experiences***. Of the cultural tourism related research and literature to date, most has focused on identifying cultural tourists per se, "the converted", and understanding their motivations for attending cultural experiences which has been situational to specific types of cultural experiences. By undertaking this research at one of Melbourne's major attractions, the Queen Victoria Market, rather than at cultural attractions per se, ***the potential of growing tourist markets for cultural experiences is a focus of this research that contributes to exploring an identified gap in tourism literature and research.*** With Melbourne's reputation as a cultural and event capital, it is appropriate to undertake research of tourists' cultural experience motivation at this destination as proposed in this study.

Fundamental to attracting tourists to attend such attractions and events is the consumer behaviour perspective of understanding what motivates growing selected tourist markets to attend (or not attend) different types of cultural attractions and events on offer at the destination. This understanding is of particular relevance to developing and undertaking appropriate and effective marketing activities such as segmenting the market, identifying target markets, developing positioning and communication strategies. Consumer motivation research, however, is a complex area of study whereby experienced researchers in experiential consumption (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982), summarise that, "one cannot reduce the explanation of human behavior to any narrowly circumscribed and simplistic model ... the behavior of people in general and of consumers in particular is the fascinating and endlessly complex result of a multifaceted interaction between organism and environment" (p.139).

Just as the study of consumer behaviour has evolved from an early emphasis on rational choice (microeconomics and classical decision theory) to the use of logical flow models of bounded rationality such as the now ubiquitous information processing model first proposed in 1979 (Bettman, 1979), it is also evolving from its early focus on the utilitarian functions and objective

features of largely tangible products. More recently researchers have called for the inclusion of experiential consumption phenomena (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) which are more subjective product characteristics that have been neglected and ignored in earlier consumer behaviour research and yet may be of relevance for all products to some degree (Levy, 1959), and are particularly salient to playful leisure and entertainment activities, and the arts. These phenomena focus on the symbolic, hedonic and aesthetic nature of consumption such as sensory pleasures, aesthetic enjoyment, emotional responses, and symbolic benefits. Accordingly, the experiential perspective supports a more energetic investigation of multi-sensory psycho-physical relationships in consumer behaviour.

Cultural experience tourism encompasses cultural and arts activities undertaken in a leisure and often pleasure context and so this research of international and other groups of tourists in relation to these activities will incorporate some psychological affective and cognitive constructs as well as some behavioural constructs of relevance to the experiential perspective of tourist motivation and behaviour.

International tourism and international marketing are cross-cultural by nature and international tourists are important markets for most destinations, yet only a small portion of the vast body of literature on tourist motivation and behaviour considers cross-cultural differences. ***The influence of culture on leisure travel, and knowledge and understanding of cultural differences, are themes that have not received enough attention in the travel and tourism literature, despite culture being one of the strongest influences on tourists' motives, choices, intentions and purchases on a global scale (Reisinger, 2005). By incorporating a culture variable into this research of tourists' cultural experience motivation, this research contributes to exploring another identified gap in tourism literature and research.***

1.2 Research Objectives

The main goal of this research is to develop an understanding of tourists' motivational process to attend cultural attractions and events and the associated cultural consumption experiences when holidaying at the major city destination of Melbourne, Australia.

To address the fundamental research question of **why** tourists, particularly international visitors and domestic interstate visitors, might attend cultural attractions and events when on holiday, several sub-questions need to be researched:

1. **what** are tourists' motivations towards attending cultural experiences in general and especially while travelling?

    a. **what** do tourists like in terms of different types of cultural attractions and events, and cultural consumption experiences?

b. **what** drives tourists to go to cultural attractions and events while travelling?

c. **what** benefits do tourists expect from cultural experiences?

d. **what** benefits do tourists gain or receive from cultural experiences?

2. are there differences in these motivational process elements for attending cultural experiences while on holiday for different cultural groups of tourists?

3. **how** these motivational process elements influence decisions to attend cultural attractions and events, and related behavioural outcomes of satisfaction, likelihood to revisit or recommend to others?

4. can the reasons **why** tourists attend cultural experiences (that is, their motivation) be used to segment the cultural experience tourist market into target market groups and to develop effective marketing strategies for attracting tourists to cultural attractions and events?

To explore why tourists attend (or do not attend) cultural attractions and events, a conceptual model of the motivational process for cultural experience tourists is proposed for empirical testing in this study. It provides a base from which to develop the study's hypotheses and investigate the selected constructs proposed in the model as being essential to the tourist's motivational process for cultural experiences. Testing the proposed conceptual model therefore involves measuring the selected unobserved latent attitudinal and behavioural constructs identified as being of proven relevance to the motivational process, exploring the nature of the underlying dimensions of these attitudinal and behavioural constructs in the cultural attraction and experience context, and also inferring any cause and effect relationships between the constructs. Of particular interest in this cross-cultural study is whether there are differences in the cultural experience motivational process for different cultural groups of tourists, including cultural differences in any of the constructs in the motivational process, their underlying dimensions, and their interrelationships, and whether these differences can then be used as possible market segmentation grouping dimensions for cultural experience tourists.

1.3 Aims of the Research

The aim of this research is to extend understanding of cultural experience motivation and behaviour for selected Asian and other tourist markets, especially understanding of the specific role of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained in the motivational process, and whether there are cultural differences within these. This understanding is for the purpose of determining the new audience potential of these markets to Australia for live, locally-based cultural experiences, and the associated effective marketing strategies necessary to attract these tourism markets.

The specific aims are to explore and empirically test:

i) A proposed conceptual model based on the existing research and literature of the determinant variables in the motivational process for tourists to attend and consume cultural experiences with the major components to be examined comprising the psychographic constructs of attitudes, motives, and expected benefits sought, and the related behavioural construct of benefits gained.

ii) Observed measurements based on the existing research and literature for measuring each of these determinant variables in the motivational process conceptual model and their underlying dimensions, all of which are unobserved latent constructs suitable for testing by developing measurement models and testing the fit of the data to the hypothesised models.

iii) The significant underlying dimensions and structure for each of the delineated attitudinal and behavioural variables identified in the motivational process conceptual model, and how these compare with existing research and literature findings of the underlying dimensions of these variables, including whether there are cultural differences in these underlying dimensions.

From these empirical tests of the motivational process constructs and their underlying dimensions, inferences will be drawn about the cause and effect interrelationships between the variables and underlying dimensions. Further aims in relation to these inferences are to specifically explore:

iv) The new audience potential in Australia of inbound tourists from selected major markets in Asia and other international areas, and domestic tourists from selected significant interstate markets, for cultural experiences based on these cultural experience motivational variables and underlying dimensions.

v) The motivational process variables and their underlying dimensions for international and interstate tourists attending cultural experiences, and whether there are cultural differences within these relationships.

The marketing implications of these empirical tests and inferences will also be considered and further aims in relation to these marketing implications are to specifically explore:

vi) The market segmentation implications of the findings for the cultural experience motivational process constructs, their underlying dimensions and any cultural group differences

vii) The implications of all the above for developing effective marketing and public relations strategies to attract these tourist markets to cultural experiences

1.4 Contribution to Knowledge

Recent enquiries into the performing arts in Australia as well as the United States, identify audience development, audience diversification, and arts marketing including market segmentation analysis

as priorities for the performing arts (Australia Council for the Arts, 1999; Nugent, 1999; McCarthy et al., 2001). Stimulating the demand for the arts is an acknowledged need in contrast with the past half-century concentration on assisting supply of the arts (McCarthy et al., 2001). The increasing role of the marketplace, marketing and marketers in the delivery of the arts is also acknowledged (McCarthy et al., 2001). Future research needs associated with these trends include an improved understanding of audiences, especially their composition and needs, to enable improved target marketing of performing arts (Australia Council for the Arts, 1999) and better knowledge of how individual tastes for the arts are formed and how the benefits of the arts can be identified and measured so that more diversified and innovative arts marketing approaches can be explored (McCarthy et al., 2001). As ethnic groups within many major urban centres grow, ethnic preference for the arts and increasing arts attendance by ethnic groups are also growing in importance (Kolb, 2002).

The research proposed in this study develops a new analysis in marketing that links the audience for cultural experiences to the new tourism marketplace. There is no current literature that analyses and develops a model for the determinants of cultural experience motivation derived to capture the new tourism markets for cultural experiences. In doing so, this study makes a significant contribution to knowledge. Specifically, this research advances the understanding of cultural experience tourist motivations and behaviour, which in turn informs marketing strategies and activities for attracting tourist markets to locally-based cultural attractions and events, and thereby increasing attendances at these cultural experiences from the new tourism markets. The proposed study is highly significant for both the marketing and tourism literature in contributing to the gap in current knowledge concerning the factors that trigger and drive tourist behaviour towards attending cultural experiences to enable the broad potential of tourism as a new market for local cultural attractions and events to be defined, and effective marketing segmentation and strategies for attracting tourists to cultural experiences to be developed.

In addition, it makes a significant contribution to cultural tourism knowledge, chiefly the effective marketing of local arts and culture to tourist markets. While it focuses on cultural experience tourism and markets for cultural attractions and events in Melbourne, Australia, the findings will make a significant contribution to the knowledge of marketing any form of local arts and culture to tourist markets generally. Particular significance lies in the importance of knowledge to maintain a diverse range of live, locally-based performing arts in Western culture at a time when government funding is declining and new markets are needed. Also of particular significance, is the importance of determining how to attract new tourists to Australia and Melbourne and thereby increase inbound tourism cultural expenditure at these destinations.

Theoretically and conceptually, the basis of this proposed research will be previous research on understanding tourist motivation and behaviour for developing multi-dimensional typologies and segmentation approaches as advocated by several authors in relation to cultural, heritage and nature tourism for international travellers (Alzua et al., 1998; Lang and O'Leary, 1997). Integrating

attitudinal as well as behavioural characteristics in multi-dimensional segmentation is considered to overcome a shortcoming of much market segmentation research in a tourism context to date which has typically derived groups by clustering respondents on the basis of only one dimension i.e. behaviours or attitudes (Alzua *et al.*, 1998). If the Asian and other international inbound tourism markets as well as selected interstate tourist markets for cultural experiences can be subdivided by distinguishable attitudinal and behavioural characteristics into differentiated groups in accordance with the accepted theoretical principle of market segmentation in general (Kotler, 1997) and for tourism markets specifically (Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Morrison, 2001; Smith, 1989), then this marketing theory advocates developing unique marketing strategies for each of these groups.

From a consumer behaviour perspective, the study will contribute to the understanding of the affective, attitudinal and experiential views of cultural consumption in a tourism context, and to the motivational process associated with this type of consumption. The specific cultural consumption in a tourism context of interest to this study is the consumption of cultural attractions and events by international tourists and domestic interstate tourists. The specific motivational process variables of interest in this study are the attitudinal variables of attitudes, motives, and benefits sought in attending and consuming cultural experiences and the related behavioural outcome of benefits gained from cultural consumption experiences. The dimensions underlying each of these motivational process variables are also of interest in this study and include socio-psychologically-related experiential dimensions as well as tangible attribute-related dimensions. Whether there are cultural differences in these motivational process variables is of further interest in this study. As noted earlier in the background to this study, cross-cultural research of tourist consumer behaviour is crucial to tourism and marketing as culture is one of the strongest influences on tourists' motives and other behaviours, but is an under-researched area to date. By researching tourists' motivational process for different cultural groups of tourists, this research contributes to an identified gap in tourism consumer behaviour knowledge that in turn further contributes to cultural tourism and tourism marketing knowledge.

Benefits are incorporated within this study because of the increasing use and proven advantage of benefit segmentation for dividing travel and tourism markets into their component segments (Frochot and Morrison, 2000; Loker and Perdue, 1992; Woodside and Jacobs, 1985). Within segmentation work to date, one criticism has been its main use to merely describe groups of people, *a priori* methods, rather than to predict or explain behaviour, *a posteriori* methods (Morrison et al., 1994; Smith, 1989). Benefit segmentation is considered one example of an *a posteriori* market segmentation method because the composition of segments is unknown in advance of analysis (Frochot & Morrison, 2000). By incorporating *a posteriori* segmentation methods which explain and possibly predict the behaviour of groups of people, a further aim is to contribute to the body of knowledge and understanding of explaining market behaviour rather than merely describing it and thereby to be of use to practitioners as well as academics.

Frochot and Morrison (2000) further attribute the popularity of benefit segmentation in travel and tourism research to the belief that benefits are related to travellers' motivations, however they also acknowledge that the exact link between benefits sought and motivation is still to be tested and proven, an area to which this research aims to make a contribution. Rather than using either general benefits sought or benefits gained as the segmentation grouping variable, this study proposes measuring both, identifying the former as an attitude and the latter as a behaviour. This will be a unique contribution to the tourist market segmentation area, where traditionally, benefit segmentation studies have been undertaken extensively but have tended to focus on one type of benefit or the other. Tourism benefit segmentation studies that measure and group the market by two types of benefit measures (one attitude-related and the other behaviour-related) are extremely rare. Where two measures have been used, interaction between them is seldom considered. One recent exception is research of cultural tourists in Hong Kong (McKercher and du Cros, 2003) which identifies five benefit segments based on two dimensions: centrality of cultural tourism motives in decision to visit, and depth of experience. The former dimension could be considered attitude-related and the latter, behaviour-related. Many tourist segmentation studies, group on one variable such as activities undertaken, benefits sought, benefits gained, and use measures of motivation as group descriptors. This study aims to test whether combinations of the motivational process related variables of attitude, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained can be used as the main segmentation grouping variables for cultural group markets of international and other tourists for cultural attractions and experiences.

By using the gap between expected benefits sought and benefits gained to infer satisfaction and the disconfirmation of people's expectations (positively or negatively), this approach used in this study also builds upon the extensive work already undertaken in relation to on benefits (sought and gained) in the tourism literature but this time applying them as a measure of satisfaction as well as a possible variable for market segmentation purposes. Hence this study aims to make a contribution to the measurement of satisfaction and service quality in a tourist context, which builds upon the benefit (sought and gained) scales, items and grouping dimensions that have been developed and tested in previous tourist segmentation research. In so doing it will make a contribution to measuring tourism benefits (sought and gained) for satisfaction and service quality purposes as well as for market segmentation purposes.

On a language basis, cultural tourism markets in Australia can be considered in three main groups: i) international tourists from North-East and South-East Asia who are currently the largest inbound markets for tourism (40%) (Bureau of Tourism Research, 2003) and cultural tourism to Australia (45%) (Foo and Rossetto, 1998), and several of these markets have been experiencing considerable recent growth; ii) international tourists from English-speaking countries especially, NZ (16% of total inbound visitors), UK (13%), and North America (9%) (Bureau of Tourism Research, 2003); and iii) local English-speaking non-international tourists. The third group comprises interstate, intrastate and day visitors who differ by distance travelled but otherwise have been considered one market with similar cultural tourism interest, involvement, motivations, influences,

marketing needs and responses. Very little research has been undertaken into selected North-East and South-East Asian inbound markets due to language differences presenting research complexities, with the majority of research on inbound cultural tourism in Australia, undertaken to date, focusing on English-speaking markets, especially those from United Kingdom, North America, and New Zealand. This study therefore proposes in-depth research of several of the main cultural tourist markets in Australia, including some markets of the most under-researched market of the three, that is, selected North-East and South-East Asian markets.

Furthermore, recently published academic research of international tourist motivations emphasises confirmation by previous research of a need for segmentation of tourists by nationalilty and the importance of establishing specific marketing strategies for each national market (Kim and Prideaux, 2005). Despite this confirmed need, they further acknowledge, "there remains both a lack of empirical findings ... and a lack of multinational studies that include both Western and Asian tourists" (p.348). Their research focused on marketing implications arising from a comparative study of international pleasure tourist motivations and other travel-related characteristics of visitors to Korea. This study of tourist motivation for cultural experiences in Melbourne aims to make a contribution to this gap in the body of knowledge by contributing empirical findings about tourist motivation that are multinational, include both Western and Asian tourists, as well as considering the marketing implications arising from this comparative study of tourists' motivational process for cultural experiences.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Victoria has long been regarded as one of Australia's most cultural states and Melbourne, the 'Cultural Capital of Australia' (Tourism Victoria, 2002). Based on these strengths, opportunities abound for increasing visitation and economic impact to Victorian arts, theatre and cultural heritage product, as well as to position Melbourne as a cultural destination of international renown.

Mindful of these strengths and opportunities, in recent years the Victorian Government has worked to ensure that arts and cultural heritage positioning is enhanced through many important arts and cultural heritage capital works projects, the development of Victoria's Arts, Theatre and Cultural Heritage Tourism Plan 2002-2006 (Tourism Victoria, 2002), and State Government funding and research initiatives for cultural tourism. Through the recent process of developing this Plan, Tourism Victoria identified gaps in the data and funded market research to be undertaken of the motivation and behaviour of **interstate** cultural tourists (Tourism Victoria, 2004a).

Gaps in the data continue to be detailed information about **international tourists'** motivation and behaviour towards cultural experiences except for some limited information at the national level available from the International Visitor Survey (e.g., Bureau of Tourism

Research, 2003) and about **interstate tourists'** motivation and behaviour in relation to specific cultural attractions and events.

While cultural tourism strengths and opportunities abound in Melbourne, there is ongoing competition from Sydney as revealed in recent national research on destination Brand Health undertaken annually by Roy Morgan Research Company on behalf of Tourism Victoria since 1996. Recent findings from this survey (cited in Tourism Victoria, 2002) reveal Melbourne's position as a host city for international sporting and cultural events is recovering from the stiff competition of Sydney and the aftermath of the Olympic Games. Nationally, Melbourne dominates as a destination with a reputation as a great city for theatre. Victoria's perceived status as a destination for unique history and heritage has remained relatively stable over the period 1996-2001 at around 10%, while New South Wales is the current leader for this attribute at 24% (Tourism Victoria, 2002).

This proposed research into international and domestic interstate tourists and their cultural experience tourism motivation and behaviour that focuses on Melbourne is therefore much needed by Melbourne cultural attractions and events in general, as well as by Melbourne destination marketing organizations.

This proposed study aims to focus in some detail on tourist motivations and other relevant personal and travel-related characteristics of tourist visitors to Melbourne attending local attractions and events while on holiday here, specifically exploring their motivation and behaviour in relation to attending cultural experiences. Tourists will be sampled at the Queen Victoria Market (QVM). This site has been selected because research identifies markets as an important attraction for tourist visitors (international and domestic) in Australia, Victoria and Melbourne. Going to markets is one of the top 15 activities for international and domestic overnight visitors to Victoria and Australia and it is among the top three most popular activities for international overnight visitors in Australia and Victoria (Tourism Victoria, 2004b). Visiting markets was the third most popular activity for international visitors in Australia with 50 percent of these visitors doing so. International visitors to Victoria were even more likely than the national trend to visit markets (53%) which was the second most popular activity after shopping for pleasure (70%) and ahead of going to the beach (49%). Visiting museums or art galleries and visiting history, heritage buildings, sites or monuments also ranked in the top 15 for Victoria and nationally with higher percentages of international visitors in Victoria compared with the national trend, (34% cf 25% and 31% cf 27% respectively for the two groups of cultural related activities). The higher visitor percentages in Victoria, reinforce Victoria's previously claimed position as one of Australia's most cultural states and justification for undertaking this research of tourist cultural experience motivation and behaviour in Melbourne, Victoria. Participation rates for all three types of activities however, have potential to be increased if more international tourist visitors could be attracted to these activities, and this study's contribution to knowledge will enable the relevant industry

sectors – such as the cultural attractions and events as well as tourism service providers – to apply some of the knowledge to practice and thereby increase cultural experiences by international tourists within Melbourne, as well as being of possible relevance to regional Victoria, elsewhere in Australia, and even other Western destinations that have similar cultural attractions and attract similar international tourist markets.

The top 15 activities for domestic overnight visitors to Victoria (Tourism Victoria, 2004b) include going to markets both nationally (6%) and for Victoria (6%), but these are much lower percentages than those for international tourists. Only one other cultural activity is included in the top 15 for domestic tourists whereby visiting history, heritage buildings, sites or monuments attracts a similar percentage of visitors for Victoria (5%) and nationally (5%). Inclusion of visiting markets and one other cultural activity within the top 15 activities for domestic tourists in Victoria and Australia, uphold Victoria's previously claimed position as one of Australia's most cultural states and justification for undertaking this research of tourist cultural experience motivation and behaviour in Melbourne, Victoria. The percentage of domestic tourists undertaking these activities, however, are considerably lower than the percentage of international tourists undertaking similar activities. Participation rates for these two types of activities therefore have even greater potential to be increased if more domestic overnight tourist visitors could be attracted to these activities. Hence, the application of this study's contribution to knowledge could be applied to even greater effect in relation to domestic overnight visitors and increasing their participation in cultural experiences within Melbourne, as well as being of possible relevance to regional Victoria, elsewhere in Australia with similar domestic tourist markets, and even in other Western destinations that have similar cultural attractions and attract Australian tourists. These percentages therefore justify inclusion of domestic tourists in this study and due to the significantly lower participation rates by domestic tourists compared with international tourists, it could be argued that there is even greater need for research of domestic overnight visitor's participation in cultural experiences.

Eight key markets have been selected as the further focus of this research: five international tourist markets and three domestic interstate tourist markets. A cross-national comparative study of five key international markets for Melbourne is proposed: tourists from North America and Canada, United Kingdom and Ireland, New Zealand, and the two Asian markets of Chinese-speaking tourists and Japanese tourists. These five markets have been selected because of their importance and growth potential. Victoria attracted more than 1.3 million international visitors in 2004 and this is a market share of 27.4 percent of international visitors to Australia (Tourism Victoria, 2005b). Five of Victoria's six largest international markets have been selected for this study: New Zealand (NZ), United Kingdom (UK), United States (USA), China and Japan. Europe is the other major market not included in the study.

Asian markets, especially China, are important in terms of their recent growth, current size and yield, and future potential. China currently ranks as Victoria's fourth highest international

market by visitor numbers (94,000) and second highest by yield (Victorian Government, 2005). Tourism growth projections by Tourism Victoria (cited in Victorian Government, 2005) highlight an increasing importance of international markets with Asia and China performing particularly strongly. Over the next 10 years, 70 percent of tourism growth will come from international markets and domestic market growth will shrink from its recent contribution of 50 to 30 percent. Asia could represent a significant proportion of overall tourism growth accounting for over 40 percent of international tourist numbers and over 50 percent of yield. By 2015, China is forecast to be Victoria's largest single country market accounting for 19 percent of both international visitor numbers and yield. In addition, four of Victoria's current next largest ranking markets are Asian and contribute additional Chinese speaking international tourists: Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong and Taiwan. Victoria's current market share for each of these Asian markets is about 30 percent and all are forecast to nearly double in growth over the next 10 years (Tourism Victoria, 2005b). These are strong grounds for selecting Chinese-speaking international tourists as a focus for this study.

Japanese tourists are another Asian market selected as a focus for this study because they are currently Victoria's sixth largest international tourist market attracting 70,000 visitors in 2004. Although Victoria's market share of Japanese visitors to Australia is only 10 percent and projected growth rates for the next 10 years are the lowest for the Asian markets, in 2015 Japan is projected to be Victoria's eighth largest market and the second largest Asian market.

For the domestic tourist market, the key interstate markets of New South Wales (NSW), South Australia (SA), and Queensland (Qld) have been selected as a focus in this study because these are the three largest interstate markets for Victoria and they were also the markets involved in Tourism Victoria's quantitative research study examining the motivations and behaviours of interstate visitors who attend cultural attractions and events (Tourism Victoria, 2004a). Interstate visitors to Victoria account for 29 percent of total domestic visitors and more than 50 percent of these are from NSW (more than 2.6 million in year ending March 2005) (Tourism Victoria, 2005a). The next largest interstate visitor markets are SA and Queensland, contributing 16.9% (887,000 visitors) and 15.5 percent (811,000 visitors) respectively. From the previous discussion of the top 15 activities for all domestic overnight visitors it was noted that going to markets and visiting history, heritage buildings, sites or monuments ranked lowly in these activities (6% and 5%, respectively) and were the same percent for visitors to Victoria compared with the national trend (Tourism Victoria, 2004b). From the research of interstate cultural tourists to Victoria (Tourism Victoria, 2004a), it is evident that the top three activities participated in on a domestic interstate leisure trip were visiting a heritage site or building (63%), visiting an art gallery (38%) and visiting a museum (37%). Interstate cultural tourists visiting Victoria were more likely than the national trend for total interstate cultural tourists to visit an art gallery (43% cf 38%), a museum (42% cf 37%), the theatre (19% cf 17%), an arts or cultural festival (14% cf 13%), and the ballet (3% cf 1%). Other performing arts experiences generally attracted much lower percentages of interstate

cultural tourists both to Victoria and nationally. Experiencing aboriginal art, craft or cultural displays was the highest ranking of these activities and interstate cultural tourists to Victoria were less likely to attend than the national trend (26% cf 34%). Attending the opera, or various types of music programs all attracted less than 10% of interstate cultural tourist to Victoria and nationally. These statistics indicate Victoria's reputation for its theatre and ballet, but they also indicate potential to increase the percentage of attendances to performing arts experiences in particular by interstate cultural tourists to Victoria as well as interstate tourists generally. This study aims to make a further significant contribution to this area.

This research focuses on the marketing of cultural experiences to selected international and interstate tourism markets and is of particular relevance to developing new audiences for locally-based cultural attractions and events from the emerging inbound Asian and other selected international and interstate tourist markets. To attract audiences from these new and growing inbound tourism marketplaces to cultural experiences in Australia would increase inbound tourism cultural expenditure, which in turn increases Australia's foreign exchange and develops the arts as an export industry. For example, a small percentage increase of the current inbound Asian tourism market at locally-based performing arts performances could yield large numbers of attendances and generate substantial additional earned revenue for performing arts organizations based on average ticket prices. In addition, selected Asian and other international markets are demonstrating the greatest growth among the various international tourist markets to Australia, and therefore represent even greater significance to performing arts audiences and potential revenue.

The proposed research is significant for both the tourism and the arts sectors of the Australian economy. The significance from the perspective of the individual performing arts organization, can be exemplified by the Melbourne Theatre Company. If it attracted five percent of current Asian international tourists to Victoria (473,358 visitors), there would be 23,667 new audience members a year which would result in $1,065,055 additional earned revenue at the average ticket price of $45. If it attracted five percent of current interstate tourists to Victoria from the key markets of SA, NSW and Queensland (4.3 million visitors and 82% of total interstate market to Victoria) - which would be a similar percent as the number of all domestic visitors to Victoria that visit history and heritage (Tourism Victoria, 2004b) – there would be 216,650 new audience members a year which would result in more than $9.7 million additional earned revenue at the average ticket price of $45.

The majority of cultural tourism related research to date has focused on identifying cultural tourists per se by focusing on attendees and understanding their motivations for attending cultural experiences in a situational context at specific cultural experiences. In contrast, this study focuses on the potential of eight major tourist markets for Melbourne, Australia as new audiences for various different types of cultural attractions and events. In using a research approach that explores the motivational process of these different population groups for cultural experiences by sampling tourists at one of Melbourne's major attractions, the Queen Victoria Market, the study's findings extend beyond individual locally-based cultural attractions and events at one particular

destination and could be of significance to various relevant industry sectors and service providers within the arts and tourism.

It could be of relevance to all local cultural attractions and events increasing their local audiences from different ethnic groups or attracting new local markets of various ethnic backgrounds. In addition, although there is a further focus on Melbourne-based cultural attractions and events, the study is also of relevance to these forms of cultural experiences located elsewhere in Australia or other developed countries. As indicated earlier in this chapter, this could be achieved by this study's contribution to knowledge enabling the relevant industry sectors – such as the cultural attractions and events as well as tourism service providers – to apply some of the knowledge to practice and thereby increase cultural experiences by international tourists within Melbourne, as well as being of possible further relevance to regional Victoria, elsewhere in Australia, and even other Western destinations with similar cultural attractions and international tourist markets. It has also been argued in this chapter that the application of this study's contribution to knowledge could be applied to even greater effect in relation to domestic overnight interstate visitors and increasing their participation in cultural experiences within Melbourne, regional Victoria, elsewhere in Australia with similar domestic tourist markets, and even in other Western destinations that have cultural attractions and that attract Australian tourists.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Despite an environment conducive to cultural experience tourism by international and interstate tourists, academic research has not sufficiently addressed the potential of this phenomenon. Associated with this conducive environment, is the apparent importance of and need for cross-cultural research to identify and develop some of these tourist markets and to develop appropriate marketing strategies to attract these tourists to these tourism resources. Relevant existing studies have been either cross-cultural research of tourism or cultural tourism in general, or cross-cultural equivalence research of event motivation. Cross-cultural studies of tourists' potential for attending cultural attractions and events have been limited to date.

This proposed research focuses on cultural experience tourism by international and interstate tourists in Australia and the role of effective marketing strategies with particular reference to live, local performing arts, as there is a lack of research on cultural experience tourism in general, and the performing arts provide a major source of supply for cultural experience tourism. From the performing arts perspective, arts marketing and audience development are priorities in Australia acknowledged by the peak arts body (Australia Council for the Arts, 1999). Diversifying audiences and increasing attendances are considered to enhance the sustainability and success of the performing arts sector.

The following literature review defines cultural experience tourism and considers the significance of attendance by international and interstate tourists from the literature on cultural tourism and cultural event tourism literature, including identification of types of cultural experiences available for tourist markets. From the literature, the relevant factors influencing cultural experience tourist motivations, decision-making and behaviour are then identified, including the role of marketing in attracting these tourists, especially the application and use of market segmentation, and the role of culture as a determinant of these tourists' motivation. This literature review guides the development of a conceptual framework on which the proposed research is based, a summary of which is presented as a research model at the end of the literature review.

2.2 Background: The Cultural Attractions' and Events' Perspective

2.2.1 Needs of Cultural Attractions and Events in the Twenty-First Century

In the performing arts artform, a recent major report on the performing arts in the United States over the past thirty years provides recommendations for their future well-being (McCarthy et al., 2001), thereby identifying some familiar current challenges for live performances. Financial pressures, especially for medium-sized organizations, an increasingly competitive leisure market, and the impact of new technologies, especially recordings and broadcast performances via various media including the Internet and digital technology, are identified as particular challenges. While the

number of organizations and performing arts infrastructure venues have increased during the 1980s and 90s, their real revenues have declined. Audience growth has occurred in the same period, but has largely resulted from population growth and increasing education levels, rather than an increase in the percentage of the population that engages in the arts. Therefore, future attendance levels may weaken. Mid-sized, nonprofit organizations are facing the greatest difficulty in attracting enough of the public to cover their costs and are most likely to disappear in the future. Hence the report's most important recommendation, is the need to stimulate demand for the arts in contrast with the concentration over the past half-century on building and strengthening supply of artists, organizations and productions. Another finding of relevance to this study, is the acknowledgement of the increasing role of the marketplace, marketing and marketers in the delivery of the arts. Associated with this trend, future research needs identified in the report, are the examination of how individual tastes for the arts are formed and how the benefits of the arts can be identified and measured so that more diversified and innovative approaches to promoting the arts can be explored.

Some similar findings have been reported in relation to the performing arts in Australia, especially financial pressures, increased competition due to an increased number of performing arts organizations, venues and productions, and the importance of audience development and marketing (Australia Council for the Arts, 1999; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2000; Nugent, 1999). Some key areas of growth include self-entrepreneuring by subsidised venues, entrepreneuring of international productions (including spectaculars), increase in number of, funding for, and attendances at major festivals, and touring activities by the major companies both within and outside their home State (Nugent, 1999). Most Australian States and Territories hold regular arts festivals, some on an annual basis (e.g. Melbourne Festival; Perth Festival, Sydney Festival), others every two years (e.g. Adelaide Festival; Brisbane Festival). The impact of festivals throughout the 1990s increased in terms of number of festivals, audience attendances, government funding and private sector support (Arts Victoria, 2000; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2000; Nugent, 1999).

An enquiry into 31 major performing arts organizations (Nugent, 1999) found the vast majority are facing high and escalating fixed costs associated with lead times that determine how long in advance a company's cost structure becomes fixed. Primary cost drivers are labour, public expectations of production values, advertising rates, and venue hire charges. Production costs (including royalties) for a new work or a new production of an existing work in 1997 ranged from more than $700,000 for major dance and opera performances to an average of $200,000 for major theatre productions (Nugent, 1999). Competition also exists between artforms and has increased especially as the size of audiences who crossover between the artforms increases. Established theatre, opera and ballet have been most affected by alternative forms of entertainment that include new entrants such as festivals, and the rise of large scale commercial musicals, opera and dance spectaculars, as well as film and CDs (Nugent, 1999).

In comparison with their international peers in the US and the UK, some Australian major performing arts companies generate more of their revenue from box office ticket sales, including The Australian Ballet, Opera Australia, Melbourne Theatre Company (MTC) and Sydney Theatre Company (STC). Consequently, in terms of revenue generation, these companies are classified as a 'box office led' model in contrast with the prevailing models in the US and the UK that are more 'private sector' for the former, and 'government led' for the latter (Nugent, 1999). Therefore, audience development and the role of marketing in attracting audiences are even more crucial for major performing arts companies in Australia.

2.2.2 Arts Marketing and Audience Development

Arts marketing and audience development are also priorities in Australia acknowledged by the peak arts body, the Australia Council as, "developing new audiences, diversifying audiences and increasing attendances enhances the sustainability and success of the performing arts sector" (Australia Council for the Arts, 1999). In relation to arts marketing and audience development, the Australia Council further acknowledges, "an important first step is to understand the composition and needs of particular audiences so that marketers can strategically target promotion of specific performances".

These research findings emphasising a need for increased performing arts attendances, audience development and audience diversification, highlight the potential of growing tourist markets as new markets for the performing arts and the important role of marketing in attracting any market as an audience. Knowledge of how to attract tourist markets to locally-based, cultural attractions and events is important from the perspective of the arts organizations as well as from a tourism perspective. For the arts organisations, attracting tourist markets will contribute to maintaining a diverse range of local cultural experiences in Western cultures. If inbound tourists are attracted to local cultural experiences, this further develops the arts as an export industry. From a tourism perspective, attracting tourists to local arts experiences increases tourists' cultural experiences and expenditure and may result in new tourists being attracted to a destination. If inbound tourists are attracted, this in turn increases the destination's foreign exchange earnings. While this research focuses on arts attractions and events as cultural experiences for tourists, it is also of relevance to the marketing of other forms of cultural attractions and events to tourist markets generally. Similarly, while it largely focuses on tourism at cultural attractions and events in Melbourne, Australia, it is of relevance to cultural experience tourism located elsewhere in Australia or other developed countries.

2.2.3 Arts Audience Characteristics and Motivations

From the arts perspective in Australia, some research has been undertaken of performing arts audiences, their characteristics and factors influencing performing arts motivation and decision making (Arts Victoria, 1997a, 1997b, 1997c; Australia Council for the Arts, 1999), and of marketing

performing arts (e.g., Australia Council for the Arts, 1999), but none of this research includes tourist audiences or markets.

Research of performing arts audience profiles includes audience demographic and psychographic characteristics, attendance motivations, barriers to increased attendance, and influences on the decision to attend (Arts Victoria, 1997a,b,c).

2.2.4 Marketing Cultural Experiences to Tourists

Very little of the above mentioned literature and research focuses specifically on the marketing of cultural tourism or arts tourism (Zeppel and Hall, 1991) or the marketing of cultural experiences to tourists. Other marketing related examples focus on the marketing of cultural heritage (Thorburn, 1986), marketing of tourist attractions, events or festivals in general (Getz, 1991; Richards, 1994), event marketing in general (Avrich, 1994; Cunningham and Taylor, 1995; Goldblatt, 1997), event tourism marketing (Getz, 1997), arts or performing arts marketing in general (Australia Council for the Arts, 1997; Dickman, 1997; Kolb, 2000; Kotler and Scheff, 1997; Rentschler, 1999; Steidl, 1997), but not specifically to tourist markets.

2.3 Significance of Cultural Experiences for International and Domestic Tourists in Australia and Gaps in the Data

2.3.1 Cultural Tourism and Cultural Event Tourism in Australia: Significance and Research to Date

From the cultural tourist perspective, empirical research to date in Australia has focused on either international tourists (Foo and Rossetto, 1998; Heaney and Salma, 2004; O'Halloran and Allcock, 2000) or domestic cultural tourists (Cultural Ministers Council Statistics Working Group, 1997; Tourism Victoria, 2004a). Different methodologies have been used in this research, for example, a supplementary survey to the International Visitor Survey (IVS) (Foo & Rossetto, 1998) or supplementary surveys of attendances at selected cultural venues in Australia (Cultural Ministers Council Statistics Working Group, 1997). None of these studies, develops marketing strategies other than the segmentation of the cultural tourist market for international and domestic tourists in Australia, with each study focusing on either international or domestic cultural tourists, respectively. Other research relevant to cultural tourism in Australia is published within the international and national visitors surveys (IVS and NVS) (e.g., Bureau of Tourism Research, 2001; Bureau of Tourism Research, 2003) or composite reports of data derived from these surveys and other sources (Hossain et al., 2005). While the definition of cultural activities used in each of these studies differs, they do provide characteristics for all tourists, segmentation on several bases such as by broad purpose of visit (i.e., holiday/leisure; business, visiting friends and relatives), and most importantly in terms of this proposed research, further information about cultural activity participation, but no details on the characteristics of these cultural tourists *per se*.

2.3.2 Cultural Activity Attendance by International Tourists

In Australia, for example, details of international visitor attendance at cultural events and their characteristics and motivations are mainly only available for Australia as a whole and are part of broader studies of cultural tourism in Australia (Foo & Rossetto, 1998; O'Halloran & Alcock, 2000). Some examples of international tourist participation in cultural activity in Australia (Tables 2.1-2.4), highlight the significance of this participation with analysis by type of cultural activity and by participant's country-of-origin.

Research of international visitor participation in cultural activity by country-of-origin is extremely limited. For cultural tourism overall in Australia (Table 2.1), approximately 62 percent or 2.1 million of all international visitors to Australia in 1995 (3.427 million) participated in at least one cultural activity. The market source of these cultural tourists by country of residence – Asia (46%), Europe including the UK (28%), NZ (15%) and North America (10%) – was found to be rather consistent with the distribution of all inbound visitors for the period except for a higher proportion of visitors from Europe and North America being likely to visit cultural attractions in Australia than other groups of visitors. By type of cultural activity (Table 2.3), of the six cultural activity categories included in the research, two are cultural event related and these ranked third and sixth respectively for visits to performing arts or concerts (15% of visits) and visits to festivals or fairs (4% of visits). The Aboriginal sites and cultural displays (15% of visits), could also include attendance at cultural events. These cultural event rankings are considerably lower than the most popular cultural activity categories of visiting museums or art galleries (31%), and historic or heritage buildings, sites, monuments (27%). Foo and Rossetto (1998) concluded that the attendances at festivals and fairs, in particular, and results from the Cultural Motivations Survey for these cultural events, "point to the largely untapped potential that inbound tourists present to organisers and merchants of festivals and fairs" (p.53).

Table 2.1: International tourist participation in cultural activity by country-of-origin

	Total of all Internation-al Tourists	**Country-of-Origin**						
Destination: Australia		Asia			Europe including UK	NZ	North America	Total
		Japan	Korea	Other				
	62%	19%	7%	20%	28%	15%	10%	100%

Source: Foo & Rossetto (1998)

Table 2.2: International tourist participation in performing arts by country-of-origin

	Country-of-Origin				
Destination: Australia	Asia		Europe including UK	NZ	North America
	Japan	Other Asia			
	6%	18%	36%	13%	20%

Source: O'Halloran & Allcock (2000)

Table 2.3: International tourist participation in cultural activity by type-of-cultural activity in 1995

	Type-of-Cultural Activity					
	Museums or Galleries	Historic Buildings, Sites or Monuments	Performing Arts or Concerts	Aboriginal Sites or Cultural Displays	Art or Craft Workshops or Studios	Festivals or Fairs
Destination: Australia	31%	27%	15%	15%	9%	4%

Source: Foo & Rossetto (1998)

A profile of the heritage tourism market in Australia based on relevant information from the International Visitor Survey in 1998 (O'Halloran and Allcock, 2000), does include participation of international visitors in selected activities by country-of-origin (Table 2.2). For participation in performing arts activities there are some interesting differences between markets, with Europeans comprising the largest percent of visitors to the performing arts (36%), followed by North American (20%), Other Asia (18%), NZ (13%) and Japan (6%). These percentages indicate considerable untapped opportunity to increase international visitors from all of the selected markets to attend cultural events such as the performing arts.

Table 2.4: International tourist participation in cultural activity by type-of-cultural activity annual averages 1999-2003*

	Type-of-Cultural Activity					
	Museums or Galleries	Historic Buildings, Sites or Monuments	Performing Arts or Concerts	Aboriginal Sites or Cultural Displays	Art or Craft Workshops or Studios	Festivals or Fairs
Destination: Australia	54%	63%	25%	32%	16%	15%

*International visitors may have engaged in more than one cultural activity on their trip in Australia
Source: Hossain *et al.* (2005)

Table 2.5: International tourist participation in cultural activity by type-of-cultural activity (other than Australia)

	Type-of-Cultural Activity						
	Museums	Art Galleries	Monuments	Historic Houses	Performances	Heritage Centres	Festivals
Destination	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Ireland	75.5	45.6	44.7	15.5	32.2	15.5	7.6
England/Scotland	79.9	53.1	44.2	34.3	27.7	7.1	7.6
Hong Kong	67.2	45.3	31.3	30.5	18.8	11.7	3.1

Source: McKercher (2004)

An economic impact study of cultural visitors in Australia over the four year period 1997/98-2000/01 (Heaney and Salma, 2004) identifies the spending patterns and economic contribution of cultural visitors, concluding that the economic role of the arts and culture is significant. While the numbers of domestic visitors and their economic contribution has remained relatively static over the period, consistent with Australian domestic tourism overall, international visitors who engaged in a cultural

activity increased by 16% over the period, and their expenditure levels were consistently higher than for domestic cultural visitors. Visits to the performing arts and other cultural events are two of the seven categories of cultural activity included in the study, but analysis by type of cultural activity was not undertaken in this study.

More recent data for international tourist participation in cultural activities while in Australia is available for 1999-2003 by type of cultural activity (Table 2.4), but this research (Hossain et al., 2005) does not include analysis by country-of-origin. While the annual average of international tourists who engaged in cultural activities reported in this study is considerably lower than the earlier study by Foo and Rossetto (1998) (47% cf 62%), the participation by international tourists in each of the cultural activities are all higher and there are some differences in activity rankings. The rankings of cultural event related activities however are similar in both studies with attending performing arts or concerts, and festivals or fairs, ranking of 3rd and 6th most popular activities respectively.

Table 2.5 presents international tourist participation in different types of cultural activity in three other geographic areas (Ireland, England/Scotland, and Hong Kong) for comparative purposes. It indicates cultural performances were more popular with Ireland than the other jurisdictions, but there is scope to increase attendance at performances and festivals, especially compared to attendances at some other cultural activity types.

Limitations of this research of international tourist participation by type of cultural activity and country-of-origin are that the analysis of the extent of cultural tourism by country-of-residence categories is very broad, especially for Australia's emerging international tourist markets from Asia which are reported and analysed into only two or three of the categories: Japan, Korea and Other Asia.

2.3.3 Cultural Activity Attendance by Domestic Tourists

On average between 1999 and 2003, there were 8 million domestic overnight cultural visitors who engaged in at least one of the cultural activities during their travel within Australia and this represented 11.4 per cent of all domestic overnight visitors (Hossain et al., 2005). The number of domestic overnight cultural visitors increased from 7.7 million in 2000 to 9.3 million in 2003 and domestic cultural visitors engaged in a minimum of 1.3 different types of activities on average over the five years from 1999 to 2003 (Hossain et al., 2005).

As summarised in Table 2.6, the most popular activity was visiting an historical or heritage building (37%), but attending performing arts or concerts was the third most popular activity (19%).

Table 2.6: Domestic overnight tourist participation in cultural activity by type-of-cultural activity annual averages 1999-2003*

	Type-of-Cultural Activity					
	Museums or Galleries	Historic Buildings, Sites or Monuments	Performing Arts or Concerts	Aboriginal Sites or Cultural Displays	Art or Craft Workshops or Studios	Festivals or Fairs
Destination: Australia	36%	37%	19%	7%	15%	17%

*Visitors may have engaged in more than one cultural activity on their trip in Australia
Source: Hossain *et al.* (2005)

2.3.4 Summary of Cultural Activity Participation Data for International and Domestic Tourists in Australia

Based on the review of cultural tourist participation data for international and domestic tourists in Australia in the previous two sections, a summary of key findings and limitations has been compiled (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7: Key findings and limitations of cultural tourist research for international and domestic visitors in Australia

Findings	Limitations
• 47% of international visitors engage in cultural activities while in Australia on average 1999-2003 whereby international cultural visitors account for more than 2 million visits to Australia per year 1999-2003 • 11% of domestic overnight visitors were cultural tourists on average 1999-2003 representing on average per year 8 million domestic cultural tourists • Visiting Historic buildings, sites or monuments has become the most popular cultural activity for international cultural tourists (63%) and domestic overnight cultural tourists (37%) • Attending performing arts or concerts has become the 4th most popular cultural activity for international cultural tourists (25%) and the 3rd most popular activity for domestic overnight cultural tourists (19%) • Attendance by country-of-origin varies for all types of cultural activities and within one type of cultural activity such as performing arts • Economic role of arts and culture activities by international tourists in Australia is significant overall and also because international cultural tourists stay more nights in Australia than international non-cultural visitors and spend more money per trip • Economic role of arts and culture activities by domestic visitors in Australia is significant overall and also because domestic cultural visitors spend more than the average domestic traveller and stay longer. Numbers and economic contribution remained relative static over 4 year period (1997/98-2000/01) (consistent with Australian domestic tourism overall) • Expenditure levels by international cultural tourists are consistently higher than	• Different methods used to measure tourists attendance in a cultural activity • Different categories of types of cultural activities used • Country-of-residence analysis is very broad, especially for Australia's emerging market of Asia • In economic impact analysis of spending patterns and economic contribution by tourists on arts and culture activities, analysis by type of activity is not included • State/Territory analysis for international tourists by type of cultural activity and country-of-origin is not available • Analysis of international visitor motivation by country-of-origin and type of cultural activity is not available • Only one of these studies includes analysis of motivating factors, planning factors, information sources used and satisfaction

domestic cultural visitors • International tourists to Australia present untapped potential for cultural events, especially festivals and fairs • Domestic tourists present untapped potential for all cultural activities, including cultural events	

Source: Based on Foo & Rossetto (1998); Heaney & Salma (2004); Hossain et al., (2005); McKercher (2004); O'Halloran & Allcock (2000); Tourism Victoria (2003)

Overall, although tourist attendance at cultural activities is significant by some measures, the reach to date of the current and expanding international and domestic tourist markets is relatively small and represents untapped potential and scope to increase attendance highlighting the importance of attracting tourists to cultural attractions and events. In order to increase and even to maintain current levels of tourist attendance at cultural attractions in an increasingly competitive environment, an understanding of tourists' motivation and behaviour in relation to attending is imperative, yet this type of research has been extremely limited to date.

Existing research of cultural tourism motivation by international and domestic visitors in Australia is extremely limited as will be considered in the next section.

2.3.5 Cultural Tourist Motivation Data

Research of cultural tourism in Australia by international visitors (Foo & Rossetto, 1998) includes some findings of specific relevance to visitor motivation for attending cultural events but these findings are only available for selected categories of cultural sites of relevance to cultural events and for all international visitors collectively, not by country-of-residence. It shows all international visitors to cultural events such as performing arts or concerts and festivals or fairs, were motivated by the social aspect of the experience, but visitors to performing arts also had to be interested in the performance while visitors to festivals or fairs sought an Australian experience and often did so on impulse. Visits to Aboriginal sites and cultural displays were also sought after by cultural visitors rather than used to fill in time with the majority of visitors seeking an Australian experience (42%) or specifically wanting to visit a particular Aboriginal site or display (32%). Analysis of visitor motivation by country-of-residence in this research (Foo & Rossetto, 1998), is only available for cultural sites overall and therefore does not shed light on cultural event tourism motivation by country-of-residence. The main motivation for UK, European and North American tourists was 'to experience something Australian' (39%, 47% and 30% respectively) followed by 'specifically wanted to attend or visit' a particular cultural activity (32%, 32%, and 29%). Whereas, for Asian markets – which are only categorised by Japan and Other Asia – the main motivation was 'part of a package tour' (57% and 32% respectively) followed by 'to experience something Australian' (23% and 24%). In comparison the main motivation for NZ tourists was 'specifically wanted to visit' (41%) followed by 'interested and wanted to spend time with friends/relatives (16%).

The only quantitative research of domestic cultural tourists' motivation and behaviour in Australia, was commissioned by Tourism Victoria to examine the motivations and behaviours of interstate visitors to Melbourne from the key markets of Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide who engaged in cultural experiences (Tourism Victoria, 2004a). The aspects of this research of specific relevance to visitor motivation for attending cultural events are the findings for participation in 14 cultural activities, nine of which are event related (theatre, arts or cultural festival; jazz or blues music performance; dance performance; comedy show; country or folk music program; classical music program; opera; and ballet). The top three cultural activities participated in on a domestic interstate leisure trip were not cultural events, but interstate cultural tourists visiting Victoria were more likely than the total interstate domestic cultural market to attend the theatre (19% cf 17%), arts or cultural festival (14% cf 13%), and the ballet (3% cf 1%). The motivations for attending any of the cultural activities or events are reported for all interstate cultural tourists collectively, not by individual source markets of interstate tourists to establish whether there are any state-based differences in motivation or behaviour, nor by type of cultural activity or event. Experiencing history and heritage and art and culture were influencing factors for 68 and 58% of interstate cultural tourists to Victoria respectively, but these ranked 4th and 6th as influencing factors. The top three influences were enjoying food and wine, experiencing nature and the outdoors, and VFR. The five most common reasons for attending any cultural component of the trip were enjoyment/relaxation (75%), socialise with friends (37%), experience quality art (37%), learn about other cultures (33%), and celebrate heritage (31%).

2.3.6 Cultural Tourist Planning Data

In terms of planning cultural event tourism, Foo and Rossetto (1998) found the majority of inbound visitors to the performing arts and to Aboriginal sites planned their attendance prior to their visit (54% and 60% respectively). The researchers speculated that the former is presumably a function of ticketing procedures whereas the latter is a reflection of the remote nature of many performances or restrictions, perceived or otherwise, of access to displays of Aboriginal culture. Different sources of information are used for different types of cultural events, with visitors to performing arts or concerts preferring sources that would contain up-to-date information, visitors to festivals or fairs using passive sources of information (i.e. information that comes to them including word-of-mouth and advertising); and visitors to Aboriginal sites using travel-related sources.

2.3.7 Limitations of Cultural Tourist Data by Country-of-Residence

Limitations of this research to date are that the country-of-residence categories used in cultural tourism participation analysis for inbound tourists in Australia are very broad, especially for Australia's emerging international tourist markets from Asia such as China, Taiwan, Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand which are usually reported and analysed into two or three of the following categories: China, Japan and Other Asia. This level of analysis is still not available for each State/Territory or by type of cultural activity nor is there published analysis of sources of

information used by inbound cultural visitors by type of cultural activity and country-of-residence. Another gap in this literature to which this study aims to make a contribution concerns motivation to attend cultural experiences. Cultural differences presumably exist in motivation as well as participation and yet this analysis for the different types of international visitors by country-of-residence is not available. A better understanding of cultural experience motivation is dependent on more research in this area.

2.3.8 Summary of Cultural Tourism in Australia Research Findings and Gaps in the Data

Research of cultural tourism in Australia by international visitors includes cultural visitor demographic characteristics and motivations, whether any planning was involved, and sources of information used. This research also segments international cultural tourists as 'specific' or 'general' – a cultural tourist segmentation also used by Richards (1996a; 1996b) in relation to European tourism and cultural attractions. The research further analyses motivations, planning and information at specific types of cultural sites including performing arts or concerts and festivals or fairs. It is acknowledged that this information is valuable in the distribution of promotion and marketing materials (Foo & Rossetto 1998).

In order to develop effective marketing and public relations strategies for cultural experience tourism, information is needed concerning the new Asian tourist markets, their interest and participation in locally-based cultural and performing arts experiences, and the factors and sources influencing their behaviour. Existing research of cultural tourism in general (Foo & Rossetto, 1998) identifies some relevant information but also highlights a need for additional specific information. For example, of all inbound visitors to Australia who said they visited a cultural attraction in Australia, Asian markets collectively are identified as the largest market (45%) compared with continental Europe (16%), NZ (15%), UK (11%) and USA/Canada (10%). The Asian market is further segmented into 'Japanese' and 'other Asian' markets with the Japanese market being the largest single inbound market that visited a cultural attraction (19%). Information is also provided for each of the selected inbound markets including Japanese, regarding the motivating factors, levels of interest in cultural attractions, and information sources used. This information is not available for any other separate Asian markets nor is it correlated with the type of cultural activity or activities (e.g., performing arts or museums and galleries) undertaken by inbound visitors. This latter information is not analysed at all for each of the inbound markets by country-of-residence or language groups. This research suggests a need for more detailed information about how motivation for selected Asian and other international tourist markets based on three language groups (Japanese, Chinese and English) differs in relation to interest in, attendance at and experience of specific types of cultural activities and events, especially for marketing segmentation and strategy purposes.

A further finding from existing research of cultural tourism in Australia (Foo and Rossetto, 1998) comparing the distribution of inbound visitors to cultural visitors, found the proportion of visitors from

Asia (including Japan) likely to visit cultural attractions in Australia is lower than the proportion of visitors from Europe (including the UK) and North America. This suggests a need to research inbound Asian non-attendees to locally-based, cultural experiences as well as those who attend.

2.4 Significance of Cultural Tourism in Melbourne, Victoria

The Melbourne geographic area located within the state of Victoria is a focus of this study as the number of tourists to Victoria per annum based on recent published data (Tourism Victoria, 2006b, 2007), total nearly seven million which is a very substantial market for any Melbourne-based attraction, and especially when compared with Melbourne's resident population of almost 3.6 million, 2.9 million of whom are 15 years of age or older (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). These tourist visitors comprise nearly 1.4 million international tourists and more than 5.4 million interstate. The 1.4 million international visitors to Melbourne is the second highest number of international visitors to a selected destination in Australia, ranking after Sydney (2.46 million). Of these inbound international visitors to Victoria and Melbourne, the top six significant market sources in ranking order are NZ (229,890, 17%), UK (213,129 15%), China (139,575, 10%), USA (133,626 10%), Japan (64,938, 5%) and Singapore (62,943, 5%). This differs slightly from the profile of total international visitors to Australia which totalled nearly 4.8 million for the year ending December 2004, where the top six significant market sources are the same countries but different ranking order and percentages: NZ (19.3%), Japan (13.8%), UK (13.1%), US (8.4%), China (5%) and Singapore (4.5%) (Tourism Australia, 2005). The significant market sources for the interstate visitors to Victoria and Melbourne, in ranking order are NSW (more than 2.8 million, 48%), South Australia (971,000, 18%) and Queensland (894,000, 17%) (Tourism Victoria, 2007).

Regarding performing arts event supply, Melbourne hosts an annual major arts festival and fringe arts festival in September/October, a comedy festival midyear, and is home to several major performing arts companies including the Melbourne Symphony Orchestra, Orchestra Victoria, and one of Australia's oldest and largest theatre companies, the Melbourne Theatre Company (MTC) established in 1953 and employing more than 116 permanent, full-time staff (Nugent, 1999). Melbourne also has an impressive range and number of major performing arts venues including the Victorian Arts Centre Concert Hall (capacity 2,700), State Theatre (2,000), Playhouse (900); Regent (2,200), Myer Music Bowl (2,000), Her Majesty's (1600), Princess (1,400); Comedy (1,000), Athenaeum (950), and Forum (800) (Nugent, 1999).

A snapshot picture of cultural tourism in the Melbourne geographic area and Australia as a whole is difficult to determine from existing research which has used different methodologies (e.g. surveying a sample of all international tourists versus surveying a sample of visitors to selected cultural venues), different tourist populations (e.g. international or domestic visitors) and often does not provide detailed analysis of tourist participation in cultural attractions or events as distinct from participation in cultural tourism in general. There is also a lack of detailed analysis for cultural

tourism in specific geographic areas such as Melbourne. Furthermore, most of the cultural tourism data is now quite dated.

2.5 Cultural Tourism Research and Definitions

Overall, cultural tourism literature and research has been more conceptual than empirical in nature (Hall and Zeppel, 1990; Hughes, 1987; 1996; Zeppel and Hall, 1991). Related literature and research, also largely conceptual or theoretical, focuses specifically on tourism and the arts (Cohen, 1993; Tighe, 1986), tourism and museums or heritage attractions (Prentice, 1993b), and culture as a resource for tourism (Hughes, 1987; Wiener, 1980). Conceptual research on cultural tourist motivation emerged in the mid 1990s (Silberberg, 1995) and empirical research on cultural tourist motivations and behaviour has followed (Foo and Rossetto, 1998; McKercher, 2004; McKercher and du Cros, 2003). Some research focuses specifically on cultural event tourists and their characteristics, motivations and segmentation (Formica and Uysal, 1996, 1998; Nicholson and Pearce, 2000, 2001) and for festivals in particular (Crompton and McKay, 1997; Lee, 2000; Lee et al., 2004a; Scott, 1996). Regarding cultural tourism in specific geographic areas, there is considerable case study research of cultural tourism in Europe (Richards, 1996a, 1996b, 2001b), in the USA (Tighe, 1985), tourism and the arts in Singapore (Henderson, 2001), tourism and heritage in Thailand (Peleggi, 1996), and cultural tourism in Hong Kong (McKercher et al., 2002). In Australia, a review of arts and heritage was published (Zeppel and Hall, 1992) and some empirical research of cultural tourism in Australia was undertaken in the early 1990s (Australia Council for the Arts, 1990; 1991; Brokensha and Guldberg, 1992). More recent research of tourist attendance at cultural activities in Australia has been considered in the earlier section on the significance of cultural activities and events for tourists (Section 2.4) and has focused on either international tourists (Foo and Rossetto, 1998; Heaney and Salma, 2004; O'Halloran and Allcock, 2000) or domestic tourists (Cultural Ministers Council Statistics Working Group, 1997; Tourism Victoria, 2004a). Other research focuses on an anthropological perspective of the impact of tourism on the arts and culture (e.g., Cohen, 1993; Hughes, 1989) and is not of direct relevance to this research.

2.6 Typology of Tourists and Cultural Experience Tourism

Cultural tourism and cultural tourists can take many forms. Consequently there are many existing typologies and these are based on the cultural tourists or the cultural attractions, or both. Despite debate over the use of typologies which is raised but not expanded upon by McKercher and du Cros (2003), these authors consider them useful in trying to understand the behaviour of different groups of travellers.

Culture as product typologies is common within the cultural tourism literature (Foo and Rossetto, 1998; Grant and Paliwoda, 1998; Munsters, 1996; Richards, 1996b; Robinson et al., 1996). Munsters' (1996) typology further differentiates cultural product as either attractions or events.

More recent cultural and heritage tourist typologies have focused on the level or nature of tourist experience (McKercher, 2002; McKercher and du Cros, 2003; Timothy, 1997).

Timothy's typology (1997) comprises four levels of heritage tourism attractions – world, national, local and personal – based on different depths of experiences by the visitor. World heritage attractions draw large masses of tourists and may invoke feelings of awe, but probably do not invoke feelings of personal attachment. By contrast, national, local and personal sites engender progressively stronger feelings of personal connectivity and probably facilitate different depths of experiences by the visitor. Clearly different types of heritage and cultural tourism experiences exist (e.g., Timothy 1997), but one limitation identified by Timothy is that in many cases there is overlap of these concepts. Timothy further suggests this typology highlights types of heritage tourism that have not received much academic attention, in particular, personal heritage tourism and local tourism businesses.

Acknowledging that operational definitions of cultural tourists are deficient in a number of areas, especially their inability to distinguish between different types of cultural tourists which can further mislead about the importance of cultural tourism in attracting tourists to an area, McKercher (2002) calls for a new approach to develop a stronger understanding of the cultural tourism market. McKercher's typology of cultural tourists (McKercher, 2002; McKercher and du Cros, 2003), is based on the interface between two dimensions: i) the centrality of cultural motives in the decision to visit a destination, and ii) depth of experience or level of engagement with the attraction or destination. McKercher uses this typology to segment the cultural tourism market into five segments: serendipitous, purposeful, incidental, casual, and sightseeing cultural tourists. When the segments are tested against a variety of variables – variety of trip, demographic, motivational, preferred activity, awareness, cultural distance and activities participated – significant differences are noted between the groups (McKercher and du Cros, 2003). Therefore, although the segmentation process in this instance is predicated on two variables, these variables are reflective of underlying trip motivation, activity preference and cultural distance factors noted between the different types of cultural tourist. Some similarity between this cultural tourist typology and the more generic typologies of tourists (e.g., Cohen, 1979; Plog, 1974), and Cohen's (1972) concept of strangeness versus familiarity is acknowledged (McKercher and du Cros, 2003).

While these two dimensions of cultural motives centrality and depth of experience have some limitations which will be discussed later in this literature review, they are of specific interest to this research because of their links to several concepts of cultural tourist experience that are a proposed focus in this study, namely, motivation and benefits. McKercher (2002) links the centrality dimension to the importance of recognising that some people are more highly motivated to participate in cultural tourism than others and that participation alone may not be sufficient to document intent. McKercher's centrality dimension looks at motivation in terms of the extent to which the desire to engage in cultural tourism activities forms the main reason to visit a destination. In exploratory research using Hong Kong as the destination case study (McKercher, 2002;

McKercher and du Cros 2003), this dimension of the centrality of cultural tourism in the decision to visit is measured with a single question and a five-point Likert scale (1 unimportant/did not influence the decision to visit to 5 the only/main reason we came to Hong Kong).

The depth of experience dimension acknowledges that people have different abilities to engage with cultural and heritage attractions based on an array of factors (McKercher, 2002). McKercher's discussion of this dimension (2002, p.31-32) refers to research (McIntosh and Prentice, 1999; Waller and Lea, 1998) suggesting that authenticity or the perception of the pursuit of authenticity may influence the depth of experience felt. McKercher ultimately measured the depth of experience dimension with a single question on the importance of the opportunity to learn something about Hong Kong's culture. A four-point Likert scaled question measured how important the opportunity to learn something about Hong Kong's culture or heritage was in their decision to visit with possible answers ranging from 'mostly sightseeing/photography' through to the opportunity 'to develop a deep understanding".

McKercher and du Cros (2003) further claim the five types of cultural tourists identified in the typology based on their two dimensions of centrality and depth of experience, represent "benefit-based" segments. This claim highlights the importance of benefits in tourist market segmentation research which will be discussed later in this literature review in the section on benefit market segmentation.

McKercher's typology of five types of cultural tourists is tested against a variety of other variables: participation in cultural tourism activities at some time during their stay in Hong Kong (McKercher, 2002; McKercher & du Cros, 2003), trip, demographic, motivational, preferred activity, awareness, cultural distance and activity variables (McKercher & du Cros, 2003).

One earlier framework conceptualises cultural tourism as a liberal arts hobby within the framework of serious leisure theory and categorises cultural tourists into two types: general and specialised (Stebbins, 1996). Both categories are based on a definition of cultural tourism as, the search for and participation in new and deep cultural experiences, whether aesthetic, intellectual, emotional, or psychological (Reisinger, 1994). Stebbins further acknowledges that several cultural forms routinely draw tourists such as museums, galleries, festivals, architecture, historic ruins, artistic performances, and heritage sites, and that these forms are in turn expressions or contain expressions of one or more fine, popular, or folk arts, or one or more local lifestyles – folk, historical, or modern. Both types of cultural tourists seek rich, participative experiences in some of the cultural forms mentioned above. The main difference between the two types is that the general cultural tourist undertakes these experiences in different geographic sites such as countries, cities, and regions, whereas the specialised cultural tourist focuses on one or a small number of geographic sites or cultural entities. The latter might seek a broad cultural understanding of a place or go to different places in search of exemplars of cultural entities such as art, history, festival or museums.

In contrast with these existing typologies, this proposed research focuses on tourist motivation in relation to cultural experiences to test whether different types of tourists can be identified. A new conceptual framework will be developed for testing. It will be presented in Chapter 3 following further discussion of the other relevant dimensions in this literature review. In common with some of these existing typologies, this proposed research does need to define cultural experience tourism for its purposes and this will include initially identifying types of tourists and different cultural forms and entities and exemplars of these, that are of specific interest to this study.

2.6.1 Cultural Experience Tourists

For the purpose of this study, the typology of tourists and cultural experience tourism (Figure 2.1) and associated definitions will apply. It primarily categorises tourists, firstly by type of tourist (i.e., international, domestic/national (interstate and intrastate), then by primary purpose of visit (i.e., visiting friends and relatives, holiday/leisure, or business) and then by type of cultural experience activity they may engage within (e.g., local performing arts). As the focus of the proposed research is selected tourist markets and their motivation to engage with local cultural experiences, 'international' and 'domestic/national interstate' tourists will be the primary types of visitor of interest, but the research findings will also be compared with existing relevant research on cultural tourism and other types of visitors, i.e., other international inbound tourist markets and domestic /national interstate visitors.

The cultural experiences of particular interest in this study are local, cultural attractions and events and the motivation of international and interstate tourists to engage with these. This typology further considers these cultural attractions and events as a sub-group of cultural experience tourism. This definition, in turn, is based on an operational/behavioural definition of tourism as the 'activities of persons' (Alzua et al., 1998; United Nations and World Tourism Organisation, 1994; World Tourism Organisation, 1985). Defined this way, the definition is made operational through existing or additional data that can be readily collected, and it relates closely to existing relevant data of relevance to cultural tourism. In Australia, for example, such literature and data includes the annual visitor surveys (e.g., 2001; 2003; Tourism Australia, 2005) and studies of cultural tourism in Australia by inbound and interstate visitors (Foo and Rossetto, 1998; Hossain et al., 2005; 2003; Tourism Victoria, 2004a). In this study however, the segmentation of the cultural experience tourist market will ultimately be based on tourists' attitudes and motivation towards these cultural experiences and aspects of the nature of their experiences at these cultural events, if differences can be found.

Another cultural tourism research project, the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) project, established in 1991 to develop a transnational database, initially focusing on Europe, began with a technical definition of cultural tourism to facilitate fieldwork research: "All movement of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural

manifestations, arts and drama outside their place of residence" (Richards, 1996b, p.24; 2001b, p.37).

One acknowledged limitation of the above operational/behavioural definitions of cultural tourism and cultural tourists is that they can mislead about the importance of cultural tourism in attracting tourists to an area by inflating the size of the market based on attendance at a cultural activity (McKercher, 2004). This is because these definitions are more accurately, definitions of tourists who attend a cultural activity, than definitions of 'cultural tourists' defined as people who are motivated to travel for cultural reasons and for whom visits to cultural attractions are the core reason of visit.

Another limitation of the above operational/behavioural definitions of cultural tourism and cultural tourists is that they do not include attitudinal and motivational dimensions in addition to the behavioural dimensions of cultural tourists. The importance and advantages of integrating attitudinal and behavioural characteristics as well as using a multi-dimensional typology and market segmentation approach in relation to identifying market segments and developing appropriate marketing strategies to attract and increase these segments has been advocated in relation to cultural and heritage tourism and international tourists (Alzua et al., 1998). The integration of attitudinal and motivational as well behavioural dimensions is discussed again later in this literature review in sections on motivations, benefits and market segmentation research and literature.

2.6.2 Cultural Tourism Experiences

The above operational/behavioural definitions of the cultural tourist whereby they are characterised by type of cultural activity attended, further requires the development of a typology for cultural activities. The typology needs to take into account the various cultural activities included in the cultural tourism research to date as well as identifying other cultural resources not included to date, but which could function as resources for cultural tourism purposes.

In their research of cultural tourism in Australia, Foo and Rossetto (1998) identified six categories of activities: three cultural site-based attractions, two other categories that could be considered cultural event tourism (festivals or fairs; performing arts or concerts), and a third category (Aboriginal sites and cultural displays) – that could include cultural event tourism.

A decade since the inception of the ATLAS project, Richards (2001a) developed a framework to accommodate the attractions included in the ATLAS project demand and supply data. Firstly, he overviewed different typologies of cultural tourism and concluded that they are largely based on cultural products, rather than based on their organization or consumption by tourists. He further noted an increasing tendency to emphasize the role of cultural events (p.23), which is of particular relevance to this study on cultural experience tourism where cultural events are a sub-category of focus.

Richards' (2001a) framework focuses on the differences and similarities of cultural attractions in terms of form and function. His starting points are the type of resources that form the cultural basis of the attraction, and the purpose to which these cultural resources are put. The cultural basis of an attraction varies from a presentation of the material products of a culture to the active transmission of elements of the living culture, or culture as a way of life. This definition represents the continuum of definitions of culture, from culture as product to culture as process, with the former tending to be more traditional cultural attractions largely based on heritage and other cultural products of the past and the latter, more contemporary types of attractions based on cultural processes. The second dimension represents the use or purpose to which the cultural resources are put in an attraction ranging from educational uses to entertainment purposes with this dimension also reflecting the authenticity debate about the of the presentation of culture ranging from 'authentic' to 'staged entertainment'. In this framework, cultural event examples are categorised into all four quadrants of these two dimensions. Art exhibitions, for example, are considered to be a more contemporary form, whose purpose is more educational than entertainment. Arts festivals are also a more contemporary form, whose purpose however is more entertainment than educational. Folklore festivals, have a mixture of educational and entertainment elements based on historical resources. Historical pageants are also based on historical resources, but are more entertainment focused. Performing arts events are not included *per se* in this typology, but are included within the survey instrument as one of seven types of cultural attractions, the others being: museum, monument, art gallery, historic house, festivals, and heritage centre.

Any typology of cultural attractions according to Richards (2001a), cannot be viewed as a fixed classification but should be understood as a dynamic field within which cultural attractions may position themselves (p.25) or disappear as distinct categories (p.24). For example, an increasing shift in the emphasis of cultural production away from the resources of the past, towards more contemporary cultural forms is noted (p.25).

A powerful connection between attractions and events is noted by Munsters (1996) despite categorising cultural tourism resources as either attractions or events in a general typology of cultural tourism resources. He comments that, "various events can be connected with cultural attractions" and "thanks to their motivating power, these events are an excellent way to revive heritage and to attract the less culturally minded tourist towards monuments and museums" (p.114). Munsters' list of events connected with cultural attractions comprises "performances (theatre, music, dance), demonstrations, exhibitions, markets, and (guided) tours". This list is of particular interest and relevance to this study as it is the only theoretical acknowledgement of 'markets' as a type of event connected with cultural attractions and yet markets (street, weekend, art/craft, and produce) frequently function as tourist attractions evidenced by their listings within most popular activities undertaken by tourists at particular destinations and their inclusion within brochures and guidebooks identifying outstanding arts and cultural heritage experiences and cultural tourism attractions for some destinations. Both of these apply to Melbourne, Victoria where markets prominently feature in the lists of most popular activities undertaken by international visitors

and interstate tourists at the destination (Tourism Victoria, 2004b) as mentioned earlier in the discussion of the significance of this study in Chapter 1. Similarly, Victoria's Cultural Guide 2005-2006 (Cultural Tourism Industry Group, 2005), identifies produce markets as places of interest for Melbourne city and the nearby suburb of Prahran. The Prahran market is acknowledged as Melbourne's oldest product market (p.13), while the Queen Victoria Market is identified as a 'place of interest' within a heritage building and the Melbourne City Precinct (pp.80-81). The combination of events and built heritage functioning as major crowd-pullers has been acknowledged by Munsters (1996), especially events in which the built heritage plays the key role such as performing arts concerts in historic buildings.

The emerging importance of experiences in art and culture that address tourists' interests for experience has been recently noticed in collaborative marketing practices and partnerships between tourism and art and cultural organizations in North America, and described as a "convergence of culture and place" (Carpenter, 2004). These types of tourism opportunities not only offer visitors opportunities to experience the art and cultural fabric of locales, they are also designed to bring about communication between visitors and members of the cultural core of the experience itself. Several benefits of collaborating and promoting cultural experiences for visitors, partnering organizations and communities, are proposed. While visitor benefits are a specific focus of this study discussed later in this literature review in Section 2.12.3, Carpenter (2004) proposes cultural experiences can be attractive to visitors who are less interested in site-specific attractions.

2.6.3 Cultural Experience Tourism Typology

In defining cultural experience tourism for the purposes of this study, several relevant concepts have been discussed, in particular, definitions for and typologies of cultural tourism, cultural attractions and events, and cultural tourists. Two main trends emerge from this literature review of cultural tourism typologies and related industry practices and tourist activity participation. These are summarised as 1) an emphasis on visitor experiences at cultural tourism attractions and the nature of those experiences, and 2) the increasing importance of cultural events and events at cultural attractions. Several limitations with the proposed operational/behavioural definitions of cultural tourism and cultural event tourism have been observed. Two further limitations can be identified from the above discussion of the relevant definitions and typologies. For any typology of cultural attractions and events, one problem is that some attractions and events may be multi-form and multi-functional, and, similarly, the tourists experiencing cultural attractions and events may have different and multiple attitudes and motivations influencing and determining their behaviour.

2.6.4 Associated Definitions

International Tourist: any trip to Melbourne, Australia by a temporary visitor from another country who spends at least one night but not more than one year for the purposes of business, leisure or

visiting friends and relatives (based on Bureau of Tourism Research, 2003; Tourism Research Australia, 2004).

Domestic/National Tourist: any trip to Melbourne, Australia by a person residing in Australia, irrespective of nationality, travelling over 40 kms from their usual residence, involving a stay of at least one night away from home (based on Bureau of Tourism Research, 2001; Tourism Research Australia, 2004).

Interstate Tourist: residents from outside the state of Victoria, visiting Melbourne for at least one night (based on Bureau of Tourism Research, 2001; Tourism Research Australia, 2004).

Cultural Experience Tourism: Tourists who engage in at least one locally-based, cultural experience at cultural attractions and events (these two sub-categories being defined for the purposes of this study below but which are principally based on operational/behavioural definitions of tourism as specified activities undertaken by tourists) during their stay. Defined in this way, the definition is based on an operational/behavioural definition of tourism as the 'activities of persons' (United Nations and World Tourism Organisation, 1994; World Tourism Organisation, 1985; Alzua et al., 1998) and is made operational through existing or additional data that can be readily collected, and it relates closely to existing data (e.g., Bureau of Tourism Research, 2003; Foo and Rossetto 1998). The aim of this proposed research is to determine whether tourists' engagement in cultural experiences at cultural attractions and events can also be defined and categorised by factors that may trigger or drive the behaviour (Alzua et al., 1998) such as motivations and benefits pursued, and whether cultural differences can be identified as further determinants of these.

Cultural Attractions (Site-Based): are local cultural and arts related experiences available at the destination that are offered on a recurring basis within a site-based, tangible built or natural facility and the visitor experience involves encountering objects or other tangible forms of creative expression or the history of a place. Three sub-categories of cultural attractions have been identified, two of which will be a focus of this study: **museums and art galleries**; and **historic/history/heritage, buildings, sites and monuments**. These two categories of cultural attractions and the tourist activity of visiting them, are commonly found in cultural tourism activity typologies and research worldwide (Foo and Rossetto, 1998; Richards, 1996a, 1996b; Richards and Queiros, 2005; Tourism Victoria, 2004a). Within each of these cultural attraction subcategories, some could be further distinguished as **famous** or iconic based upon the fame of the attraction as a cultural place, and whether this is a significant dimension of tourists' attitudes for attending cultural experiences will also be tested in this study.

Cultural Events: are those locally-based, cultural and arts related events and performances that are available live at the destination, but are temporary in nature occurring for limited time periods and are distinct from recorded or broadcast events. Seven sub-categories of cultural and performing arts activities/events have been identified, six of which will be a focus of this study: **festivals** that

include live performing arts performances and might be re-enactments of these at site-based cultural attractions; **markets** that include street, weekend, art and craft, produce and might be re-enactments of any of these at site-based cultural attractions; **theatre** with a further five sub-categories – three of which are venue-based, that is either large scale, small to medium scale or in a park or garden, the fourth is theatre held predominantly for children such as pantomimes; music and opera, and the fifth is theatre performances at cultural heritage attractions; **music and opera, dance and ballet,** and **cultural performances** which might be multicultural; ethnic or folk, national, indigenous or aboriginal, or re-enactments at cultural attractions. The scale of theatre productions distinguishes between those that are large scale and those that are small to medium scale, primarily based on the cost of production, number of employees involved, and size of the venue. Large scale productions include blockbuster **musicals** produced by major performing arts companies or major performing arts venues. The six categorisations of cultural and performing arts activities/events were derived after viewing numerous categorisations of the performing arts from numerous perspectives (e.g., cultural tourism, events, event tourism, arts and performing arts), but are largely based on those for performing arts developed by Arts Victoria (1997a; 1997b; 1997c). While two of the six sub-categories of the cultural events commonly found in cultural tourism typologies and research worldwide namely, 'festivals or fairs'; and 'performing arts or concerts' (e.g, Tourism Victoria, 2004a) are accommodated by this definition of cultural events, the cultural event typology used in this study has intentionally deconstructed the 'performing arts events' category into more specific sub-categories by form to gain a better understanding of tourists' engagement in these experiences. Within each of these cultural event subcategories, some could be further distinguished as **famous** or iconic based upon the fame of the venue, the artists or the production. Whether this is a significant dimension of tourists' attitudes for attending cultural experiences will also be tested in this study.

2.7 Cultural Tourist Motivation and Market Segmentation Research

Cultural tourism has been recognised as a separate product category since the late 1970s (Tighe, 1986), but the study of cultural tourism as a tourism activity, and of the cultural tourism market in particular, is still in its infancy (McKercher, 2002).

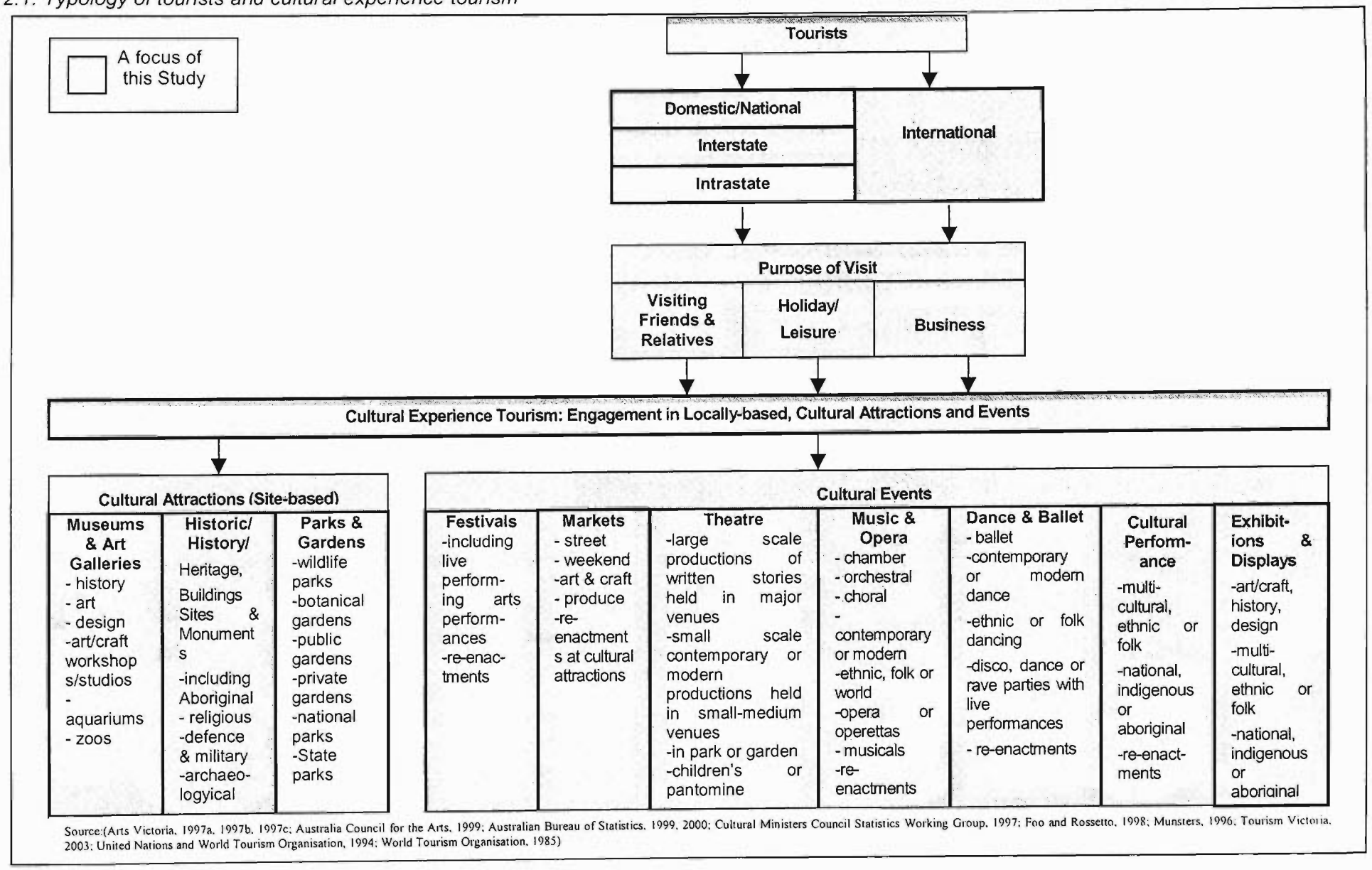
While there is considerable literature on tourism in general, concerning tourism patterns, characteristics, motivations, decision-making processes and influencing factors and sources, very little quantitative research focuses on cultural tourists or cultural event tourists and their motivation, and how this market might best be segmented, either in Australia or elsewhere. Several investigators have called for more quantitative information on cultural tourist attitudinal and behavioural characteristics such as cultural tourism involvement, pursued motivation benefits and expectations (e.g., Alzua et al., 1998). Alzua et al. (1998) further argue a need for identifying these characteristics and patterns so that it can then be assessed whether substantive differences between groups of cultural tourists can be identified that might influence and improve management, marketing and planning. Alzua et al. (1998) claim the field of understanding cultural tourist

behaviour has merely begun. Their research is one of few studies of direct relevance to this proposed research because it is both empirical and conceptual and focuses on multi-dimensional psychographic and behavioural market segmentation of international cultural tourists.

Pioneering work in this area includes segmentation of cultural and heritage international visitors to North America (Prohaska, 1995); a model of different degrees of motivation for cultural tourism based on North American cultural tourists (Silberberg, 1995); and several studies applying benefit segmentation to the cultural tourist market (e.g., Alzua et al., 1998; Frochot, 2004; Tian et al., 1996; Weaver et al., 2002) with some claiming benefits and motivation are related if not substitutes (Alzua et al., 1998; Frochot, 2004). This controversial issue of the relationship between motivation and benefits is further discussed later in this literature review, especially in section 2.11.4.3 Benefits Sought or Gained-based Tourist Motivation and section 2.12.3.2 Benefits and the Motivational Process.

Other cultural tourist market segmentation research has analysed cultural tourists' behaviour and, based on the assumption that different tourism products appeal to different types of tourists, applied activities-based segmentation as a means of segmenting the cultural tourism market (Dolnicar, 2002a; McKercher et al., 2002).

Figure 2.1: Typology of tourists and cultural experience tourism



Source:(Arts Victoria, 1997a, 1997b, 1997c; Australia Council for the Arts, 1999; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1999, 2000; Cultural Ministers Council Statistics Working Group, 1997; Foo and Rossetto, 1998; Munsters, 1996; Tourism Victoria, 2003; United Nations and World Tourism Organisation, 1994; World Tourism Organisation, 1985)

More recent research focuses on cultural tourism as a motivation for visiting and experiencing a destination, using Hong Kong as the destination case study (McKercher, 2002; McKercher and du Cros, 2003). This research develops a cultural tourist typology and segments the cultural tourist market into five discrete segments by two dimensions – centrality of cultural motives in the decision to visit a destination, and depth of experience at the destination.

Similarly in the allied area of cultural heritage tourism, in spite of a surge in demand for heritage tourism, "little is known about tourists' visitation to "types" of heritage attractions and if their travel behavior characteristics are related to their patterns of visitation" (Kerstetter et al., 1998, p.91). This study examined both issues in the context of industrial heritage tourism, and using activities-based segmentation found four "types" or dimensions of industrial heritage attractions and a relationship between these types of heritage attractions and the travel behaviour of individuals who visit them. Earlier research on individuals visiting heritage sites (Masberg and Silverman, 1996), found differences in the experience outcomes of individuals visiting heritage sites. For some the experience was "factual and external," while others recalled outcomes such as "personal learning, social benefits, and aesthetic experiences". These findings show cognisance of the importance of understanding the cultural visitor experiences and behaviour at different types of cultural attraction, often for market segmentation purposes.

Other research of relevance to the cultural experience tourism market motivation and segmentation is in the festival and event tourism motivation and segmentation research, where either the event or festival case study has been culturally-related, or several events have been studied which comprise one or more cultural events. Examples of tourist festival and event motivation research abound and will be discussed in detail in the later section on defining and measuring motives (section 2.12.2.1).

2.8 Understanding Cultural Experience Tourist Motivation and Behaviour

Many variables important to understanding cultural experience tourist motivation and behaviour and their implications for marketing, can be identified from the extensive body of literature and research to date of consumer motivation and behaviour in general, and the more limited application of these theories to the relevant consumer markets of tourists, cultural tourists and performing arts audiences. While the remaining sections of this literature review will discuss in detail the variables and supporting literature of relevance to this study on cultural experience tourist motivation, in summary these variables comprise three broad groupings of tourist and audience characteristics: demographic, psychographic and behavioural. Relevant demographic characteristics include country-of-residence, age, gender, education, income and occupation demographics; and travel trip and travel group characteristics and patterns including length of stay. Attitudinal and psychographic variables found to be of relevance to tourists and other visitors engaging in cultural experiences include attitudes, opinions and interests, values and beliefs, preferences, motives, benefits and expectations pursued. Behavioural variables include cultural experience attendance patterns and

behavioural outcomes of benefits gained, satisfaction, quality evaluation and future intentions. In addition there are influencing factors on the decision-making processes such as timing of the decision to attend, sources of information used, and barriers to attendance.

2.9 Motivation Research

The importance of and reasons for understanding consumer motivations is widely acknowledged in the consumer behaviour literature as well as in the allied literature of specific relevance to this study, namely, motivation and tourists in general, cultural tourists, festival and event audiences, and performing arts audiences. Crompton and McKay (1997), for example, outline three reasons for seeking to understand motives for attendance at festival events which emphasise their importance for marketing purposes and hence their direct relevance to this research. These reasons are: 1) identifying needs is a prerequisite for effectively developing the programs of a festival and marketing them because people do not buy unless products or services satisfy their needs; 2) identifying motives is closely related to satisfaction and a festival manager must better understand the visitors' needs in order to monitor satisfaction; and 3) identifying motives facilitates segmentation of target markets and development of effective promotion for segments. There is considerable ongoing debate, however, about defining, modelling and measuring motivation, and the relationship between motivation and behaviour, which will be considered in the following sections of this literature review.

2.9.1 Motivation and Cultural Tourist Definitions

The importance of the motivations of tourists has been recognised in the ATLAS transnational cultural tourism research project, with the technical/operational definition of cultural tourism expanded to include a conceptual dimension of 'intentions': "The movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs" (Richards, 1996b, p.24; 2001b, p.37). Richards further argues the use of the word 'intent' is to differentiate between the 'culturally motivated' visitor, who makes a conscious, mindful decision to consume culture on holiday, and the 'culturally interested' visitor, who may be almost an accidental cultural tourist (after Bywater, 1993 cited in Richards, 2001b, p.37). While this definition recognises the importance of **motivations** to cultural tourism, it has been criticised by various authors as being difficult to convey the complex nature of such motivations in a definition (e.g., see Richards, 2001b, p.37; Alzua et al., 1998, p.3; Marciszewska cited in Richards, 2001b, p.217).

In contrast to the ATLAS project's incorporation of 'intentions' which Alzua et al., (1998) claim is a complex concept to measure, they recommend incorporating a scale to differentiate the cultural motivations of the tourist, based on Silberberg's (1995) conceptualisation of cultural tourism. For the purposes of their paper, they defined cultural tourism as, 'visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by an interest in the historical, artistic, scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution'. Richards (2001b, p.37)

argues it would be hard to find a tourist who is not interested at least in part in some aspect of the culture of the destination they are visiting.

Other authors stress the study of tourist motivation is of most relevance to the category of tourism described as holiday or pleasure tourism; that is, tourism that is generally non-essential and for pleasure, and results from the needs of the tourists (Sharpley, 1994).

One problem with these definitions of cultural tourist motivations is that they do not accommodate the 'reluctant cultural tourist'. Research of museum goers (Tian et al., 1996), discovered a large proportion (40% of the potential market) whose decision to attend was constrained by a sense of obligation to spouse or friends, or by pressure to go somewhere or to do something. These obligations and pressures potentially defined their museum visit as a chore rather than as a freely chosen delight.

This study aims to investigate particular dimensions of motivation for selected groups of international and interstate tourists who engage in at least one cultural experience while on their current holiday in Melbourne, Australia to ascertain the role and relationships of these dimensions in motivation and whether any cultural differences apply. It will therefore not be as restrictive as the earlier mentioned definitions of cultural tourists which were limited to tourists deemed to be 'culturally motivated' 'wholly or in part' by their interests, intentions or behaviour. Rather than use attendance intentions or behaviour to classify and categorise cultural tourists by degree of motivation, this study will classify and categorise cultural experience tourists by their language group and attendance at one cultural experience (which is both a cultural attraction and a cultural event) and then will investigate the motivation of these tourists in attending this experience as well as their motivation towards engaging in other types of cultural experiences while on holiday. This study will therefore incorporate the 'reluctant cultural tourist' and will focus on tourists who engage in cultural experiences and their motivation for doing so, rather than 'culturally motivated tourists' per se as defined in the above definitions.

In focusing on tourists undertaking one cultural experience and the motivation of these tourists and the role of hedonism in their motivation, this study will also incorporate the attitudinal, experiential and interpretative dimensions of cultural tourism as well as the behavioural approach as has been recommended by several authors (Alzua et al., 1998; Richards, 2001b).

2.9.2 Needs- Versus Values-Based Motivation Theory

At least two opposing theories of motivation are acknowledged in the literature, that is, values-based and needs-based, as will be discussed below. Also discussed is the debate that what have traditionally been considered to be needs might better be conceptualised as values.

Needs-based motivation theory draws on Maslow (1943), Murray (1938), and in a tourism context, on Dann (1977).

Values-based motivation theory draws on Rokeach (1968; 1973) who defines personal values as an ongoing belief that a particular mode of conduct or goal is personally preferable to its opposite. Values also relate to preferences and behaviour (Rokeach, 1973).

There is also evidence in the tourism and leisure motivation literature (Galloway, 1998; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994; Muller, 1991; Pitts and Woodside, 1986; Pizam and Calantone, 1987) as well as in the psychology literature (Homer and Kahle, 1988) that what have traditionally been considered to be needs might better be conceptualised as values. In their value-attitude-behaviour hierarchy, Homer and Kahle (1988) describe a list of nine values: sense of belonging, excitement, fun and enjoyment in life, warm relationships with others, self-fulfilment, being well respected, a sense of accomplishment, security, and self-respect. All of these values can be found as a need in various needs-based accounts of leisure travel motivation and some of them are also found as benefits in tourism benefit segmentation research as will be discussed in Chapter 4, Research Method, section 4.2.3 Benefit Construct Dimensions.

In the leisure travel motivation literature, motives conceptualised as values are evident. Pizam and Calantone (1987) propose using values as determinants of tourist behaviour until a reliable general measure of psychographics to describe consumer life-styles is available. Pitts and Woodside (1986) look at personal values and travel decisions. Muller (1991) uses personal values to define segments in an international tourism market. Madrigal and Kahle (1994) use a value-system segmentation to predict vacation activity preferences. Galloway (1998), recommends motives and motivations be conceptualised as values or 'incentive causes of behaviour' which he categorises as pull factors, rather than needs (which are push factors) (p. 102). Furthermore, values conceptualised as beliefs about external states of affairs, are not like needs where the only evidence for them is in the behaviour they are supposed to cause (Galloway, 1998, p.102)

Acknowledging at least two opposing theories of motivation, that is, values-based and needs-based, several authors argue a complete account of motives of behaviour requires that the true needs underlying values must be characterised (Galloway, 1998, 2002; Zuckerman, 1990). Zuckerman's (1990) research focuses on the psychophysiological basis of a sensation seeking market segment.

Consumer behaviour literature emphasises that needs and motivations are interrelated (Witt and Wright, 1992). In particular, the existence of 'needs' generates 'motivations'. Reference to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) is common in tourism related motivation research as will be discussed later in this literature review.

2.9.3 Benefits Sought/Pursued and Motivation

From the outset in 1961, benefits sought research was used by a number of America's largest corporations as a superior approach to market segmentation with the strength being that it relied on

causal factors than descriptive factors and therefore was a good predictor of future consumer behaviour (Haley, 1961 cited in Haley, 1971). Initially, it was undertaken as experimental research based on attitudes toward brands within a product category, but by 1971 it is described as consumer value and perception based (Haley, 1971).

Benefits sought or pursued as a measure of motivation and a segmentation basis, has been applied to many other markets and studies particularly from the 1980s onwards, but its greatest attention and application has been in the fields of travel, tourism, leisure and recreation as will be discussed in the next section on tourist motivation and the later section on benefits and the motivational process (2.12.3.2).

2.9.4 Tourist Motivation Research

Tourist motivation studies embody an amalgam of ideas and approaches, constituting what could be referred to as a "fuzzy set" of definitions and descriptions (Cohen, 1974, p.528). Cohen's criticism of definitions, concepts and descriptions, was based on clarifying, 'who is a tourist?', whereas the conceptual clarification almost thirty years on, continues to relate to clarifying 'why do people travel?' and 'why do tourists participate in particular activities while travelling for pleasure purposes?'. In the early 1970s, Lundberg first posed this basic question and lamented the paucity of research on tourist motivation (Lundberg, 1971, 1972). Almost a decade later, Dann (1981) called for conceptual clarification about tourist motivation and its implications for research. In his appraisal of tourist motivation literature, explanation for lack of consensus over definition is attributed to a multi-disciplinarity of treatment and plurality of theoretical perspective within a given discipline. There is consensus, however, that a grasp of "motivation" tells us "why" an individual or group have behaved or are about to perform an action (Dann, 1981, p.202).

More than 30 years later, the tourism, travel, leisure and event tourism literature is replete with articles explaining why people travel or why tourists participate in particular activities, and to understand why people do these things, tourist motivations have been studied. A summary of the earliest studies of tourist motivation and reviews of tourist motivation literature is provided in Table 2.8.

The aim of this section is to identify the application of consumer motivation to the field of tourist motivation and review what theoretical approaches and procedures have been used. The relevant literature examined is from tourist motivation in the first instance, then comparisons are made with the relevant theories identified from consumer motivation literature.

Through a review of the relevant literature, numerous theoretical approaches to tourist motivation can be identified. At least three different approaches are identified in Table 2.8: social psychological theories (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982), push and pull theories (Dann, 1981) and expectancy theories (Witt and Wright, 1992).

Table 2.8: A summary of the earliest studies of tourist motivation and reviews of tourist motivation literature

Author	Major tourist motivation issue addressed	Research Type
(Lundberg, 1971)	Used 18 motivational statements including educational, cultural, relaxation, pleasure, ethnic, and sociological motives.	Empirical
(Cohen, 1974)	Clarification of who is a tourist and inclusion of motivational typologies based on different tourist roles	Conceptual
(Cohen, 1979)	Describes tourism as spanning a "range of motivations" from the sphere of leisure to religion	Conceptual
(Crompton, 1979)	Identified 9 motives for pleasure travel: 7 of which are classified as 'social psychological' and two as 'cultural' (novelty and education)	Exploratory/Empirical
(Dann, 1981)	Appraisal of tourism motivation literature and research methods. includes push and pull factors as a basis for tourist motivations.	Conceptual/Review
(Iso-Ahola, 1982)	Rejoinder to Dann's (1981) survey of literature on tourism motivation including a social psychological model of tourism motivation	Conceptual
(Witt & Wright, 1992)	Review of content theories of motivation and expectancy theories of motivation and the application of the latter to explain tourist motivation	Conceptual/Review

The tourist motivation literature overall, reveals four main approaches (Table 2.9), each of these being based upon earlier motivation theories from other consumer behaviour literature as summarised in Table 2.10. At least two, are seemingly opposing theories of motivation: needs-based - largely based on the work of Maslow (1943); or values-based – largely based on the work of Rokeach (1968), although some studies refer to both (e.g., Mueller, 1991). Others believe expectancy theory from work motivation is an appropriate framework for understanding tourist motivation (e.g., Witt and Wright 1992). Benefits sought or realised are also often used as measures for inferring motivation in travel motivation research (Frochot and Morrison, 2000; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983) and sometimes are linked with needs and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory (e.g., Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983).

Table 2.9: A summary of key studies in the tourist motivation literature

Author	Major consumer motivation issue addressed	Research Type
Needs-Based		
(Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983)	Inferred travel motivation from travelers' actual experiences which were coded in classification of travel motivation based on Maslow's analysis of needs. Results indicated that positive and negative tourist experiences highlighted different need structures	Empirical
Values-Based		
(Madrigal, 1995)	Personal values, traveller personality type and leisure travel style based on LOV and Plog's personality type	Empirical
(Skidmore and Pyszka, 1987)	Segmentation of the US international pleasure travel market based on VALS	Empirical

Benefits Sought or Realised		
(Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983)	Combined Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (see above) and benefits realised	Empirical
(Driver, Brown, & Peterson, 1991b)	Identified five generally recognized categories of experiential benefits in leisure research: psychological, sociological, psycho-physiological, economic, and environmental	Conceptual
(Frochot & Morrison, 2000)	A review of benefit segmentation to tourism research identifying four types of applications: destination marketing, targeting specific markets, attractions/events/ facilities, and traveller decision making processes; general characteristics, challenges, issues, advantages and disadvantages	Conceptual/ Review
Expectancy Theory-Based		
(Witt & Wright, 1992)	Apply expectancy theory to a model of holiday preference and choice	Conceptual

These four approaches to tourist motivation will be discussed in this section with comparisons of their use in other marketing literature. Some of their advantages, disadvantages, problems, issues and challenges are included in this discussion. Additional approaches that have been used in tourist motivation research and other approaches of possible relevance to tourist motivation are then briefly considered. From this review of various approaches, recommendations for future tourist and consumer motivation research will be made.

Table 2.10: A summary of key consumer motivation theories and studies of relevance to the tourist motivation studies

Author	Major consumer motivation issue addressed	Research Type
Needs-Based		
(Maslow, 1943)	Hierarchy of needs	Conceptual
(Murray, 1938)	Classification of needs	Conceptual
(McClelland, 1965; 1955)	Trio of basic needs/McClelland's theory of learned needs: needs for power, affiliation and achievement	Conceptual/ Empirical
Values-Based		
(Rokeach, 1968, 1973)	Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) consisting of 18 personal values and 18 social values	Conceptual/ Empirical
(Mitchell, 1983)	Values and Lifestyles (VALS)	Conceptual/ Empirical
(Kahle and Kennedy, 1989)	List of Values (LOV)	Conceptual/ Empirical
Benefits Sought or Realised		
(Haley, 1968)	Benefits sought by toothpaste market, measured by consumer value systems and consumer perceptions about various brands in product category of interest	Conceptual/ Empirical
Expectancy Theory-Based		
(Vroom, 1964)	Expectancy theory in relation to work and motivation	Conceptual/ Empirical
(Deci, 1985)	Refined and expanded expectancy theory in relation to motivation	Conceptual/ Empirical

2.9.4.1 Needs-Based Tourist Motivation

That the concepts of satisfying needs or desires and the equilibrium that results from meeting needs are fundamental to most theories of motivation, is widely stated in the tourist motivation literature. The study of motivation has traditionally been concerned with the needs and desires of the individual (Sharpley, 1994). A guiding assumption for the study of tourist motivation has therefore been that, "in order to understand human motivation it is necessary to discover what needs people have and how they can be fulfilled" (Witt and Wright, 1992, p.34). Shoemaker (1994) claims there is an implicit assumption in all tourist motivation studies, that the consumer will choose the destination or type of holiday or vacation that will best satisfy his/her desires or needs. Yuan and McDonald (1990) restate Crompton's (1979) concept of equilibrium that results when no discrepancy exists between the preferred behaviour and actual behaviour. Simply stated, "equilibrium exists to the extent that physical, social, and psychological needs are met. Pleasure travel is assumed to be goal-directed, aimed at satisfying these unmet needs" (p. 42). This concept of equilibrium is inherent in most theories of motivation (Yuan and McDonald, 1990).

Maslow's (1943) hierarchical needs theory, although developed in the field of clinical psychology has become widely influential as the best-known general theory of motivation and has been applied to explain motivation in many social disciplines, and areas such as business, marketing and tourism. Murray's classification of human needs (1938) is an extensive list of physiological and psychological needs that stimulated research into specific needs such as the needs for achievement, affiliation and power (e.g., McClelland, 1955, 1965).

Needs-based motivation theories have been criticised in the tourism and other consumer motivation literature. While they have been acknowledged as useful for drawing attention to the wide variety of different needs that can motivate human behaviour (e.g., Witt and Wright, 1992), predicting the effects of motivation on behaviour requires more than an understanding of human needs, because, "a knowledge of people's needs will not necessarily tell us what they will actually do to fulfil such needs, or indeed whether they will do anything at all" (p.44).

Specific criticisms of Maslow's hierarchy theory include its acknowledged strength of being sufficiently generic to cover most lists of human needs, therefore the concepts are too general (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997). Whether needs conform with Maslow's proposed prepotency hierarchy has been questioned (Mowen and Minor, 1998) and even Maslow questioned the hierarchy upon which his theory is based (1943). Another hierarchy-related criticism is that it cannot be tested empirically as there is no way to measure precisely how satisfied one need is before the next higher need becomes operative (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997). Furthermore, Maslow's theory does not take into account heroic and altruistic behaviour as other theories can do (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997), nor incorporates other important needs such as dominance, abasement, play, and aggression (Witt & Wright, 1992) that are included in Murray's classification (1938).

Despite these criticisms, Maslow's hierarchy is considered a useful tool for understanding consumer motivations, developing marketing strategy, appropriate advertising appeals and as the basis for market segmentation and product positioning because consumer goods often serve to satisfy each of the need levels (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997). Maslow's need hierarchy has been called an 'emotional trigger' that enables marketers to communicate with their target audiences on a personal, meaningful level that goes beyond product benefits (Schrocer, 1991).

Witt and Wright (1992) conclude that, "the study of needs can at best only provide a partial explanation of motivated behaviour" (p.44). In particular, the way in which an individual's needs may be translated into motivated behaviour is necessary when researching tourist motivation and other such factors must be taken into consideration if the explanation of tourist motivation is to be of use in predicting behaviour (Sharpley, 1994).

2.9.4.2 Values-based Tourist Motivation

Psychologists believe that a person's standard behaviour is influenced by their values (cited in Pizam and Calantone, 1987). A value is, "a class of beliefs shared by the members of a society, or sub-society, concerning what is desirable or 'good' or what ought to be, and what is undesirable or 'bad'" (Pizam and Calantone, 1987, p.178).

Although abstract in nature, valid and reliable measures for personal values have been developed. One of the most commonly used of these measures is the Rokeach Value Survey (1968), consisting of 18 instrumental values (ideal modes of behaviour) and 18 terminal values (ideal end-states of existence) (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994). Despite the widespread use of the RVS predominantly in the North American context, two other measures were developed in response to criticisms of the RVS: the Values and Lifestyles (VALS) (Mitchell, 1983) and the List of Values (LOV) (Kahle and Kennedy, 1989). The LOV scale is an abbreviated version of Rokeach's personal value scale but is also based on Feather's (1975) the work on values and Maslow's (1954) study of motivation and personality (Kahle, 1986).

In a comparative study of VALS and LOV, mixed support is indicated for both of these measures (Novak and MacEvoy, 1990). More contemporary literature indicates that the LOV is now used more frequently than VALS due to its superiority in relation to its reliability and validity (Daghfous et al., 1999) and its parsimony (Madrigal, 1995; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994). An acknowledged feature of the VALS typology, is its foundation in social value rather than personal value, which is useful in developing and implementing advertising messages serving the intrinsic motivations of the target market (Ekinci and Chen, 2002).

There has been considerable research undertaken in relation to the impact of personal values on tourist motivation and consumption behaviour including travel behaviour (Pizam and Calantone, 1987), travel decisions (Pitts and Woodside, 1986), vacation activity preferences (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994), and vacation motives (Thrane, 1997).

There is similarity between values and interests, attitudes, beliefs, and opinions as all are predispositions to behaviours and members of a tight social group respond to them in a similar evaluative way (Pizam and Calantone, 1987, p.178). Their differences reside in their degree of relative inclusiveness and specificity, with values on the top of the hierarchy, being the most inclusive and the least specific (Pizam and Calantone, 1987, p.178). Their experimental study found that travel behaviour is significantly associated with a person's general values and vacation-specific values. The latter were measured by their newly developed vacation values scale, with the experimental study evidence suggesting that it is a good predicator of travel behaviour (Pizam and Calantone, 1987, p.180).

Personal values have been used extensively in consumer behaviour literature for market segmentation purposes (Ekinci and Chen, 2002), as they are "determinants of attitudes and behaviour and hence provide a stable and inner-oriented understanding of consumers" (Kamakura and Novak, 1992, p.119). They have also been used for tourist market segmentation purposes. Pitts and Woodside (1986) used personal values based on the RVS to identify travel/leisure "benefit segments", Skidmore and Pyszka (1987) used VALS to segment the US international pleasure travel market, Madrigal and Kahle (1994) used LOV value-system segmentation to predict vacation activity preferences, Ekinci and Chen (2002) used LOV in an attempt to detect segments in British holidaymakers to Turkey. Value systems such as RVS, VALS and LOV are preferred to single values for predicting behaviour and identifying segments (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994).

2.9.4.3 Benefits Sought or Gained-Based Tourist Motivation

One reason for the great attention and application of benefit segmentation in the fields of tourism, travel, leisure and recreation, is its association with travelers' motivations which have always been portrayed as a critical variable in the tourist decision making process (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Lundberg, 1971). That there is a widely held belief of some association between tourists' motivations and benefits sought, has been acknowledged (Frochot and Morrison, 2000), but the exact link is still to be tested and proven. Frochot and Morrison (2000) claim Lundberg's (1971) tourist motivation research is an example based on benefits even though they are not directly called 'benefits' in the study.

Benefit segmentation has been noted as being better at predicting and explaining behaviour than other measures which merely describe it, such as personality and lifestyles, volumetric, demographic, or geographical measures (Loker and Perdue, 1992, p.30, based on Haley, 1968).

In a recent review of its application to tourism research (Frochot and Morrison, 2000), three types of applications are identified: attribute-based (e.g., using a destination's or tourism services' attributes or features as the benefits); psychologically-based (e.g., "grouping customers on the basis of the importance they attach to a combination of sensory, rational and emotional benefits expected from the product or service" Lewis, 1981, p.43); or a combination of both. Another typology identifies two contrasting operationalisations of benefits emerging in the tourism literature (Tian et al., 1996):

before the 1980s, benefits were almost exclusively defined in terms of visitors' ratings of desired amenities and activities (e.g., Crompton, 1979), since the1980s some researchers conceptualise the tangible attributes as being merely conduits that have the potential to facilitate desired experiential and psychological benefit outcomes (e.g., Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983). By 1991, five categories of experiential benefits are generally recognized: psychological, sociological, psycho-physiological, economic, and environmental (Driver et al., 1991a).

Pearce and Caltabiano's (1983) research emphasises a strong association between travel motivation, benefits realised, and consumer needs. They noted that previous, "research concerning travel motivation has frequently assumed that tourists are able and willing to articulate their travel needs." (p.16). They argue that influences about travel motivation inferred from tourists' actual experiences may provide fresh insights and their results indicated that positive and negative tourist experiences were not the inverse of one another but rather highlighted different need structures.

One issue in tourism benefit segmentation research is the timing of the collection of benefit statement ratings with some based on benefits sought (i.e., prior to visitor departure) and others on benefits realised (i.e., after trip is completed or based on past trip). Examples of the former include Crompton (1979) and Crask (1981) on primary motivation for vacation travel, Gitelson and Kerstetter's (1990) investigation of the relationship between socio-demographic variables, benefits sought and subsequent vacation behaviour, and more recently, Jang et al., (2002) in their benefit segmentation of the Japanese pleasure travel market. Examples of benefits realised research are Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) who infer travel motivations from actual travel experiences, Woodside and Jacobs (1985) who study benefits realised by major travel market, and Shoemaker (1994) who segments the US travel market by benefits realised.

In terms of tourism benefit research areas of interest, while there has been a lot of research about festival and event motivation, not much to date has been specifically benefit-related nor has benefit research been greatly applied to specific market segments such as ecotourism, adventure tourism, or cultural tourism nor to specific nationalities (Frochot and Morrison, 2000). This study aims to make a contribution to several of these neglected areas of tourism motivation and tourism benefit research. Its focus on motivation by selected markets of international and interstate tourists to attend cultural attractions and events will contribute to the understanding of motivation in relation to these types of experiences for these specific cultural groups and to the possibility of identifying specific market segments within these markets.

Benefits are a particularly fuzzy area of tourism research with many different variables being used as measures of benefits and the benefits themselves sometimes being considered a measure of motivation or motives (e.g., Moscardo et al., 1996). In tourist segmentation studies, benefits are often one of the variables included but whether they are used as the differentiating variable or as a describing characteristic varies. Hence the exact link between tourists' benefits and motivations is

still to be tested and proven and this study aims to make some contribution to this other neglected area of tourism motivation and tourism benefit research. Further consideration of the association between motivation and benefits from the benefits research literature will be considered in Section 2.13.3 as well as what benefit variables are relevant to cultural experiences and how these benefits should be used in this study's research of cultural experience tourist motivation.

2.9.4.4 Expectancy Theory-based Tourist Motivation

Predicting the effects of motivation on behaviour also requires an understanding of the processes whereby needs are transformed into motivated behaviour and, in particular, of the way people's expectations give motivated behaviour its direction (Witt and Wright, 1992). Needs-based theory of motivation is largely based on a content theory of motivation and ignores more recent development in motivation theory such as work motivation theory, expectancy theory or VIE (valence-instrumentality-expectancy) theory (e.g., Vroom, 1964 and refined and expanded by Deci, 1985).

Vroom (1964) applied expectancy theory to the context of work motivation and put forward two equations the first of which has been used to explain or predict occupational preference and job satisfaction, the second being to explain or predict occupational choice, remaining in a job and job effort. Expectancy theory, through the concepts of valence (attractiveness), instrumentality (for achieving other outcomes) and expectancy expresses the idea that motivation is a function of the attractiveness of the outcome and the expectancy of achieving that outcome.

Witt and Wright (1992) suggest at the theoretical level expectancy theory enables many of the existing concepts in the study of tourist motivation to be incorporated within a single theoretical framework: need theories such as Maslow and Murray; emotional aspects of tourist motivation – the needs which instigate the desire to travel in the first place – with the cognitive aspect – the decision making involved in choosing whether to go on holiday and, if so, where. They further claim that occupational (or holiday) preference and occupation (or holiday) choice seem to have the greatest relevance to tourist motivation.

Witt and Wright (1992) propose an expectancy model of holiday preference and choice, which incorporates needs, attractiveness (valence) of holiday attributes, relative preference of different holidays, and the influencing factors of knowledge of holiday destination characteristics; limiting factors such as cost, others' preferences, expectations, and instrumentality of holidays for providing attributes. All of these will be further influenced by a variety of sources including brochures, guide books and other people's experience, and also by the individual's own experience of previous holidays of the same or a similar type; hence the feedback loops built into the model. All of these also result in a theoretical choice of holiday which acknowledges the importance of both push and pull factors.

Witt and Wright's expectancy theory of tourist motivation emphasises the relationship between motivation, preference and choice. It is fundamentally a needs-based model than a values-based model of tourist motivation that then looks at attractiveness, instrumentality and

expectations of outcomes as well as the influencing factors of knowledge of tourist product characteristics and other limiting factors (barriers or constraints). Gnoth (1997) takes an alternative view to motivation and expectation formation, the operationalisation of which he bases on both the behaviourist notion of drive reduction and the cognitivist constructs of attitudes and values.

A limitation of the expectancy theory and model, is that the complexity of expectancy theory makes it difficult to use the model to predict individual behaviour (Witt and Wright, 1992), and difficult to measure because there are so many variables. This complicated method of analysing motivation, serves to highlight that tourist motivation is, itself, a complex subject (Sharpley, 1994).

2.9.4.5 Tourist Motivation Summary

The foregoing review of key approaches and some associated measures of consumer motivation research used in the field of tourism has highlighted some of the key characteristics and advantages that have emerged over more than forty years of use. In addition, this review has uncovered several issues, problems and potential disadvantages of the various approaches as summarised in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11: Characteristics, issues, potential advantages and disadvantages of consumer motivation approaches, measures and features

Consumer Motivation Approach, Measure or Feature	Characteristics and Potential Advantages	Issues and Potential Disadvantages
Needs-Based Motivation Theories		
Understanding and prediction of buying behaviour	Demonstrates a wide variety of needs can motivate human behaviour	Predicting the effects of motivation on behaviour requires more than an understanding of needs
Definition of needs	Predominately based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943)	
Measurability	No general measures of needs have been developed. Easier to measure physiological needs.	Difficult to develop general measures of psychographic needs
Use for market segmentation	Used extensively but usually in combination with other method such as benefit segmentation	A valid measure of psychographics for the purpose of market segmentation has yet to be developed
Application to tourism context	Many tourism motivation and segmentation studies are needs-based	
Links with other motivation theories	Often combined with benefit segmentation and has been incorporated in Witt & Wright's (1992) expectancy model for tourist motivation	
Values-Based Motivation Theories		
Understanding and prediction of buying behaviour	Effective predictors of behaviour as central to individual's cognitive structure and therefore more closely related to motivations than demographic or psychographic variables	Considered to be a valid measure of tourist behaviour until a valid measure of psychographics is developed
Definition of values	Heavily based on Rokeach's Value Scale (1973)	Value systems are considered considered more reliable and effective measures than single values
Measurability	Although an abstract concept, several	LOV & VALS have been

	reliable and valid measures have been developed including RVS; LOV & VALS	developed in response to criticisms of RVS and at present, LOV is more frequently used than VALS
Use for market segmentation	Usually used as the primary segmentation criterion	
Application to tourism context	Many tourism motivation and segmentation studies are values-based	
Links with other motivation theories	Not specifically included in expectancy theory nor linked with any of the other motivation theories other than some value scales acknowledge Maslow's (1948) needs theory	
Expectancy Theory		
Understanding and prediction of buying behaviour	Considered a superior tool for understanding behaviour especially the factors that determine consumer preferences and choice	Complexity limits ability to predict individual behaviour in any precise way
Definition	Developed by Vroom (1964) for understanding work motivation based on people's valences, instrumentalities and expectancies	
Measurability	Could be relevant for measuring consumer satisfaction	Extremely complex with two formulas identified by Vroom (1964)
Use for market segmentation	Not used	Not suitable for this purpose
Application to tourism context	Well suited as a conceptual framework for tourist motivation for holiday preference and choice	Has not been applied empirically in any tourism studies
Links with other motivation theories	Can include most other relevant concepts especially drives, needs, attitudes, values and preferences	
Benefit Segmentation		
Understanding and prediction of buying behaviour	Considered superior to traditional segmentation techniques such as geographic, demographic, and volume-based because it is based on causal than descriptive factors	Its superiority over newer techniques such as psychographic and lifestyle segmentation is still to be tested and proven.
Definition of benefits	Original articles used attributes, consumer value systems and brand perceptions.	Often no precise definitions of benefits are provided. Various measures have been used and three possibilities exist: attribute-based, psychologically-based or combination of both.
Measurability of benefits	Many previous studies have been undertaken from which the most commonly used benefit statements can be identified and most are psychologically based.	List of benefit statements developed so far is often modified to suit the particular situation.
Use for market segmentation	Extensively used for segmentation, predominately using a two-step process of factor analysis followed by cluster analysis	Either factor or cluster analysis on their own or together have been used and there is no consensus on the one best method or the best technique to use within each method
Application to tourism context	Extensive since 1980s and still being used in 2000s	Some use benefits sought, others benefits realised, some benefits are needs-based, many use travel-related psychographic questions
Links with other motivation theories	Often include needs-based benefits	

Source: Adapted from Frochot and Morrison's (2000) review of benefit segmentation

Two main marketing applications and purposes of consumer and tourist motivation theories and research have been identified in this literature review to date, i) understanding why consumers behave as they actually do, seek or intend to, in order to predict future buying behaviour, and ii) as bases for market segmentation of tourist markets which is primarily undertaken for the further purpose of enabling the development of more efficient and effective tourism marketing especially communication, promotional strategies, advertising campaigns and product positioning.

While there is clarity about what consumer motivation is, this being an understanding of why people behave as they do, and consensus about its continuing significance in the consumer decision-making process and relevance to marketing practices, to date there is no single standard or consensus about the best way to understand or measure consumer or tourist motivation. Rather, several widely used approaches and procedures have emerged, but some 'fuzziness' between them is still in evidence.

The implications for future research of consumer motivation in a tourism context, are that for the time being, all four approaches are of continuing relevance and there is a considerable body of knowledge to underpin the proposed use of any one or combination. In particular, human needs, values, benefits and expectations have been considered useful for understanding consumer motivations, developing marketing strategy, appropriate advertising appeals and as the basis for market segmentation and product positioning. Some argue that motivation is a purely psychological concept, not a sociological one (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Others argue that in the case of tourism, motivation often results from societal values, norms and pressures that are internalised and become psychological needs. Specific needs can be grouped together under general headings such as escape, or avoidance motivations which Sharpley (1994) argues are, "undoubtedly, rooted in society" (p.102). Overall tourism demand, however, results from the needs and motivations of individual tourists who, together, comprise the market for tourism and so a micro, social action perspective is therefore of greater value to the study of tourist motivation (Dann, 1981; Sharpley, 1994).

In addition to these four main approaches to consumer and tourist motivation, other motivation approaches of particular relevance to cultural experience tourist motivation, and related concepts and factors, have also been identified as will be discussed in the next section.

2.9.5 Other Approaches to Tourist Motivation

These other approaches, concepts and factors identified in the literature as relevant to tourist motivation include push and pull factors referred to in the previous discussion (e.g., Witt and Wright); and intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Holbrook, 1986). Several other motivation approaches and factors are discussed because of their relevance to tourist motivation in general and in particular to the consumption of experiential products and services such as cultural experiences which is the tourist motivation context of specific interest to this study. These cultural experience-related motivation approaches and factors are emotions (e.g., Gnoth, 1997); the consumer

motivation theory of motivation for hedonic experiences (Mowen and Minor, 1998), and the hedonic tourism motivation model (Goossens, 2000). As will be seen in the following sections discussing each of these, many of these motivation-related approaches and factors are interrelated suggesting that motivation might be better considered as a process of interrelated multi-dimensional constructs than a single construct.

2.9.5.1 Push and Pull Factors and Tourist Motivation

The push-pull framework is considered by some as a useful approach for examining the motivations underlying tourist and visitation behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Kim et al., 2003). Traditionally, push motives have come from the tourists themselves and have been socio-psychological motives used for explaining the desire to go on a vacation, while pull motives have been aroused by the destination and have been used to explain the choice of destination.

Crompton (1979) identified nine motives for travel: seven of which were socio-psychological or push motives and two cultural pull motives being novelty and education. In this framework, push factors refer to the specific forces that influence a person's decision to take a vacation, while pull factors refer to the forces that influence the person's decision of which specific destination should be selected (cited in Kim et al., 2003, p.170). This theory emphasises two stages in a decision to travel, push factors occur first and are those that make you want to travel, pull factors affect where you travel, given the initial desire to travel.

Consideration of push and pull factors to enable a full understanding of tourists' motivation to travel is supported by various authors. Motives enable an understanding of the propensity of travel, (Andersen et al., 2000), but this is only a partial explanation of why tourists visit a particular destination or attraction. Pull factors relating to the destination or attraction also need to be considered to fully understand this process, (Andersen et al., 2000). Similarly 'reasons for visit' are sometimes used as a method of operationalising measurement of motivation or motives (e.g., Tian et al., 1996). While 'reasons for visit' usually include some internal psychological motives, they also often include some pull factors relating to the specific destination or attraction.

Goossens (2000) describes push and pull factors of tourist behaviour as, "two sides of the same motivational coin" (p. 302). He further posits that the psychological concept, emotion, connects both sides; with consumers, and in particular tourists, pushed by their (emotional) needs and pulled by the (emotional) benefits of leisure services and destinations. Consequently, he claims that emotional and experiential needs are relevant in pleasure-seeking and choice behaviour. This theory emphasises a directional relationship between needs, benefits and motivation, with needs functioning as a pushing motivation and benefits functioning as a pulling motivation.

Some argue that the motivation to travel can only relate to push factors (e.g., Witt and Wright, 1992), others see push factors in terms of needs (e.g., Pearce, 1982).

2.9.5.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation with Tourist Motivation Implications

Motivation to engage in activities can further be because of their intrinsic value (i.e., for their own sake rather than as a means to an end) or for their extrinsic value (i.e., as a means to an end) (Holbrook, 1986).

This motivation distinction could be of relevance to aesthetic and performing arts cultural consumption with the criteria for successful consumption being analogous to the appreciation of a work of "art" (versus a "craft") being as a thing in itself, without regard to its functional utility (Becker, 1978). Similarly in the experiential view of consumption (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982), the consequences of consumption or the output variables are the enjoyment that the product offers and the resulting feeling of pleasure that it evokes (Klinger, 1971). The criteria for successful consumption are essentially aesthetic in nature and hinge on an appreciation of the product for its own sake, apart from any utilitarian function that it may or may not perform (McGregor, 1974). Conceptually, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) further suggest that the relative salience of evaluative criteria in the experiential view of consumption depends in part on the individual's personality and their response to earlier steps of task definition, type of involvement, search activity in the information processing model. For example, where the consumption task is defined as the pursuit of hedonic response, aesthetic criteria associated with play mentality would be likely to apply. They further note that consumer researchers have devoted little attention to the underlying determinants of fun and playful activities even though it appears that consumers spend many of their waking hours engaged in events that can be explained on no other grounds. They call for a better understanding of such standards as a vital link in the further development of the experiential view.

Holbrook studied the role of certain personality variables and gender in affect toward clothing design features, including a person's tendency to engage in a variety of activities for intrinsic or extrinsic reasons (1986). A major finding was that in general, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation appeared to have a significant but weak influence on affect.

Another common approach to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, is that the former results from influences internal to the individual such as their needs, desires and other such psychological motives, whereas the latter results from influences external to the individual such as a wide variety of different forces and pressures emanating from an individual's social and cultural environment which may, to a lesser or greater extent, influence their internal motivations (e.g., Sharpley, 1994).

Therefore, while it has been argued that motivation is a purely psychological concept, and not a sociological one (e.g., Iso-Ahola, 1982), many authors acknowledge that individual motivation is influenced by the external environment (e.g., Sharpley, 1994). Sharpley recommends a micro, social action perspective be adopted in the study of tourist motivation as overall tourism demand results from the motivation of individual tourists who together comprise the market for tourism (1994).

Another approach to motive structure, acknowledges that they can be physiological as well as psychological, and even sociological. Many propose that tourism is primarily a social psychological experience (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987). What matters are the individual's cognitions and feelings about the experience being undertaken (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991). Motivation for hedonic experiences are considered to have some physiological dimensions and some psychological dimensions (Mowen & Minor, 1998). Sociologically, motives always occur within a given environment, and it is this environment as well as the individual's values and attitudes that shape and form the specific response to a need (after Gnoth, 1999).

This study acknowledges the intrinsic and extrinsic approach to motivation and the implications of the underlying dimensions of motivation being comprised of some that are psychologically-based, others that are physiologically-based, sociologically-based, and combinations of all three. Consequently, this study will test these different types of dimensions for cultural experience tourist motivation.

2.9.5.3 Seeking and Escaping Framework for Tourist Motivation Dimensions

Another general theory of tourist motivation is the dichotomous seeking/escaping framework developed by Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987). Further tested by Uysal et al.(1993) in an event motivation context, in this framework two dimensions operate simultaneously to bring about tourist behaviour: the desire for change from one's daily routine (escape), and the desire to obtain intrinsic personal rewards and interpersonal rewards through travelling into a contrasting environment (seeking). Krippendorf (1987) shares a similar view of motives having two main dimensions: motives to escape; and motives to where the journey leads, that is going towards something or somebody; adding that the former can be considered negative motives, and the latter, positive motives associated with experiencing something (Krippendorf, 1987).

The seeking/escaping framework can also be considered as related to the push/pull motivational theory (Uysal et al., 1993). It is considered particularly relevant for testing in this study and will be further discussed later in this chapter and in the conceptual framework for this study presented in Chapter 3.

2.9.5.4 Hedonic Emotions and Tourist Motivation

Emotions are an intrinsic, experiential feeling that is an important influence on tourist motivation.

That the motivation concept is complex from both a cognitive and an emotional viewpoint, has been stressed by Gnoth (1997). Cognitions refer to mental representations such as knowledge or beliefs. Emotions on the other hand, encompass drives, feelings, and instincts. Gnoth (1997) argued, for instance, that emotions are particularly important in holiday tourism, since it is a pleasure-seeking activity. Goossens (2000) recommends a tourism motivation model therefore should acknowledge and operationalise emotional influences in its formation processes. Krippendorf (1987) conceptually identifies another type of tourism motives: 'egoistic motives'. He proposes that these can predominate, especially since the seventies when there has been a

marked shift towards active holidays and having fun, enjoying oneself, experiencing happiness, having a good time, and play have become more important as have other more active motives. This motive category as described by Krippendorf,, could be strongly associated with hedonism, hedonic emotions, and referred to as hedonic motives, although such dimensions of motives have rarely been described this way in the tourism or event motivation literature to date.

Relating to the discussion in the previous section of push and pull factors and their relationship with motivation and emotions, one way of acknowledging and operationalising emotional influences on tourism motivation is to incorporate research of emotional needs that are pushing tourist motivations as well as emotional benefits that are pulling tourists to be motivated towards particular tourism activities, services and destinations (Goossens, 2000). Goossens (2000) further recommends hedonic responses are another form of emotional influences that are fundamental to tourist motivation as evidenced by entitling his conceptual model for tourist motivation, the hedonic tourism motivation model. This model will be further discussed in Section 2.9.6.

2.9.6 Other Theories of Consumer Motivation of Possible Relevance to Cultural Experience Tourist Motivation

Another trend in consumer research over the past 20 years has been moving away from developing broad theories of motivation such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) and McClelland's social needs (1955, 1965) toward creating more restricted midrange theories that explain narrower facets of human behaviour (Mowen & Minor, 1998). They identify six midrange theories of motivation that are supported by research and so are considered to have higher validity than others. These motivation theories are categorised as midrange at different points on a continuum ranging from more physiologically based theories to more cognitively based theories. One of these, motivation for hedonic experiences (e.g., Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982), could be considered particularly relevant to cultural experience tourist motivation because cultural attractions and events are examples of products that are intrinsically more emotionally involving than packaged goods (Mowen and Minor, 1998), and therefore attendance could be motivated by desires to experience emotion. In Mowen and Minor's (1998) continuum, affective-based motivation for hedonic experiences theory is considered to be midrange, being part physiologically-based and part cognitively-based.

One purpose of this study will be to investigate the role of this underlying hedonic emotion dimension within the cultural experience tourist motivational process and examine whether it varies for different cultures.

2.9.6.1 Hedonic Consumer Motivation Theory and the Hedonic Tourism Motivation Model

In particular, hedonic consumption research has focused on desires to experience emotion and leisure activities and both of these desires could be directly tourism-related. With hedonic relevance coming from the product's symbolic value and the emotion it is anticipated to elicit in the

consumer (Mowen and Minor, 1998), hedonic consumption research has focused on products that are intrinsically more emotionally involving than packaged goods, examples being movies, rock concerts, theatre, dance, pornography, and sporting events. Many of these products are cultural experience-related and could also be tourism-related which are two contexts of specific interest to this research. Cultural offerings satisfy consumer wants in the hedonic or aesthetic realm (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Many cultural offerings are forms of entertainment that primarily serve consumer desire for stimuli that result in appealing visual and auditory experiences (Holbrook and Schindler, 1994). This contrasts with more simple utilitarian and functional products that satisfy more well-defined utilitarian needs (Holbrook and Schindler, 1994). Holbrook and Schindler's (1994) proposition that many cultural offerings are forms of entertainment serving consumer desire for stimuli that result in particular experiences, raises the question of whether entertainment is a separate dimension of tourist's motivation to attend cultural offerings or a sub-dimension of hedonic experiences which in turn are sub-dimensions of other underlying constructs of tourist motivation? This study adopts the latter approach as will be discussed in the next section 2.9.6.2 on conceptualising tourist motivation as a process comprising multi-dimensional constructs which could have underlying hedonic dimensions.

The relevance of hedonic consumption and allied concepts to cultural tourism can also be noted from the cultural tourism literature. Cultural tourism is similar to other forms of tourism in that tourists satisfy their personal needs by consuming enjoyable experiences (Urry, 1990). Urry (1990) further claims however that, "making sense of 'fun, pleasure and entertainment' has proved a difficult task for social scientists" and hence, "there is relatively little substance to the sociology of tourism" (p. 7). Others claim many tourism experiences, especially many cultural tourism experiences, have their basis in entertainment (McKercher and du Cros, 2002, p.28). In this phenomenon, only a small number of tourists really seek a deep learning experience when they travel, the rest are travelling for pleasure or escapist reasons and wish to participate in activities that will provide a sense of enjoyment (McKercher and du Cros, 2002, p.29-30).

Hedonic consumption is based on emotional feelings and experiences in using products, and therefore, to what extent and in what ways these apply in tourists' motivation for and consumption of cultural experiences are research questions for consideration in this study.

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) stated that, "hedonic consumption refers to consumers' multisensory images, fantasies, and emotional arousal in using products." They termed this configuration of effects as, "hedonic response" (p.93). Goossens (2000) agrees that such experiential responses occur during tourism consumption, but adds in his conceptual model of Hedonic Tourism Motivation, that they also occur in the motivation process. He conceptualises hedonic responses occur in the tourist motivation process when tourists are involved with marketing stimuli as part of the information gathering and processing stage and such responses also reflect the reaction of the individual when the push and pull factors interact with each other. Emotions and mental imagery are identified as variables reflecting the consumer's hedonic

responses. He acknowledges that this is an experiential view of consumer research (after Holbrook and Hirschman 1982).

Goossens' conceptual model of Hedonic Tourism Motivation (2000) is particularly relevant to this study because it conceptualises tourist motivation as a complex process comprising numerous unobservable variables and constructs that are influenced by other factors, operationalised by other variables, and in turn produce outputs through a process of complex interrelationships. The main constructs in Goossen's model are push factors such as consumer needs, motives and drives; pull factors of marketing stimuli; involvement; information processing; the hedonic responses of mental imagery and emotions about leisure products and touristic attractions; and motivation which is operationalised as behavioural intentions towards tourism attractions as in Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. Goossen's model does not incorporate an "attitude" construct *per se* as in Fishbein and Ajzen's theory, because Goossen's argues an attitude construct does not fit in Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) "experiential" view of consumer research. Nevertheless, he acknowledges that the attitude concept is very functional in research on information processing and marketing stimuli, especially in relation to advertising (e.g., Derbaix, 1995; Moore and Harris, 1996; Olney et al., 1991), and a more structural and attitudinal approach can be taken to image concept (e.g., Walmsley and Young, 1998).

Despite Goossens' (2000) recommendation that conceptual models for hedonic tourist motivation not include attitudes, recent research in relation to a range of products and brands, links hedonic consumption to consumer attitudes claiming that consumers develop hedonic attitudes as well as utilitarian attitudes towards products and brands (Voss et al., 2003). The view that attitudes are complex and multidimensional (Bagozzi and Burnkrant, 1979; Eagly and Chaiken, 1993) has directed marketers to integrate an experiential view of consumption with more traditional-functional approaches (Mano and Oliver, 1993). Voss et al., (2003) adopt a two dimensional conceptualisation of consumer attitudes based on Batra and Ahtola (1990). The first dimension is a hedonic dimension resulting from sensations derived from the experience of using products, and the second is a utilitarian dimension derived from the functions performed by products (p. 310). Similarly, Bagozzi and Burnkrant (1979) suggest a two-component view of attitude that contains the components of cognition and affect. Attitudes as a multi-dimensional construct of direct interest to this study of cultural experience tourist motivation will be discussed briefly in the next section 2.9.6.2 on the motivational process and then in detail as one of the main constructs in this study's proposed motivational process for understanding the cultural experience tourist motivation (Section 2.10.1).

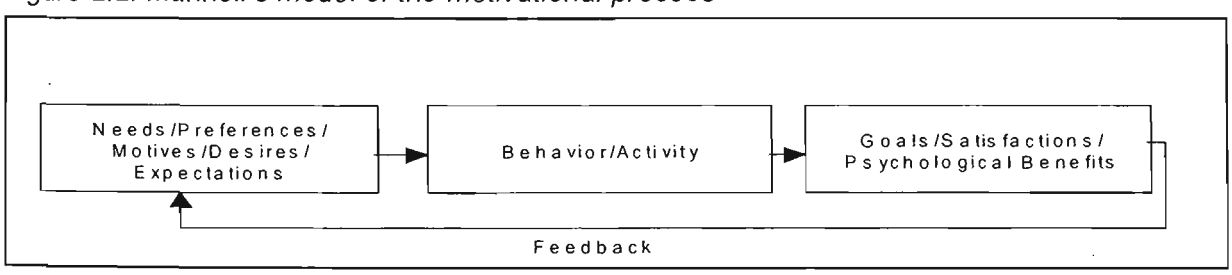
2.9.6.2 Motivation as a Process

As this literature review of motivation has shown, there is no universally agreed theoretical approach to understanding motivation, consequently there is no agreed theoretical approach to understanding tourist motivation (Fodness, 1994).

There is general consensus that motivations are dynamic and multivariate or complex in the tourism literature (e.g., Holden and Sparrowhawk, 2002) and in the leisure literature (e.g., Mannell, 1999). Pearce (1988) suggests that motivations for participating in tourism are dynamic, changing with age, life-cycle stages and the influence of other people.

Strong arguments have emerged throughout this review of tourist motivation literature for a theoretical approach to understanding cultural experience tourist motivation to be based on a broad conceptual approach to motivation as a process of several multi-dimensional constructs rather than a single construct. The broad conceptual approach to motivation adopted in this study has been adapted from the leisure literature where Mannell (1999) identifies a general model of motivation that has been used to explain a wide range of leisure behaviour and motivation-based satisfaction including participation in tourism and leisure travel (Fodness, 1994). Basically this model (Figure 2.2) suggests that people possess a multitude of needs, motives, desires, or expectations. First the emergence of a need creates a state of disequilibrium within people which they will try to reduce; hence, the energetic component of motivation. Second the presence of such needs is generally associated with a belief or expectation that certain actions will lead to the reduction of this disequilibrium; hence, the goal-orientation or direction component of motivation. Theoretically, the motivational process is assumed to be a chain of events, whereby on the basis of some combination of this desire to reduce the internal state of disequilibrium, and the belief that certain actions can serve this purpose, people act or behave in a manner that they believe will lead to the desired goal or satisfaction. If the behaviour or participation in an activity results in the fulfillment, the experience of satisfaction provides positive feedback that the behaviour or activity is appropriate. If the behaviour does not result in satisfaction, this negative feedback may result in people modifying or stopping their behaviour or activity. The assumption is that the recreationist is goal-directed, is knowledgeable, thinks rationally, and selects leisure activities that are suitable to fulfill expected and desired outcomes or goals.

Figure 2.2: Mannell's model of the motivational process



Source: Based on Mannell (1999)

The numerous concepts of relevance to consumer motivation from this preceding literature review include: needs (e.g., Maslow, 1943); values (e.g., Rokeach, 1968), benefits sought or gained for inferring motivation (e.g., Frochot & Morrison, 2000); expectancy theory (e.g., Deci, 1985; Witt and Wright, 1992; Vroom, 1964), preferences (e.g., Witt and Wright, 1992), motives, values, perceptions, attitudes and expectations (e.g., Gnoth, 1997), emotional needs, emotional benefits,

hedonic responses and behavioural intentions (e.g., Goossens, 2000), hedonic experiences (Mowen and Minor, 1998), needs, motives, desires or expectations, goals, satisfactions or psychological benefits (Mannell, 1999).

The next sections of this literature review, further review the relevant literature for each of these constructs of primary relevance to the cultural experience motivational process, that is, attitudes, motives, benefits sought, benefits gained, and satisfaction.

2.10 Concepts to be Tested in this Study for Understanding Cultural Experience Tourist Motivation

2.10.1 Attitudes

2.10.1.1 Attitudes, Values or Needs Consumer Behaviour Debate

There is an ongoing debate about what is the best measure or variable for predicting and explaining consumer and tourist behaviour. This debate was introduced in Section 2.9.2 where two opposing theories of motivation theory were acknowledged: needs-based or values-based. That both of these approaches have been used extensively in relation to tourist motivation research and literature was considered in sections 2.9.4.1 and 2.9.4.2 respectively. Criticisms of needs-based motivation theories in the tourist and other consumer motivation literature were raised in this previous discussion (Section 2.9.4.1). Criticisms of values-based motivation and market segmentation research were also found (Section 2.9.4.2), largely evidenced by the multiplicity of values scales commonly used. That needs might better be conceptualised as values was a further issue acknowledged in the needs versus values motivation theory debate (Section 2.9.1). That values have been used in the leisure travel motivation literature to conceptualise motives was also previously acknowledged in this earlier debate section as well as the argument that a complete account of motives of behaviour requires that the needs underlying values must be characterised (Section 2.9.1).

An association between values and attitudes was previously raised in the discussion of values-based tourist motivation (Section 2.9.4.2) where similarity between values and other predispositions such as interests, attitudes, beliefs and opinions was acknowledged and values were described by some authors as determinants of attitudes (Kamakura and Novak, 1992).

In the consumer behaviour literature, there is ongoing debate about whether values or attitudes are the best measure or variable for predicting and explaining consumer behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) provided a general review of theory and research in the area of attitudes and attempted to integrate the diverse literature in the area into a theoretical framework. Their resulting, theory of Reasoned Action, deals with the relations among beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behaviour and can be used to predict, explain, and influence human behaviour in applied settings (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). The attitudinal component of this theory refers to the person's attitude toward performing a behaviour. Their literature review acknowledges

conceptualisation of attitudes being dominated by the late 1950s in the framework of the age-old trilogy of cognition, affect and conation, but from their point of view an attitude toward any concept is simply, "a person's general feeling of favorableness or unfavorableness for that concept" (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, p.19). Other things being equal, they state, "the more favourable a person's attitude is toward a behavior, the more he should intend to perform that behavior" (p.56) and vice versa re unfavourable attitudes. This theory of Reasoned Action was further refined by Ajzen (1985) into the theory of Planned Behaviour which postulates three conceptually independent determinants or predictors of intentions: attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Attitudes are important factors in both theories.

In the 1970s and more recently, some claims have been made that values are better predictors of behaviour than needs or attitudes, because theoretical considerations suggest that values are more central than attitudes as determinants of behaviour (Chan and Rossiter, 2003; Rokeach, 1973). Several values scales have been established since the late 1960s – for example, Rokeach Value Scale (1968), VALS (Mitchell, 1983), and LOV (Kahle and Kennedy, 1989) - however, Chan and Rossiter (2003) claim empirical research fails to establish a strong link between values and consumer behaviour, particularly in cross-cultural contexts, which they suggest is due to unresolved measurement issues concerning cross-cultural values.

Later in the motivation-based segmentation discussion (Section 2.12.1.3), Alzua et al. (1998) call for multi-dimensional segmentation that integrates attitudinal as well as behavioural characteristics as the former may trigger or drive behaviour. They list benefits sought at a destination as an example of an attitudinal characteristic of relevance to segmentation of tourists.

To assess a person's attitude toward a behaviour, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) recommend using any of the standard scaling procedures that have been developed since the 1940s and 1950s such as the Thurstone and Likert scales, Guttman scale, and the semantic differential scale by Osgood and his associates. They acknowledge other investigators have often attempted to include the reasons for, and consequences of, a person's evaluation within their definitions and measures of attitude. Consequently these researchers have assessed perceptions, beliefs, motivations, and intentions. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) do not deny the importance of such factors, but prefer to treat them as separate concepts that can be related to attitudes rather than treating them as part of the attitude.

Further discussion of attitudes, especially definition and measurement issues will be continued in Section 2.10.1.2 of this literature review.

2.10.1.2 Defining and Measuring Attitudes

One of the originators of modern attitude measurement theory, L.L. Thurstone (1931) defined attitude as, "the affect for or against a psychological object". However, as early as 1931, Thurstone made it clear that although a person's attitude toward an object should be related to the pattern of their behaviour with respect to the object, there is no necessary relation between attitude and any

given behaviour. Two people may have, "the same degree or intensity of affect favourable toward a psychological object and ... their attitudes would be described in this sense as identical but that they arrived at their similar attitudes by entirely different routes" has implications for their behaviour which may take quite different forms" (p. 263). A year later, R. Likert (1932) developed a simpler scaling procedure for measuring attitudes which was widely adopted and is still used today. It results in a single score that represents the degree to which a person is favourable or unfavourable with respect to the attitude object. Similar to the Thurstone scaling attitude measurement method, a given attitude score on a Likert summated ratings method, can reflect different patterns of beliefs, intentions, or actions (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). The social psychologist Allport (1935 cited in Middleton and Clarke, 2001), defined attitudes as, "a mental state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (p.79).

These early definitions of attitudes and associated measurement methods emphasise several qualities that are upheld today despite the term attitude being defined in numerous ways over the past sixty years. The use of attitudes to refer to the affective or feelings responses that individuals have for or against an object, is still agreed with by most consumer behaviour investigators today, and is the characteristic that distinguishes attitudes from habits, traits, drives or motives as will be discussed below. Also the distinction between attitudes and the concepts of beliefs, intentions, and actions or behaviour is upheld by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) in their theory of Reasoned Action which is based on these four separate but inter-related constructs. Of the age-old three component view of attitudes being comprised of affect, cognition and conation or behaviour (Rosenberg et al., 1960 cited in Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, p. 19), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) reserve the term "attitude" for affect, "belief" for cognition, and "intention" for conation. They make a further distinction between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour.

From a consumer behaviour viewpoint, attitudes have been defined as, "a predisposition, created by learning and experience, to respond in a consistent way toward an object, such as a product" (Moutinho, 1987, p.19). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) identify a similar definition with which most investigators would probably agree, "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable evaluation of a given object" (p. 6). The use of attitudes to refer to the affective or feelings responses that consumers have toward an object or a general evaluation of an object, is what distinguishes attitudes from habits, traits, drives or motives (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

Attitudes differ from values and beliefs, with both of the latter underlying or acting as antecedents to the former. That beliefs underlie attitudes as well as intentions and behaviours, is acknowledged by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975): "the totality of a person's beliefs serves as the informational base that ultimately determines his attitudes, intentions, and behaviours" (p.14). Beliefs and attitudes are also viewed as separate constructs by many authors (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Although the multi-component view of attitudes defines them in terms of three separate components – cognitions

(beliefs), affect (feelings), and conation (behavioural intentions) – this conceptualisation fails to distinguish these concepts such that each has its own set of determinants (Mowen and Minor, 1998). Some evidence indicates that beliefs and feelings reside in completely different physiological systems with beliefs residing in a cognitive system influenced by cognitive-learning principles, while feelings and affect residing in the autonomic nervous system, which is affected more by classical-conditioning principles (Ostrom, 1969; Scott, 1968; Zajonc and Markus, 1982). Values have been described by some authors as determinants of attitudes (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). Others claim they form the link between observable behaviour and its underlying abstract values (Gnoth, 1999). Also in comparison with values, attitudes, have been described as more articulated and directed to specific objects (Moutinho, 1987).

In terms of the relation between attitude and behaviour, most definitions of attitude regard readiness for response as their essential feature (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), which was emphasised by Allport (1935). Furthermore, attitudes provoke behaviour that is favourable or unfavourable toward the attitude object (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), as emphasised in early definitions.

Lastly, attitudes are linked with satisfaction because satisfaction is itself an output attitude that is the product of complex relationships between other constructs as will be discussed in the later definition of satisfaction (Section 2.10.4.1).

In a tourism context, attitudes are, "predispositions or feelings toward a vacation destination or service, based on multiple perceived product attributes (Moutinho, 1987, p.19). Attitudes towards tourism are subsets of a wider view and broad consensus on the desired quality of life and how to achieve it (Middleton and Clarke, 2001). As well as being formed by beliefs, these authors suggest attitudes are also generally formed of the ideas, fears and aspirations that people hold about their lives. Hence another consumer behaviour measure of attitudes is incorporated within the Values, Attitudes and Lifestyles Survey (VALS) (Mitchell, 1983).

A person's interest in the arts and their past experience in attending cultural and performing arts activities (at home and on holidays) could be a relevant dimension of their attitudes about attending cultural experiences and behavioural outcomes. In relation to period theme park consumption experience, for example, visitors require cultural capital sufficient to interpret what they are viewing (1998). This cultural capital might often be gained organically and stimulated as memories by the presentation of the parks. Cultural capital also enables a more critical engagement between the visitor and the cultural experience that goes beyond fun or empathy with the period, and might involve emotional attachment and exploration of nostalgia. This emphases the complexity of the period park consumption experience for some visitors whereby cultural capital (cognitive knowledge) is required to interpret the experience and cultural capital might also be gained through the consumption experience.

Individual attitudes and tourism choices operate within broader socio-cultural attitudes that represent commonly held beliefs and notions with which many people are brought up as children. These vary according to different national cultures, are fostered by the popular media, and are influenced by effective promotion and marketing (Middleton and Clarke, 2001). Therefore, cultural language group differences may apply to this attitude construct and underlying dimensions such as cultural and arts enthusiasm.

All of these definitions, link attitudes to object or product attributes. Multi-attribute models from general consumer behaviour theory exist and build on the work of Rosenberg (1968) and Fishbein (1970). They assert that liking an object is a function of the perceptions about the object and the importance of product attributes to a particular individual. A multi-attribute object (e.g., a cultural experience) is viewed as a bundle of attributes leading to costs and benefits of differential desirability to individuals or segments of the market. Overall, affect is posited to reflect the net resolution of an individual's cognitions (beliefs) as to the degree to which given objects possess certain attributes weighted by the salience (importance) of each attribute to the individual (Moutinho, 1987).

For the purpose of this study, attitudes will be defined as, "internal predispositions to respond with affective or feelings responses towards or against attending cultural experiences in everyday lifestyle as well as on holiday, created by the individual's beliefs, values, needs, knowledge, learning, and experience, and broader socio-cultural attitudes about different types of cultural experiences".

2.10.2 Motives

2.10.2.1 Defining and Measuring Motives

In the previous section, attitudes were distinguished from motives, with the former being the affective or feelings responses that consumers have toward an object or a general evaluation of an object (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). This section discusses the distinguishing characteristics of motives.

One of the earliest discussions about the role of motives concerns their relationship with motivation and behaviour: "when treating motivations as distinct from motives, we acknowledge ... that each motive can trigger a variety of behaviours as much as each behaviour can be triggered by a variety of motives (Murray, 1938).

More recent definitions describe motives as, a lasting disposition or state of arousal, an internal drive or "push factor" that reduce a state of tension or the prevalent drive by triggering or driving behaviour. A motive is an, "internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour" (Murray, 1964). Decrop (cited in Pizam and Mansfeld, 1999), extends this definition at each end; a motive is, "a state of tension within the individual that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior toward a goal" (p. 130). Foxall and Goldsmith (cited in Pizam and Mansfeld, 1999),

expand upon the relationship between motives and behaviour goals, whereby, "each motive has a different content in terms of goals of behavior. Motives and personal characteristics determine a person's disposition that leads to behavior" (p. 130).

Decisions to attend cultural attractions and events, for example, are therefore directed actions that are triggered by various antecedents and determinants. For example, a desire to meet a need could trigger and direct actions. According to Foxall and Goldsmith (cited in Pizam and Mansfeld, 1999), "a need is the materialization (on the consumer plane) of a motive (on the psychological plane)" (p. 107). This example highlights that motives and needs are not interchangeable terms even though they are often used accordingly. Values, beliefs and attitudes could also underlie motives as well as external communications and other stimuli (internal and external). Mazanec (1994) agrees that motives are, "conceived as a state of arousal", however he argues that they have no distinct directional effect towards a particular means of satisfaction and if questions contain an evaluation of some attribute of a real or ideal tourist product, then they are attitude rather than motive items (Mazanec, 1994).

The previous definitions highlight a strong relationship between motives, arousal and drives, the latter of which is also emphasised in the leisure motivation research literature. Arguments for studying leisure motivation include, a need to recognise, "the forces that drive it, springing from the behavior patterns of people who engage in it ..." (National Academy of Science 1969, p. 1 cited in Beard and Ragheb, 1983). If different people responded the same way to stimuli, there would be no need for bringing in the concept of motivation. However, individuals are driven to engage in leisure activities for different reasons (Beard and Ragheb, 1983).

In a tourism context, a motive is a, "lasting disposition, an internal drive or 'push factor' that causes the tourist to search for signs in objects, situations, and events that contain the promise of reducing the prevalent drive" (Gnoth, 1997, pp. 290-291). Defined this way, motives could be considered one of several push factors in push/pull motivational theory which some consider a useful approach for examining motivations underlying tourist and visitation behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Kim et al., 2003).

2.10.2.2 Tourism Motive Dimensions

There is a vast amount of literature on travel and tourism motivation as seen in the earlier Section 2.9 on motivation research. This section on literature of relevance to the motivational process component of motives, reviews some key studies on tourist motivation or motives especially some selected studies of cross-cultural interest (Table 2.12) and the growing body of literature on festival event tourist motivation, motives and characteristics (Table 2.13), to identify trends and issues of relevance to this proposed study's treatment of a tourist motive construct.

From recent tourism motivation research (Table 2.12), various trends have been identified. Motives are multi-diimensional and various tourism motivation structures comprised of several underlying motive dimensions have been proposed since the first psychological research of tourism in the

early sixties. In the late seventies, Crompton's (1979) motivations for pleasure vacation comprised six main dimensions: novelty, socialisation/kinship, prestige, relaxation, education/knowledge, and self-development. Fodness' (1994) framework of five main dimensions of tourist motivation, resembles those of the functional theorists of motivation: social adjustment, value expression, knowledge, and the utilitarian domains of punishment minimisation and reward maximisation (Fodness, 1994). Various other dimensions of motives in a tourism context have been found, for example, adventure (Yuan and McDonald, 1990); escape from routine (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991), independence (Andersen et al., 2000); sense of separation (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991; Fodness, 1994).

Table 2.12: Summary of selected studies on tourist motivation

Author	Major issue addressed	Type of Study/ Population Sampled	Tourism Product Analysed
(Andersen et al., 2000)	Examines motives to visit Scotland and undertake cultural tourism, and segments by these motives	Empirical/Japanese tourists	General Holiday
(Cha et al., 1995)	Motivations of Japanese travellers who travel abroad, and segmentation by travel motivation identifying 3 groups	Empirical/ Overseas Japanese tourists	Pleasure Travel
(Crompton, 1979)	Identified 9 motives: 7 of which were classified as 'social psychological' and 2 as 'cultural'(novelty and education)	Empirical	General Pleasure Travel
(Fodness, 1994)	Functional theorist taxonomy approach to leisure travel motivation dimensions and segmentation by travel motivation	Empirical/Recent leisure travellers	Leisure Travel
(Hanqin and Lam, 1999)	Importance of push and pull factors in travel motivations for Chinese outbound visitors	Empirical/ Outbound Chinese tourists	Hong Kong destination
(Kim & Lee, 2000)	Directly measures tourist motivation and two characteristics of cultural identity (individualism & collectivism) to examine the role of the latter in the former	Empirical/ Anglo-American & Japanese tourists	Leisure Travel
(McIntosh et al., 1994)	Identifies four basic travel motivators, realising that engaging in general travel is, in itself, learned behaviour	Conceptual	General travel
(Moutinho 1987)	Identifies five basic classes of motivators for general travel which are distinguished from specific travel motivators	Conceptual	General Travel
(Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983)	Inferred travel motivation from travelers' actual experiences which were coded into a travel career ladder classification of travel motivation based on Maslow's analysis of needs. Results indicated that positive and negative tourist Experiences highlighted different need structures	Empirical/ Qualitative Travel & Tourism Research Association members & Uni students	General Holidays
(Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola , 1991)	Motives and satisfaction of sightseeing tourists.	Empirical/tour groups; convention;	Sightseeing tour, Washington,

		non-affinity	DC, USA
(Yuan & McDonald, 1990)	Motives 'push factors' and 'pull factors' for Japanese and other travellers (French, West German & UK).	Empirical/ Japanese, UK, French, Germans	Overseas Travel

2.10.2.3 Festival or Event Motivation Literature

Despite the increasing popularity of festivals and events and the importance of understanding attendees' motives and motivations, little research had been conducted on the motivations of festival attendance in the early 1990s (Getz, 1993). Since then at least 11 empirical studies on festival or event motivation have been undertaken and are summarised in Table 2.13. Several of these feature or include cultural events and there is a diverse geographical and cultural ethnic group spread: five in the United States (Backman et al., 1995; Crompton and McKay, 1997; Mohr et al., 1993; Scott, 1996; Uysal et al., 1993), one in Jordan to a festival celebrating Arab culture (Schneider and Backman, 1996), two in Italy of which one was an international arts festival and the other a jazz festival (1996; 1998), two in South Korea at World Cultural Expos (Lee, 2000; Lee et al., 2004a), the first of which examined motivation differences between Caucasian and Asian visitors and the second focused on motivation differences between domestic and foreign visitors, and one in Australia examining motivations to attend short-term visual art exhibitions (Axelsen and Arcodia, 2004).

In a festival or event context (Table 2.13), many similar dimensions have been delineated (Lee et al., 2004a). Other dimensions common to festivals or events, have also been identified: for example, excitement/thrills (Backman et al., 1995; Scott, 1996; Uysal and Jurowski, 1993), entertainment (Formica and Uysal, 1996; 1998), and cultural exploration (Crompton and McKay, 1997; Lee, 2000). A more detailed evaluation of the main underlying dimensions of tourist motives identified in empirical research of tourism and festival or event motivation to date will be considered in Chapter 4 Research Method, section 4.5.3.

Compared with tourist motivation studies in general, there is considerable consistency across these studies in the dimensions of festival and event motivation and the number and type of items used to measure these dimensions. While further details of the dimensions used and found in these studies will be discussed in Chapter 4 research methodology, section 4.5.3, six studies use 23 or 24 items; and two use 32 items. All bar one use factor analysis and identify a similar number of factor dimensions (between 5-7).

From the emerging body of literature of festival event motivation (Table 2.13), significant differences have been found between motivation factors:

- At different types of festivals (e.g., Scott, 1996)

- By different types of events satisfying the same need to different degrees (Crompton & McKay, 1997)
- By first-time and repeat visitors (Mohr et al., 1993)
- By some demographic variables (Backman et al., 1995; Formica and Uysal, 1998)
- By characteristics of travel group (Formica and Murrmann, 1996)
- By residents and non-residents (Formica and Uysal, 1996; 1998) with residents being more motivated by the 'socialisation' factor, and non-residents more driven by the 'entertainment' factor (Formica and Uysal, 1998)
- By cultural group whereby two Asian groups (Koreans and Japanese) were found to be significantly different from two Western groups (Americans and Europeans) based on the mean values of motivation which indicated that Western tourists were more likely to have strong motivation than Asian tourists at the World Culture Expo, South Korea (Lee, 2000)
- By domestic and foreign visitors with differentiation in sources of information used suggesting differentiation of promotional strategies (Lee et al., 2004a).

Table 2.13: Summary of selected studies on event or festival motivation

Author	Major issue addressed	Type of Study/ Population Sampled	Tourism Product Analysed
Axelsen & Arcodia (2004)	Examines motivations for attending the Asia-Pacific Triennial Art Exhibition to uncover factors that motivate audiences to attend short-term visual art exhibitions	Empirical/ visitors to exhibition, & the gallery	Visual Art Exhibition, Brisbane, Australia
Backman et al., (1995)	Dimensions of event motivation, analysing variations of delineated factors and activities by demographics	Empirical/Pleasure Travel Market, USA	Pleasure Travel
Crompton & McKay, (1997)	Festival motives based on the escape-seeking dichotomy and push- pull factors. Examines difference in motives by types of festival events	Empirical/ Fiesta visitors	Fiesta, Texas, USA
Formica & Uysal (1996)	Dimensions of event motivations by comparing region to out-of-region visitors in terms of factors, demographics and event characteristics	Empirical/ Festival visitors	Umbria Jazz Festival, Italy
Formica & Murrman (1996); Formica & Uysal (1998)	Principal event motivations, then segmentation using cluster analysis based on motivation and profiled the segments	Empirical/ Festival visitors	Spoleto Cultural Festival, Italy
Lee, (2000)	Major driving motivation factors, and differences between	Empirical/	World Cultural

	cultural groups	Caucasian & Asian visitors	Expo, South Korea
Lee et al., (2004a)	Principal event motivations, then segmentation using cluster analysis based on motivation. Examines importance of motivation clusters and visitor types as influencing factors of overall satisfaction	Empirical/ Domestic & Foreign visitors	World Cultural Expo, South Korea
Mohr et al., (1993)	Dimensions of event motivation, examining variations of demographics, delineated factors and satisfaction by visitor types based on previous attendance	Empirical/4 visitor types	Balloon Festival Sth Carolina, USA
Scott, (1996)	Differences among motivations to attend 3 festivals, including Differences between first-time and repeat visitors	Empirical/ Festival visitors	3 Festivals, Ohio, USA
Schneider & Backman (1996)	Cross-cultural equivalence of motivation scale	Empirical/ Festival visitors	Jerash Festival (Arab culture), Jordon
Uysal et al., (1993)	Dimensions of event motivation	Empirical/ Festival visitors	Corn Festival, Sth Carolina, USA

The authors of the most recent of these studies (Lee et al., 2004a), acknowledge that a motivation scale is commonly used by festival studies and further acknowledge the consistency in factor structures extracted from their study and earlier event motivation studies. They conclude from the latter finding that this, "adds credence to the notion that the range and groupings of event motives are somewhat universal" (p.65). Their initial set of 34 motivation items was generated from a review of festival research pertaining to visitor motivation and considered to be the most appropriate for measuring visitors' motivations for attending the World Culture Expo. They performed a cluster analysis on the six factor dimensions to further advance knowledge of core motives. Four cluster segments were identified based on visitor type (domestic or foreign) and satisfaction (festival satisfaction is examined for each cluster and each visitor type based on the motivational item scale ratings). For future research of festival and event motivation, they recommend the aggregated foreign visitor group in their study should be disaggregated into countries for measurement scale validation before generalizations can be made. They also recommend that future research explore the relationship between festival motivation and attitude and behavioural intentions using a structural equation model.

The two studies of Italian cultural event motivation also included cluster analysis as well as factor analysis on the commonly used 23 motivation items (Formica and Uysal, 1996; 1998). They conclude that further studies in festival motivation and segmentation analysis should incorporate other components, such as expectations and preferences, because visitors' motivation represent only one significant component of travel behaviour (Formica & Uysal, 1998).

2.10.2.4 Cross-Cultural Differences in Tourist Motives

The majority of recent research of tourist motivation focuses on individualism and rationalism, which results in underestimation of the influence of groups, norms, culture, and emotion or impulse on tourist behaviour (Kim and Lee, 2000). Some authors suggest cultural differences in motives between Western individualist cultures and Asian collectivist cultures such as Japan (Andersen et al., 2000). This study of Japanese independent travellers to Scotland, included a utility motive domain with items relating to the importance of travel for career advancement purposes. A minority segment of non-trivial size was found to exist, as well as members of all segments holding such intentions, although in some instances, not strongly prioritised. Although this was not a cross-cultural study that compared motives across different cultural groups, it strongly suggests that cultural differences may exist. One cross-cultural study of cultural differences in tourist motivation between two cultural groups, Anglo-American and Japanese tourists (Kim and Lee, 2000), found five dimensions of cultural attitudes that reflect individualism and collectivism within each culture. Three of these were individualism dimensions: self-reliance, emotional detachment, and separation from in-groups; and two were collectivism dimensions: family integrity and social interdependence. Among these dimensions, Anglo-Americans showed more preference for separation from in–groups and emotional detachment than Japanese tourists did. The Japanese tourists expressed more preference for interdependence and family integrity. Some cultural group differences were also noted in relation to five travel motivations with significant differences found for prestige/status, family togetherness, and novelty, but insignificant differences for knowledge and escape. Overall the cultural group differences were not bigger than would be expected, leading the authors to propose individualist and collectivist orientations may coexist within Japanese and American culture, and in particular, the young Japanese appear to be moving towards a more individualistic society.

One other cross-cultural study of motivational determinates of international pleasure travel (Yuan and McDonald, 1990), examined "push" and "pull" factors for tourists from four countries: Japan, France, West Germany, and the United Kingdom. They found that individuals from each of the four countries travel for the same push factors; however, pull factors and the levels of importance attached to them, appeared to differ among the countries.

2.10.2.5 Defining and Measuring Motives Summary

For the purpose of this study, **motives** will be defined as, "internal predispositions that arouse, direct and drive a person's desire to attend cultural experiences while on holiday, that are created by attitudes and other stimuli, and are based on a main desire for reaching the goal, or obtaining the reward of, hedonic consumption experiences that involve the experiencing of emotion while engaging in active leisure tourism activities".

2.10.2.6 Uses of Motives in Marketing

There are many marketing applications for motives. They have been used for segmentation purposes (Andersen et al., 2000), which requires tourism promoters to use their resources in ways

with which these segments may identify. At the minimum, the promotion of destinations or attractions needs to be differentiated according to the underlying motive domain differences of different segments (Andersen et al., 2000). They also have implications for consumer satisfaction as will be discussed in Section 2.10.4 on the motivational process construct of satisfaction.

2.10.2.7 Motives within the Motivational Process

The examples of the various antecedents and determinants underlying motives highlight the relationship between motives and various other constructs such as needs, values, beliefs, attitudes, and other such stimuli. Motives are only one of multiple variables that explain behaviour, but they are the starting point that launch the decision process (Crompton and McKay, 1997). In turn, motives can be considered antecedents to expectations, "motives can be seen as providing travellers with expectations for activities" (Moscardo et al., 1996). Motives also have a relationship with satisfaction whereby they occur before the experience, and satisfaction after it (Iso-Ahola, 1999), but motives can influence satisfaction with the experience as will be discussed in the later section 2.10.4 on satisfaction.

This study is further interested in the implications of these motive dimensions for other components of the motivational process for tourists attending cultural experiences, that is, benefits sought, and related behavioural outcomes, especially benefits gained and satisfaction. The next section of this literature review considers the motivational process construct of benefits (sought and realised).

2.10.3 Benefits

2.10.3.1 Tourism Benefits Research and Literature

There have been many applications of empirical benefit research in tourism over the past twenty years and Tables 2.14 and 2.15 present details of fifteen key studies. Table 2.14 summaries 10 key studies in the general tourism area, eight focusing on benefits sought and two on benefits realised or gained. Table 2.15 summarises five empirical studies identified to date of relevance to cultural tourism, four focusing on benefits sought and one on benefits gained in cultural and heritage settings.

For the type of tourist product analysed, the majority of studies in Table 2.14 focus on vacation travel choice or specific destinations including three nature travel market-related studies one each in the US, UK and Australian outbound travellers (Frochot, 2005; Lang and O'Leary, 1997; McCool and Reilly, 1993). Of the five cultural-related studies (Table 2.15): one study (Alzua et al., 1998) focuses on culture and heritage travel, and the other four are heritage and museum attraction-site related (Frochot, 2004; Prentice et al., 1998; Tian et al., 1996; Weaver et al., 2002).

Different markets are represented in the populations sampled with several studies in Table 2.14 sampling the United States or North American market (McCool and Reilly, 1993; Shoemaker, 1994), the Australian travellers (Moscardo et al., 1996), the nature travel market (Lang and O'Leary, 1997), and the Japanese leisure market (Heung et al., 2001; Hsieh et al., 1997; Jang et al., 2002).

Only one study is cross-cultural (Woodside and Jacobs, 1985) examining North American and Japanese markets.

Table 2.14: Summary of selected empirical studies on benefits in travel, tourism, leisure and recreation literature (non-cultural related)

Author	Major issue addressed	Type of Study/ Population Sampled	Tourism Product Analysed
Benefits Expected/Sought/Pursued			
Heung *et al.*, (2001)	Examined the relative importance of vacation motives. Derived 5 vacation factors including 'benefits sought'.	Japanese leisure Travellers	Hong Kong destination
Hsieh *et al.*, (1997)	Examines travel decision pattern of Japanese pleasure travel Market using a multi-stage segmentation based on 'benefits sought', travel philosophy and travel product preferences	Japanese leisure Travellers	Vacation Choice
Jang *et al.*, (2002)	Benefit-sought segmentation of Japanese outbound travel market and selection of optimum target market based on profitability and risk	Japanese pleasure travellers	USA destination
Lang & O'Leary, (1997)	Multi-segmentation of nature travellers based on their motivation, (benefits pursued), activity participation, destination attribute preferences and travel philosophy	Australian travel market	Outbound vacations
Loker & Perdue, (1992)	Vacation benefits sought segmentation on and identification of optimum target market	Non-resident tourist market	Travel in North Carolina, USA
McCool & Reilly, (1993)	Benefit segmentation using expected benefits from a park visit and relationship with visitor preferences for setting attributes and expenditure patterns	State Park Visitors	3 state parks, USA
Moscardo *et al.*, (1996)	Benefit sought segmentation (motivation) and relationships with activity preference and vacation destination choice	Australian travellers	Outbound vacations
Frochot (2005)	Benefit segmentation and relationship with activity preferences	Overnight visitors at local accommodation	2 rural areas, Scotland
Benefits Gained/Realised			
Shoemaker, (1994)	Examines past travel experience destination attributes to infer benefits realised and then uses these for benefit segmentation and comparisons with ideal destination planning concerns	US Population	Domestic Vacations
Woodside & Jacobs, (1985)	Multi-dimensional segmentation based on benefits and experiences realised from travelling to the same vacation destination differ for 3 different national samples	Canadians, mainland Americans, Japanese	Hawaii

The five cultural tourism-related studies (Table 2.15) comprise two studies sampling the US market (Tian et al., 1996; Weaver et al., 2002) and three in the UK: one outbound (Alzua et al., 1998) and two domestic (Frochot, 2004; Prentice et al., 1998).

Table 2.15: Summary of selected empirical studies on benefits in travel, tourism, leisure and recreation literature (cultural related)

Author	Major issue addressed	Type of Study/ Population Sampled	Tourism Product Analysed
Benefits Expected/Sought/Pursued			
Alzua et al., (1998)	Multi-dimensional segmentation using benefits sought and activities to understand vacation motives	UK outbound	Culture and heritage
Frochot (2004)	Benefit segmentation (motivation) and influence on quality evaluation	Historic Property visitors	Historic houses,UK
Tian et al., (1996)	Examines benefits museum goers seek from their visit, segmentation based on these benefits and constraints and relationship of segments with selected independent variables, and identification of potential target markets	Museum visitors	Museums, Texas, USA
Weaver *et al.*, (2002)	Examines underlying market segments that exist based on benefits sought visiting heritage sites	US Travellers	Heritage sites, USA
Benefits Gained/Realised			
Prentice et al., (1998)	Multi-dimensional segmentation using experiences and benefits gained by visitors and relationship of segments with motivational and socio-demographic attributes	Park visitors	Heritage Site, UK

In terms of major research objectives, nearly all studies (13 of the 15) use benefits for market segmentation purposes or as one dimension of multi-dimensional segmentation emphasising a dominant application of benefit research for market segmentation purposes. as will be discussed further in the section 2.10.3.3 on defining and categorising benefits. Many of these studies, however, also claim an association between benefits, motivation, and motives as will be reported in the next section.

2.10.3.2 Benefits and the Motivational Process

Earlier in the review of consumer and tourist motivation literature, an association between benefits sought or benefits gained and motivation was identified with benefits being considered one of four major approaches to tourist motivation research (Section 2.9.4.3). This was due to a widely held belief of some association between tourist's motivations and benefits (sought or gained) although the exact link is still to be tested and proven (Frochot and Morrison, 2000), and travellers' motivations, in turn, have always been portrayed as a critical variable in the tourist decision-making process (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Lundberg, 1971).

From the tourist benefit research perspective summarised in Tables 2.14 and 2.15, six of the studies include motivation or motives in their major research objectives (Alzua et al., 1998; Frochot, 2004; Heung et al., 2001; Lang and O'Leary, 1997; Moscardo et al., 1996; Prentice et al., 1998). Most of these, however, use benefits sought or gained as a method for operationalising the measurement of motivations or motives. Frochot (2004) states, "in order to evaluate the motivational profile of visitors, benefit segmentation was applied" (p.227). Alzua et al., (1998)

further claim, "from an international perspective, relatively little is known of cultural and heritage tourists' characteristics, benefits pursued in travel activities or expectations" (p.3) and then define benefits sought as an attitude "which may influence travellers" in their choice of activity participation and frequency (p.6). Different benefit segments attached different degrees of importance to different behavioural activity participation, and the authors claim this supports Silberberg's (1995) assertion that there are different degrees of consumer motivation for cultural tourism. Similarly, Moscardo et al's., (1996) understanding of vacation destination choice through travel motivation and activity preference is achieved by segmenting respondents on travel benefits and describing the resulting dimensions as motives and needs. Lang and O'Leary (1997) utilise the interrelationships between benefit pursued, activity participation and destination preference as a segmentation base which they claim proves their proposed motivation/participation/preference tourist visit type is a theoretically and statistically feasible approach to understand and classify travellers (p.174).

One of the studies (Heung et al., 2001) examines the importance of vacation motives for Japanese leisure travellers to Hong Kong and categorises one of the five derived vacation factors as 'benefits sought'.

Another study uniquely examines heritage site visitors' experiences and benefits gained at a single UK heritage site and claims that the core product of tourism is the beneficial experiences gained (Prentice et al., 1998). This study further identifies motivations for visiting as a separate construct and examines the influences of these motivations and other selected socio-demographic attributes on the constructs of experiences and benefits gained which are used as the basis to cluster visitors in terms of the similarities of their experiences and benefits. Five distinct clusters are found and the authors conclude that the combination of experiences and benefits gained has been shown to be provide a good basis for effective market segmentation. Although the study found limited use of most socio-demographic characteristics in understanding experiences, several motivational characteristics were found to be significant in terms of the five clusters.

The more recent of these studies (Frochot, 2004; 2005) categorise benefit segmentation as being based on psychographic criteria, and a particularly powerful technique for understanding consumer markets in tourism settings, although its performance comparative to other psychographic techniques (such as values) is yet to be demonstrated. As seen in this literature review and further discussed in section 2.10.3.8, benefits are frequently used as the grouping variable or one of several variables in multi-dimensional market segmentation. Some consider them a superior alternative to more common socio-demographic or activity segmentations (Gitelson and Kerstetter, 1990; Prentice et al., 1998). Another advantage of benefits gained, in particular, is that they focus on the ultimate product of tourism – the outputs or outcomes actually gained by the experience of undertaking activities in settings to gain experiences that are regarded as beneficial (these benefits may include negative as well as positive ones). In leisure and outdoor recreation research this hierarchical process linking activities, settings, experience and benefits in a sequence is referred to

as the 'benefit chain of causality' approach (Driver et al., 1987). (For further discussion of the benefit chain of causality see section 2.10.3.3 on defining and categorising benefits).

That benefits sought are integral to the motivational process and underlie behaviour, has been noted in the event tourism literature. Event motivational studies must address not merely the reasons given for being at an event, but also the underlying benefits sought with 'behaviour' in this context referring to more than superficial activities at events, by also referring to the meanings attached to those actions (Getz and Cheyne in Ryan, 2002).

It is widely acknowledged throughout the tourism, leisure and recreation literature that such benefits may vary by activities undertaken (e.g., Haggard and Williams, 1991). Hence there is much diversity in dimension items used in research of benefits gained with variation according to the activities, the setting, and the broad type of experience undertaken which may be leisure, recreation or tourism purposes. Furthermore, benefits sought and gained are multi-dimensional themselves and some studies in the leisure area have focused on "mood benefits" as feelings (1990; 1991; Hull and Harvey, 1989); others on learning benefits (Roggenbuck et al., 1991).

Because benefits gained in particular may vary by activities undertaken as noted in the previous paragraph, the context in which this study proposes examining benefits sought and gained is in relation to one specific cultural attraction setting and experience that is popular with international and interstate tourists, that is, the Queen Victoria Market in Melbourne, Australia. No tourism studies to date have focused on both of these benefit dimensions. Therefore a set of measurement items will be developed for this proposed study from an overview of the relevant literature and some exploratory primary research (see Chapter 4 Research Method, section 4.5.4).

That there is a relationship between benefits and motivation has been raised throughout the tourism motivation and benefit research literature, but often with some confusion. Depending on how benefits are defined and categorised they could be considered separate constructs to motives but relevant to the motivational process. Discussion of tourist benefit definitions follows in the next section (2.10.3.3). Benefits sought may best be defined as largely psychologically-based expectations and benefits gained as a largely psychologically-based behavioural outcome. So defined, they are separate constructs to attitudes, motives, and satisfaction, but more research is needed to measure and test these constructs and their underlying dimensions.

2.10.3.3 Defining Benefits

From a marketing perspective, an early rationale for benefit segmentation (Haley, 1968) was, "the benefits which people are seeking in consuming a given product are the basic reasons for the existence of true market segments" (p.198). In his pioneering work, Haley (1968) never proposed a precise definition of benefits which has led to some mixed interpretations since the late 1960s with the application of his benefit segmentation technique to various products. Initially the benefits identified were mainly utilitarian (e.g, Haley, 1968) such as attribute-based benefits or in a tourism

context, specific features of the destination or service. Since the 1980s, others associate benefits with, "sensory, rational and emotional benefits" which are referred to as psychologically-based benefits (Lewis, 1981). In several consumer product studies, hedonic attitudes have been contrasted with utilitarian attitudes (Spangenberg et al., 1997; Voss et al., 2003). In significant work on hedonic benefits (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982), hedonic benefits are considered more relevant to cultural and experiential products than utilitarian benefits. By the 1990s, a conceptual shift within the operationalisation of benefits has been noted, away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcomes (Tian et al., 1996).

A precise definition of what is being measured in tourism benefit research is an ongoing problem with many studies not specifically defining benefits. While there has been considerable use of benefit research, largely for market segmentation purposes, in the context of tourism and allied areas of recreation, leisure and travel, there is no consensus among researchers on definitions of benefits, a typology of benefit categories, nor is there an identified set of commonly used dimensions or benefit statements. Furthermore it could be said that there is some confusion and mix of interpretations in the tourism benefit literature between benefits and other consumer motivation and behaviour constructs such as attitudes, motives, expectations, and satisfaction. Although some studies theoretically distinguish between some of these constructs and refer to relationships between them, few studies have conceptualised or tested these relationships.

Definitions of benefits are prevalent in the leisure literature (e.g., Driver et al., 1991a; Jackson and Burton, 1999) where benefits usually refer to "gain" (Driver et al., 1991b) which in turn refers to, "a change that is viewed to be advantageous – an improvement in condition, or a gain to an individual, a group, to society, or to another entity" (p. 4). Ajzen (in Driver et al., 1991a, p.412), adds, that such a gain can be defined only in relation to a goal, a standard, or a criterion, whether set by the individual or some larger unit. Once the goal has been clearly specified, the benefit of an activity can be operationalized by assessing the extent to which the goal has been attained, as well as the value of the goal to the social unit. He further acknowledges that any given leisure activity can, and often does, have more than one beneficial outcome, each of which should be assessed with reference to a clearly defined goal.

Despite the lack of consensus in the tourism benefit literature and even considerable confusion and mix of interpretations, there has been extensive use of tourist benefit research for more than 20 years and so there is a large body of relevant literature from tourism benefit research as well as from allied areas such as marketing and leisure which allows major uses, and associated issues, and any trends, standards or consensus to be identified.

In reviewing the extensive literature on tourist benefit research, this author proposes three conceptual issues for consideration prior to undertaking benefits research: (i) what to research, (ii) when to research, and (iii) how the research should be undertaken (Kay, 2006a). Each of these areas is elaborated in the next three sections.

2.10.3.4 What to Research Issues: Benefits Research Approaches, Typologies and Frameworks

Typologies of benefit categories are also of relevance to the issue of what benefits to research and defining benefits for the purpose of one's research. Several typologies of relevance to tourism benefits been identified from the literature. Frochot and Morrison (2000) note the lack of consensus among researchers on benefits in their review of benefit segmentation and its applications to travel and tourism research. They propose that three possibilities exist: attribute-based (with the nature of benefits often reflecting the attributes or features of the destination or service), psychologically-based (with these benefits often associated with travellers' motivations or emotional expectations), or a combination of both. They further note a tendency for psychologically-based benefits to be used in travel and tourism research studies and other authors have also noted a conceptual shift within the operationalisation of benefits away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcomes, especially since the 1990s (Tian et al., 1996). This research of cultural experience tourist benefits within the motivational process proposes focusing on both psychologically-based and attribute-based benefits to test the relevance of Frochot and Morrison's (2000) benefit typology in a cultural experience tourist context. To avoid the limitation of an overly site specific study, the proposed attribute-based dimensions will be generic to all types of cultural experiences.

Another relevant typology for experiential benefits derives from the allied area of leisure research and identifies five major general categories from an overview of specific types and general categories of benefits that have been attributed to leisure by research: psychological, psycho-physiological, economic, sociological (social and cultural), and environmental (Driver and Bruns, 1999). The first two categories are personal benefit-related with psychological benefits including the further sub-categories of better mental health and health maintenance, personal development and growth, and personal appreciation and satisfaction; and psycho-physiological benefits deriving from participation in activities. Economic benefit has been defined as, "the monetary worth of the improvements as measured by the prices that people are willing to pay for goods, services, and conditions that comprise the improvements" (Driver et al., 1991a, p.6). This typology of leisure benefits is considered relevant and useful to tourism benefit research as leisure is a closely allied area to tourism especially when the latter is undertaken for pleasure. A major strength of this typology is that it acknowledges a range of benefits that can accrue from leisure activities some of which are directly personal benefits and largely psychologically-related but might also involve physiological benefit, while others involve a larger external entity such as the external physical or economic environment or another social entity such as a group or society.

Driver and Bruns (1999) identify three types of benefits of leisure to operationalise their benefits approach to leisure: 1) an improved condition (e.g., a gain) of an individual, a group of individuals or another entity such as the physical environment, 2) the prevention of a worse condition through maintenance of a desired condition (e.g., prevention of adverse impacts of tourism, including harm to the physical environment), and 3) the realisation of a specific satisfying psychological

experience, which accrue only to individuals and are also called satisfying psychological outcomes. A further theory of relevance to this typology is the two basic measures of the consequences of leisure: measures of beneficial changes in behaviour and introspective measures (direct and indirect) (Driver et al., 1991b). Measures based on behavioural (performance) change include improvements in people, while the direct introspective measures focus on benefits as improved conditions, and the indirect introspective measures focus on a construct from which inferences can be made about probably beneficial consequences.

2.10.3.5 When to Research Issues of Benefits Research

One further categorisation of benefits found in tourism benefit research is based on the timing of the collection of benefit statements with some based on benefits sought or pursued (i.e., prior to the consumption experience) and others on benefits gained or realised (i.e., after the consumption experience or based on past experiences). This timing difference results in two separate constructs of benefits that will be defined for the purpose of this study in a later section following consideration of the relevant issues from the literature. In summary, however, benefits sought are particularly relevant to visitor's motives and expectations within the motivational process to attend experiences, while benefits gained or realised are of particular relevance to visitor's behavioural outcomes from experience consumption, especially satisfaction. Of the 15 key studies reviewed in Tables 2.14 and 2.15, the majority measure benefits sought including four of the five cultural tourism-related benefit studies and only three measure benefits gained or realised. No studies measure both.

That benefits can also be based on different times of the consumer experience has been acknowledged. Driver, Tinsley and Manfredo (Driver et al., 1991c) acknowledge the chain of benefit causality with psychological benefits defined as intervening variables in the chain of benefit causality that go from antecedent condition through motivation and participation to the realization of end-state benefits. They warn against looking only at end-state benefits as, "much will be left out, and our understanding will be severely impaired" (p.284). Benefits sought could be categorised as psychological benefits occurring early in the chain of benefit causality prior to participation, while benefits gained are occurring after participation and are the realisation of end-state-benefits.

One definition of expectations in the tourism motivation and expectation literature is based on their characteristics which are identified as: a temporally, forward-directed, intentional charged; dynamic, contain emotions, cognitions and intentions and refer specifically to outcomes or future events; and contain an emotional charge expressing the intensity of the drive with which behaviour, in reaction to the drive, is executed (1997; 1999). Based on these characteristics, Gnoth (1999) defines expectations as, "forward-directed, tentative attitudes containing a more or less definite element of knowledge about an object" (p.255).

Expectations are heavily referred to in customer satisfaction and service quality research. Four types of expectations are frequently cited: forecast, normative, ideal and minimum tolerable (Oliver,

1997). Forecast or expected or predictive expectations refer to a prediction of what the consumer believes *will occur* in the next service encounter (Boulding et al., 1993; Oliver, 1997). Normative refer to what the consumer *would expect*, which in turn, is related to what is feasible and realistic for the service firm to deliver (Oliver, 1997; Teas, 1993; 1994). Ideal, wished for, deserved or desired expectations refer to a standard that represents the highest level of performance attainable by a premier service provider in the category which consumer *should expect* (Oliver, 1997; Boulding et al. 1993; Teas 1993, 1994). Minimum tolerable or adequate expectations refer to the minimum baseline performance by a provider in the category (Oliver, 1997; Parasuraman et al., 1991).

2.10.3.6 How to Research Issues: Benefits Research Methodologies

Methodological issues abound in tourist benefit research and benefit segmentation research generally. A recent review of research in hospitality and tourism journals noted the predominance of market segmentation research and within this research found the predominant approach was the combinational use of factor analysis for data reduction, cluster analysis for classification, analysis of variance and discriminant analysis for cross-method validations of the classification results, descriptive profiling of each cluster (Oh et al., 2004). While a dominance in approach to tourism benefit segmentation has been noted, numerous other differences have been noted by Frochot and Morrison (2000). These include some researchers using either factor or cluster analysis on their own, with no consensus on one best method; different factor and cluster analysis techniques have been used and, associated with this, there is difficulty determining the best techniques for factor and cluster analysis, and the optimum cluster solution. Other issues with methodological approaches and techniques for measuring benefits for segmentation and other purposes have been noted for marketing generally (Hoek et al., 1993) and in tourism contexts (Dolnicar, 2002b, 2002c; Frochot and Morrison, 2000).

In the existing tourist benefits research there is little consensus regarding the scales used to measure tourist benefits, with only one study of heritage site visitors in the US (Weaver et al., 2002) using an existing scale of Recreation Preference Scale (Driver et al., 1991a). Five most common benefit statements in tourism benefit segmentation studies have been identified as: 1. to get away from everyday life/routine, 2. to be with friends, 3. to do something with the family, 4. to relax, and 5. to develop my knowledge and abilities (Frochot and Morrison, 2000).

There is more consensus regarding the data analysis method used which is predominantly a two-step process of factor analysis followed by cluster analysis. This methodological approach was used by seven of the ten non-cultural-related benefit studies in Table 2.14 and two of the five cultural-related studies in Table 2.15. Only four of the 15 studies did not include factor analysis. However a variety of factor and cluster techniques are used with the resulting solutions ranging from 4-19 factors and 2-6 cluster. When scale types are reported, Likert scales of importance or agreement are commonly used, in six and three studies, respectively. As previously reported, the majority of the studies measure benefits sought than benefits gained and no studies examine both.

Four studies use multi-dimensional segmentation (Alzua et al., 1998; Hsieh et al., 1997; Lang and O'Leary, 1997; Woodside and Jacobs, 1985) whereby segmentation is based on benefits and other variables namely, travel philosophy (2 studies), activity participation (2 studies), travel product preferences, destination attributes, and experiences realised. Several of the studies further use analysis of variance and discriminant analysis for cross-method validations of the classification results, and to test relationships between or influences of benefit segments and other variables, namely, activities or activity preferences (2 studies), setting attribute preferences, ideal destination planning concerns, constraints, quality evaluation, and expenditure patterns. This demonstrates wide variation in the other variables studied in addition to benefits.

2.10.3.7 Defining and Researching Benefits Summary

For the purposes of this study, **Benefits Sought** are defined as, "a normative expectation, that is a forward-directed, intentional charged, tentative attitude toward a particular consumption goal that contains some knowledge about the cultural experience and the psycho-socio-physiological benefit to be gained by having the experience and is driven by motives for attending the experience".

In contrast, **Benefits Gained** are defined for the purposes of this study as, "an improved psycho-socio-physiological outcome resulting from the cultural consumption experience, the performance of tangible and intangible attributes experienced, and the consequences of visitor's behaviours during the consumption experience."

Normative expectations are being used in this study as one aim is to measure the quality of the visitors' experience (e.g., benefits gained and satisfaction) rather than their perceptions of the supplier's quality of performance (i.e., product quality),. This distinction between satisfaction and product quality is further discussed in section 2.10.4 of the satisfaction construct considerations. The type of expectation being measured has implications for the wording of the survey questions relating to the benefits sought and the benefits gained constructs which will be further discussed in Chapter 4 Research Method, section 4.5.4 on measuring benefits.

So defined, this study is firstly treating benefits as separate constructs to motives that are relevant to the motivational process and further treating benefits sought and benefits gained as two separate constructs based on the timing of when the benefits are measured. Benefits sought are largely psychologically-based expectations and benefits gained are largely psychologically-based behavioural outcomes, and both of these constructs are soundly accommodated within Mannell's motivational process model (1999) that was reviewed earlier in this chapter (section 2.9.6.2).

2.10.3.8 Uses of Benefits in Marketing

The most common marketing application of both benefits sought and benefits gained is for market segmentation purposes. It was one of the earliest uses of benefit variables in the late 1960s and this dominant use continues today. Benefit segmentation is considered a superior approach to market segmentation. An early rationale for benefit segmentation (Haley, 1968) was, "the benefits

which people are seeking in consuming a given product are the basic reasons for the existence of true market segments" (p.198). A strength of benefit segmentation identified from its application to various consumer products and brands since 1961 is that it relied on causal factors than descriptive factors and therefore was a good predictor of future consumer behaviour (Haley 1961 cited in Haley, 1971).

Proposed uses of benefit variables in this study's research of tourist's cultural experiences follow on from the widely accepted acknowledgment that benefits are relevant to understanding and predicting buying behaviour and have implications for marketing (e.g., Frochot and Morrison, 2000; Kotler et al., 2006) which in turn follow on from Haley's first work on benefit segmentation and consumer product attributes in 1968. One of the earliest tourist benefit segmentation studies reviewed in this study (Woodside and Jacobs, 1985) used benefits realised segmentation to differentiate groups of visitors of various nationalities in Hawaii and implied that the advertising strategy for each nationality should be differentiated and suggested that the results should also be useful in improving destination tourism facilities. Kotler et al., (2006) also emphasise two marketing implications of benefit segmentation and knowing the benefits sought by customers: "First, managers can develop products with features that provide the benefits their customers are seeking. Second, managers communicate more effectively with their customers if they know what benefits they seek" (p. 274). Cross-tabulating benefits sought segments with various behavioural information has the further advantage of providing a complete profile of the segments for tourist vacation styles in this instance (Dolnicar and Leish, 2003).

While benefit segmentation has been applied to many other markets and studies particularly from the 1980s onwards, its greatest attention and application has been in the fields of travel, tourism, leisure and recreation. Suggested reasons for this interest in benefit segmentation by these sectors include a widely held belief of some association between tourists' motivations and benefits sought, although the exact link is still to be tested and proven (Frochot and Morrison, 2000), and travellers' motivations, in turn, have always been portrayed as a critical variable in the tourist decision-making process (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Lundberg, 1971). A recent review of research in hospitality and tourism journals (Oh et al., 2004) noted that market segmentation research continues to take more space than any other single research topic in hospitality and tourism journals, however, limitations of tourism segmentation research are also noted in this review and by several others (Dolnicar, 2002b; 2002c; Frochot and Morrison, 2000).

Benefits-based tourism segmentation in particular, has been noted for its advantages as stated above as well as some issues and limitations (Frochot, 2005; Frochot and Morrison, 2000). Most of the issues and limitations relate to how benefit dimensions are measured and analysed. What benefit dimensions will be measured in this study will be based on a review of the existing empirical research to consider the extent to which standards or consensus may exist in approaches to using and measuring tourist benefit dimensions and particularly to identify a set of commonly found benefit dimensions (see Chapter 4 Research Method, section 4.5.4).

Conceptually, both benefits sought and gained are key dimensions of relevance to another consumer behavioural outcome, that is, satisfaction which is also of relevance to consumer's future motivation and participation. A new use of both benefits sought and benefits gained measures is proposed in this study as a research method of benefit. Benefits will be used as a measure of satisfaction for experiential products such as cultural experiences, using any difference between benefits sought and benefits gained as a variation on the expectancy disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980a), thereby identifying any gaps which reduce satisfaction for all service encounters as conceptually identified in the gap analysis model (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Benefits sought from the cultural experience will be used as a measure of consumer's expectations about the cultural experience, and benefits gained as an experience evaluation because they have been formed on prior experiences. Consumer expectations and performance evaluations are particularly relevant to consumer satisfaction as will be discussed further in section 2.10.4.

2.10.4 Satisfaction

Satisfaction as a behavioural outcome of relevance to the motivational process was introduced in Section 2.9.6.2 based on Mannell's (1999) conceptualisation of motivation as a process. Conceptualisations and measurement of satisfaction can range from a single item direct measure to multi-faceted, complex processes comprising several interrelated components. When the product is a complex experiential service as it is for many tourism experiences, but particularly for cultural experience tourism which is the focus of this study, conceptualising and measuring tourist satisfaction raises various issues and problems that will be considered in this section.

Definitions, conceptualisation and measurement approaches for consumer and tourist satisfaction abound because satisfaction research in these contexts has been extensive over the past twenty years. In the first section of this review, different definitions and conceptualisations of satisfaction will be considered especially the confusion and relationships between the constructs of satisfaction and service quality. That some authors consider satisfaction an outcome (e.g., Oliver, 1981 cited in Yi, 1990) and a complex process (e.g., Churchill and Suprenant, 1982; Yau, 1994) will also be considered. Measurement approaches tend to be either direct or inferred, and an inferred method is applied in this study. Satisfaction is viewed as an unobserved construct that is dynamic, complex and multi-faceted. Numerous theories about the relationships between satisfaction and other constructs of particular interest to this study especially motivation will then be considered in the next section (2.10.4.1) including the literature on tourism research to date which combines motivation and satisfaction. In the satisfaction construct section (2.10.4.3), the marketing applications of satisfaction will be considered including gaps in the data such as the emerging need for cross-cultural or cross-national research of satisfaction to which this study aims to make a contribution. A new use for benefits in operationalising the measurement of satisfaction proposed in this study in the previous section, will be outlined further in this section.

2.10.4.1 Satisfaction and Service Quality Debates and Definitions

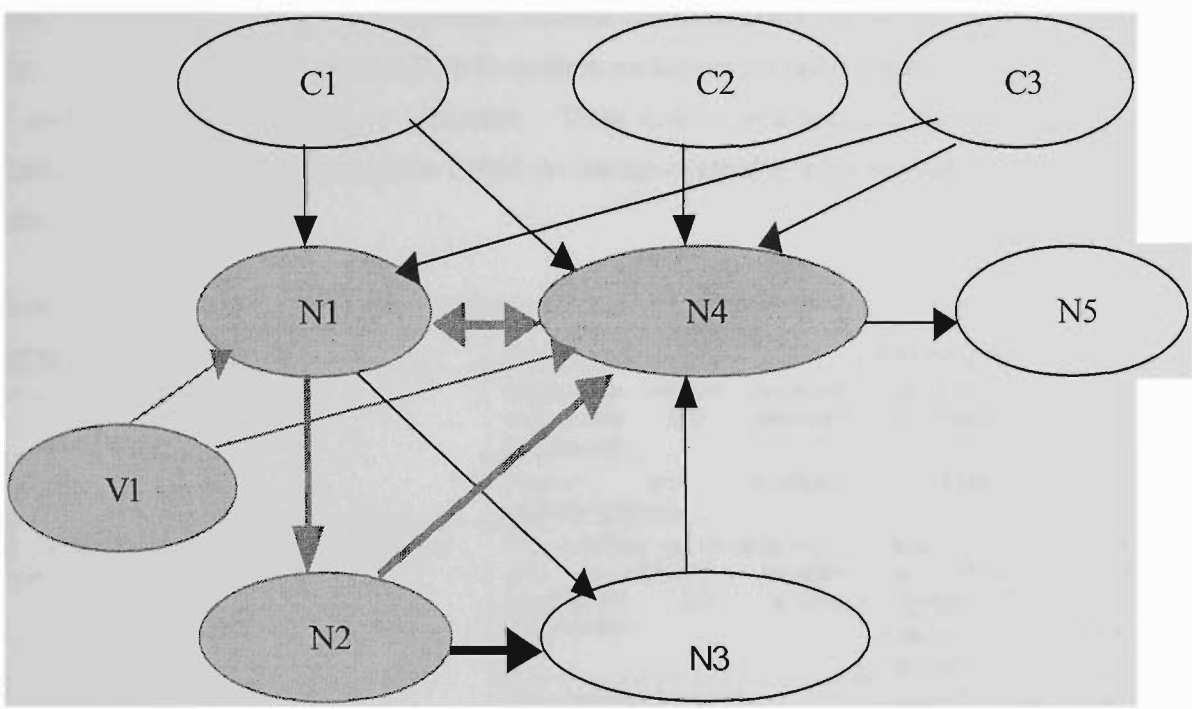
The conceptualisation, definition and measurement of satisfaction and service quality in a services context such as tourism consumption is the object of an unresolved debate. Some of the ongoing questions and dilemmas raised recently (Frochot, 2004) are the diverging definitions and interchangeable use of the terms 'satisfaction' and 'service quality', whether satisfaction in tourism consumption should be evaluated upon the achievement of psychological/emotional needs or on its utilitarian/quality components, what constitutes the prime sources of satisfaction, and how these concepts should be best measured with two main options being direct measures or inferred approaches such as the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm. Adding to the confusion, the forms of the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm have been equally used in various research projects to measure satisfaction when defined as an attitude of an emotional nature, and quality, when measured on tangible criteria (2004). Even if using the inferred or discrepancy approaches to evaluate and measure consumer or tourist satisfaction, further issues arise (1994). These include the ambiguity of the terms 'consumer satisfaction' and 'consumer dissatisfaction' and whether consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction are on the same continuum, what components or variables should be included in a structural model of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and whether disconfirmation should be a separate construct that has independent additive effects on satisfaction as claimed by Oliver (1979), how to best measure each of these components in the model, what constitutes the independent and dependant variables, and what interrelationships or causality exist between components in the model. Other authors have compared alternative direct and discrepancy approaches for measuring quality of performance at a festival and considered their predictive or diagnostic potential as well as the relationship between perceptions of supplier's quality of performance and satisfaction (Childress and Crompton, 1997).

While there are many different theories and models for consumer satisfaction, it is most often associated with the work of Hunt (1977; 1991) and Oliver (1976; 1979; 1980a; 1994; 1997), and with the notion of the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm which stipulates that the level of consumers' satisfaction will depend on a product matching (or not) prior expectations. This approach is an accepted method for measuring satisfaction dating back to the recreation satisfaction literature where satisfaction is defined as, "a function of the degree of congruency between aspirations and the perceived reality of experiences" (Bultena and Klessig, 1969, p. 349). Similarly defined, customer satisfaction is, "the consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior experiences (or some other norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption" (Tse and Wilton, 1988, p. 204). Yau (1994) categorises the discrepancy disconfirmation paradigm as one of several psychological interpretations of the satisfaction process that is gaining acceptance and has been applied extensively by consumer psychologists and marketing researchers to explain product evaluation, and to assess satisfaction in the consumer decision-making context. Oliver (1980b; 1981) suggests that a consumer's expectation serves as a standard against which the performance

of the product is judged. Disconfirmation serves as a principal force causing 'positive or negative deviation' from the level, the net effect of which is satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

The complexity of consumer satisfaction and its determinants, conceptualised as a process incorporating the discrepancy disconfirmation paradigm and comprising numerous components and influencing factors can be seen in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Linkages tested in prior research for a structural model of the consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction process



Source: Based on Churchill & Suprenant (1982); Yau (1994)

Abbreviations in the Model:

V1:	Cultural Values	N1:	Product Expectations
C1:	Consumption Usage Situations	N2:	Perceived Performance
C2:	Consumption Experiences	N3:	Disconfirmation
C3:	Affective Experiences	N4:	Consumer Satisfaction/dissatisfaction
		N5:	Behavioural Intentions

Arrows in the Model:

→ Previously explored relationships with empirical and/or theoretical support (see NB)

➡ Previously explored relationships with strong empirical and/or theoretical support (see NB)

NB: Even though the relationships between these variables have been shown to be limited or strong empirically, the causality between some of the variables (especially the relationships between N1 and N3) is still in question because of conflicting findings between various research.

Constructs and relationships of particular interest to this proposed study of cultural experience tourist motivation

This diagram combines two empirical studies of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction: one by Yau (1994) which applied the model in the context of Chinese cultural influences on consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction with two products (a ballpoint pen and a cassette player) and the other by Churchill and Suprenant (1982) which applied parts of the model in an experiment of the customer satisfaction process for two types of new products (a video disc player durable good and a hybrid chrysanthemum plant nondurable good). Both processes included the constructs of perceived expectations, perceived performance, a separate disconfirmation construct and a separate satisfaction/dissatisfaction measurement. Yau's (1994) study also included constructs for satisfaction related independent variables of Chinese cultural values, consumption experiences, affective experiences, and the dependent variable of behavioural intentions. Both studies define each of these constructs or variables and develop measures for operationalising the measurement of each of these constructs or variables. They further propose and empirically test causal relationships between the constructs based on linkages tested in prior research as summarised in Table 2.16.

Table 2.16: Summary of linkages tested in prior research of relevance to figure 2.3

Linkage	Comments	Findings	Author(s) and Year
N1 → N2		Relationship between perceived expectations and perceived performance	Anderson (1973) cited in Churchill & Suprenant 1982
		Positive and significant relationship found	Yau (1994)
N1 → N3 → N4	Inconsistent results from studies	Dissatisfaction had no relationship with disconfirmation between expectations and product performance	Oliver (1977, 1979, 1980b cited in Yau (1994), Churchill & Suprenant (1982)
			Watruba & Duncan (1975) cited in Yau (1994)
		Reported opposite result	Vinson & Yang (1979) cited in Yau (1994); Swan & Trawick (1980); Churchill & Suprenant (1982) cited in Yau (1994)
N1 → N3	Inconsistent results from studies	Significant relationship between expectations and disconfirmation found for in different situations for 2 products	Yau (1994)
N2 → N3		Relationship between perceived performance and disconfirmation	Swan & Trawick (1980) cited in Churchill & Suprenant (1982), Yau (1994); Churchill and Suprenant (1982); Yau (1994);
N2 → N4		Relationship between perceived performance and satisfaction	Swan & Trawick (1980) cited in Churchill & Suprenant (1982), Yau (1994)
	Inconsistent results found for 2 products in experiment. In the nondurable plant experiment, expectations, disconfirmation and performance all affected satisfaction (directly and indirectly). In the video disc experiment, only performance had a dominant impact on satisfaction.		Churchill and Suprenant (1982); cited in Yau (1994)
		Significant relationship in a positive direction was found.	Yau (1994)

N4 → N5	Showed empirically that satisfaction is significantly related to both the consumers' post-exposure and to their pre-exposure intentions	Relationship between satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Oliver (1980b) cited in Yau (1994)
	.	Consumer satisfaction was positively related to behavioural intentions	Yau (1994)
N1 → N4		Argued dissatisfaction caused by expectations	Oliver (1977, 1979, 1980b) cited in Yau (1994), Churchill & Suprenant (1982)
			Watruba & Duncan (1975) cited in Yau (1994)
		Highly significant relationship between expectations and satisfaction was found.	Churchill & Suprenant (1982); Yau (1994)
N3 → N4		Relationship between disconfirmation and satisfaction	Olson & Dover (1976) cited in Churchill & Suprenant (1982)
V1→ N1		Relationship between cultural values and product expectations. Found to be significantly related in positive direction	Yau (1994)
V1→ N4	Suggest that Chinese consumers tend to become satisfied through a theory of cognitive dissonance whereby they tend to reduce their expectations with the product after purchase in order to be more satisfied.	Relationship between cultural values and satisfaction/ dissatisfaction was found.	Yau (1994)

The constructs and relationships in Figure 2.3 of particular interest to this study of cultural experience tourist motivation are highlighted and include the core components of expectations, performance perceptions after consumption experience, satisfaction/dissatisfaction, and the influence of a culture construct on the process.

A concept closely related to, "but not equivalent to satisfaction" (Cronin and Taylor, 1992) is service quality. Childress and Crompton (1997) apply the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm developed by Oliver (1980a) to quality of performance rather than satisfaction *per se,* and claim it more tightly defines and specifies this notion that visitor's evaluations of their expectations serve as reference points for their perceptions of quality of performance. It holds that perceptions of a supplier's performance are related to a visitor's initial expectations of it. Thus, its quality can be confirmed (performed as expected), negatively disconfirmed (performed worse than expected) or positively disconfirmed (performed better than expected). They identify and empirically compare seven different quality-of-performance measures (direct and indirect) and conclude that the direct quality measures were the most problematic while one of the most desirable alternatives was the indirect differential measure, the perceptions-minus-expectations gap format of the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm. Its major strengths were its relative ease of administration and its yield of useful diagnostic insights. However, it has low predictive and discriminative validity and some instability among the factor domains.

The relationship between perceptions of supplier's quality of performance, and satisfaction, defined and empirically measured as two separate constructs, was also considered by Childress and

Crompton in a festival experience context (1997). While discrepancy and direct scale alternatives were used to measure the quality of performance with the former found to be superior as discussed in the previous paragraph, they also measured festival consumer satisfaction as a dependent variable using a four-item aggregated scale developed by Crosby and Stephens (1987 cited in Childress and Crompton, 1997). A single item to measure a second dependent variable of value for money was also included. Empirical findings identified that the constructs of quality of performance and satisfaction are different but related. They suggested from this research that visitor satisfaction was operationalising the quality of the visitors' experience, as distinct from the quality of performance measures which were operationalising visitor's perceptions of the supplier's quality of performance.

Also in relation to service quality, a powerful tool for measuring service quality in any context, SERVQUAL, was introduced in the late 1980s (Parasuraman et al., 1988). The SERVQUAL instrument is an inferred method of service quality defined, "as the discrepancy between customers' expectations and perceptions" (Parasuraman et al., 1994b). It measures consumers' expectations based on their experiences as a customer of a nominated service category of the ideal attributes that any company within this nominated service industry would possess to deliver excellent quality of service and compares this with the consumer's evaluation of the extent to which a specific company within the nominated service industry performed on these attributes (Zeithaml et al., 1990). As a perceptions-minus-expectations gap format approach to measuring service quality, it operationalises measurement of Gap 5 in Parasuraman and colleagues' (Parasuraman et al., 1985) earlier conceptual gap analysis model of service quality. SERVQUAL has been used extensively in various service areas including cultural attraction and event experiences of art exhibitions (Higgs et al., 2005; Kerstetter et al., 2001) and historic house visitation (Frochot, 2004; Frochot and Hughes, 2000).

Criticisms of studies of the SERVQUAL type include limiting their approach to an evaluation of the tangible or utilitarian dimensions of the service experience. This model could be considered a shortcoming for the evaluation of satisfaction or service quality in some specific products and services (leisure and art services for instance) that involve strong emotional and experiential dimensions as identified in the experiential theories of consumption (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). This criticism is particularly pertinent to tourism consumption such as cultural experience tourism where emotional and experiential dimensions could be a significant part of the tourist motivation and consumption. SERVQUAL has been criticised for being based on a satisfaction paradigm rather than an attitude model. By specifically instructing respondents to think about excellent companies, it uses a measure of expectations that aligns more closely with ideal expectations (Higgs et al., 2005) which can produce high standard levels of responses with very little variation and this limits diagnostic analysis. Respondents are normally surveyed once only in the post-experience phase and are required to recall pre-experience expectations which relies on the accuracy of the respondent's memory and there is the

added problem that expectations are dynamic (Boulding et al., 1993) and shaped by the actual visitation experience.

2.10.4.2 Motivation, Benefits and Satisfaction

From the previous review of consumer satisfaction approaches and literature, expectations form the frame of reference for satisfaction judgements (Oliver, 1997) and perceived performance evaluation is directly relevant to psychological interpretations of consumer satisfaction, especially the discrepancy expectations-minus-perceptions approaches of service quality and the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm of consumer satisfaction.

Frochot (2004) identifies two trends in tourism quality and satisfaction research: one focusing on social and psychological factors and the other on largely utilitarian product attributes.

The achievement of needs and motivations as prime sources of satisfaction has dominated some leisure research (Beard and Ragheb, 1980; Lounsbury and Hoopes, 1985) and tourism research (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). These views corroborated Crompton's (1979) findings on vacation motivation and satisfaction which suggested relationships between values, benefits and satisfaction in tourist motivation, and asserted psychological and social factors as prime sources of vacation satisfaction rather than destination attributes:

> The values, benefits and satisfactions derived from the vacation were neither related to, or not derived from a particular destination's attributes. Rather satisfactions were related to social and psychological factors unique to the particular individual or group involved (cited in Frochot, 2004, p.224).

Conversely, other tourism studies have focused largely on more functional and utilitarian dimensions by identifying ranges of attributes upon which quality, satisfaction and pull theories of motivation are evaluated. Tailoring the SERVQUAL instrument for the study of tourism services and destinations are some examples of this approach and include cultural attraction and event experiences of art exhibitions (Higgs et al., 2005; Kerstetter et al., 2001), and historic house visitation (Frochot and Hughes, 2000).

These dual approaches to the notion of satisfaction and quality in tourism consumption have been questioned by other researchers and the necessity of combining both utilitarian and experiential dimensions in satisfaction evaluation of tourism consumption has been long recognised in the literature (e.g., Childress and Crompton, 1997; Moutinho, 1987). Operationalisation remains a complex issue.

Frochot's (2004) recent study of visitor's quality evaluation of historic houses' service provision, sought to operationalise combining both utilitarian and experiential dimensions by measuring the former with HISTOQUAL - a perception only variation of SERVQUAL, and the latter through benefits sought, with data for both obtained through exit surveys at three historic properties in Great Britain. Benefit segmentation was applied to evaluate the motivational profile of the visitors and

then discriminant analysis was conducted with the dependent variable of cluster membership and the independent variables of service quality ratings and the importance weights allocated to these. The benefits sought scale used in this study was developed from interviews with previous visitors, thereby limiting its suitability to be applied in other tourist service context settings, however the study was considered by Frochot (2004) to support linking benefits to quality evaluations as pertinent for tourism products of an experiential nature.

While there are many studies of consumer satisfaction or service quality in a tourism context as mentioned above, and an emerging number of studies on service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (e.g., Baker and Crompton, 2000; Howat et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2004b; Thrane, 2002), a very small number of other tourism studies look at motivation and satisfaction as separate but related constructs. Examples of the latter include a study of sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction in Washington, United States (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991), an investigation of festival motivation and event satisfaction by visitor type including repeat visitors to a hot air balloon festival in North Carolina, United States (Mohr et al., 1993), a study of the motives, behaviours and satisfactions of backpackers in the Northern Territory of Australia (Mohsin and Ryan, 2003), and an examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty in Northern Cyprus (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). While all four studies are of some relevance to this proposed study of cultural experience tourist motivation, these studies use different definitions and measures of both motivation and satisfaction. Yoon and Uysal's (2005) study is of additional relevance to this proposed study because it examines the causal relationships between the constructs of motivation and satisfaction, but in relation to destination loyalty, which is not relevant to this proposed study.

The link between consumer satisfaction and motivation has been discussed earlier in section 2.9.6.2 outlining motivation as a process comprised of components in a sequence of causal relationships that include behavioural outcomes such as satisfaction. The motivational process components identified in this study as critical to understanding cultural experience tourism are the psychologically-related constructs of culture, attitudes, motives, and benefits sought, and the selected behavioural outcomes of benefits gained and satisfaction.

2.10.4.3 Uses of Satisfaction in Marketing and Cross-Cultural Data Gaps in Cultural Experience Tourist Satisfaction

In the consumer satisfaction research and literature, present theories were mostly developed and tested in the United States, hence an inherent need has been identified (Yau, 1994, pp. 59-60) for cross-cultural or cross-national research. Furthermore, one of the main purposes of this cross-cultural consumer satisfaction research is to search for differences in consumer behaviour which can better serve as reminders for differential marketing strategies or policies (Yau, 1994, pp. 59-60). In the tourism context, there is also a need for cross-cultural research of tourist satisfaction and motivation. One recent study segmented festival motivation by nationality and satisfaction in recognition of the importance of festival market segmentation as a valuable marketing tool for

promotion and understanding segment characteristics based on motivations (Lee et al., 2004a). The study analysed festival market segmentation between domestic and foreign visitor groups where foreign visitors were aggregated and called for future research to validate the measurement scales in disaggregated countries, before generalisations can be made.

2.10.4.4 Defining and Researching Satisfaction Summary

Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction is defined as, "a judgement, attitude or psychological state arising from consumer's disconfirmation of expectations and unexpected events. It is a function of the degree of congruency or disparity/disconfirmation between visitor's perceptions of the quality of their experience and of the supplier's performance (regarding both quality and non-quality dimensions) and visitor's evaluations of their *normative* expectations which serve as reference points for their perceptions of quality of performance". Hence if people's expectations exceed their perceptions of how a service performed, then the negative disconfirmation (performed worse than expected), if their expectations are confirmed (performed as expected), and if their perceptions exceed their expectations then their expectations are positively disconfirmed (performed better than expected).

In contrast with satisfaction/dissatisfaction, **Service Quality** is defined as, "visitor's perceptions of the quality of a supplier's performance. It is a function of the degree of congruency or disparity/disconfirmation between visitor's perceptions of quality of supplier's performance and visitor's evaluation of their *ideal* expectations which serve as reference points for their perceptions of quality of performance". If people's expectations exceed their perceptions of how a service performed, then the negative disconfirmation (performed worse than expected) will lead to a perception of low quality.

2.11 Influencing Variables and Profiling Characteristics to be Tested in this Study

2.11.2 Culture and Language

2.11.1.1 Defining Culture

Culture is a multi-variate concept with many definitions and no consensus definition that can be widely accepted (Reisinger and Turner, 2003, p.32). There are also many dimensions or elements on which cultures differ, and many different theories or frameworks for these cultural elements and dimensions (Hall, 1977, reprinted 1989; Herskovits, 1952; Hofstede, 1980; Sculpin, 1999). Each dominant culture consists of several subcultures based on race, ethnicity, geographic region, socio-economic characteristics (Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Race refers to a genetic or biological similarity among people (Lustig and Koester, 1993 cited in Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Ethnicity refers to a wide variety of groups of people who share a language, history and religions and identify themselves with a common national or cultural system (Lustig & Koester, 1993 cited in Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Ethnic variety can be found in all countries (Samovar et al., 1998 cited in Reisinger and Turner, 2003).

From an international marketing perspective, language is one of five key elements of culture identified by anthropologists to be evaluated in order to understand a culture (Cateora and Graham, 2002). Hence language differences are being used to initially identify the units of population to be sampled because this is one fundamental cultural element by which cultural experience tourists can be divided into sub-groups and statistically significant language differences for the cultural experience tourist motivational process constructs, if found, are crucial to marketing strategies, especially communication and promotion, and also to consumers' marketing needs and responses.

Using language spoken at home to define culture, aligns it with an early definition of culture by Linton (1945) in the book, *The Cultural Background of Personality*. Linton's definition of culture emphasises that culture is learned behaviour, dynamic, transmissive and its characteristics are shared by members of a given society, all of which directly apply to the key cultural element of language spoken by the members of a particular society. Linton defines culture as:

> the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society (1945, p.32).

For the purpose of this study **culture** is defined as, "the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society and in this study will be operationalised by the cultural element of language spoken at home."

2.11.1.2 Culture and Tourism Marketing Applications

Cultural differences are especially relevant to the tourism industry as it is increasingly experiencing globalisation and associated with this, considerable attention to the relevance of cultural diversity, cultural characteristics representing an attractive element of the tourism product itself, and tourism as a service industry where people from different cultures can meet (Pizam, 1999). Unfortunately, the role of cultural differences in determining tourist behaviour has not been paid much attention in tourism research (Pizam, 1999).

The acknowledged importance of consumer behaviour and marketing to tourism is highlighted above. This combined with the fact that tourism has become an international phenomenon of global consequence (Dimanche, 1994), with international tourism – the movement across international boundaries - increasing dramatically over the last two decades (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994), suggests that within the tourism literature there should already be a large number of cross-cultural research and international research, particularly in consumer behaviour and marketing. However, there is a relative scarcity of cross-cultural studies reported in the tourism literature as noted by Dimanche (1994) and specifically in relation to travel behaviour. Plog (1990, p.43) noted a little earlier that, "cross-cultural research, particularly related to travel behavior, is quite rare." In the tourist motivation literature, despite extensive research on tourist motivation, event tourism motivation, cultural tourism motivation and event motivation, as outlined in the previous sections of this literature review, the literature still suffers from a lack of empirical studies that investigate

whether tourist motives differ between culture groups. Festival and event motivation studies have been undertaken at the community and rural level, but little research on cultural festivals has been conducted or published at the international level (Formica and Uysal, 1998).

Since the late 1990s, a number of studies have been identified from the English language tourist motivation literature that incorporate a cross-cultural dimension and these are briefly discussed below.

The gap in tourist motivation differing by nationality and destinations led to one of the first studies to compare tourist motivations across various destinations and various nationalities (Kozak, 2002). The objectives of this research were twofold, firstly whether there were any differences between the motivations of those who are from different countries travelling to the same destinations and secondly, between the motivations of those who are travelling from the same countries to two different destinations. The first research objective is of most interest to this research. The analysis was based on intrinsic desires of the individual traveller ('push' factors) and the external destination factors ('pull' factors) influencing the motivations of British and German tourists visiting Malljorca and Turkey in the summer season. This research showed that motivations differ from one person (or group) to another as well as from one destination to another.

One study that contributes to addressing the gap in festival event motivation is Lee's (2000) research which compared event motivation between Caucasian and Asian visitors at a cultural event in an Asian setting based on analysis of visitors from four countries/regions - Japan, Korea, America and Europe – and by three language groups – Japanese, Korean, and English for all other foreign visitors. Thirty-two motivation items were factor analysed, resulting in seven underlying dimensions and the results showed significant differences in motivations among visitors from the four countries/regions. While no significant differences were found between Koreans and Japanese (Asian) or between Americans and Europeans (Caucasian), significant differences were found between Caucasians and Asians. Moreover, Caucasian visitors tended to have higher motivations than Asian visitors. Some motivation factors received similar ratings by all groups, that is, high ratings on the motivation factors of cultural exploration and event attractions and low ratings on the factor of family togetherness.

Whether equivalent factor structures apply in a culture outside of North America has been questioned by several authors (Lee, 2000; Schneider and Backman, 1996). Schneider and Backman (1996) examined the applicability of the factor structure of motivation scales commonly used by festival studies to an Arabic arts and culture festival. A similar factor structure appeared indicating that festival motivation scale developed in North America is readily transferable to an Arabic cultural festival, and suggesting that festival motivation scales are applicable regardless of cultural boundaries. Lee's (2000) study comparing event motivation between Caucasian and Asian visitors in an Asian setting identified seven underlying motivation dimensions, all of which were also reported by other previous studies even though they were slightly different in order and

components of motivational factors. These findings imply that motivation items and scales measured in North America and Europe could be also applicable to Asian countries.

From the travel motivation literature, Loker-Murphy (1996) studied the motives of backpackers in Australia by adapting Pearce's (Moscardo and Pearce, 1986; Pearce, 1988; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983) Travel Career Ladder which in turn is largely needs-based and recognises that while tourists overtime will ascend the ladder, the same tourist may vary their travel career level depending on the travel situation. Furthermore, motives at each level may be internally (self) or externally (other) directed. Loker-Murphy (1996) then applied this empirical research of backpacker motives to segmentation purposes. Nationality was the most pronounced difference across these segments, but segments also differed in terms of activity preferences as well as expenditure patterns, accommodation and destinations visited. Although results for most of the nationality groups were small and should be taken with caution, differences in backpacker travel motives were found for Europeans, North Americans, Asian/other respondents, Australians and New Zealanders.

Moscardo et al., (1996) in their research to understand destination choice by travel motivation or benefits sought, activity experiences and preferences, and the role of these in vacation destination decisions, focused on Australian outbound travellers. They speculated that if expanded to include international travellers from other countries, it might be expected that this research would indicate that although similarities exist, each country will have a unique set of benefit/activity clusters.

2.11.1.3 Cross-cultural Research Problems

Conducting cross-cultural research is prone to many environmental and methodological problems that can impede it being undertaken or limit its use (Dimanche, 1994). Many specific problems are identified by Dimanche (1994). Cultural and language differences and their effects are obvious problems. Other environmental factors include a misunderstanding of the value and benefits of cross-cultural research; ethnocentrism of researchers; and lack of the associated needed resources such as money, multi-lingual researchers, or cross-cultural co-operation with research colleagues. Methodological issues when undertaking cross-cultural research are many and include language translations and cultural equivalence, experiential and cultural equivalence, and measurement equivalence. Further problems noted by Dimanche (1994) are the relative scarcity of cross-cultural studies reported in the tourism literature, and of the published studies, most of those using translated instruments tend to lack sufficient information concerning the validity and reliability of the question items in the various cultures, therefore making the results suspect.

Another frequently encountered problem especially relevant to cross-cultural tourism research of international markets, is access to research population samples, in terms of sufficient numbers, and where and when the population samples are accessed, for example, at home; at the destination; on-site at cultural attractions/events or at non-cultural attractions/events; at the destination departure point; before and after the cultural event experience, and so on.

2.11.1.4 Cross-cultural Research and Cultural Experience Tourist Motivation Summary

It is widely acknowledged in the services and tourism literature, that consumers' expectations, perceptions, and behaviour are influenced by cultural factors, and marketers who want their services adopted across cultures must understand these differences (e.g., Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000).

The existing studies of cross-cultural tourist and event motivation considered in section 2.13.1.2 reveal mixed findings of relevance to this study. Regarding the great cultural divide widely found between Western and Asian cultural groups in many consumer behaviour studies (e.g., Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998) and in tourism service contexts (Reisinger and Turner, 1998a, 1998b, 2002a, 2002b; Turner et al., 2001), for tourist motivation such differences were found in one study (Lee, 2000), but no statistically significant differences were found in another study (Schneider and Backman, 1996). Differences in tourist motivation between Western cultural groups have been found between British and German tourists in one study (Kozak, 2002), but not between Americans and Europeans in another study (Lee, 2000). Within Asian cultures, insignificant differences were found for festival event motivations between Koreans and Japanese cultural groups (Lee, 2000). Travel motivations of backpackers in Australia found small differences between five nationality groups: Europeans, North Americans, Asian/other respondents, Australians and New Zealanders (Loker-Murphy, 1996).

One limitation of the proposed research of international tourist's cultural orientation and differences as represented by language spoken at home, is that it will not cover all cultural dimensions recommended in cross-cultural studies for more grounded inferences (such as power distance, collectivism/individualism, masculinity/femininity, and so on). Cultural distance is one dimension of cultural orientation that refers to the extent to which the culture of the originating region differs from that of the host region (McIntosh et al., 1994). Studies of cultural tourism in Hong Kong have found cultural distance influences participation in international cultural tourism (McKercher and Chow, 2001; McKercher and du Cros, 2003). The concept of cultural distance as represented by country-of-origin, may be relevant to explaining findings in this proposed study. There is a need for tourism academic research and literature that analyses cultural differences and determines their impact on tourist behaviour. Such research and literature would be cross-cultural by nature. It could be based on differences across nations for the purpose of determining whether similar patterns exist among consumers and decision makers in different countries, as defined by Pizam (1999, p.407).

Other authors have criticised the practice of using nationality as a sole discriminating variable for explaining the differences found in the behaviour of tourists (e.g., Dann, 1993). In reviewing cross-cultural tourism marketing research, Dimanche (1994) uses the term "cross-cultural" because it is broader and "reflects more possible differences in consumer behavior than 'cross-national'" (van Raaij, 1978, p. 693 cited in Dimanche, 1994).

Of the cross-cultural research in a tourism context that has been undertaken, various or multiple purposes could apply. Dimanche (1994) identifies three purposes: one of which is tourism and culture-related, and the other two are tourism, culture and marketing-related. A primary purpose would be to test a touristic phenomenon or construct in various cultural environments, therefore providing different conditions needed to test that phenomenon or construct and gain a better understanding of the construct or phenomenon in question. Another important purpose is to test tourist behaviour and marketing theories in international settings, in order to learn whether the theories can be generalisable or whether they are culture-specific. While Dimanche acknowledges that in tourism contexts, behaviour and vacation patterns are often culture-specific, better recognition and understanding of differences between cultures through research appears to be important. The third purpose of cross-cultural research is also marketing-oriented and aims to explore other cultures, learn about them, and to test cultural differences in tourism marketing contexts (e.g., investigate tourists' behavioural and attitudinal differences in several international markets in order to better target and satisfy them). The cross-cultural purpose of this proposed study would strongly fit with the third of these stated purposes.

2.12 Marketing Applications

It is clear from the literature review that attitudes, motives, benefits (sought and realised) and satisfaction need to be considered in this study. In section 2.10.3.8 on use of benefits in marketing, it was acknowledged that one of the most common application of benefits research in a tourism context has been for market segmentation purposes.

The marketing purposes of market segmentation and the related concept of target marketing are discussed below as well as some of the associated debates, limitations and criticisms identified in the literature to date. One of the more recent developments is the use of multiple segmentation bases rather than a single base, an area to which this study aims to make a significant contribution as further discussed below.

2.12.1 Market Segmentation

If a tourism market can be subdivided by distinguishable characteristics into differentiated groups in accordance with the accepted theoretical principle of market segmentation in general (Kotler, 2000) and for tourism markets specifically (e.g., Kotler et al., 2006; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Morrison, 2001), then this marketing theory advocates developing unique marketing strategies for each of these groups.

The benefits of market segmentation for marketing purposes has been discussed throughout this literature review but especially in sections 2.9.4.3 on benefits and tourism motivation and 2.10.3.8 on uses of benefits in marketing and a proposed new use in this study.

While the strategic importance of market segmentation among academics and practitioners is widespread, Morrison et al., (1994) acknowledge a lack of consensus on how to divide travel markets into their component segments, that is, how many and which variables to use to divide the market and which exact procedure to follow in the segmentation. The former is discussed below, while the latter will be discussed in Chapter 4 Research Method.

2.12.1.1 Multiple versus Single Dimension Segmentation Bases

A review of the travel and tourism market segmentation literature, reveals that many early studies typically derived groups by clustering respondents on the basis of only one dimension with some of the most popular segmentation dimensions being participant demographics, activity participation, motivation or benefits sought/pursued, product or destination preference (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994; Woodside and Jacobs, 1985).

Later tourism marketing studies from the mid 1990s onwards (e.g., Alzua et al., 1998), identify this use of only one segmentation base as a major shortcoming of tourism market segmentation and recommend combining both attitudinal and behavioural dimensions for superior market segmentation. Others advocate that travel behaviour is multi-dimensional and therefore a multiple segmentation approach should be employed in order to define sub-markets (e.g., Lang and O'Leary, 1997).

The use of activity participation, motivation and benefits for market segmentation purposes and the relevance of each of these to this proposed study, are discussed in the following sections.

2.12.1.2 Activity-Based Segmentation

One group of tourism market segmentation studies uses activities-based dimensions to segment the market (e.g., Hsieh et al., 1992; Lang et al., 1993; Morrison et al., 1994; Sung et al., 2000). Specific studies using activities-based dimensions for segmenting the cultural tourism market and industrial heritage tourism market have been undertaken by several authors (e.g., Dolnicar, 2002a; Kerstetter et al., 1998; McKercher et al., 2002) and in these studies, segments are identified by analysing tourist behaviour at a destination. This type of study is destination-specific and the three destinations respectively were: the 500-mile industrial heritage route in Pennsylvania, United States; Vienna; and Hong Kong.

At least two of these studies found that the cultural tourism is not a homogeneous group of tourists but rather a market comprised sub-segments that are activity-based. In one study (Dolnicar, 2002a), sub-segments were based on participation at eight cultural tourism activities and in the other (McKercher et al., 2002), on participation or not, at 40 destination-specific cultural attractions in Hong Kong combined with general travel motives and other items. McKercher *et al.*, (2002), further suggest relationships between activities participated, benefits sought and preferences for certain activities. McKercher et al., (2002) acknowledge and support the debatable suggestion that activities-based segmentation is a form of benefit segmentation that assumes a destination's attributes equate with the benefits sought by tourists. These benefits, in turn are expressed by

preferences for certain activities that can be clustered around an identifiable theme, one assumption of activities-based segmentation being that different types of cultural tourists show preferences for different types of cultural experiences. By analysing the patterns of visitation to cultural attractions, it is possible to identify specific market segments based on the benefits sought by participation. This technique can then be further used to identify unique or distinguishing features of each segment which can be used to develop more effective marketing and product development strategies.

2.12.1.3 Motivation-Based Segmentation

A review of relevant literature, especially studies involving both empirical and conceptual research but which focus largely on the allied areas of tourism, leisure and recreation rather than cultural tourism or cultural event tourism per se, identifies concepts pertinent for attracting tourist markets. These commonly identified concepts are an understanding of who is being attracted, together with why and how they are attracted, for this in turn determines their ultimate behaviour (e.g., Alzua et al., 1998; Frochot and Morrison, 2000; Lang and O'Leary, 1997; Morrison et al., 1994; Nicholson and Pearce, 2001; Sung et al., 2000).

It is therefore not surprising that the motivation concept is a central element of many tourism market segmentation empirical studies (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Kozak, 2002; Loker-Murphy, 1996; Moscardo et al., 1996). Some of these studies, use needs-based motivations and others use values-based motivations to segment the market, as highlighted in the earlier motivation section of this literature review (2.9.2; 2.9.4.1 and 2.9.4.2). Others use benefits sought or pursued to segment the tourism market as highlighted in the earlier motivation (2.9.4.3) and benefit sections (2.10.3) of this literature review and it has already been established in the motivation section of this literature review (2.9.4.3) that benefits are often used as a measure of motives in tourist motivation research.

Motivation-based market segmentation has typically been undertaken by reference to person-based determinants of behaviour with the most popularly appealed to being socio-demographic variables, but increasing use of psychographic variables, sometimes referred to as 'push factors'. Galloway (2002) argues there is strong evidence from a variety of tourism studies (c.f., Pitts and Woodside, 1986; Pizam and Calantone, 1987; Plog, 1990) that market analysis in terms of psychological variables (psychographic analysis) is useful. At least two studies of cultural tourism participation in particular (Kerstetter et al., 1998; Prentice et al., 1998) suggest that motivation and psychographic factors are more useful tools to define cultural tourists than simple demographics.

The importance and advantages of integrating attitudinal as well as behavioural characteristics in multi-dimensional segmentation according to Alzua et al., (1998), are that the former may trigger or drive the behaviour as exemplified by attitudes such as benefits sought at a destination by travellers which may influence travellers to choose within a preferred set of alternative activities, or to participate more often or widely. Examples of attitudinal characteristics of relevance to tourist market segmentation include motivations or motives, values, needs, attitudes, philosophies,

benefits sought or pursued, expectations, and preferences. Also barriers, constraints, perceived risks or fears might play an important role in the decision-making process by ultimately preventing any attendance or participation.

2.12.1.4 Benefit Segmentation

As noted earlier in the benefits sought or realised-based tourist motivation discussion (2.9.4.3), some authors (e.g., Loker and Perdue, 1992) believe that benefits are superior to other measures that merely describe it such as personality and lifestyles, volumetric, demographic, or geographical measures. An advantage of benefit segmentation is that it functions as an *a posteriori* segmentation method which predicts or explains behaviour because the composition of segments is unknown in advance of analysis and this method is superior to many other tourism segmentation methods that merely describe groups of people, known as *a priori* methods (Frochot and Morrison, 2000).

On the other hand, some limitations and criticisms of this approach to market segmentation have been noted. These types of data-driven segmentation approaches where the segmentation is driven by data post hoc, have been criticised (Dolnicar, 2002b, 2004) especially for prohibiting theoretical predications and testing of the segmentation outcomes, combined with a highly subjective decision on the number of clusters, thereby producing chance outcomes (Oh et al., 2004). No commonly used 'benefits sought' or 'benefits gained' empirical scales exist in tourism or any other product or service category, largely because they are product attribute and setting dependent. For any new service context, Frochot (2004) recently acknowledged the benefits items and segmentation clusters will have to be developed and specified, a procedure which would lead to a heavy research process. Furthermore, the benefit items and clusters found in any study might not be replicable to other settings (Frochot, 2004).

The popularity of benefit segmentation in travel and tourism research is attributed to the widely acknowledged belief that benefits are related to travellers' motivations, however the exact link is still to be tested and proven (Frochot and Morrison, 2000) has also been acknowledged earlier in this literature review (2.9.4.3).

2.12.1.5 Market Segmentation and Proposed Research Summary

As seen in the previous discussion, many different and sometimes, multiple, variables have been used to segment tourist and cultural tourist markets with some frequently used variables being motivation-related, benefit-related or activities-related. Sometimes one or more of these are used as the grouping variable(s), with some of these or other variables as the group profile descriptors.

2.12.2 Target Marketing

In addition to market segmentation, efficient and effective target marketing theory in general (Kotler, 1997) and for tourism markets specifically (e.g., Kotler et al., 2006; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Morrison, 2001) advocates identifying the market segments that are more or less responsive to

marketing efforts directed at them, in order to target those that are most responsive and bring their potential to fruition (e.g., Tian et al., 1996).

Acknowledging that preference sets and destination attributes can be matched to psychographic profiles of tourists, Kozak (2002) recommends that depending upon the empirical findings, destination management could either promote attributes that best match tourist motivations or concentrate on a different market where tourist motivation and destination resources match each other.

2.13 Summary of Proposed Research

Understanding why tourists participate in particular activities while travelling for pleasure purposes and using this information for effective market segmentation purposes is the focus of this study which is both multi-disciplinary and cross-cultural. Today, there is no single approach to understanding motivation or undertaking market segmentation as identified in this literature review.

In the review of tourist motivation literature (section 2.9.4), a lack of consensus over definition and theoretical approaches for understanding tourist motivation was identified. Dann (1981) attributes this to a multi-disciplinarity of treatment and plurality of theoretical perspective within a given discipline. Motivation draws on the disciplines of psychology, sociology, consumer behaviour, and has been applied to various tourism contexts, markets and sub-markets such as cultural tourism, festival and event tourism, for selected international or domestic tourist markets. In the discipline of psychology there is no universally agreed theoretical approach to understanding motivation (Atkinson et al., 1983; Davidoff, 1994; Gross, 1992). Ditto consumer behaviour approaches to motivation (e.g., Mowen and Minor, 1998). Consequently, there is no agreed theoretical approach to understanding and measuring tourist motivation (Fodness, 1994). There is general consensus that motivations are multi-variate and dynamic (e.g., Holden and Sparrowhawk, 2002). From the review of tourist motivation and allied consumer motivation literature (section 2.9.4), it was decided in this study to conceptually view motivation as a multi-construct process rather than a single construct.

Tourism is a, "complex mixture of entertainment, education, self discovery and sheer fun" and therefore it is particularly difficult for a mathematical model to capture all aspects of service quality and customer satisfaction (Ryan, 1999). Hence the challenge for this research is to develop a multidimensional conceptual model for empirical testing, which captures the important aspects of the cultural experience tourist motivational process and examines the inter-relationships between them, and their significance for market segmentation purposes. The key constructs proposed in this study are the psychographic dimensions of attitudes, motives and benefits sought, and the related behavioural outcomes of benefits realised and satisfaction.

In this proposed research to understand why tourists participate in cultural experiences, in addition to studying the tourists' motivation for engaging in cultural experiences per se, their specific

experience of one popular cultural attraction, Queen Victoria Market, will be studied in detail. Motivational constructs for tourists' cultural experiences per se include tourists' attitudes and enthusiasm towards engaging in different types of cultural experiences in general, and their motives for engaging in cultural experiences when on holidays will be measured. As benefits (sought and realised) vary with types of activities and experiences, they will be empirically measured in relation to one specific cultural heritage site and event experience at the popular international tourist attraction of the Queen Victoria Market in Melbourne, Australia.

Each of these key constructs within the motivational process are also multi-dimensional as identified in the earlier discussion and literature review for each of these concepts to be examined in this study (sections 2.10.1; 2.10.2; 2.10.3; and 2.10.4). Hence, within each of the key constructs of attitudes, motives and benefits, underlying dimensions will be examined and the findings of this research compared with findings from the existing research and literature on these construct dimensions particularly within a tourism and cultural tourism context (and to be discussed in Chapter 4, Research Method). Hedonic-related dimensions within each of these motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives and benefits are a further proposed focus of this research, because as discussed earlier in this literature review, relationships between emotions – specifically hedonic feelings – and consumer behaviour were raised as early as 1930s by Murray (1938). Hedonic consumption research increased in the 1980s focusing on products that are intrinsically more emotionally involving than packaged goods, such as movies, rock concerts, theatre, dance, pornography, and sporting events (e.g., Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) and resulted in the identification of hedonic consumer motivation theory (Mowen and Minor, 1998) and hedonic tourism motivation theory (Goossens, 2000). As previously discussed in section 2.9.5.4, emotions are an important influence on tourist motivation, and hedonic consumption and allied concepts are particularly relevant to cultural experience tourism which could comprise such products, activities and consumption (sections 2.9.6.1). Within the motives and benefits constructs, further dimensions to be incorporated for testing comprise seeking and escaping dimensions as commonly found research approaches and dimensions of relevance to tourism motivation (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1989; Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987) and attribute-based dimensions because of their relevance to attitudes, motives and benefit constructs in general and in a tourism or cultural context (e.g., Frochot, 2004; Haley, 1968; Wells and Tigert, 1971).

Furthermore, drawing on the theoretical framework of service quality and customer satisfaction from the services marketing area (e.g., Parasuraman et al., 1985; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Parasuraman et al., 1994b), and its application to tourist satisfaction (e.g., Ryan, 1999), and to tourist market segmentation (e.g., Diaz-Martin et al., 2000), this research further proposes a new marketing use for benefits constructs of sought and realised. Comparing benefits sought and benefits gained measurements will be used to identify any gap between benefit expectations and consumption experience benefits realised perceptions as a measure of tourist satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

This study will further investigate and empirically test whether it is possible to segment the cultural experience tourist market using some or all of the motivational process constructs. Strong links between consumer motivation and market segmentation were identified in the review of tourist motivation literature (section 2.9.4) and the market segmentation literature (section 2.12), but similar to the plurality in tourist motivation theoretical approaches, no single "best" variable for segmenting a market exists, nor can the same set of variables be used in every situation (McKercher et al., 2002; Sung et al., 2000). Questioning the reliability of market segmentation techniques, Dibb and Stern (1995) recommend caution must be used when identifying segments to ensure that spurious or unreliable segmentation techniques are not applied that produce segments where no valid causal link with behaviour is evident. From the review of tourism segmentation literature (section 2.12) it was seen that many tourist segmentation studies, group on one variable such as activities undertaken, motivation or motives, benefits sought, or benefits realised, and others use measures of motivation as segment group descriptors. In this study, it is proposed to use a multi-dimensional segmentation approach integrating attitudinal as well as behavioural characteristics as advocated by Alzua et al., (1998) in their research of cultural and heritage tourism niches for international travellers, to overcome a shortcoming of much market segmentation research in a tourism context to date which has typically derived groups by clustering respondents on the basis of only one dimension, that is, behaviours or attitudes.

A cross-cultural dimension will be considered in terms of understanding cultural experience tourist motivation and the consumer profile characteristics that most effectively describe the market segments. Cultural differences have been identified as having an impact on customer experiences and evaluations of complex tourism services (e.g., Mattila, 1999; McKercher and Chow, 2001) and are especially relevant to the tourism industry and to understanding tourist motivation and behaviour as discussed in section 2.11.1 of this literature review. For example, in the context of luxury hotels, hedonic dimensions of consumption experience were more important for Western consumers than for their Asian counterparts (Mattila, 1999). In this study, culture will be primarily operationalised by language spoken at home and country-of-residence.

A variety of researchers have noted that tourists' motivations are multiple (Crompton, 1979; Mayo and Jarvis, 1981) and people might have different reasons to take either domestic or international vacations (Kozak, 2002). Furthermore a motivation is a dynamic concept and therefore may vary from one person to another, from one market segment to another, from one destination to another as well as from one decision-making process to the next (Kozak, 2002; Witt and Wright, 1992). In addition to cultural experience tourists having different attitudes and motivations influencing and determining their behaviour, it is acknowledged in this study that some may have multiple influences for engaging in cultural experience tourism.

The next chapter outlines the conceptual framework for this study of cultural experience tourist motivation, developed from this literature review and states specific research propositions and hypotheses to be empirically measured and tested in this study.

Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework

The aim of this chapter is to develop a conceptual framework and models for researching the tourist's motivational process for engaging in cultural experiences while holidaying in Melbourne, Australia. This will be based on the previous literature review of research issues and theories of relevance to researching the tourist's motivational process and will address the research aims and questions identified in Chapter 1.

3.1 Research Propositions

The research aims and related questions identified in Chapter 1 can now be expanded as follows:

1 **what** are tourists' pre-existing motivations towards attending different types of cultural attractions and events in general and especially while travelling?:

   1.1 what do tourists like attending in terms of different types of cultural attractions and events? (What are their **attitudes** about different cultural activities and events?)

   1.2 what drives tourists to go to cultural attractions and events while travelling? (What are their driving **motives**?)

   1.3 how do these pre-existing motivations, influence decisions to attend cultural attractions and events? (What are the relationships between these attitudes and motives?)

2 **how** do these pre-existing motivations towards cultural experiences influence motivations for attending one specific cultural experience in Melbourne that is successful in attracting international and domestic interstate tourists:

   2.1 what do tourist consumers **expect** from the experience? (What **benefits** are sought from the experience?)

   2.2 after the experience, **what** did the tourist consumers **receive** from the experience and how **satisfied** were these tourist consumers with the cultural experience? (What **benefits** did they get from the experience? By comparing these **benefits sought** with the **benefits gained,** how **satisfied** were these tourist consumers with the cultural experience?)

   2.3 how do these expectations and consumption experience outcomes influence motivation to attend cultural attractions and events and **what** pre-existing motivations influenced these expectations and behavioural outcomes? (What are the relationships between the expectations, behavioural outcomes and the pre-

existing attitudes and motives? Do pre-existing motivating factors **attitudes, motives** and **benefits sought** influence behavioural outcomes?)

3 **who** are these tourists attending cultural experiences while on holiday? (Are there **cultural language group differences** in the cultural experience motivational process?)

4 can the reasons **why** tourists attend cultural experiences (that is, their motivation) be used to segment the cultural experience tourist market into target market groups and to develop effective marketing strategies for attracting tourists to cultural attractions and events? (Can the motivational process components function as **grouping variables** to segment the cultural experience tourist market? Can **hedonic** and **other** sub-dimensions of these motivational process components be used as **grouping variables** to segment the cultural experience tourist market? What are the statistically significant **influencing independent variables** for cultural experience market segments: culture language spoken at home, travel group or trip characteristics, or other socio-economic characteristics?

To operationalise the above research questions and address the literature review discussion and findings, the following research propositions have been developed:

Proposition 1: More research of cultural experience tourist motivational process is needed to gain a better understanding of **why** tourists attend (or do not attend) cultural experiences, and the related research questions of **how** their motivation influences their decision to attend, and **what** they are interested in attending. For selected significant international and domestic interstate tourist markets in Melbourne, Australia identifying **who** are cultural experience tourists.

Proposition 2: Conceptually, the motivational process components for cultural experience tourists comprise the pre-existing motivational constructs prior to the consumption experience of attitudes, motives, and benefits sought, and the selected behavioural outcomes after the consumption experience of benefits gained from the experience and satisfaction with the cultural experience. More research of these motivational process constructs is needed to gain a better understanding of the **underlying dimensions** for each of these constructs and the relationships between these constructs. Cultural differences will influence these constructs, their underlying dimensions, and the relationships between constructs.

Proposition 3: A **new use of benefits sought and gained** is proposed in this research as a method for determining **satisfaction/dissatisfaction** with the cultural experience.

Proposition 4: Other significant **independent variables influence** the motivational process and those to be tested in this study include travel group, trip, and demographic characteristics such as composition of the travelling party; length of stay; information sources used; repeat or first time visitor (to Melbourne, Australia and the Queen Victoria Market). In particular, cultural differences

are considered an important influencing variable to be tested for differences in relation to the motivational process components and their underlying dimensions.

Proposition 5: The cultural experience tourist motivational process components and influencing variables could be useful dimensions in a **multi-dimensional segmentation** of cultural experience tourist markets, if differences can be found.

Proposition 6: **Marketing strategies** should be developed for each target market segment of the cultural experience tourist market. (Proposition 6 is an outcome of the research).

3.2 Models for Researching Cultural Experience Tourist Motivation

Understanding and modelling cultural experience tourist motivation and related behavioural outcomes in order to develop effective marketing strategies is a complex area of tourism research, with many ongoing debates and gaps in conceptual knowledge and empirical data as highlighted in the previous literature review.

Two models (Figures 3.1 and 3.2) outlining the conceptual framework for the research have been developed. They amalgamate those concepts identified in the literature review as being of primary relevance to understanding cultural experience tourist's motivational process in order to market cultural and performing arts experiences to tourist markets, and they build on the related Typology of Tourists and Cultural Experience Tourism (Figure 2.1), previously outlined.

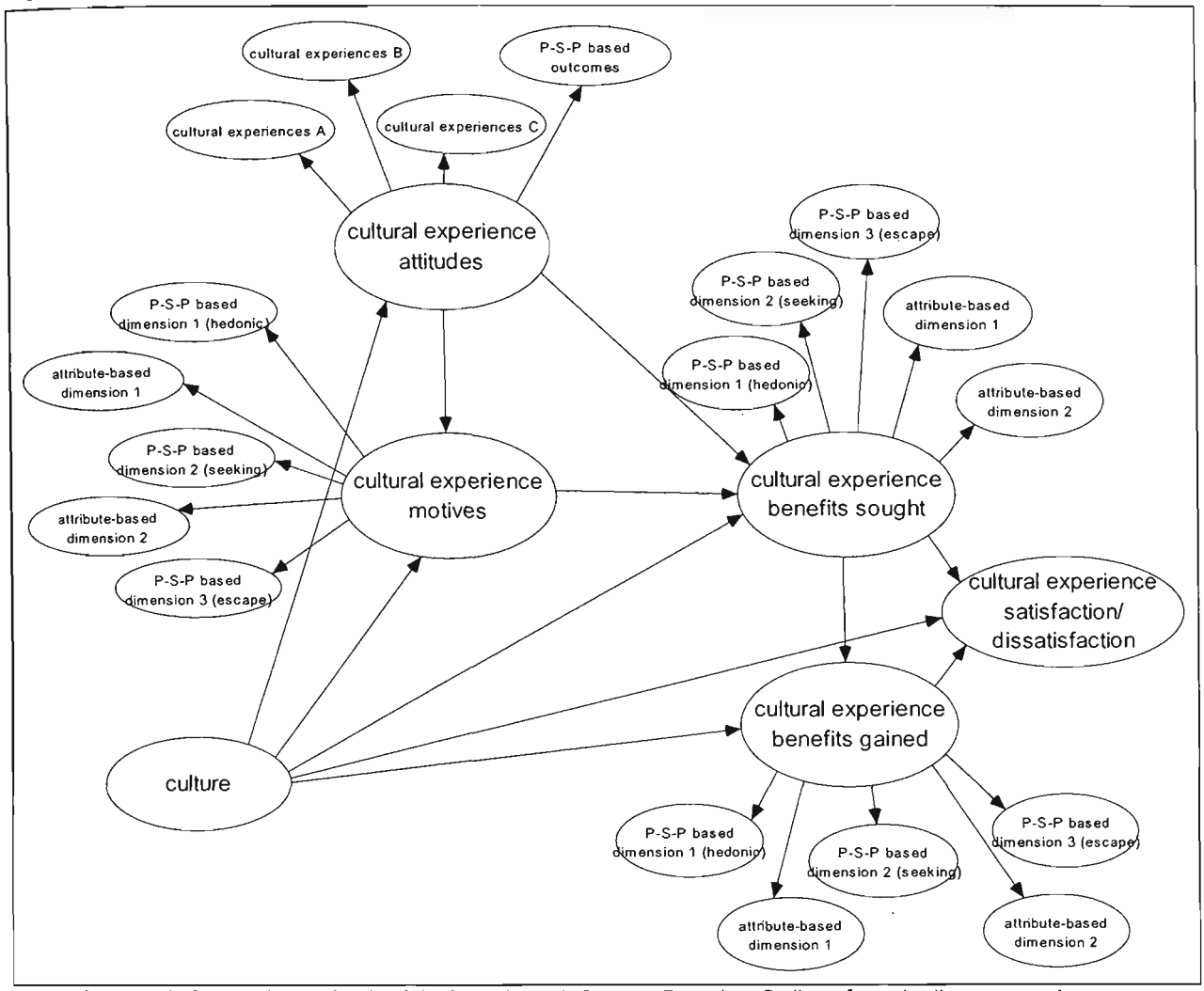
3.2.1 Model of the Motivational Process to be Tested for Cultural Experience Tourists, Key Concept Definitions and Hypotheses

Figure 3.1 is a model of the key constructs as explained in the literature review.

3.2.1.1 Definitions of the Model Components

Culture is proposed as an influencing variable on each of the measured constructs. Each of these constructs and variables has been discussed in the literature review where they were defined as follows for the purpose of this study:

Figure 3.1 Model of the motivational process for cultural experience tourists



N.B. P-S-P stands for psycho-socio-physiologically based; Source: Based on findings from the literature review

Culture will be defined as, "the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society and in this study will be operationalised by the cultural element of language spoken at home."

Attitudes will be defined as, "internal predispositions to respond with affective feelings towards or against attending cultural experiences in everyday lifestyle as well as on holiday, created by beliefs, values, needs, knowledge, learning, and experience, and broader socio-cultural attitudes about different types of cultural experiences".

Motives will be defined as, "internal predispositions that arouse, direct and drive a person's desire to attend cultural experiences while on holiday, that are created by attitudes and other stimuli, and are based on a main desire for reaching the goal, or obtaining the reward of, hedonic consumption experiences that involve the experiencing of emotion while engaging in leisure tourism activities".

Benefits Sought or Pursued and Benefits Gained or Realised are two separate constructs of relevance to cultural experience tourist motivation and satisfaction. **Benefits Sought** are defined as, "a normative expectation, that is a forward-directed, intentional charged, tentative attitude towards a particular consumption goal that contains some knowledge about the cultural experience

and the psycho-socio-physiological benefits to be gained by having the experience, and is driven by motives for attending the experience". **Benefits Realised** are defined as, "an improved psycho-socio-physiological outcome resulting from the cultural consumption experience, the performance of tangible and intangible attributes experienced, and the consequences of visitor's behaviours during the consumption experience".

Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction is, "a judgement, attitude or psychological state arising from consumer's disconfirmation of expectations and unexpected events. It is a function of the degree of congruency or disparity/disconfirmation between visitor's perceptions of the quality of their experience and of the supplier's performance (regarding both quality and non-quality dimensions) and visitor's evaluations of their *normative* expectations which serve as reference points for their perceptions of quality of performance". Hence if people's expectations exceed their perceptions of how a service performed, then the negative disconfirmation (performed worse than expected); if their expectations are confirmed (performed as expected), and if their perceptions exceed their expectations then their expectations are positively disconfirmed (performed better than expected).

3.2.1.2 Constructs of the Model

In the review of motivation literature and research, it was seen that understanding consumer motivation is a very complex area, with many different concepts and measures of motivation used. At least four approaches for understanding consumer motivation were identified in the literature review of consumer motivation in general and for tourist motivation in particular: needs-based (after Maslow, 1943; Murray, 1938); values-based (after Rokeach, 1968; 1973); benefits-based (after Haley, 1968); and expectancy theory-based (after Deci, 1985; Vroom, 1964). Many ongoing debates were also identified such as the needs- versus values-based motivation theory (section 2.9.2), which was expanded to the attitudes, values or needs consumer behaviour debate (section 2.10.1.1), and then in the motivation related area of satisfaction, the satisfaction and service quality debates and definitions (section 2.10.4.1). For the constructs identified within these various debates, there are further ongoing debates about how they should be defined as discussed in the literature review and how they should be measured as introduced in the literature review and to be further discussed in Chapter 4, Research Method. Within the market segmentation area, there are also ongoing debates about what variables should be used as the grouping variables, particularly the multiple versus single dimension segmentation approaches as discussed in the literature review, section 2.12.1.1.

From the discussion of these debates about approaches to consumer motivation and market segmentation in Chapter 2, it was decided to adopt a process approach to motivation based on Mannell's (1999) multi-construct model from the leisure research literature which included psycho-socio-physiological constructs as well as related behavioural outcomes. The final constructs and their relationships to be included in this study's proposed motivational process model for cultural experience tourist motivation (Figure 3.1), were further based on the outcomes from the discussion of the various construct debates, and a structural model of the motivation-related behavioural

outcome of the consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction process (Figure 2.3) which in turn was based on linkages tested in prior research (Table 2.16), especially the findings by Churchill and Suprenant (1982) on the determinants of customer satisfaction, and Yau's (1994) work on customer satisfaction and cultural values in China. The proposed motivational process model in this research was also developed following consideration of other models and theories of relevance to consumer motivation and behaviour, especially Ajzen and Fishbein's theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), Ajzen's later theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985) discussed in section 2.10.1.2 on attitudes, and from the tourist literature, Goossen's (2000) hedonic tourist motivation model (section 2.9.6.1).

The proposed model to be tested in this study (Figure 3.1) is primarily interested in understanding the cultural experience tourist motivational process and to do so by focusing on the motivational process and selected related behavioural outcomes from attending and consuming cultural attractions and events. This proposed model comprises the five central constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought, and the behavioural outcomes of: benefits gained, and satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The focus of this study commences with the attitude construct, although it is acknowledged that attitudes, in turn, are formed and shaped by antecedents such as beliefs, values, needs, learning and experience. As there is abundant evidence in the literature endorsing attitudes as constructs in their own right that can be defined and measured, and further endorsement of attitudes concerning arts enthusiasm (Wells and Tigert, 1971) which it is argued in this study are of particular relevance to understanding cultural experience motivation, antecedents of attitudes are considered beyond the scope of this study and are not included in the conceptual model.

In the market segmentation area, the proposed procedural model for researching segmentation of the cultural experience tourist market (Figure 3.2) to be adopted in this study will be presented in the next section (3.2.2), but is largely based on the work of Alzua et al., (1998) as discussed in section 2.12.1 of the literature review. This study's procedural model incorporates Alzua et al.'s (1998) recommendation for superior segmentation of markets to use multiple grouping variables in stages, including both attitudinal and behavioural-related variables.

Comparisons between the proposed model and each of these models upon which it is based, will be briefly discussed below by each of the major constructs in the model, and then for the procedural model for researching market segmentation in the next section (3.2.2).

This cultural experience tourist motivation process model proposed in Figure 3.1, agrees with Goossens' (2000) recommendations that a tourist motivation model should acknowledge and operationalise emotional influences in its formation processes. From the discussion in the previous literature review section of push and pull factors and their relationship with motivation and emotions, one way of acknowledging and operationalising emotional influences on tourism motivation is to incorporate research of affective attitudes, and emotional needs, drives or motives

that are pushing tourist motivations as well as emotional benefits that are pulling tourists to be motivated towards particular tourism activities, services and destinations (Goossens, 2000). It diverges from Goossens' (2000) conceptual argument of the hedonic tourist motivation process in three main ways. Firstly by including attitudes rather than needs, values or beliefs. Secondly, by including motives and thirdly, by not including behavioural intentions.

Acknowledging the ongoing debate about whether attitudes, needs or values are the best measure or variable for predicting and explaining consumer and tourist behaviour, this study will be using attitudes as one of several constructs of relevance to the cultural experience tourist motivational process. The constructs of needs, values or beliefs, will not be included. Including attitudes as a separate construct fully concurs with the long established view that attitudes are an important factor in predicting behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), and even more importantly for the purposes of this study, that attitudes are an important factor in the motivational factors that impact on a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). As this proposed research is cross-cultural, criticism of values failing to strongly link with consumer behaviour in a cross-cultural context (Chan and Rossiter, 2003), further favoured incorporating an attitude construct. In full agreement with Alzua et al. (1998) that attitudinal characteristics may trigger or drive behaviour, this study is including an attitude construct as noted above. Their example of benefits sought by tourists being an example of an attitudinal characteristic of relevance to segmentation of tourists is further supported in this study's inclusion of benefits as another construct within the motivational process being tested in this study. In contrast with Alzua et al's study and conceptual model (1998), in this study, benefits sought are treated as a separate psychographic construct to attitudes within the tourist motivational process that can be more expectations-based or behavioural outcome-based and can be related to the other constructs of attributes, motives, and satisfaction.

There are some other similarities and several differences between the motivational process model for cultural experience tourists proposed in this study and Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action. In common, they both include the variable, attitudes, and agree that beliefs underlie attitudes. They are also both interested in the relationship between attitudes and behaviour but Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) are focusing on predicting behaviour by measuring attitudes toward behaviour, and choice intentions with their model comprising the four constructs of beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behaviour. In their theory, a correspondence is acknowledged between attitude toward behaviour and between attitude and intention, by which they mean, "a person's judgment that performing the behavior is good or bad, that he is in favor of or against performing the behavior" (p.56). In contrast with this proposed study's definition of attitudes emphasising the affective or feelings responses, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) consider the crucial aspect of attitudes is evaluation and suggest that attitudes be viewed as overall evaluations. Reasons for, and the consequences of, a person's attitude evaluation, such as feelings, beliefs, motivations, perceptions and intentions, are important factors which they prefer to treat as separate concepts that can be related to attitudes (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

In contrast with many models of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (e.g., Churchill and Suprenant, 1982; Yau, 1994) and tourist satisfaction (e.g., Baker and Crompton, 2000; Howat et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2004b) as previously discussed in section 2.10.4.3 of the literature review on the satisfaction construct, the proposed model of the motivational process for cultural experience tourists to be tested in this study does not include an intentions construct per se, nor does it directly measure consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction, the consumption experience, or disconfirmation. Rather it proposes a new application of the benefits sought and benefits gained constructs to infer satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

3.2.1.3 Attitude Construct

Goossens argues that the hedonic tourist motivation process should not include attitudes and that motivation should be operationalised as behavioural intentions as in attitude theory (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), rather than as motives. The "attitude" construct is not incorporated in Goossen's model of the hedonic tourist motivation process because he considers it does not fit in the "experiential" view of consumer research (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982), although he acknowledges that an attitude concept is very functional in research on information processing and marketing stimuli (Holbrook and Batra, 1987). This argument implies that attitudes are more cognitive than affective, whereas they can incorporate both components and therefore can be relevant to both, depending on how they are defined as was discussed in the literature review section on attitudes. Attitudes are included in this study's proposed model for reasons outlined below and their definition in this study emphasises affective feelings which clearly fits with the experiential view of consumption (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982).

In the proposed conceptual model for cultural experience tourist motivational process to be tested in this study, attitudes towards attending and consuming cultural experiences are included rather than needs which are very difficult to measure or values and beliefs which may be considered to underlie attitudes. The advantage of attitudes are that they emphasise the consumer's affective response, feelings or emotions towards an object or the experiential aspects of consumer behaviour which is an under-researched area as much of the existing research of consumer behaviour has tended to focus on how consumers react to the functional, utilitarian products of products and services. This uni-component view of attitudes refers to the affective or feelings responses that consumers have toward an object or a general evaluation of an object. It is the basis of early attitude measurement scales (Likert, 1932; Thurstone, 1931), experienced a resurgence in the 1970s (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), and is still common among consumer behaviour researchers today. It is considered to be in contrast with the multi-component view which conceptualises attitudes in the age-old trilogy of cognition, affect, and conation (Cartwright, 1949; Katz and Stotland, 1959; Smith, 1947). Other authors though, acknowledge the Thurstone and Likert scales are considered to infer a person's attitude by relying on beliefs or intentions (i.e., cognition or conation) which implies that these standard scaling procedures already take into account cognitions, conations, or both (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, p.21).

By the late 1950s, the multi-component view of attitude was adopted almost universally, yet low empirical relations have been found between measures of attitude and overt behaviour from the late 1950s onwards (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Some researchers attributed this to the "other variables" approach whereby attitude is only one of a number of factors that influence behaviour and other variables must be taken into account, but a systematic way is lacking for deciding which of the many "other variables" might be relevant for a given behaviour. More importantly, the addition of other variables does little to advance the understanding of the attitude-behaviour relation itself (Schuman and Johnson, 1976). This led other authors to develop a different interpretation of the other variables approach whereby the relation between attitude and behaviour is moderated by other variables (Fazio and Zanna, 1978; Regan and Fazio, 1977). Ajzen and Fishbein present an alternative view of the attitude construct in their theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). They restrict the term "attitude" to a person's evaluation of any psychological object and draw a clear distinction between beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behaviours. They suggest that appropriate measures of attitudes are strongly related to action, and that any behavioural criterion can be predicted from attitude – be it a single action or a pattern of behaviour - provided that the measure of attitude corresponds to the measure of behaviour. The significance of moderating variables and their place in the theory of reasoned action relates to the stability of the intentions dimension.

Furthermore, the uni-component view of attitudes emphasising the affective or feelings responses that consumers have toward an object could also be termed the 'hedonic perspective', which is considered especially relevant to hedonic-related consumption experiences such as cultural experiences (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982).

Within this uni-cornponent view of attitudes, it is further proposed in the literature review (section 2.10.1.2) that cultural enthusiasm is an underlying dimension of attitudes that conceptualises interest in and liking for different types of cultural experiences and is based on their past experience of arts and cultural experience consumption (at home and on holidays) which in turn creates cultural knowledge and cultural capital. It is hypothesised in this study that multi sub-dimensions based on cultural and arts enthusiasm for engaging in different types of cultural experiences underlie the attitude construct. Furthermore, particular types of socio-psychological outcomes are associated with cultural experience consumption as seen in the literature review of relevance to the cultural experience leisure motivation, consumption and outcomes (e.g., tourist motivation approaches sections 2.9.5.1 on push/pull factors and 2.9.5.2 on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; and sections 2.10 on defining and measuring motives, benefits sought and benefits gained), therefore another hypothesised underlying dimension(s) of cultural experience attitudes is a liking for particular types of socio-psychological outcomes that are associated with cultural experience consumption.

In summary, from the preceding discussion, several general statements about the attitudes construct in this study can be proposed. Attitudes are a uni-component construct combining

cognition, affect and conation, but emphasising the affective or feelings responses. However, within this uni-component structure there are underlying multi-sub-dimensions based on enthusiasm for engaging in different types of cultural experiences and associated with this consumption, for particular types of socio-psychological outcomes associated with cultural experience consumption. Cultural differences are expected in the underlying dimensions of attitudes for attending cultural experiences, especially for Western English-speaking tourists compared with Asian tourists (Chinese- or Japanese-speaking). As cultures differ by language spoken at home, further cultural differences are expected between the Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists. Attitudes about cultural enthusiasm for different types of cultural experiences can be expected to have an influencing relationship with motives for attending cultural experiences while on holiday, whereby the more strongly consumers like attending cultural experiences in general, and experiencing the outcomes associated with cultural experience consumption, the more strongly motivated they will be to attend cultural experiences while on holiday. Similarly, attitudes can be expected to have an influencing relationship with benefits sought from cultural experience consumption.

From these general statements, the hypothesis for the attitudes construct to be tested in this study is:

H1 *The underlying dimensions for the attitudes construct will primarily include cultural experiences and socio-psychological outcomes.*

3.2.1.4 Motive Construct

In the proposed motivational process model to be tested in this study, motives are included instead of behavioural intentions which is another diversion from both Goossens' (2000) hedonic tourist motivation process, and Fishbein and Ajzen's attitude theory (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

The literature review identified that broad or general theories of motivation developed by Murray (1938) and Maslow (1943; 1954) have led some authors to posit that motivation is a generic concept. It also identified a trend in consumer research over the past 20 years away from developing broad theories of motivation, toward creating more restricted midrange theories that explain narrower facets of human behaviour (Mowen and Minor, 1998). These midrange theories of motivation acknowledge that motives can be either more physiologically-based or more psychologically or cognitively oriented, with some midrange theories tending to focusing on one orientation more than the other and other midrange theories such as motivation for hedonic experiences, incorporating both orientations (Mowen and Minor, 1998).

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) include behavioural intentions in their theory of reasoned action, rather than motives or some other measure of motivation, because their theory is based on predicting behaviour, and in their view, intention is the immediate determinant of behaviour, and when an appropriate measure of intention is obtained it will provide the most accurate prediction of

behaviour. They further suggest that all behaviour involves a choice that can be measured as choice intentions. These bases of their theory of reasoned action, align it with predicting behaviour theory and possibly, choice modelling theory than motivational process theory, the latter being of primary interest to this study.

Recent research revising the theory of reasoned action (TRA) by Fitzmaurice (2005), posits incorporation of consumers' motivations to encapsulate affective variables in predicting behaviour and to broaden the cognitive approach of Ajzen and Fishbein's model. Of the three variables included to reflect motivations, one of these is hedonic involvement which further emphasises the relevance of hedonic dimensions of motivation for consumer behaviour in general with the context of the revision research being aerobic activities. The other constructs tested in this revision were the TRA constructs of attitude (as a cognitive evaluation and not an affective measure and with a hypothesised path only to intention), subjective norm and intention. An additional affective construct of eagerness encapsulating emotional commitment towards a behaviour was incorporated as a mediating variable linking motivation variables to intentions (behaviour). These revisions endorse the relevance of motivation and affective evaluations to understanding and predicting behaviour, and the relevance of hedonic dimensions to consumer motivation.

In summary, from the preceding discussion, several general statements can be proposed about the motives construct within the motivational process model for cultural experience tourists. It is based on the midrange theories of tourism motivation and therefore includes some psychological and some physiological hedonic dimensions, largely because of their applicability to consumer behaviour in general as noted in the TRA revisions, and particularly to cultural consumption as discussed in section 2.9 of the literature review.

That motives are a multi-dimensional construct was established in the literature review (section 2.10.2.5), including psycho-socio-physiologically-based and attribute-based sub-dimensions and within the sub-dimensions some are seeking-related, while others are escape-related. Cultural differences are expected in the underlying dimensions of motives for attending cultural experiences, especially for Western English-speaking tourists compared with Asian tourists (Chinese- or Japanese-speaking). As cultures differ by language spoken at home, further cultural differences are expected between the Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists.

That attitudes have an influencing relationship on motives was acknowledged in the previous section's generalised statements about the attitudes construct within the cultural experience motivational process model. It is further proposed that motives drive tourists to attend cultural experiences in general and while on holiday and also have an influencing relationship with the expectations of benefits sought from attending a specific cultural experience, whereby the more strongly tourists are motivated to attend cultural experiences in general while on holiday, the higher the expected benefits sought from the specific cultural experience. These influencing relationships will not be directly tested in this study.

From these general statements, the hypothesis for the motives construct to be tested in this study is:

H2 *The underlying dimensions for the motives construct will primarily include hedonic, seeking and escaping related dimensions.*

3.2.1.5 Benefits and Satisfaction Constructs

The proposed model for cultural experience tourist motivational process to be tested in this study, also includes the constructs of expected benefits sought and gained because of their relevance to tourism motivation and also to the additional related behavioural outcome of visitor satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the cultural experience. Benefits sought, as defined in this study, are equated with visitor's normative expectations about the psycho-socio-physiological benefits to be gained by having the cultural experience, and benefits gained, are visitor's perceptions of their improved psycho-socio-physiological outcomes resulting from the cultural consumption experience.

In summary, several general statements can be proposed about the benefits sought and benefits gained constructs within the motivational process model for cultural experience tourists. That benefits sought and benefits gained are multi-dimensional constructs was established in the literature review (section 2.10.3.7) with commonly found dimensions including psycho-socio-physiologically-based and attribute-based sub-dimensions. Within the sub-dimensions, it is further proposed that the underlying dimensions will be primarily escape-related, seeking-related, and hedonic-related similar to the motives construct propositions. Cultural differences are expected in the underlying dimensions of benefits sought and benefits gained for attending cultural experiences, especially for Western English-speaking tourists compared with Asian tourists (Chinese- or Japanese-speaking). As cultures differ by language spoken at home, further cultural differences are expected between the Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists.

That attitudes and motives have an influencing relationship on benefits sought was acknowledged in the previous section's generalised statements about the attitudes and motives constructs within the cultural experience motivational process model, but these relationships will not be directly tested in this study. That benefits sought have an influencing relationship on benefits gained is also proposed in the motivational process conceptual model. Similarly, benefits sought would have an influencing relationship on the consumption experience *per se*, and in turn the consumption experience would have an influencing relationship on the benefits gained as acknowledged in the literature review (2.10.4.1). All of these relationships will not be directly tested in this study.

From these general statements, the hypothesis for the benefits sought and benefits gained constructs to be tested in this study is:

H3 *The underlying dimensions for the benefits sought and benefits gained constructs will primarily include hedonic, seeking and escaping related dimensions.*

Visitor satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the cultural experience is another behavioural outcome variable of interest to this study as depicted in the motivational process conceptual model. Because satisfaction/dissatisfaction has been defined in this study as arising from disconfirmation of expectations and unexpected events, an indirect method for measuring satisfaction will be used whereby satisfaction/dissatisfaction will be inferred from the congruency or disparity between benefits sought (expectations of psycho-socio-physiologically-based benefits) and benefits gained (perceptions of improved psycho-socio-physiologically-based outcomes).

3.2.1.6 Culture Construct

In section 2.11.1.1 of the literature review, culture as measured by language spoken at home is identified as an independent influencing variable on consumer motivation and related behavioural outcomes. It is therefore proposed that cultural language group differences will apply to the motivational process constructs and their underlying dimensions, and it is proposed to test these relationships in this study.

H4 *The cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained will differ by culture.*

Three specific cultural-related research hypotheses to be tested in this study are:

H4a: *There is significant difference between Western and Asian tourists for each of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought, and benefits gained.*

H4b: *For Western tourists and each of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought, and benefits gained, there is not a significant difference between the different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists: domestic interstate tourists in Australia, and international tourists from New Zealand, North America, and United Kingdom and Ireland.*

H4c: *For Asian tourists and each of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought, and benefits gained, there is a significant difference between the different cultural groups of international tourists from Asia, namely, Chinese-speaking, and Japanese-speaking.*

3.2.2 Procedural Model for Segmentation of the Cultural Experience Tourist Market

This study on understanding cultural experience tourist motivation is also interested in doing so for the purpose of segmenting the cultural experience tourist market. As outlined in the procedural model for researching segmentation of the cultural experience tourist market and developing effective marketing strategies (Figure 3.2), an understanding of who, why and how is needed and this involves an understanding of the complex determinants and influencing factors of cultural

experience tourist motivation as this is what triggers and drives actual behaviour. Differentiating market segments by attitudinal as well as behavioural variables is recommended (Alzua et al., 1998) and this study proposes including both types of variables.

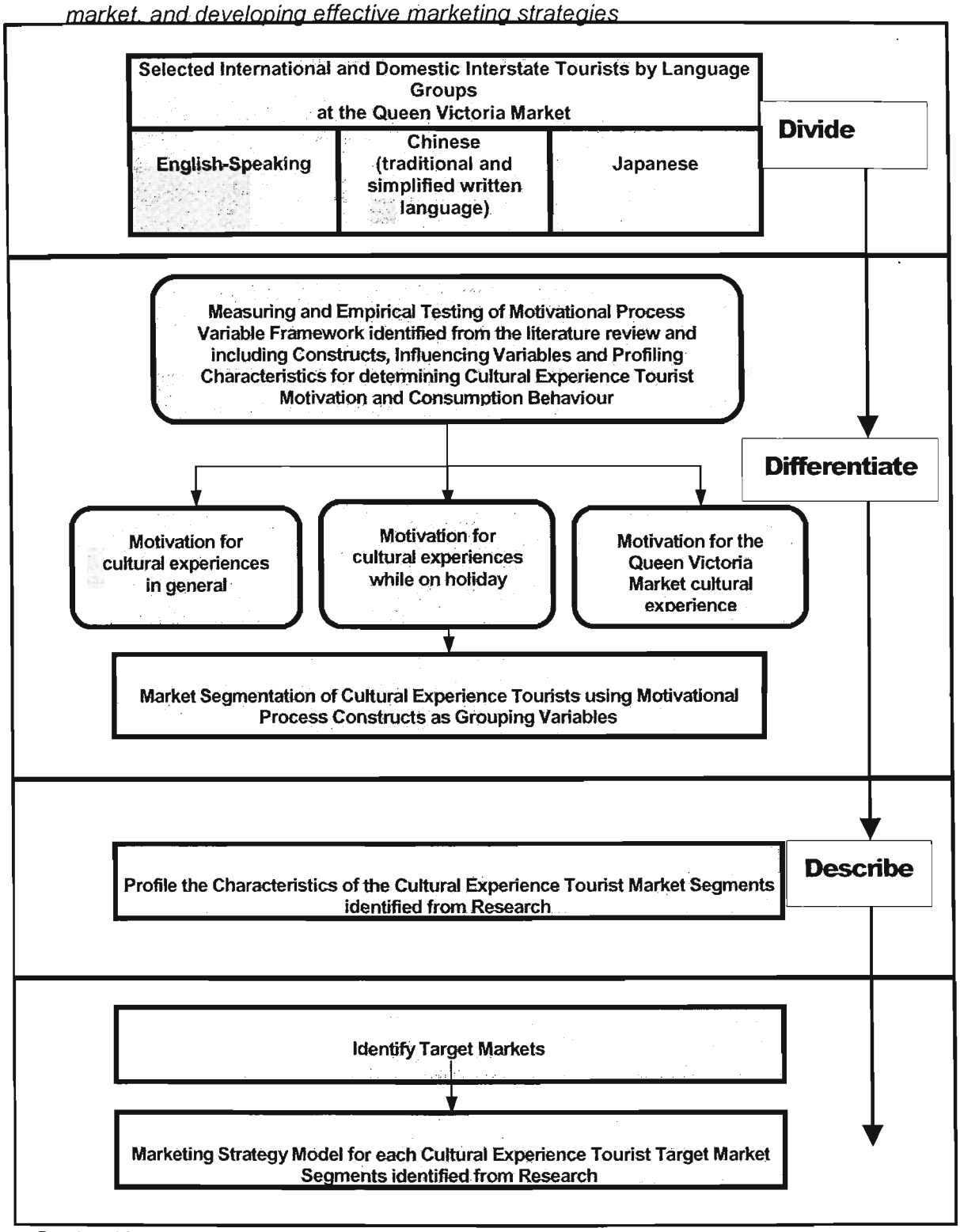
This study proposes interpreting the findings of the motivational process constructs, their underlying dimensions and cultural group differences being tested in this study (Hypotheses 1-4) and identified in Figure 3.1, as multi-stage segmentation grouping variables, by examining which of these variables function as segment differentiation characteristics and show significant differences between segments (Figure 3.2).

If there are distinguishable sub-groups within any of these variables, marketing theory recommends that unique marketing strategies can then be developed for each target market segment. Determining the target markets is an additional step in the process, once the segmentation has been performed. Then marketing strategies can be developed for each of the identified and selected target markets.

> *No hypotheses for these steps in this stage of the procedural model can be developed because the findings in this stage are an outcome of the previous research.*

Therefore a modified version of the three-step model originally developed by Morrison et al. (1994) for segmenting travel markets and adapted by Alzua et al. (1998) for segmenting cultural and heritage tourism for UK outbound international travellers, is of relevance to developing effective marketing strategies to attract tourists to cultural experiences at cultural attractions and events (Figure 3.2). This procedural model uses various individual segmentation bases or criteria in three sequential roles to divide the travel market into its principal subdivisions, to differentiate travellers, and then to describe travellers within segments. By using the motivational process constructs in Figure 3.1 in step two of the procedural model (Figure 3.2), this proposed conceptual framework integrates both attitudinal and behavioural characteristics as part of the segmentation methodology as recommended by Alzua et al. (1998). While Alzua et al. (1998) used the attitudinal characteristic of benefits sought and the behavioural characteristic of activities at the destination including culture/heritage-related activities to differentiate the UK outbound travellers into culture/heritage market segments, this study proposes testing the motivational process constructs (attitudes, motives, benefits sought and gained) and the independent variable of cultural language group (English-speaking, Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking) as segmentation grouping variables for the cultural experience tourist market. The findings from the second and third stage of the market segmentation procedural model will be compared with previous research of cultural tourists and cultural tourist motivation identified in the literature review.

Figure 3.2: Procedural model for researching segmentation of the cultural experience tourist market, and developing effective marketing strategies



Source: Developed from Literature Review and based on (Alzua et al., 1998; Morrison et al., 1994)

The final stage of the procedural model recommends developing a marketing strategy model for each of the identified target market segments for the cultural experience tourist market. This will depend on which of the motivational process constructs and the cultural group influencing variable are found to function as segmentation differentiation variables by showing significant differences between the segments. As seen in the literature review, each of the motivational process constructs and socio-demographic influencing variable in this study of cultural group, have common marketing application uses and implications for developing marketing strategies. If the research

findings support the earlier stated hypotheses, then it can be concluded that different cultures require different marketing and promotion strategies to encourage attendance at cultural experiences.

Chapter 4 Research Method

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, research models and conceptual frameworks were discussed and the research hypotheses for this study were presented. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methods that will be used for the study and the following discussion includes a definition of the target population, background to the research site, an overview of the sampling frame and procedures; and details of the data collection instruments, scaling techniques and data analysis methods. It also considers issues associated with measuring the consumer motivational process constructs and influencing variables of interest to this study, and specific research method and measurement issues associated with undertaking cross-cultural research.

4.2 Research Approach

Consumer motivation and behaviour research has tended to take two distinct general approaches. One of these approaches is the case study approach whereby the consumer's motivational processes are researched in relation to a particular experience, with the consumers usually sampled in-situ at the experience, either pre-, post- or during their consumption of the experience. The other main approach researches consumers' perceived or expected motivations towards broad categories of experiences or one or more specific experiences, all of which may be real or hypothetical, with the consumers usually sampled off-site either at home, on-street (e.g., Prentice et al., 1997) or on arrival or departure from the destination. Both approaches have been widely used, especially in relation to tourist consumers. Strengths and limitations apply to each approach as will be discussed below which is why both approaches were closely considered as methods for this research.

The approach used in this research is a combination of both methods. It is essentially a case study approach applied as a rigorous method of research (Yin, 2003) with selected tourist populations sampled *in-situ* at one particular cultural experience and some of the motivational process constructs relating specifically to their consumption experience of the cultural site. Furthermore, the research is being conducted at one cultural experience site in Melbourne, Australia and therefore it is largely a case study of the cultural experience motivational process for tourists to Melbourne. These tourists' motivational process for travelling to Melbourne in the first place may have been motivated to greater or lesser degree by the cultural experiences available in Melbourne but such pull factors of the destination are not a focus of this research *per se*. Rather, as previously acknowledged in Chapter 2, Melbourne is renowned for its cultural attractions and events which was one of the justifications for undertaking the research at this destination. Where this research approach extends beyond a strict case study approach, is that some of the research questions for other elements of the cultural experience motivational process, such as attitudes and motives for attending cultural experiences,

refer to broad, generic types of cultural experiences, including the *in-situ* cultural experience. This combination approach is considered the best way to undertake research of tourist's motivational process towards attending a variety of cultural experiences while on holiday as well as to gain an indepth understanding of their motivational process in relation to one specific cultural experience. The conceptual model of the tourist's cultural experience motivational process presented in this study is based on several constructs and one of the purposes of this research is to explore the relationships between the constructs. One's motivational process for experiencing one specific experience could be influenced by one's attitudes towards cultural experiences generally and to various types as well as towards the specific cultural experience in question.

The case study approach is appropriate when the research being conducted focuses on contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, when the investigator requires little or no control over behavioural events, and where the form of the research question is how or why (Yin, 2003). These variables are very relevant to this study of tourist's motivational processes towards attending cultural experiences and the research questions that have been posed for study in this research. Other benefits of the case study approach are that it provides the researcher with a depth of information that cannot be gained from other methodological approaches (Yin, 2003). As this study involves the testing of a new conceptual model for cultural experience tourist's motivational processes, a research approach that will provide depth of information is considered a priority for this study. Another benefit of the case study approach is that the research is based on consumer's consumption of one particular experience that they have in common, whereby the focus of the research is how their consumption of that experience may differ. A commonly identified limitation of the case study approach is that generalisation of the results is tentative (e.g. Zikmund, 2000), however the research findings from case study research aim to expand and generalise theoretical propositions rather than generalising results to populations or universes (Yin, 2003).

The other main research approach in relation to consumer motivation and behaviour frequently focuses on sampling consumers at locations where sufficient numbers of them can be found such as at airport lounges, shopping mall intercepts or in their homes and asking them about their motivation and behaviour towards experiences that typically have occurred or are likely to occur at another time and place. This approach is logistically appealing in situations where it may be difficult to identify sufficient numbers of the populations being sampled. There appeared to be advantages and disadvantages, especially logistically, in predominantly adopting this approach in this study that focuses on eight selected populations of international and domestic interstate tourists and their motivational process towards multiple types of cultural experiences. Airport lounges are an attractive site for intercepting eligible tourists and so this research approach was considered an appropriate one to use in this study. Investigations into implementing this research method, revealed access to international airports lounges has become more difficult in recent years due to increased airport

security and some airports have further restricted all on-site marketing research to exclusive agreements with professional marketing research companies. A further limitation of this proposed research was that some of the motivational process constructs involved the research to be undertaken before and after the consumption of the cultural experience which would have required interviewing tourists in departure lounges at their destination of origin or in the arrival hall at Melbourne international airport and then again as they were departing the destination in the airport departure lounges. Discussions were undertaken with a professional market research company that has contracts with many international airports worldwide including Melbourne, but the expense associated with undertaking research at airports now favours syndicated research with the partners sharing the costs of gaining access and undertaking the research, and this presented additional obstacles of needing syndicated research partners interested in undertaking research projects at the same airports and within similar timeframes. A further limitation of this study using airport lounges as the sampling site, is that it biases the research towards tourists that travel by air transport. While this is not an issue for international tourists to Australia as the majority arrive by air transport, it would be a limitation for the domestic interstate tourists many of whom travel by car, bus or train as well as by air. One other disadvantage of the non-case study method approach in this area of consumer motivational research is that consumers' cultural experiences or lack of them would be varied, and responses to questions about the nature of those experiences would depend on each respondent's experiences.

One other research method approach would be a variation on the case method whereby the selected tourist populations are sampled at multiple cultural attractions. This method would have been attractive if the research focus was to compare tourists' motivational process towards attending a small number of attractions either of a similar type or different cultural experiences. Although this method has been frequently used such as one of three research methods in recent research of Chinese tourists' experiences at tourism attractions in Victoria, Australia (Weiler and Yu, 2004; Yu and Weiler, 2006), obtaining permission from the cultural attractions' management to undertake research of their tourist visitors can be difficult. Furthermore, for many cultural attractions in Australia, identifying sufficient numbers of the selected tourist populations of interest to this study would be extremely difficult.

In light of the above discussion, the best overall research approach was considered to be obtaining permission to conduct the research at one tourist attraction site that fulfilled several criteria. In particular it needed to attract sufficiently large numbers of tourist visitors from the selected research populations of interest to this study, and to be suitable for functioning as a case study approach of cultural experience whereby some of the constructs of relevance to consumer's motivational processes towards cultural experiences would be researched in relation to their experience of the site. Permission to conduct the research on-site at the Queen Victoria Market (QVM) enabled these various criteria to be met as discussed further in section 4.3.2 on the research site.

Multiple research strategies are further proposed in this study where in addition to the case study research method, a structured survey method is proposed. Survey research allows primary data to be gathered and assembled specifically for the research project at hand (Zikmund, 2000). Similar to the case study approach, the survey approach is appropriate when the research being conducted focuses on contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and when the investigator requires little or no control over behavioural events (Yin, 2003). Surveys have the additional advantage that they can be designed to have multiple objectives. They are suitable for gathering descriptive information of relevance to describing a particular activity and learning the reasons for it (Zikmund, 2000), and they are also appropriate where the form of the research question is who, what, where, how many or how much (Yin, 2003). Although mostly descriptive, surveys can be designed to provide causal explanations or to explore ideas (Zikmund, 2000). As all of these variables are very relevant to this study of tourist's motivational processes towards attending cultural experiences and the research questions that have been posed for study in this research, a combined-methods research design will be used.

In this study, the use of a survey method together with a combination generic and case study approach method will enable the testing of a new conceptual model for tourist's cultural experience motivational processes. As the conceptual model of the tourist's cultural experience motivational process presented in this study is based on several constructs, one of the main purposes of this research is to develop a survey instrument for measuring the constructs and testing the underlying dimensions of each construct. This combined methods approach will enable generic and in-depth information to be gathered about each of the constructs that can then be tested for underlying dimensionality and structural relationships.

The research design for this study also incorporates multiple research strategies by partially being exploratory, descriptive, and confirmatory, and also being more explanatory and diagnostic than predictive. In light of how little research has been undertaken to date in this topic, especially with a cross-cultural focus as discussed in Chapter 2 Literature Review, exploratory, descriptive and confirmatory research is appropriate to gain insights into cultural differences between different tourist markets' interest in and motivation for cultural experiences. Identification of the variables which are relevant to the motivational process for cultural experiences and which may affect cultural group differences, and an understanding of relations between these variables are further appropriate aims to which this largely exploratory, descriptive and confirmatory research design is well suited.

4.3 Target Population, Research Site and Sampling Frame

4.3.1 Population Units and Elements

From the total population of international and domestic interstate tourists to Melbourne, eight population units have been selected for sampling with the sampling element being individual tourists within each of these groups. For the purpose of this study, tourists were defined as a temporary visitor to Melbourne staying at least one night and not more than 12 months

The eight population units comprised five groups of international tourist populations based on language spoken at home and country or region-based place-of-residence as the dimensions of culture to be tested, and three domestic tourist populations based on state-based place-of-residence. Three language groups based on language spoken at home were identified for sampling: Japanese, Chinese (in Mandarin spoken form and simplified written form) and English-speaking international and national interstate tourists. In turn, these three language groups also comprised distinct geographic tourist markets based on the tourist's place-of-residence from which eight stratified groups have been selected as a focus of this study: the five international tourist markets of New Zealand, North America/Canada, UK and Ireland, Asia (Chinese speaking), and Asia (Japanese speaking), and three domestic interstate tourist markets of New South Wales, Queensland and South Australia.

These international tourist markets have been selected for their current size and ranking or their recent growth as inbound markets to Australia and Melbourne, Victoria as discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.5. The two selected Asian language groups for international tourists (Japanese and Chinese speaking) are further based on six Asian markets of particular significance to tourism in Australia and also in Melbourne, Victoria: Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia for their current size and ranking as inbound markets, and Mainland China and Taiwan for their recent growth as discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.5.

International tourists from the UK and Ireland, and to a lesser extent international tourists from NZ might be considered culturally similar to Australian resident populations, especially as many Australians are of Anglo-Celtic background with six percent of all Australians born in the United Kingdom (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005a). However, differences in attendance at cultural venues and events by Australian residents' aged 18 years and over by birthplace have been found ((Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003, 2005a). This research found a higher percentage of residents born overseas in the main English-speaking countries attend museums, art galleries and all forms of performing arts. This category of residents is defined as the main countries from which Australia receives, or has received, significant numbers of overseas settlers who are likely to speak English. These countries are the United Kingdom and Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, the United States of America and South Africa (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003). Twenty two percent of all Australian residents were born overseas (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005a), with the top four overseas birthplace groups being the United Kingdom (6% of all Australian residents), followed by New Zealand (2%), and Italy and Vietnam (1% each). These findings suggest sufficient cultural differences between Australian resident populations born in Australia and those originating from the UK, Ireland and NZ to test in this research whether there are cultural differences between tourists from these

population units in their interest in, and motives for, attending cultural attractions and events while holidaying in Melbourne, Australia. The research of Australian resident attendance at cultural venues, further found Australians born overseas in countries other than the main English-speaking ones, are less likely to attend than residents born in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003). These findings suggest further cultural differences in attendances at museums, art galleries and all forms of performing arts by place of birth particularly warranting research of tourists from countries other than the main English-speaking ones who may be less likely to attend cultural attractions and events than interstate domestic tourists.

The national interstate markets have been selected for their significance as the three largest interstate markets for Victoria and because existing quantitative research of the motivations and behaviours of those interstate visitors who attend cultural attractions and events (Tourism Victoria, 2004a), indicates potential to increase the attendances by these visitors at most cultural attractions, especially the performing arts events (also discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.5).

4.3.2 Research Site

The selected tourist market population samples will be taken on-site at the Queen Victoria Market (QVM) because as evidenced in Chapter 1, section 1.5, markets are an important attraction for tourist visitors in Australia and Melbourne, Victoria, where they prominently feature in lists of most popular activities undertaken by tourists at the destination. The QVM is a large public site, free of entry charge and has numerous entry and exit points. It is located in Melbourne's CBD and so is particularly centrally located and easily accessible to tourists on foot and by public transport.

Melbourne, Australia is the **geographic** area of focus in this study for the numerous reasons discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, but particularly because it is renowned as a 'cultural capital of Australia', hosting major annual arts festivals and is home to many major cultural and performing arts companies, venues and facilities. In addition, it attracts a substantial number of international and interstate visitors of nearly 6 million per annum (Tourism Victoria, 2006b, 2007) which represents a sizable potential market for cultural attractions and events especially when compared with Melbourne's resident population of 3.6 million, more than 2.5 million of whom are 15 years of age or older (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005c), and regional resident population for the State of Victoria of 5.0 million (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005b).

Surveying eligible tourists at QVM has the additional advantage of enabling data to be collected from both frequent cultural experience attendees and infrequent attendees within the eight population units of three language groups. Interviewing infrequent or non-attendees as well as attendees provides information about why people do not attend and the potential for attracting new segments (Getz, 1997; Nicholson and Pearce, 2000, 2001).

4.3.3 Research Design and Sampling Frame

While the selection of the eight cultural language- and place-of-residence-based groups was not based on convenience or availability but on the statistical data for major tourist markets for Melbourne as outlined above, identifying eligible tourist respondents aged 18 years of age or older from each of the eight cultural groups was achieved by purposeful convenience sampling. A further quota sampling method was applied to get a specified minimum number of respondents from each of the eight groups rather than achieving sample proportionality to the total population. This was to enable multivariate statistical analysis of the data as will be discussed in the next section on sample size (Section 4.3.4).

Purposeful convenience sampling and quota sampling have both advantages and disadvantages. A significant disadvantage of purposeful convenience sampling is that it is a non-probability sampling method and so representativeness cannot be assumed (Page and Meyer, 2000). Therefore this research is confined to exploratory research of the topic with these populations rather than being probability-based random sampling which is representative of the populations and so the findings can be extrapolated to the whole population. The further assumption of probability samples is that sample elements are selected from a sampling frame that consists of all the members of the research population (Page and Meyer, 2000). Quota sampling also does not allow for randomisation but should incorporate statification whereby respondents are selected by the interviewer rather than by chance (Page and Meyer, 2000). Interviewer bias is common in quota and convenience sampling (Page and Meyer, 2000) and to reduce this, an attempt was also made to choose respondents from a wide variety of socio-demographic backgrounds in terms of age and gender to ensure the samples' representativeness of the central tendency of their cultures. The gender of the 13 data collectors was also a consideration to further reduce this bias with three males employed as data collector assistants in addition to their bi-lingual language skills. Furthermore, there are research situations where non-probability samples are the only methods that are feasible, often because most sample frames are not complete (Page and Meyer, 2000). Tourist visitors to Melbourne and to the QVM in particular are such situations whereby the sampling frame is not complete. The size of the total population and each strata population unit is unknown for visitors overall and for tourist market visitors. Furthermore, it varies over time and the population standard deviation is unknown and possibly differs by strata.

The quota and convenience sampling used in this research was purposeful as several screening questions were involved to identify eligible respondents, that is, respondents who were not just available and willing to undertake the survey but qualified as tourists and were from the eight population strata groups. Respondent's experience at the Queen Victoria Market cultural heritage attraction was also a prerequisite for all eight population groups as several sections of the survey involved some of the motivational process components being measured in relation to this one common cultural experience. To further reduce sampling bias, non-qualifying international and interstate tourist respondents and non-responses by eligible tourists were recorded so that these

could be considered in the data analysis. Intercepted and screened respondents were offered a lapel sticker so that they were not approached multiple times for interviewing.

As each survey interview typically took 10 minutes or more to complete, one also had to be realistic about maximising the likely response of eligible tourists. To achieve the population unit quotas, QVM visitors were largely intercepted while sitting down in some of the many resting or eating areas at the QVM. This further required the use of a purposeful convenience sampling method than a more representative, random probability sampling method.

Completed surveys by sampled respondents from the eight population units are then to be analysed to test the extent to which there are cultural differences in international tourists' motivation and behaviour towards attending and consuming locally-based cultural attractions and events, and whether distinguishable market segments for cultural experience tourism can be identified.

Cultural differences based on language spoken at home and place-of-residence differences are being used to identify the units of population to be sampled because cultural differences are essential for marketing purposes as outlined in Chapter 2, section 2.13.1. As discussed in this previous section, cultural differences influence tourist motivation and behaviour, cultural experience tourists can be segmented by language differences and these differences are crucial to marketing strategies, especially communication and promotion, and also to consumers' marketing needs and responses. From an international marketing perspective, language is one of five key elements of culture identified by anthropologists, to be evaluated in order to understand a culture (Cateora and Graham, 2002).

Previous data from other relevant studies of international and national tourism in Australia (e.g., Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001; Bureau of Tourism Research, 2001, 2003; Tourism Australia, 2005; Tourism Research Australia, 2004) will be used as comparative data for basic demographic, travel and cultural experience tourism structure, and to establish the representativeness of the sample across the total population.

4.3.4 Sample Size and Response Rates

Because the size of the total population and each strata population unit at the Queen Victoria Market, is unknown and varies over time and the population standard deviation is unknown and possibly differs by strata, a baseline sample size for each strata cannot be determined by formula.

A sample size large enough to allow for the sophisticated multivariate data analysis methods is required and discussed in this section, with further detail for each of the proposed multivariate data analysis methods discussed in Section 4.6. A range of methods of analysis will be used to test the hypotheses and assist in providing responses to the research questions posed. This range includes factor analysis of each of the motivational process constructs to examine whether it is possible to reduce the data by identifying underlying dimensions and differences between the constructs and

their dimensions. Confirmatory factor analysis in structural equation modelling (SEM) will then be performed to test the factorial validity of the constructs.

The sample size plays an important role in the estimation and interpretation of the results. In SEM, for example, several factors affect sample size requirements, including the complexity of the model being analysed, and the type of estimation algorithm used in the analysis (Kline, 2005). In SEM using AMOS as proposed in this study, the estimation of parameters is based on the maximum likelihood (MLE) method by default even though there has been considerable debate in recent years of treating interval scaled variables such as Likert-type scales as if they were of a continuous ratio scale (Byrne, 2001). Byrne (2001) further supports using MLE and treating all data as of a continuous scale referring to various research supporting two valuable points: i) MLE is less problematic when the covariance rather than the correlation matrix is analysed, and ii) given normally distributed categorical variables, continuous methods can be used with little worry when a variable has four or more categories. While the Likert-type scales used in this research are discussed in section 4.5.6, they are based on six categories.

As probability sampling was not used, the optimal sample size according to the standard error formula, could not be applied. Therefore, when setting the target quota sample size for each of the eight cultural population units, some general sample size guidelines of relevance to the proposed data analysis methods were taken into account (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Minimum sample sizes for various data analysis statistical techniques

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	MINIMUM SAMPLE SIZE	REFERENCE
Factor Analysis	100 5 (or more acceptable 10) observations for each variable being analysed	Hair *et al.*, 2006
Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)	100 400-500 (max.) or MLE becomes "too sensitive" making goodness-of-fit measures poor	Hair *et al.*, 2006
Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	100-150 for simpler models	Hair *et al.*, 2006
	100 subjects for "medium" sample size (up to a range of 200)	Kline, 2005
Confirmatory Factor Analysis in SEM	100-150 cases	Kline, 2005

In addition to these sample size general guidelines, Sudman (1983) indicates that sample sizes for regional attitude research commonly range from 400 to 1,000 with 700 being the optimum. These sample sizes do assume that optimal stratified sampling procedures are being used, but this assumption does not apply with this research as probability sampling was not used.

Therefore the target quota sample size was at least 100 completed in situ questionnaires for each of the eight cultural population units of international and national interstate tourists, with a total sample of at least 800 completed questionnaires.

The data collection process for the in-situ survey resulted in 1,038 surveys by individual respondents from which 961 usable surveys were retained. The analysis of the 77 removed surveys is discussed in the next section, but the sample size drawn from each market in the final retained sample is shown in Table 4.2 as well as the total arrivals during the data collection period for each of the eight tourist markets of interest to this study.

The size of the sample used in this study (Table 4.2) satisfies most of the minimum sample size guidelines summarised in Table 4.1 for the statistical analysis techniques to be used in this study.

Table 4.2: Sample size drawn from each market in the final retained data set

Market	**Total Arrivals**	**Sample surveyed at QVM**	
		Size	**%**
International tourists	**To Australia Jan-Mar 2006**		
Japan	175,900	119	12.4
New Zealand	194,100	140	14.5
North America (incl. USA, Canada and Alaska)	154,300	124	12.9
UK (incl. Scotland, England, Wales) and Ireland	214,000	141	14.7
China	84,000	N/A	N/A
Hong Kong	37,300		
Malaysia	32,800		
Singapore	48,400		
Taiwan	25,700		
Other NE or SE Asian markets	136,000		
Total Chinese speaking Asian international tourists	N/A	122	12.7
Australian interstate domestic tourists	**To Melbourne Jan-Dec 2006**		
New South Wales	2,585,000	153	15.9
Queensland	894,000	93	9.7
South Australia	971,000	68	7.1
where State-of-residence missing	Not Applicable	1	0.1
TOTAL	Not Applicable	961	100.0

(Tourism Research Australia, 2006b; Tourism Victoria, 2007)

Each of the main international tourist samples has a sample size of more than 100. For the three domestic interstate tourist samples, two of the population units achieve, or are very close to, the 100 minimum sample size guideline (NSW, n = 153; Qld, n = 93), but the minimum quota was not achieved for the third domestic interstate tourist population unit (SA, n = 68). These results for the NSW market are not surprising as this market primarily drives the total domestic visitors to Victoria and comprises 48% of all interstate visitors in 2006 (Tourism Victoria, 2007). The SA market result is surprising considering that the SA market cornprises 18% of all interstate visitors compared with the Queensland market which comprises only 17% (Tourism Victoria, 2007), yet the minimum quota was almost achieved for the latter during the data collection period. While the SA market sample is not sufficient for separate analysis, the three domestic interstate tourist populations combine to a sample (n = 315) that can be used as a population unit to compare with international tourist samples from

English-speaking markets (405 combined sample) and Chinese- or Japanese-speaking Asian markets (241 combined sample).

As to the factor analysis requirement, for the in-situ questionnaire there are 961 usable cases for the eight population units in the combined sample with 92 factorial variables, this translates into approximately 10.4 observations per variable which exceeds the five cases per variable minimum sample guideline (Hair et al., 2006). However, a cross-validation procedure is being used as discussed in section 4.6 whereby the total English-speaking tourist sample (N=720) is randomly split into two samples with exploratory factor analysis undertaken on the calibration sample and the resultant factorial validity then tested on the validation sample using confirmatory factor analysis in structural equation modelling. The random splitting of the in-situ sample using SPSS (version 12.0) resulted in a calibration sample of 362 cases for the exploratory factor analysis which translates into more than 11 observations for each construct's variables which also exceeds the minimum sample guideline of five observations per variable (Hair et al., 2006). The validation sample of 358 cases will be used for confirmatory factor analysis in SEM and this sample also exceeds the recommended sample size guideline minimum of 100 subjects (Kline, 2005). For the final measurement models for each construct, cultural group differences will then be tested using invariance testing in SEM which further requires each population subsample to fulfill the recommended sample size guideline minimum of 100 subjects. It will be possible to undertake this analysis for the six international tourist populations of interest to this study as their sample sizes are 119 cases or more (Table 4.2) but as only two of the three domestic tourist subsamples achieve the sample size minimum, a combined domestic tourist subsample (N=315) will be used in the invariance testing analysis.

The population who completed the first stage in-situ interview questionnaire constituted the population for the after-visit questionnaire. The overall response rate of 44% is much higher than has been reported for many mail-back surveys where the response rate is typically less than 15% for randomly selected respondents, without any pre- or post-mailing contact (Malhotra et al., 1996). Several design features recommended for maximising response rates in mail surveys (Crompton and Tian-Cole, 2001) were incorporated in this study: (1) prepaid return envelopes were included; and (2) a cover letter which was on University letterhead and included a confidentiality statement. In addition, because the self-complete mail after-visit survey was the second stage for respondents who had completed the in-situ personally administered survey, these respondents already had some interest in or commitment to the study and some relationship with the in-situ survey interviewer may have developed which may have strengthened their willingness to respond to the mail-back second stage survey. Aiding this relationship, a small pewter 'Aussie icon' token of appreciation was offered to respondents on completion of the in-situ survey. This non-monetary reward was generally well received with nearly all respondents accepting the offer of selecting one of the five 'Aussie icon' designs.

Response rates are known to increase with the use of incentives and rewards (Yu & Cooper, 1983 cited in Malhotra et al., 1996), and a direct incentive for the return of the after-visit mail survey was further used in this study. Respondents of the in-situ survey were verbally advised on its completion and when handed the after-visit survey, of an incentive for the latter's return: this being a chance in the draw for an iPod Nano player. Therefore incentive bias may have been a source of response bias, but this was not tested for in this study.

The data collection result of 44% for the after-visit survey comprises 418 respondents in total and the sample size drawn from each market is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Sample size of after-visit survey respondents and proportion from the in-situ survey respondents for the selected tourist markets of interest to this study

	In-Situ Sample Surveyed at QVM	After-visit Survey Respondents	After-Visit as a percentage of In-Situ Sample
		Size	%
International tourists			
Japan	119	36	30.3
New Zealand	140	72	51.4
North American (incl. USA, Canada and Alaska)	124	53	42.7
UK (incl. Scotland, England, Wales) and Ireland	141	62	44.0
China	N/A		
Hong Kong	N/A		
Malaysia	N/A		
Singapore	N/A		
Taiwan	N/A		
Other NE or SE Asian markets	N/A		
Total Chinese speaking Asian international tourists	122	57	46.7
Australian interstate domestic tourists			
New South Wales	153	71	46.4
Queensland	93	34	36.6
South Australia	68	33	48.5
where State-of-residence missing	1	0	0
TOTAL	961	418	43.5

Six of the eight population units of interest to this study also attained either 42% or above. The two populations where the sample size drawn from the market is lower than 42% are international Japanese tourists (30.3%) and interstate domestic tourists from Queensland (36.6%). Both of these are well above the previously identified typical mail survey response rates of 15%. While the Japanese tourist response rate (30.3%) is the lowest rate, the response rate by Chinese-speaking Asian international tourists (46.7%) was one of those above 42%, suggesting that race effects are variable. The highest response rates were by New Zealanders (51.4%), followed by South Australians (48.5%).

The significance of these after-visit survey response rates (Table 4.3) has implications for some of the statistical analysis techniques to be used in this study when the minimum sample size guidelines summarised in Table 4.1 are considered. As to the factor analysis requirement, for the after-visit questionnaire there are 418 usable cases for the eight combined population units with 32 variables for the benefits gained construct, this translates into 13.0 observations variable which exceeds the five observations per variable minimum sample guideline (Hair et al., 2006). However, a cross-validation procedure is being used as discussed in section 4.6 whereby the total English-speaking after-visit tourist sample (N = 325) is randomly split into two samples with exploratory factor analysis undertaken on the calibration sample and the resultant factorial validity then tested on the validation sample using confirmatory factor analysis in SEM. The random splitting of the after-visit sample using SPSS (version 12.0) resulted in a calibration sample of 169 cases for the exploratory factor analysis which translates into more than 5.3 observations per benefits gained variable which meets the minimum sample guideline of five observations per variable (Hair et al., 2006). The validation sample of 156 cases will be used for confirmatory factor analysis and this sample also fulfills the recommended sample size guideline minimum of 100 subjects (Kline, 2005). For invariance testing of cultural group differences in the benefits gained construct measurement model, none of the after-visit samples for all eight populations of interest to this study (Table 4.3) fulfill the recommended minimum sample size for confirmatory factor analysis in SEM. Hence for the invariance testing of the benefits gained measurement model, the eight selected population units will be consolidated into three combined samples: one sample combining the three Australian domestic interstate tourist samples (138 combined sample), another combining the international tourist samples from the English-speaking markets (187 combined sample), and Chinese- or Japanese-speaking international tourists from Asian markets (93 combined sample). These combined samples either achieve, or are close to achieving, the minimum sample size of 100 cases and enable invariance testing for the English-speaking tourist markets (international tourists compared to domestic tourists). Further invariance testing within the Asian tourist sample for cultural group differences between the Japanese-speaking and Chinese-speaking tourists will not be possible due to sample size limitations.

4.3.5 Non Responses and Removed Questionnaires

Non-response bias is considered less important for this type of study where the focus is on exploring the nature of a phenomenon rather than being concerned with the distribution of the phenomenon in a population (Crompton and Tian-Cole, 2001). Research of factor structures of motivations for tourism often use convenience samples as sample representativeness is a secondary concern to the theoretical merits of the hypothesized relationships and researchers seek to examine theoretical propositions about variables or relationships between them (Crompton and Tian-Cole, 2001). Nevertheless, some comments about non-responses have been included to provide some support that non-response bias was not an important issue for this study.

Non-responses to the in-situ survey were largely due to ineligibility identified at the screening question stage. Non-response records were only kept for the intercepted tourist visitors, and these varied by data collector, largely due to the languages in which they were fluent relative to the selected language group quotas. For example, the greatest number of non-responses to the in-situ survey was experienced by the one mono-lingual English-speaking data collector, especially in the later stages of data collection when eligible survey respondent quotas were reduced to only international tourists from North America, and Chinese- or Japanese-speaking tourists from Asia. Of the twelve other data collectors, all were bi-lingual in English and either Chinese or Japanese and one of the twelve was tri-lingual in English, Japanese and Chinese (Mandarin). When eligible tourist visitors were intercepted onsite, the response rate was generally high and this is possibly attributable to the high visibility and strong identification of the project as a University one with all data collectors wearing Victoria University on-brand t-shirts which was particularly visible on weekend shifts when there were seven data collectors onsite at a time.

Details of the 77 questionnaires removed from the sample are provided in Table 4.4 and they comprised 7.4% of the total in-situ survey sample collected (1,038) which on removal resulted in the final sample data set (961 cases). Surveys were removed for three main reasons: i) insufficient sample size for the population unit (58%); ii) badly incomplete surveys (35%); and iii) insufficient response variation in survey (6.4%).

The first reason produced the largest proportion of removed surveys (58%) and was associated with the identification of eligible respondents from the selected tourist population units of interest to this study which were based on combinations of origin (interstate or international) and language most spoken at home (Chinese-speaking, Japanese-speaking, or English-speaking). Three additional groups emerged in the data collection sampling process: Chinese- or Japanese-speaking international tourists from English-speaking markets (6 cases), Chinese- or Japanese-speaking interstate tourists (3 cases) and English-speaking Asian international tourists (36 cases). The first two groups were not easily detected until preliminary descriptive analysis was undertaken after the data collection period. The latter group was evident during data collection but deemed eligible for sampling because Australia has considerable numbers of international tourists from Asian countries where English is the language most spoken at home by some members of those populations such as Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong and it was unknown how many of these tourists would be intercepted during the data collection period and whether the sample would be large enough for data analysis as a separate population unit. As this sample only totalled 36 cases and so was subsequently removed from the data set, future research of Asian international tourists should carefully consider whether these population unit members are deemed eligible or ineligible for sampling.

Table 4.4: Questionnaires removed from sample

Market/Language Most Spoken at Home	Insufficient Sample Size for Population Unit		Incomplete Survey		Insufficient Response Variation in Survey	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
International tourists						
Japan			1	3.7		
New Zealand			5	18.5	1	20.0
North American (incl. USA, Canada and Alaska)			1	3.7	1	20.0
UK (incl. Scotland, England, Wales) and Ireland			9	33.4		
Chinese speaking international tourists						
China						
Hong Kong						
Malaysia						
Singapore						
Taiwan					1	20.0
NE or SE Asian markets (country not specified)			1	3.7		
Other NE or SE Asian markets					1	20.0
Other markets than Asia			1	3.7		
Chinese- or Japanese-speaking international tourists from English-speaking markets	6	13.3				
English-speaking Asian international tourists	36	80.0	1	3.7		
Australian interstate domestic tourists						
New South Wales			2	7.4		
Queensland			2	7.4	1	20.0
South Australia			3	11.1		
where State-of-residence missing			1	3.7		
Chinese-speaking or Japanese-speaking based on language most spoken at home	3	6.7				
TOTAL	45	100.0	27	100.0	5	100.0

The second largest proportion of removed surveys (35%) were 27 incomplete surveys identified through missing value analysis. All of these cases had at least 30 or more missing values from the 92 items comprising the three motivational process constructs measured in the in-situ survey and were deemed too incomplete to include in the sample. All major markets or sampling population units had one or two cases removed, excepting the UK and Ireland (9 cases) and New Zealand (5 cases) which were the two largest international tourist samples. As one-third of the UK and Ireland removed cases were conducted by the same interviewer, interviewer error rather than a cultural trait is suggested.

The third reason of removed surveys because of insufficient variation in responses, applied to only five cases (6.4% of the removed cases) and there was never more than one of these in any one market or sampling population unit.

4.4 Data Collection

A two-staged data collection process is being used as this research method is considered essential to measuring constructs within the motivational process (as defined for the purposes of this study in

Chapter 2, section 2.9.6.2). In this definition some of the constructs exist before the experience and motivate the decision to attend such as attitudes about attending specific activities and events and motives for attending, and expected benefits from attending, whereas others can only be measured after the behaviour or activity such as the motivational-related behavioural outcomes from the consumption experience of benefits gained from the experience or satisfaction with the experience.

There is further debate about how to best measure some of the constructs of interest to this study, including when and how these measurements should be undertaken, as will be further discussed in later sections of this chapter on measurement issues for each of the constructs. These issues also have implications for whether a one- or two-staged data collection process is used. In particular, the disconfirmation approach for measuring satisfaction (Churchill and Suprenant, 1982; Oliver, 1980a) or service quality (Gronroos, 1990) is an expectation-performance analysis model that advocates expectations be measured prior to the experience, and performance outcomes be measured after the experience. In this study, a new use of benefits sought or expected before the experience, and benefits gained after the experience, is proposed as an inferred measure of satisfaction by comparing differences, if any, between cultural experience tourists' benefits expected or sought and those gained. This proposed approach to measuring satisfaction is a variation on expectation-performance disconfirmation approaches and similar to the importance-performance analysis model to attitudes, attributes and satisfaction which has been widely applied in general marketing literature and also in travel, tourism and leisure research (O'Leary and Deegan, 2005; Oh, 2001; Ryan and Mo, 2001; e.g., Vaske et al., 1996; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). While this study will be utilising a two-staged data collection process, it is interesting to note that some importance-performance analysis model applications in tourism research have adopted a two-staged data collection process (O'Leary and Deegan, 2005), while others adopt a one-stage data collection process (Ryan and Mo, 2001) with the importance and evaluation scales paired together for each questionnaire item following a pattern proposed by Parasuraman et al. (1994a; 1994b). The latter approach is instead of asking respondents to rate importance first and then the evaluation, in either a one- or two-staged data collection process.

4.4.1 In-Situ Personally Administered Interview Questionnaire

Stage one involved a personally administered, interview questionnaire in-situ at the Queen Victoria Market (QVM) where a purposeful convenience sampling approach was used at multiple data collection points in high traffic areas throughout QVM, with the data collector intercepting and screening visitors passing the collection point to establish if they qualified as one of the eight population units. To avoid multiple intercepting of approached tourists (eligible or ineligible), yellow stickers were offered to these tourists and this system functioned well.

The in-situ questionnaire was administered to the eight population units by personal interview. A team of 12 bi-lingual research assistants was recruited from the 22 applicants who responded to a job

specification for bi-lingual data collector research assistants advertised through Victoria University's employment service and RMIT University's Chinese and Japanese interpreting and translation courses. All of the research assistants were bi-lingual in at least two of the three languages of interest to this study (English, Japanese and Chinese Mandarin form) and administered the personal interviews using a translated intercept sheet of screening questions and interview checklist questionnaire. The only mono-lingual data collector was the English-speaking author of this study. The strengths of the personal interview method conducted by a well-trained interviewer are the ability to handle complex questions, collect large amounts of data, more complete questionnaires, and higher participation rates (Zikmund, 2000).

Training of the data collector assistants was undertaken in December 2005 in accordance with international data collection guidelines (International Chamber of Commerce/European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research, 1995). Data collection commenced Thursday December 28, 2005 for 29 market trading days until Saturday 18th February, 2006. The team of 13 data collectors worked one three hour shift on each of these days with the number of data collectors on-site at any one shift ranging from three to seven data collectors on Saturdays and Sundays. The author of this study functioned as the team leader, participating in all 29 data collection shifts and was personally responsible for collecting 140 of the 1,038 completed *in-situ* surveys (13.5%). Most data collectors worked two shifts per week for the seven weeks and a schedule was developed to ensure there was always at least one bi-lingual data collector fluent in Chinese and one in Japanese. An exception was the female, tri-lingual data collector research assistant who worked 23 of the 29 shifts due to her language and data collection skills resulting in the successful collection of 155 in-situ surveys (15%). Three of the data collectors were males, and usually there was at least one male data collector per shift to reduce respondent gender bias.

4.4.2 After-Visit Self-Complete Questionnaire

The population who completed the first stage in-situ interview questionnaire constituted the population for the second stage, shorter after-visit questionnaire distributed to respondents at the conclusion of the in-situ questionnaire. The overall response rate of 44% for the after-visit survey and the sample size drawn from each market has been previously discussed with details outlined in Table 4.3.

4.4.3 Timing of Data Collection

The primary data collection period of December 2005 to March 2006 was peak tourism season for many of the selected international inbound and interstate markets. The January to March 2006 quarter was the peak period for international tourists from Japan, Taiwan, China and North America, and the second largest peak for tourists from New Zealand, United Kingdom, Hong Kong, Singapore and Malaysia (Tourism Research Australia, 2006a, 2006b). For domestic tourist visitation to Victoria, the peak quarter was December 2005 to February 2006 with the peak month being January 2006

(Tourism Victoria, 2005c). Interviewing was conducted over a seven week period on all five market trading days each week and at various times per day to ensure a broad mix of tourist visitors.

4.5 Instrument Design

While pre-validated survey items and scales from previous relevant research would have been the preferred basis of the survey instruments to be used in this study, as identified in the literature review, there is little consensus about how to measure each of the motivational process constructs of interest to this study. This study proposes that the motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained by tourists are relevant to developing tourist markets for cultural experiences. It also proposes new uses for benefit variable dimensions in this research of tourists' cultural experiences with any difference between benefits sought and gained used as a measure of satisfaction. Furthermore, very little of the existing research has applied one or more of these constructs in a cultural experience context from the tourist's perspective, with a further focus on cross-cultural differences and no existing research applies all of the constructs in one study. Therefore, new survey instruments had to be designed for this study, but each section within the resultant two-stage survey instruments as outlined in the next section was based on extensive review of the existing research of relevance to measuring each of the constructs, that is then discussed in the sections thereafter.

The basic procedure for item development is well known (c.f., Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) and was applied in this study for each construct whereby core dimensions are firstly identified through the literature and a pool of items is then identified from previous studies that can be expected to represent those dimensions. Although basic, this procedure is seldom simple to perform as was experienced in this study where for each construct there is a lack consensus in the literature about how they should be defined and measured, despite an extensive body of previous studies in relation to each construct. Multi-dimensionality of all constructs and some items, as well as some inter-relationships between the constructs, all creates considerable challenges to uniquely identify constructs, dimensions, and items to represent those dimensions as will be discussed in each of the following sections on measuring the selected motivational process constructs of interest to this study.

4.5.1 In-Situ and After-Visit Questionnaire Development

The in-situ personal interviews employed an interview checklist questionnaire comprising five main sections: one for each of the three selected motivational process constructs of attitudes about attending cultural experiences (survey Q2 statements about what cultural experiences respondents like going to), motives for attending (survey Q3 statements about why you go to cultural attractions and events while travelling), and expected benefits sought from the cultural experience (survey Q4 statements about what respondent's expect from their visit to the Queen Victoria Market); a section on selected demographics about the respondent (survey intercept questions); and a fifth section on

selected travel and trip profile characteristics for the respondent this trip to Melbourne (survey Q5 questions). The after-visit questionnaire is designed to be self-completed and comprised only one section on benefits gained from the cultural experience (survey Part 2 statements about what the respondent gained or received from their visit to the Queen Victoria Market). See Appendix 1 for the English language version of the survey instruments and cover letter and Appendices 2, 3 and 4 for the translated versions.

4.5.2 Measuring the Attitude Construct of the Cultural Experience Motivational Process

In the literature review sections on defining and measuring attitudes and motives (sections 2.10.1.2 and 2.10.2.5) it was established that attitudes can be distinguished from motives although both are internal predispositions. While the former can be defined as the affective or feelings responses that consumers have toward an object or a general evaluation of an object (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), the latter can be summarized as an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1980). Attitudes have been further categorized as hedonic or utilitarian (Spangenberg et al., 1997; Voss et al., 2003). In this study it is proposed to incorporate hedonic attitudes as well as utilitarian ones because of the former's relevance to the consumption of aesthetic products (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982), although hedonic components of attitude tend to be situational (Halvena and Holbrook, 1986). Utilitarian attitudes have been conceptualised as simplifying decision making in relation to measuring tourist motivation (Fodness, 1994).

Several approaches to researching attitudes can be found in the tourism literature. One approach includes attitudes within the various applications of Mitchell's (1983) combined Values, Attitudes and Lifestyles scale (VALS), which has been used largely for tourist market segmentation purposes (e.g., Shih, 1986). Other tourism research evaluates leisure travel attitudes by measuring motivations, perceptions, preferences and future travel intentions (e.g., Lee and Tideswell, 2005) which is a variation on the established method of attitude measurement based upon the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein, 1967, 1970; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) and the later theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Others incorporate an importance-evaluation mode of attitude measurement to assess various forms of tourist perceptions and behaviour such as perceptions of destinations, which again has been often applied for tourist market segmentation purposes (e.g., Ryan and Mo, 2001). Other approaches focus on the residents' perspective and measuring their attitudes toward tourism and tourism development (Lankford and Howard, 1994). Within cultural tourism research, rather than attitudes *per se,* the emphasis has been on tourists' motivations, benefits, satisfaction, activities or other behaviour (e.g., Foo and Rossetto, 1998; McKercher and du Cros, 2003; McKercher et al., 2002; Richards and Queiros, 2005; Tourism Victoria, 2004a). The lack of research on attitudes is a gap in the literature to be explored in this research.

This study proposes developing a multi-item attitudinal scale for measuring tourists' cultural experience attitudes. As numerous approaches, scales, paradigms and indexes have been used for measuring dimensions of tourist and other consumer attitudes, it was decided to base this scale on two main types of items: an expansion of the arts enthusiast scale (Wells and Tigert, 1971), and items measuring tourists' attitudes towards selected motives for and benefits (sought and gained) from attending cultural experiences. The former measure a person's interest in the arts and were incorporated within the combined Activities, Interests and Opinions scale (AIO), yet another approach to measuring attitudes from a classic study of consumer psychographics (Wells and Tigert, 1971).

The cultural experience attitude construct in this study, is measured by 29 question items rated on a six-point Likert type scale of agreement ranging from 1 for "Totally Disagree" to 6 for "Totally Agree". In the absence of a suitable, validated item set, a multi-item attitudinal scale was compiled with two-thirds (items 2.1-2.16, 2.23-2.25) based on an adapted and expanded form of the arts enthusiast scale (Wells and Tigert, 1971); and another eight (items 2.18-2.22, 2.26-2.28) measuring attitudes towards commonly found motives and benefits (sought and gained) selected from numerous previous studies of tourists at cultural and non-cultural experiences (Kay, 2003, 2006a) and as discussed in later sections of this chapter (section 4.53 on measuring motives and section 4.54 for benefits). The other two attitude items pertain to respondent characteristics of potential relevance to their liking for cultural experiences: one focuses on respondent's occupation and the extent to which they like going to cultural experiences because they are related to their work (item 2.17), and the other focuses on respondent's liking for the travel trip characteristic of partaking in cultural experiences on package tours (item 2.29).

The original arts enthusiast scale (Wells and Tigert, 1971) comprised three items: I enjoy going through an art gallery; I enjoy going to concerts; and I like ballet. Lumpkin (1985) used a slightly modified three items: I enjoy going to concerts; I like ballet and opera; and I like to browse in museums. In adapting and expanding the arts enthusiast scale for this study of cultural experience tourist motivation, all of the item statements were standardized to use the same introductory wording of "I like going to" and the range of three or four arts activities was considerably expanded to a list of nineteen different cultural experiences based on the typology of cultural experiences of interest to this study as defined in literature review sections 2.7.2-2.7.4, summarized in Figure 2.1, and also based on numerous studies of cultural experiences visited by domestic and international tourists as well as local residents.

As discussed in the attitude construct literature review (section 2.10.1.2), all of these attitude definitions and scales link attitudes to object or product attributes with many objects being multi-attribute. In discussing consumer behaviour in tourism, Moutinho (1987) posits overall affect towards an object reflects the net resolution of an individual's cognitions (beliefs) as to the degree to which given objects possess certain attributes. He further posits that overall affect assessment by individuals is weighted by the salience (importance) of each attribute to the individual. Multi-attribute

objects are linked to benefits which in turn have differential desirability to individuals or segments of the market (Moutinho, 1987). In light of this discussion, the attitude items used in this study also include a set of items that measure the extent of liking for or desirability of some of the potential key dimensions and items within the other motivational process constructs of interest to this study, that is, motive and benefits constructs (in-situ survey Q2 attitude-related items 2.18-2.22, 2.26-2.28).

4.5.3 Measuring the Motive Construct of the Cultural Experience Motivational Process

The changing perspectives in tourism motivation studies since early writers in the field (e.g., Crandell, 1980; Crompton, 1979; Lundberg, 1971) have been thoughtfully reviewed by several authors (e.g., Harrill and Potts, 2002) with widespread agreement that tourist motivation is an incredibly complex area of research in which no all-embracing theory of tourist motivation has been developed which has been adapted and legitimized by researchers in other contexts. Previous discussion in the literature review section 2.9.4 of this study, for example, identified at least four main conceptual approaches to tourist motivation that have been applied to the empirical measurement of tourist motivation: needs-based, values-based, benefits-based, and expectancy theory-based. Other authors argue that tourists' needs and motives change over time and should be viewed in their social (macro) context (Jamal and Lee, 2003; Sharpley, 1994). That travel motives need to be seen in a cross-cultural perspective has been emphasized by other authors (Kim, 1998; Kim and Lee, 2000).

In the literature review sections on defining and measuring the four motivational process constructs of primary interest to this study (sections 2.10.1 on attitudes, 2.10.2 on motives and 2.10.3 on benefits sought and gained), it is argued that motives are separate distinguishable internal dispositions that arouse, direct and integrate a person's behaviour (Murray, 1964). Needs, values or attitudes, are widely recognized as antecedents of motives, and the latter are being investigated in this study for reasons previously outlined in section 2.10.1.1. It is further acknowledged that motives are a multi-dimensional construct and various tourism motivation structures for the underlying dimensions have been proposed since the first psychological research of tourism in the early sixties.

Several broad structures of relevance to this study have already been discussed in the literature review sections 2.9 on motivation research approaches and 2.10.2.1 on defining and measuring motives. Furthermore, several of these theories cross-reference each other as will be highlighted in the following summary. Theories of particular relevance to this study discussed there include push and pull factors and tourist motivation (e.g., Crompton, 1979), the hedonic consumer motivation theory (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) and the hedonic tourism motivation model (Goossens, 2000), the escaping/seeking framework (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987), and whether motives are physiological, psychological or sociological. While some authors propose that tourism is primarily a social psychological experience (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987), motivation for hedonic experiences are considered to have some physiological dimensions and some psychological dimensions (Mowen and Minor, 1998). Others argue the relevance of the

environment in which motives occur which shapes, forms and influences the individual's specific response (Gnoth, 1999; Sharpley, 1994). Traditionally, push motives have been psycho-sociological motives used for explaining tourism desire, while pull motives are aroused by the destination and have been used to explain the choice of destination (e.g., Crompton, 1979). Of the nine motive dimensions identified by Crompton (1979), seven were considered socio-psychological or push motives and two were considered cultural pull motives (novelty and education). Goossens (2000) describes push and pull factors of tourist behaviour as, "two sides of the same motivational coin" (p.302) and further posits that the psychological concept, emotion, connects both sides with needs functioning as a pushing motivation and benefits as a pulling motivation.

4.5.3.1 Motive Dimensions Consensus and Motive Construct Measurement Scale

In the absence of a pre-validated, generic scale for measuring motives for attending cultural attractions and events, the most commonly found dimensions from selected empirical studies representative of the considerable body of tourist motivation research in various contexts are identified in a general context and in relation to cultural attractions (Table 4.5), and in a festivals and events context, (non-cultural and cultural-related) (Table 4.6), to develop an appropriate scale for use in this study.

Some lack of consensus can be seen in the number of different dimensions identified for the various contexts including 19 different dimensions overall in a festival event context, 14 for cultural-related festivals and events, 18 different tourism motivation dimensions overall, 11 for cultural-related attractions. The large list of alternative terms for the dimension names noted under each table, highlights further diversity and a general lack of consensus. Further categorization of the motive dimensions within each table, emphasizes a predominance of psycho-socio-physiologically-based dimensions, however, some attribute-based dimensions apply within each context.

Table 4.5: Most commonly found motive dimensions in the selected empirical tourist motivation research by tourism context (cultural tourism versus other tourism contexts)

Most Commonly Found Motive Dimensions														
	Tourism-Related Motivation (Non-Cultural)									Cultural Attraction-Related				
AUTHOR(S)	(Crompton, 1979)	(Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991)	(Fodness, 1994)	(Moutinho, 1987)	(Yuan and McDonald, 1990)	(Zhang and Heung, 2001)##	(Andersen et al., 2000)#	(Cha et al., 1995)#	SUBTOTAL	(Axelsen and Arcodia, 2004)	(McKercher, 2004)	(Poria et al., 2006)	SUBTOTAL	TOTAL
Psycho-Socio-Physiologically-based														
Bequeathing to Children									0			X	1	1
Connecting with Heritage									0			X	1	1
Curiosity/Disc-overy									0	X			1	1

Education/ Knowledge	X	X				X	X	X	5	X	X	X	3	8
Emotional Involvement									0			X	1	1
Entertainment (10)									0			X	1	1
Escape		X							1	X			1	2
Leisure (11)									0		X		1	1
Novelty (1)	X				X	X	X	X	5	X			1	6
Relaxation (7)	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	7				0	8
Reward Maximisation			X						1				0	1
Self-Development/ Self-Exploration (5)	X		X						2				0	2
Socia (Interaction)l: meeting new and different people (8)		X	X	X			X		4				0	4
Social (Kinship) (2)	X			X	X			X	4	X			1	5
Social (Recognition) (3)	X		X		X	X	X		5				0	5
Work Career Development							X		1				0	1
Enhancement of Human Relations						X			1				0	1
Attribute-based														
Heritage/ Culture Knowledge (9)				X			X		2	X			1	3
Physical Sports				X	X			X	3				0	3
Shopping for Souvenirs		X							1				0	1

#Studies of Japanese Tourists; ## Study of Mainland Chinese Tourists

1. Novelty: Alternative terms used included Exploration/Discovery/Something New/Excitement/Variety/Unique Identify/Adventure/
2. Social (Kinship): Alternative terms used included (socialisation/bonding/affiliation)
3. Social (Recognition): Alternative terms used included Prestige/Show & Tell/Bragging/Value Expression/
4. Nature Appreciation: Alternative terms used included Environment aspects of destination
5. Self-Development/Self-Exploration: Alternative terms used included Regression (Crompton, 1979)/ Ego-enhancement (Fodness, 1994)
6. Physical Sports: Alternative terms used included Health and Recreation/
7. Relaxation: Alternative terms used included Punishment Minimisation (Fodness, 1994)/
8. Social Interaction: Alternative terms used included Social Adjustment (Fodness, 1994)/
9. Heritage/ Culture Knowledge: Alternative terms used included Enjoyment of Art Exhibitions & Reviews (Axelsen and Arcodia, 2004)
10. Entertainment: Alternative terms used included Leisure Pursuit (Poria et al., 2006)
11. Leisure: items included entertainment and relaxation (McKercher, 2004)

Table 4.6: Most commonly found motive dimensions in the selected empirical tourist festival and event motivation research by tourism context (cultural tourism versus other tourism contexts)

	Most Commonly Found Motive Dimensions													
	Tourism-Related Festivals and Events (Non-Cultural)							Cultural-Related Festivals and Events						
AUTHOR(S)	(Uysal et al., 1993)	(Mohr et al., 1993)	(Backman et al., 1995)	(Scott, 1996)	(Schneider and Backman, 1996)	(Crompton and McKay, 1997)	**SUB TOTAL**	(Formica and Uysal, 1996)	(Formica and Uysal, 1998)	(Lee, 2000)	(Lee et al., 2004a)	(Raybould et al., 1999)	(van Zyl and Botha, 2004)	**SUB TOTAL**	**TOTAL**

Psycho-Socio-Physiologically-based															
Curiosity				X			1							0	1
Education/ Knowledge							0					X		1	1
Entertainment							0	X	X					2	2
Escape	X	X		X	X	X	5			X	X	X	X	4	9
Excitement/ Thrills	X	X	X	X	X		5	X	X					2	7
Gregariousness (4)						X	1							0	1
Novelty (1)	X	X				X	3	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	9
Relaxation			X				1							0	1
Social (Interaction): meeting new and different people	X	X	X	X	X	X	6			X	X	X	X	4	10
Social (Kinship) (2)	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	12
Social (Recognition) (3)							0						X	1	1
Attribute-based															
Entertainment							0						X	1	1
Festival Attributes					X		1		X	X	X			3	4
Food and Beverages							0						X	1	1
Heritage/ Culture (6)						X	1		X	X	X			3	4
Information and Marketing							0						X	1	1
Nature Appreciation (5)				X			1							0	1
Transport							0						X	1	1

1. Novelty: Alternative terms used included Exploration/Discovery/Something New/Excitement/Variety/Unique Identify/Curiosity/Regression/Authenticity and Uniqueness
2. Social (Kinship): Alternative terms used included Socialisation/Bonding/Affiliation/Family Togetherness,
3. Social (Recognition): Alternative terms used included Prestige/Show & Tell/ Self-Esteem
4. Gregariousness : : Alternative terms used included Recover Equilibrium
5. Nature Appreciation: Alternative terms used included Environment aspects of destination
6. Heritage/Culture: Alternative terms used included Cultural Exploration

Only one motive dimension is frequently found for cultural attraction motives: education/knowledge (3 studies). A further six dimensions are frequently found for cultural-related festivals and events: social kinship (6 studies), novelty (6 studies), escape (4 studies), social interaction (4 studies), and two attribute-based dimensions of festival attributes (3 studies) and heritage/culture related festival or event attributes (3 studies).

Although none of the tourist motivation studies (cultural or non cultural) tests cross-cultural differences as proposed in this study, two of the tourist motivation studies focus on Japanese tourist motives (Andersen et al., 2000; Cha et al., 1995) and one on Chinese tourist motives (Zhang and Heung, 2001) as seen in Table 4.5. These studies indicate some similarity between the motives found for Japanese and Chinese tourists and the motives for tourists attending cultural attractions and events that are being tested in this study. Both Japanese tourist studies found motive dimensions for education/knowledge, novelty and relaxation and a further three social-related dimensions were found in either study: social interaction, social kinship, and social recognition. The Chinese tourist study also found motive dimensions for education/knowledge, novelty, relaxation, and social recognition.

Based on these findings, the resultant scale in the in-situ survey instrument included a section of 31 items relating to the motives for attending cultural attractions and events construct within the motivational process. (see Appendix 1 for the English language version, section Question 3). Only two items are solely attribute-based: to buy goods and souvenirs (item 3.30) and to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience (item 3.31). Of the other 29 psycho-socio-physiologically-based items, six are part attribute-based emphasizing famous cultural experiences (being a famous cultural place, featuring famous performers/entertainers, or famous shows) (items 3.22-3.24), or cultural experiences as being safe, good value for money and a high quality experience (3.27-3.29). The other 23 psycho-socio-physiologically-based items measure a range of commonly found motive dimensions of relevance to cultural experiences including hedonic-related entertainment, relaxation, physical and emotional involvement, and other related motive dimensions such as escape, novelty, social kinship, social interaction with others, social recognition, learning about local culture, history and the performing arts.

To minimise response set bias, interviewers are instructed to randomise the order in which the items within the question scale set are asked.

4.5.4 Measuring the Benefit and Satisfaction Constructs of the Cultural Experience Motivational Process

The aim of this section is to review the existing empirical research to analyse the benefit research dimensions, especially what has been measured, when it has been measured and how it has been analysed and measured. A specific objective is to consider the extent to which standards or consensus may exist in approaches to using and measuring tourist benefit dimensions and particularly to identify a set of commonly found benefit dimensions.

The subsequent analysis of tourist benefit research dimensions in existing empirical studies further distinguishes between non-cultural-related research (Table 4.7) and cultural tourism-related research (Table 4.8) as the latter is of particular interest to this study. In the allied area of festival and event tourist motivation and segmentation, no studies have been identified that refer to benefits as a motivation or segmentation dimension, although some of the motivation statements could be categorised as statements of benefits (e.g., Formica and Uysal, 1998).

For the benefits most commonly found in tourist benefit research and of relevance to attracting tourists to cultural experiences, they will be categorised in relation to a relevant theoretical typology identified from the literature to develop a conceptual typology for application in this study.

4.5.4.1 What to Measure Issues in Benefit Research

As previously discussed in the literature review of benefits research (section 2.10.3), the timing of the collection of benefit statement ratings can be based on benefits sought or pursued (i.e., prior to the consumption experience) and others on benefits gained or realised (i.e., after the consumption

experience or based on past experiences). This timing difference results in two separate benefit constructs that are being tested in this study's cultural experience tourist motivational process model and have been defined for the purpose of this study as follows: **benefits sought** are a normative expectation, that is a forward-directed, intentional charged, tentative attitude towards a particular consumption goal that contains some knowledge about the cultural experience and the psychological-socio-physiological benefit to be gained by having the experience, and is driven by motives for attending the experience. In contrast, **benefits gained** are defined as, an improved psycho-socio-physiological outcome resulting from the cultural consumption experience, the performance of tangible and intangible attributes experienced, and the consequences of visitor's behaviours during the consumption experience. In summary, benefits sought are particularly relevant to visitor's motivation and expectations within the decision-making process to attend experiences, while benefits gained are of particular relevance to visitor's behavioural outcomes from experience consumption, especially satisfaction.

There have been many applications of benefit segmentation in tourism research over the past 20 years as seen in Tables 4.7 and 4.8.

Table 4.7 Summary of empirical studies of tourist benefit research (non-cultural tourism-related)

	Benefits Sought							Benefits Gained	
AUTHOR(S)	(Hsieh et al., 1997)	(Jang et al., 2002)	(Lang and O'Leary, 1997)	(Loker and Perdue, 1992)	(McCool and Reilly, 1993)	(Moscardo et al., 1996)	(Frochot, 2005)	(Shoemaker, 1994)	(Woodside and Jacobs, 1985)
Major Research Objectives	Travel decision pattern multi-stage segmentation based on travel benefit sought, travel philosophy and travel product preferences	Benefit segmentation and identification of optimum target market	Multi-segmentation of benefits sought (motivation); activities; destination attributes and travel philosophy	Vacation benefit segmentation identification of optimum target market	Benefit segmentation and relationship with preferences for setting attributes and expenditure patterns	Benefit segmentation (motivation) & relationship with activities	Benefit segmentation & relationship with activity preferences	Benefit segmentation of image of last destination visited attributes and comparison with ideal destination planning concerns	Multi-dimensional benefit segmentation based on benefits and experiences realised
Tourism Product Analysed	Vacation choice	USA destination	Nature Travellers Outbound vacations	Travel in Nth Carolina USA	3 State parks USA	Out-bound vacations	2 rural areas, Scotland	Domestic vacations	Hawaii
Population Sampled	Japanese leisure	Japanese leisure	Australian travel market	Non-Resident leisure	State Park visitors	Australian travellers	Overnight visitors at local accommodation	US populations	Canadians, Americans, Japanese
No. of Items	25a	42	25	12	18	28	13	39	26b
No. of Dimensions	6	8	7	4	5	8	4	19	Not Applicable
No. of Clusters	6	3	6	6	4	3	4	4	3 national segments
Scale Type	4-point Likert (importance)	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported	6-point Likert (importance)	4-point Likert (agreement)	5-point Likert (importance)	10-point Likert (concern)	5-point Likert (agreement)
Statistical Methodology	Cluster analysis; ANOVA & Chi-square	PCA (Varimax); Hierarchical & K-means cluster analyses; ANOVA & Chi-square	PCA (Varimax); Ward's Min Variance Cluster analysis; DA; ANOVA & Chi-square	PCA; FASTCLUS	PCA (Varimax); ANOVA; K-means cluster; Tukey's Test	PCA (Varimax); K-means cluster analysis	PCA (Varimax); K-means cluster analysis; Chi-square cross-tabs	PCA; K-means cluster analysis; DA	ANOVA & Chi-square

a: composite scale of reasons for travelling and experiences sought

b: benefits and experiences realised

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance; DA: Discriminant Analysis; PCA: Principle Component Analysis used to explore the underlying dimensions by identifying factors comprising sets of interrelated variables

Table 4.8: Summary of empirical studies of tourist benefit research (cultural tourism-related)

	Benefits Sought			
AUTHOR(S)	(Alzua et al., 1998)	(Frochot, 2004)	(Tian et al., 1996)	(Weaver et al., 2002)
Major Research Objectives	Multi-dimensional segmentation using Benefits Sought and Activities to understand Vacation motives	Benefit segmentation (motivation) and influence on quality evaluation	Benefit segmentation and relationship with selected independent variables; potential target markets by cross-tab of benefit and constraint clusters. (Benefits measured were a mix of motives, interests and benefits)	Benefit segmentation
Tourism Product Analysed	Culture and heritage tourism	3 Historic Houses, UK	Museums Texas, USA	Heritage sites, USA
Population Sampled	UK Outbound	Historic Property Visitors	Museum visitors	US travellers
Number of Items	20	15	18	15a
Number of Dimensions	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	6	3
Numer of Clusters	5	4	20 cell matrix based on 4 benefit clusters and 5 constraint clusters	2
Scale Type	Not Reported (importance)	5-point Likert (importance)	7-point Likert (agreement)	5-point Likert (importance)
Statistical Methodology	2 Stage Hierarchical & K-means cluster analyses; ANOVA	K-means cluster analysis	Factor analysis; PCA (Oblique); K-means cluster analysis; Chi-square tests on independent variables and clusters	Factor analysis using PCA (Varimax); Hierarchical and K-means cluster analyses; stepwise DA; Cross-tabulation analysis and Chi-square tests

a: based on Recreation Experience Preference Scale (Driver et al., 1991a)

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance; DA: Discriminant Analysis; PCA: Principle Component Analysis used to explore the underlying dimensions by identifying factors comprising sets of interrelated variables

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 present details of 13 key studies: nine non-cultural-related key studies in the tourism area (Table 4.5) and four cultural tourism empirical studies (Table 4.6). In terms of major research objectives, all studies use benefits for market segmentation purposes or as one dimension of multi-dimensional segmentation. Many of these studies however, also test relationships between or influences of benefit segments and other variables.

Of the 13 studies reviewed in this section, the majority measure benefits sought including the four cultural tourism-related benefit studies, only two measure benefits gained, and no studies measure both.

In terms of what tourist benefits are measured in these studies, there is wide variation in the number of benefit variables for both items measured (12-42) and dimensions found through factor analysis (3-19), highlighting that there is not a commonly agreed scale for measuring tourist benefits and many item sets include items that are site or location specific. As noted previously in the literature review (Chapter 2, section 2.10.3), only one study of heritage site visitors in the US (Weaver et al., 2002) uses an existing scale of Recreation Preference Scale (Driver et al., 1991a).

4.5.4.2 Benefit Dimensions Consensus

There has been considerable use of tourist benefit segmentation that allows the most commonly found benefit dimensions to be identified. In the absence of a validated and agreed benefit scale, identifying the most commonly found dimensions or individual items of relevance to these dimensions can inform future tourist benefit research and guide the development of an appropriate list of items for future cultural tourist benefit research. A summary of the most commonly found benefit dimensions (or individual items of relevance to these dimensions) in the selected empirical studies of tourist benefit research is presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Most commonly found benefit dimensions in the selected empirical tourist benefit research by tourism context (cultural tourism versus other tourism contexts)

Most Commonly Found Benefit Dimensions																	
	Benefits Sought								Benefits Sought*					Benefits Gained			
AUTHOR(S)	(Frochot, 2005)	(Hsieh et al., 1997)	(Jang et al., 2002)	(Lang and O'Leary, 1997)	(Loker and Perdue, 1992)	(McCool and Reilly, 1993)	(Moscardo et al., 1996)	SUB TOTAL	(Alzua et al., 1998)	(Frochot, 2004)	(Tian et al., 1996)	(Weaver et al., 2002)	SUB TOTAL	(Shoemaker, 1994)	(Woodside and Jacobs, 1985)	SUB TOTAL	TOTAL
Escape	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	7	X		X	X	3			0	10
Education/ Knowledge	X		X	X	X		X	5	X	X	X	X	4	X		1	10
Entertainment			X	X			X	3	X		X		2			0	5
Novelty (1)				X	X			2	X		X		2	X		1	5
Social (Kinship) (2)			X	X	X	X	X	5	X	X	X	X	4	X		1	10
Social (Recognition) (3)		X	X	X			X	4			X	X	2			0	6
Social: meeting new and different people	X							1	X				1			0	2
Safety							X	1	X				1			0	2
Self-Development/ Self-Esteem							X	1			X		1			0	2
Relaxation	X		X	X	X		X	5	X	X	X		3		X	1	9
Risk & daring/ Adventure	X	X						2					0		X	1	3
Value			X					1	X				1	X	X	2	4
Nature Appreciation (4)	X			X	X	X		4	X	X			2	X		1	7
Heritage/ Culture	X	X	X	X				4		X			1			0	5
Physical Sports	X	X		X			X	4					0			0	4

1. Novelty: Alternative terms used included Exploration/Discovery/Something New/Excitement/Variety/Unique Identify
2. Social (Kinship): Alternative terms used included (socialisation/bonding/affiliation)
3. Social (Recognition): Alternative terms used included Prestige/Show & Tell
4. Nature Appreciation: Alternative terms used included Environment aspects of destination

*Cultural and heritage tourism-related research

Fifteen benefit dimensions of importance are most commonly found in these tourism studies. Overall, the most commonly found benefits are identified in 10 studies and these are the benefit dimensions of escape, education/knowledge and social (kinship). These were followed by

relaxation (9 studies), nature appreciation (7 studies), and social (recognition) (6 studies). Three other benefit dimensions are identified in five studies: entertainment, novelty and heritage/culture and two other benefit dimensions in four of the studies: value, and physical sports. Four remaining benefit dimensions are found in three or two studies: risk & daring/adventure, social: meeting new and different people; safety; and self-development/self-esteem. Seven of the fifteen dimensions are identified in both benefits gained and benefits sought studies: education/knowledge; novelty; social (kinship) relaxation; risk & daring/adventure; value and nature appreciation.

In the cultural tourist-related studies, 13 of the 15 benefit dimensions are also identified. Of the eleven dimensions found in four or more of these 13 tourist benefit studies, all of these are also found in one or more of the four studies of cultural tourist benefits. The four most commonly found benefit dimensions in the cultural-related studies are similar to those found in the 13 studies overall: education/knowledge, social (kinship), escape and relaxation. The first two of these dimensions are found in all four cultural studies. Only the benefit dimensions of physical sports and risk & daring/adventure are not found in any of the cultural tourist studies. Interestingly, nature appreciation is a benefit dimension in two of the cultural related studies as well as five of the studies overall. For cultural-related studies, the inclusion of a nature appreciation dimension would depend on the definition of cultural attractions. Ten of the dimensions are identified in the cultural and heritage tourist study of outbound UK tourists (Alzua et al., 1998) and eight in the study of visitors to museums in Texas (Tian et al., 1996). Six of these benefit dimensions are found in both studies: escape, education/knowledge, entertainment, novelty, social (kinship), and relaxation. Furthermore, these six dimensions, include the four most commonly found dimensions in all of the cultural-related studies as well as for the 13 studies overall. In addition, social (recognition) is another benefit dimension found in two of the four cultural-related studies. These findings strongly suggest that future research of cultural tourist benefits should include items for testing and measuring many of these previously identified dimensions.

4.5.4.3 A Conceptual Typology of the Most Commonly Found Benefit Dimensions

To identify the underlying conceptual basis for the most commonly found benefit dimensions identified in this study, each dimension is categorised in relation to benefit typologies and conceptual trends identified from the literature and presented earlier in the discussion of what to measure issues in benefits research (section 4.5.4.1). The following conceptual typology and benefit dimension categorisations are proposed: *psychological*: education/knowledge; *psycho-physiological*: novelty; escape; entertainment; relaxation; heritage/culture, and nature appreciation; *socio-psychological*: social (recognition); *sociological*: social (kinship); and *economic*: value.

When applied to cultural-and heritage-related tourism (shaded section, Table 4.7), this proposed categorisation emphasises the importance of psychologically-based or part psychologically-based dimensions in cultural tourism benefit research, especially the psycho-physiological-based dimensions, many of which are hedonic pleasure-oriented or fantasy related. The importance of socio-psychologically-based dimensions and sociologically-based dimensions in cultural tourism-

related benefit research is also emphasized. These categorizations endorse two earlier identified research trends: i) the conceptual shift within the operationalisation of benefits identified by Tian, Crompton, and Witt (1996) away from activities and amenities toward experiential and psychological outcomes, and ii) agreement that hedonic benefits are considered more relevant to cultural and experiential products than utilitarian benefits as claimed by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982).

4.5.4.4 Benefit Constructs Measurement Scales

One limitation of identifying benefit dimension consensus and developing a typology of benefit dimensions for application and testing in this study, is the familiar methodological problem and dilemma that how something is measured (and statistically analysed) can determine the findings and, preceding this, what is measured (and how it is defined) can determine how it is measured (and statistically analysed) and this too can determine the findings. Hence the importance of defining and conceptualizing these motivational process constructs and their underlying dimensions prior to determining how to measure and test the constructs, their structure and any inter-relationships.

Based on the previous overview of tourism benefit research literature (Chapter 2, section 2.10.3) and commonly identified underlying dimensions for these constructs (Chapter 4, sections 4.5.4.2 and 4.5.4.3), there is strong support from an extensive body of existing research that benefits make a significant contribution to understanding and predicting of tourists' motivation and behaviour, that is fundamental for marketing purposes. Both benefits sought and gained by tourists make a contribution to this understanding. A better understanding of tourists' motivation and behaviour is essential to maintain and increase tourist engagement with cultural attractions and events, and therefore the following scales have been developed for measuring the benefits sought and benefits gained constructs within the cultural experience tourist motivational process.

The resultant scale in the in-situ survey instrument included a section of 32 items relating to the benefits sought construct within the motivational process and the after-visit survey comprised one section of the same 32 items worded as perceived benefits gained from the cultural experience (see Appendix 1 for the English language version). Seventeen of these items (in-situ survey Q4 items 4.1-4.17 and after-visit survey Part 2 items 01-17) relate to the commonly found psychologically-based benefits dimensions for cultural tourists from existing research as discussed earlier in this chapter in section 4.5.4.2 and, in turn, these items encompass the commonly found benefits dimension within the conceptual typology categories of psychologically-based; psycho-physiological, socio-psychological and sociological items as discussed in section 4.5.4.3. Psychologically-based items include education/knowledge; psycho-physiologically-based items of relaxation; escape; entertainment, and involvement; socio-psychologically-based item of social (recognition); and sociologically-based items of social (kinship); and social interaction.

The other fifteen of these 32 benefit-related items (in-situ survey Q4 items 4.18-4.32 and after visit survey Part 2 items 18-32) measure attribute-based benefit dimensions relating to features of activities, events, facilities and services that could apply to all cultural experiences but further ask respondents to consider how these relate to the specific setting of the QVM. Two of these items relate to commonly found benefits dimensions from the existing literature of tourists in cultural and other tourism contexts previously discussed in this chapter (section 4.5.4.2): safety and value. In this survey, the latter item further relates to value for money and the economic value dimension within the conceptual typology of commonly found benefits dimensions discussed in section 4.5.4.3.

The other 13 attribute-based items largely relate to specific service qualities of activities, facilities and events, and in this respect most closely relate to Levels 1 and 2 of the Manning-Haas fourfold hierarchy of demand suggested by Prentice (1993a) based on Manning (1986) from the work of Haas, Driver and Brown (Haas et al., 1980) and applied by Prentice (1993a) to motivations of the heritage consumer in the leisure market. In this hierarchy, Level 1 concerns activities and Level 2 concerns settings, including environment, social, and management settings, and the consumer's expectations of these settings for the particular activities being pursued. Level 3 concerns motivational experiences and Level 4 is the psychological and societal benefits gained from the activity. While Level 4 of this hierarchy could be applied to benefits construct items 1 to 17 of this study's motivational process, Level 1 will also be of relevance to the cultural activity attitude construct, and Level 3 will be of closest equivalence to the motives construct.

To minimise response set bias, interviewers are instructed to randomise the order in which the items within the benefits sought construct question scale sets are asked. The benefits gained questions are administered by self-complete survey, so response set bias has not been minimized for this construct.

4.5.5 Measuring Other Characteristics of Relevance to the Cultural Experience Motivational Process

4.5.5.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics

The majority of empirical studies of tourist and event motivation include some socio-demographic characteristics, although how these characteristics are used in this research has varied. The sole use of demographic characteristics to describe different types of tourists is widely acknowledged as at best a crude and unreliable tool. Galloway (2002) acknowledges that motivation-based market segmentation has typically been undertaken by reference to push factors, the most popularly appealed to being socio-demographic variables. That the segmentation of markets in terms of both psychological as well as socio-demographic variables potentially enables a better discrimination between market members than does analysis in terms of only the latter, and this has been widely agreed by a number of tourism researchers, is further acknowledged by Galloway (2002).

Since the 1990s, socio-demographic characteristics are more frequently used as profiling descriptors or explanatory variables of tourist market segments that have been differentiated by attitudinal or behavioural-based measurements. In research of cultural tourism outbound UK international traveller segment niches, both behavioural (activities undertaken at a destination) and attitudinal dimensions (benefits sought at a destination) were used as segmentation criteria within a two-stage integrated cluster analysis, with analysis of variance (ANOVA) used to validate the clusters by studying the relationships between the cluster factors and the explanatory variables, that include socio-demographic and trip characteristics (Alzua et al., 1998). The socio-demographic characteristics researched by Alzua et al. (1998) were marital status, income, occupation, age, formal education and second language proficiency. Gender was not included as a characteristic in this study, but is commonly included in most other tourism and motivation empirical studies.

Several demographic characteristics have been selected to be included in this study because of their relevance to the primary research focus of cultural experience motivational process constructs, and whether tourist market cultural group differences exist within these constructs. The measures of culture used in this study - country or region-of-residence, and language most spoken at home – are two essential socio-demographic measures. Nationality is not included per se because it has been criticised as a sole discriminating variable for explaining the differences found in tourist behaviour and cross-cultural tourism marketing research as discussed earlier in the literature review (Chapter 2, section 2.11) with some authors preferring cross-cultural differences because they are broader and reflect more possible differences found in tourist behaviour (e.g., Dann, 1993; Dimanche, 1994).

Age, and gender are two other characteristics selected for inclusion in this study, largely so that any response bias by gender and age can be identified.

4.5.5.2 Travel Group and Trip Characteristics

The majority of empirical studies of tourist motivation include some travel group and trip characteristics that are usually used as profiling descriptors or explanatory variables of the market segments. The trip characteristics used by Alzua et al. (1998) in research of cultural tourism outbound UK international traveller segment niches were travel frequency, main purpose of trip, expenditure of all the people in your travel budget, mean values of amounts spent on travel trip components, type of accommodation, and number of nights away from home.

The trip and travel group characteristics deemed of particular relevance to this study and so included in the *in-situ* questionnaire and screening questions (Appendix 1 for the English language version, screening intercept questions and *in-situ* survey Q5 items 5.1-5.8.16) are: length of stay in Melbourne (as this further screened tourists visitors from non-tourist visitors), main purpose of this trip to Melbourne, type of accommodation used in Melbourne this trip, main form of transport used to get to the QVM, repeat or first time visitor to Melbourne, Australia, and to the QVM, how the visit

to QVM was arranged, travel group composition this visit to QVM, and information sources used to hear about QVM. These travel group characteristics are included because previous research has found that how tourists experience events affects motivation (Formica and Murrmann, 1996) including travel group membership. In research of travel motivations of overseas German visitors (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994) group membership as well as social motivations were found to be more significant explanations for leisure behaviour than psychological needs. The repeat or first time visitor characteristics are included because previous event motivation research has found first time and repeat visitors have different motivations (Scott, 1996).

4.5.6 Scales Used in the Survey Instruments

Six-point Likert-type scales of agreement are used to facilitate quick interviews and to avoid the potential problem of respondents taking the neutral or midpoint response, which in effect expresses a "no opinion", "not sure' or "neither agree nor disagree" option (Netemeyer et al., 2003) and these options can occur when interviewing in collectivist Asian cultures (Chen et al., 1995). Likert-type scales have been used to measure attitudes since developed by R. Likert (1932), and they are still widely used today, largely because they produce the desirable measurement scale property of sufficient variance in the overall scale for a given sample (Netemeyer et al., 2003). A six-point scale should produce sufficient variance.

An agreement-rating approach rather than an importance–rating approach is adopted in this study, as both are widely used in tourism motivation and benefit research (e.g., Table 4.7 and 4.8 summarising benefits study methodology supports wide use of both agreement and importance-rating scales).

Multi-item measures for each of the four motivational process constructs are adopted in this study rather than single item measures because they are better measures for marketing constructs (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979).

4.5.7 Expert Opinion, Pre-testing and Translation of the Survey Instruments

In addition to Victoria University Faculty of Business and Law ethics committee approval for the survey instruments and associated materials, nine experts were approached for their opinion. Several of these experts were selected because of their experience in tourism research projects, and others because of their expertise in marketing research instrument design, data collection methods, and data analysis statistical procedures, including a co-author of a text on applied research design for business and management. Their opinions were valuable and resulted in important changes to the wording of particular question items within the main constructs of interest to this study, and particularly useful structural changes to the survey instruments whereby personal demographics were separated from the in-situ questionnaire into an interviewer's intercept report sheet, and the introduction of an identification process to match in-situ surveys with after-visit

surveys so that respondents would not be required to repeat their demographic, trip and travel group characteristics.

The survey was then pre-tested with a convenience sample of post-graduate students of Victoria University that included domestic Australian residents, English speaking international students from Asia and the United States, as well as Chinese speaking international students from several Asian countries. Preliminary analysis of the items within the main constructs and the trip and travel group characteristics indicate no problems with the wording, phrasing and sequencing of these questions. Modifications were required to the personal demographic questions in the intercept report sheet to enable it to function as an effective instrument for screening eligible respondents from the eight selected population units.

Following the modifications to the survey instruments arising from the expert opinions and the pre-testing of the survey, the final survey instruments were professionally translated into Japanese and Chinese (simplified written form) with the *after-visit* survey also translated in Chinese (traditional written form) to assist self-completion by Chinese speaking tourists from Hong Kong. All translated survey instruments were then back-translated by the tri-lingual data collector research assistant, and some minor amendments were undertaken to the final translated survey instruments, to maximise translation equivalence in all the languages of interest to this study.

4.6 Data Analysis

4.6.1 Descriptive Analysis Approaches

The data is examined in a variety of ways. Firstly, each of the 153 items from the combined in-situ and after-visit surveys are checked for data-entry errors and missing data prior to further analysis.

Descriptive statistics of the population sample's profile for selected demographics, travel and trip characteristics is then undertaken by examining frequencies and percentages in SPSS (version 12.0) for the sample as a whole who completed the in-situ survey and the subsample of those respondents who completed the after-visit survey. For both of these samples, two further subsamples (international and domestic tourists) are considered so that the representativeness of the samples collected in this study by purposeful convenience sampling compared with the wider population of international and domestic tourists to Australia and the state of Victoria, can be assessed on selected criteria for which information exists.

Whether the after-visit survey respondents are sufficiently representative of the in-situ survey respondents in order for the larger sample to be used to measure the three motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, and benefits sought, and the smaller subsample to be used for the fourth motivational process construct of benefits gained, is then tested by two sample proportions tests for the various demographic, travel and trip characteristics. The Mann-Whitney *U* test in SPSS (version 12.0) is selected for these statistical tests of the difference in location of central

tendency on selected variables because it is a powerful non-parametric equivalent of the parametric *t* test, and is best suited instead of the two-independent-samples *t* test for means where the rigid parametric assumptions about the distribution of the variable are invalid. This test does not require assumptions about the shape of the underlying distribution (e.g., does not assume normality of distribution) or does it require that the variable be measured on an interval scale; an ordinal scale is sufficient (Norusis, 1990). Significance levels for the Mann-Whitney *U* test can be determined regardless of the shape of the population distribution as they are based on ranks (Norusis, 1990). In the Mann-Whitney U test as described by Malhotra et al., (1996), the two samples are combined and the cases are ranked in order of increasing size. The test statistic, *U*, is computed as the number of items a score from sample or group one precedes a score from group two. If the samples are from the same population, the distribution of scores from the two groups in the rank list should be random. An extreme value of *U* would indicate a non-random pattern pointing to the inequality of the two groups. For samples larger than 30, rather than reporting the exact significance level for *U*, it is transformed into a normally distributed *z* statistic that can be corrected for ties within ranks. For the nominal variables with dichotomous scales, a chi-square test for interdependence or relatedness will also be undertaken to further analyse the relationship between the two variables. This tests for significant difference in proportions obtained from the two independent samples by using the cross-tabulation procedure to conduct a chi-square test (Malhotra et al., 1996).

For the 124 items measuring the four motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained on a Likert-type, interval scale, further descriptive statistics associated with frequency distribution are then undertaken to assess the normality of data. Several most commonly used statistics associated with frequencies are used in this study: the mean value as a measure of location, standard deviation as a measure of variability, skewness and kurtosis as measures of shape (Malhotra et al., 1996); as well as identification of outlier observations which can have a marked effect on any type of empirical analysis (Hair et al., 2006). These descriptive statistics are provided for the total respondents in Chapter Five and tables summarizing the ranking of the measurement items by mean scores of agreement with the statements measuring each motivational process construct are also included within Chapter 5 for the total respondents. This enables the most strongly agreed and disagreed items for each of the four constructs to be identified and discussed.

4.6.2 Construct Dimensionality Analysis

4.6.2.1 Approaches to Construct Dimensionality Analysis

Several approaches have been used for developing and validating scales to measure latent constructs which are constructs that cannot be measured directly or so precisely as to eliminate uncertainty and so are represented or measured by one or more indicating variables (Hair et al., 2006). All four constructs of interest to this study – cultural experience attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained – are latent constructs which previously referred to research, earlier in

this chapter and the literature review, strongly indicates are comprised of further underlying dimensions or latent constructs.

The two most commonly used statistical methods to date for reducing sets of variables into smaller sets of new, composite dimensions or variates (factors) with minimum loss of information are factor analysis (FA) and principal component analysis (PCA). As the basic difference between these two methods is how the variance is partitioned (Hair et al., 2006), the selection of one method over the other should be based on two criteria: (1) the objectives of the factor analysis, and (2) the amount of prior knowledge about the variance in the variables. Hair et al., (2006) further recommend that PCA be used when the objective is to summarise most of the original information (variance) in a minimum number of factors for prediction purposes, and FA be used primarily to identify underlying factors or dimensions that reflect what the variables share in common. Gorsuch (1990) argues that common factor analysis is the general case of which component analysis is the special case because it limits the broader model of FA by an additional assumption that the variables are reproduced without error. Therefore, component analysis is a possibility where variables are truly measured without error. He attributes the widespread use of PCA with Varimax rotation to its easy programmability in the 1950s and 1960s when there were problems computing common factor analysis which no longer exist, its continuation as the default factor analysis method on computer programs designed during an earlier era, and to its recommendation in Nunnally's (1967) textbooks first published back at the time of the first and second generation computers. Gorsuch (1990) recommends common factor analysis should be routinely applied as the standard analysis because, "it recognizes we have error in our variables, gives unbiased instead of inflated loadings, and is more elegant as a part of the standard model used in univariate and multivariate analysis" (p. 39).

Both PCA and FA methods predate causal modelling and its use in marketing which has had a slow but steady growth since its inception in the late 1970s and its great impact in the sister disciplines of the social sciences (Bagozzi, 1982). By 1982, causal modelling had been recognised as a general approach for integrating the theory-construction phase of research with the empirical and hypothesis-testing stages with three uses: (1) a measurement tool to develop scales and indices and to assess reliability, (2) a procedure for examining the many forms of construct validity, or (3) a methodology for testing hypotheses, making predictions, or evaluating cause and effect (Bagozzi, 1982). Since 1982, causal modelling has continued to be applied to marketing research and more recently to tourism research, with several different approaches evolving to its use in all of these disciplines over these past 25 years. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) within structural equation modelling (SEM) has emerged as a particularly useful tool for developing and testing measurement models of construct dimensions and examining the extent of interrelationships and covariation (or lack thereof) among the latent constructs (Schreiber et al., 2006). In their seminal article published in *Psychological Bulletin*, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommend an application of CFA that has been extensively cited in the social sciences and marketing research and will be applied in this study. They advocate separate estimation (and respecification) of the

measurement model as a theory testing and development approach using SEM that is complementary to a predictive application. For the theory testing and development approach they further recommend the full-information estimation approach using Maximum Likelihood in conjunction with the common factor model. Relative strengths of this approach cited by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) include providing the most efficient parameter estimates that best explain the observed covariances and an overall test of model fit. These strengths are due to the full information approach of the common factor model,

> where observed measures are assumed to have random error variance and measure-specific variance components (referred to together as *uniqueness* in the factor analytic literature, e.g., Harman, 1976) that are not of theoretical interest. This unwanted part of the observed measures is excluded from the definition of the latent constructs and is modeled separately. Consistent with this, the covariances among the latent constructs are adjusted to reflect the attenuation in the observed covariances due to these unwanted variance components. Because of this assumption, the amount of variance explained in the set of observed measures is not of primary concern. (p. 412).

Another strength of using maximum likelihood in conjunction with common factor analysis in an exploratory factor analysis preceding a confirmatory factor analysis in contemporary structural equation modelling statistical program such as AMOS, is that the maximum likelihood extraction method is consistent with maximum likelihood estimation algorithm that has dominated SEM and is used in AMOS.

Shortcomings of the full-information estimation approach noted by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) include inherent indeterminancy in the estimation of factor scores because of the underlying assumption of random error and measure specificity. In theory testing applications this is not a concern but in predictive applications this is likely to result in some loss of predictive accuracy.

Other considerations when undertaking factor analysis, are the distinction between exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis and variations in the application of exploratory and confirmatory approaches. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) note that the distinction between exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis is not so clear cut. They propose that it be thought of as an ordered progression starting with an exploratory factor analysis in which there is no prior specification of the number of factors. Using a maximum likelihood (ML) exploratory program is then the next step in the progression as a hypothesized number of underlying factors can be specified and the goodness of fit of the resulting solution can be tested. Testing a measurement model in a confirmatory program is a form of restrictive analysis that has historically been referred to as confirmatory analysis. The measurement model needs to be specified *a priori*, although the parameter values themselves are freely estimated except for those parameters that have been restricted *a priori*, typically to zero.

An overview of the application of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis in tourism research reveals variations in approach and changing trends over the years. Exploratory factor analysis has

been widely used to reduce sets of items into a smaller number of underlying dimensions with the dominant statistical analysis method being Principal Component Analysis (PCA) extraction method in combination with VARIMAX orthogonal rotation method to achieve simple structure. This dominant method is evidenced earlier in this Chapter in Tables 4.7 and 4.8 summarising selected empirical studies of tourist benefit research (non-cultural and cultural-related) published between 1998 and 2005. All of these studies, however, use PCA to reduce the set of variables that are then used in further multivariate analysis techniques such as cluster analysis, ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), Discriminant Analysis and Chi-square tests on independent variables and clusters. It should be noted that none of these studies are using EFA as the first stage of analysis preceding CFA as proposed in this study.

Although PCA with VARIMAX rotation is the dominant method in these selected published tourism benefit studies, various other EFA statistical methods have been used in other published tourism and cultural event services marketing research. For example, Principal Axis Factoring (PCA) with VARIMAX rotation was used to research the importance and dimensionality of senior motorcoach traveller choice attributes (Hsu, 2001), whereas research of the underlying dimensions of customers' evaluation of musical performances used Maximum Likelihood extraction and OBLIMIN oblique rotation (due to an anticipated correlation between the factors) (Minor et al., 2004).

A core problem of using exploratory factor analysis to identify construct dimensions is that factors lacking logical internal consistency can be rendered due to the exploitation of chance variance (Eastgate et al., 2006). Confirmatory measurement models are recommended to overcome this problem as they allow a model of latent and observed variables to be specified and tested. A good fit of the model supports the hypothesized relationships, but does not rule out other possible relationships that were not specified and tested.

Recent articles appearing in major tourism research journals suggest an increasing number of researchers favour going directly to CFA to confirm an *a priori* specified number of dimensions without undertaking EFA. Measures derived from the literature, expert panels or modified established scales are refined in confirmatory techniques (e.g., Eastgate et al., 2006; McGehee et al., 2007). Similar trends of steadily increasing use of CFA while the use of EFA is declining have also been noted in the organisational research literature (Hurley et al., 1997). This approach would be preferred where measurement models have a well-developed underlying theory of hypothesized patterns of loadings (Hurley et al., 1997). The absence of pre-validated, generic scales for measuring cultural experience motivational process constructs and well-developed underlying theory of pattern loadings, cautions against using this approach in this study.

Another disadvantage of the future application of existing motive scales and replication of these studies in CFA is where the resultant subscales for some dimensions comprise only two-items following the removal of multi-dimensional items and respecification of the model (e.g., Eastgate et al., 2006). Two-item variables are problematic in CFA and good practice dictates a minimum of

three items per factor, preferably four (Hair et al., 2006). Heywood cases in SEM are likely to result where the three indicator rule is not observed (Nasser and Wisenbaker, 2003), and these cases are where the factor solution produces a logically impossible result of an error variance estimate of less the 0 (a negative error variance) which implies by inference that more than 100 percent of the variance in an item is explained (Hair et al., 2006).

Others argue that EFA may be appropriate for scale development (Hurley et al., 1997) and a study by Gerbing and Hamilton (1996) using Monte Carlo methods found that EFA can contribute to model specification when used prior to cross-validation using CFA. Hence it could be argued, that until prevalidated subscales with at least three or four items per construct dimension have been developed, it is preferable to use an expanded subscale of items derived from the literature and expert panel, undertake EFA to identify underlying dimensions and then CFA to establish confidence in the measurement model by specifying the posited relations of the observed variables to the underlying constructs and testing the fit of the actual data to the specified model. Advantages of EFA for scale development are that it shows the actual magnitudes of cross-loadings which are not shown in CFA (Hurley et al., 1997), whereas CFA is better than EFA in allowing the measurement models to be tested and compared for invariance with multiple groups (Hurley et al., 1997).

The application of CFA in tourism research has been increasing in recent years particularly and is even more evident in recent tourism conference proceedings (e.g., Dai et al., 2006; Eastgate et al., 2006; Hwang and Lim, 2006). Specific application of CFA to tourism motivation-related scales, measurement models and dimensions is extremely limited to date in published articles within major tourism research journals. One recent exception is CFA research of Iso-Ahola's motivation theory (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991; Iso-Ahola, 1980; 1982; 1983; 1989) in a tourism context (Snepenger et al., 2006). Prior to Snepenger et al.'s study (2006), they identify the predominate approaches for identifying motives (general and specific) for tourism as including personal interviews, descriptive studies using surveys, and exploratory factor analytic investigations.

4.6.2.2 Rationale for the Construct Dimensionality Analysis Approaches Used in this Study

As this study aims to develop and test scales for cultural experience motivation latent constructs and to also test for cross-cultural group invariance, the Gerbing and Hamilton method (1996), using EFA prior to cross-validation with CFA will be the preferred method to be used in this study. This approach applies multiple-group structural equation modelling frequently used in cross-cultural psychology and social sciences research (e.g., Byrne and Campbell, 1999), to the allied context of cross-cultural research of tourist motivation in relation to cultural experiences. EFA is used prior to cross-validation with CFA because of the previously acknowledged absence of prevalidated, generic scales for each of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs with at least three or four items per construct dimension as dictated by good practice in CFA (Hair et al., 2006). A two-step process of EFA followed by CFA capitalises on the advantages of EFA for scale development in showing the actual magnitudes of cross-loadings which are not shown in CFA

(Hurley et al., 1997), and the advantage of CFA allowing the measurement models to be tested and compared for invariance with multiple groups (Hurley et al., 1997).

Within the EFA, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) full-information estimation method will be used to extract the factors because of its previously acknowledged additional strength of being consistent with the maximum likelihood algorithm that has dominated SEM and is used in AMOS and the suitability of ML for theory testing applications proposed in this study rather than predictive applications where there is some loss of accuracy. An oblique factor rotation (OBLIMIN) rather than orthogonal factor rotation will be used because the same general principles of orthogonal rotations pertain to oblique rotations, but the latter is more flexible because the factor axes need not be orthogonal and the theoretically important underlying dimensions are not assumed to be uncorrelated with each other (Hair et al., 2006). Oblique rotation methods are also advised when the goal of EFA is scale development that looks for the degree to which multiple scales/dimensions correlate (Netemeyer et al., 2003) as proposed in this study.

The CFA will be undertaken in AMOS version 5.0, and within the CFA both pattern and structure coefficients will be interpreted because of the benefits of using structure coefficients in SEM CFA studies in which factors are correlated (Thompson, 1997).

4.7 Summary

This chapter defines the target population, overviews background to the research site, the sampling frame and procedures and details the data collection instruments, scaling techniques and data analysis methods. Specific research method and measurement issues associated with undertaking cross-cultural research are also considered.

The absence of prevalidated, generic scales for measuring each of the four motivational process constructs of interest to this study in a cultural experience context is acknowledged. Consequently, multi-item measurement scales for the cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained are developed in this chapter from the literature relating to measuring each of the constructs and any consensus regarding the common dimensions found in previous research for each of the constructs. Six-point Likert-type scales of agreement are the preferred scaling technique for each of the four motivational process constructs question sets because of their suitability for measuring attitudes, particularly in a cross-cultural research, and their desirable property of producing sufficient variance in the overall scale for each of the samples.

Prior to on-site primary data collection, these scales and proposed data analysis methods are further checked by expert opinion and pretested on a cross-cultural convenience sample. The proposed data analysis methods include preliminary data analysis to check for data-entry errors and missing data. Descriptive statistics of the population sample's profile for selected

demographics, travel and trip characteristics is then proposed to assess the representativeness of the samples collected in this study by purposeful convenience sampling compared with the wider population of international and domestic tourists to Australia and the state of Victoria. Two sample proportions tests are then proposed to test whether the after-visit survey respondents are sufficiently representative of the in-situ survey respondents in order for the larger sample to be used to measure the three motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, and benefits sought, and the smaller subsample to be used for the fourth motivational process construct of benefits gained.

The various approaches to construct dimensionality analysis are considered and the preferred data analysis methods to be used in this study are a two-step method using EFA prior to undertaking cross-validation with CFA and invariance testing of the CFA measurement model for cultural group invariance. This approach is best suited to the testing of scales for measuring cultural experience motivational process latent constructs and also to test for cross-cultural group invariance. It applies multiple-group structural equation modelling frequently used in cross-cultural psychology and social sciences research to the allied context of cross-cultural research of tourist motivation in relation to cultural experiences.

Chapter 5 Descriptive Analysis Results

5.1 Introduction

In Chapters Two and Three, the conceptual frameworks underpinning the thesis were discussed. A model was developed based on this information and research questions and hypotheses emerging from the model were proposed. The research methodology used for this study was then described in Chapter Four. The next three chapters detail and discuss the results of the data analysis undertaken for this study. Chapter Five focuses on the descriptive analyses of the data and the subsequent examination of the data and Chapter Six focuses on testing the hypotheses that were developed and presented in Chapter Three of this thesis. In this chapter the data for the respondents in the sample of this study is firstly analysed to investigate the profile characteristics of the sample as a whole and then as two subgroups – international and domestic tourists – so that the representativeness of the sample compared with the wider population of international and domestic tourists to Australia and the state of Victoria can be assessed on selected criteria for which information exists. A similar approach is then applied to the analysis of the trip and travel characteristics. In the third section, the measurement items for the four motivational process constructs are analysed for normality, central tendency and spread, and ranking by mean scores. Two sample proportions tests for significant differences between those respondents who completed the after-visit survey and those who did not are undertaken to establish whether the large *in-situ* survey sample can be used for the three motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives and benefits sought and the smaller after-visit survey sample can be used for the fourth motivational process construct of benefits gained. The chapter concludes with preliminary data analysis of scale reliability and missing values to ascertain the suitability of the data for subsequent factor analyses in Chapter Six.

5.2 Cleaning Data

Descriptive frequencies on each of the 153 variables in the combined in-situ and after-visit surveys is firstly undertaken to identify any data entry errors and missing values prior to any further analysis.

5.3 Sample Demographic Characteristics

Purposeful convenience sampling and some quota sampling is used in this research to identify eligible respondents and to endeavour to obtain sufficiently sized samples of the eight selected tourist population groups of interest to this study. A sample of 961 completed in-situ surveys was obtained from respondents sampled from the combined eight population groups as previously discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.3.4. As shown in Table 5.1, female respondents are a higher percentage of the sample (approximately 55%) compared to male respondents (approximately

45%). Almost 44% of respondents are 45-64 years of age, but 45% are 18-44 years. A further 10.5% are 65 years or over.

Table 5.1: Demographic profile of the respondents to the in-situ survey (N = 961)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender			
	Female	524	54.5
	Male	430	44.7
	Missing	7	0.7
Age			
	18-24	123	12.8
	25-34	170	17.7
	35-44	140	14.6
	45-54	207	21.5
	55-64	214	22.3
	65-74	91	9.5
	75+	10	1.0
	Missing	6	0.6
Language Most Spoken at Home			
	English	720	74.9
	Chinese (Mandarin)	75	7.8
	Chinese (Cantonese)	37	3.9
	Chinese (Dialect)	10	1.0
	Japanese	119	12.4
	Missing	0	0.0

Table 5.2: Demographic profile of international and domestic tourist respondents to the in-situ survey

Variable	International Tourists (N=646)		Domestic Tourists (N= 315)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Female	342	52.9	182	57.8
Male	298	46.1	132	41.9
Missing	6	0.9	1	0.3
Age				
18-24	101	15.6	22	7.0
25-34	142	22.0	28	8.9
35-44	89	13.8	51	16.2
45-54	104	16.1	103	32.7
55-64	134	20.7	80	25.4
65-74	65	10.1	26	8.3
75+	9	1.4	1	0.3
Missing	2	0.3	4	1.3
Language Most Spoken at Home				
English	405	62.7	315	100.0
Chinese (Mandarin)	75	11.6	0	0.0
Chinese (Cantonese)	37	5.7	0	0.0
Chinese (Dialect)	10	1.5	0	0.0
Japanese	119	18.4	0	0.0
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0

To make comparisons between the sample and its representativeness of tourists to Australia and Melbourne, the sample has been further analysed into two subgroups: domestic tourists and international tourists as shown in Table 5.2.

Although information about the gender of tourists to Australia and Melbourne is not available, the gender balance of the two sample subgroups (domestic and international tourists, respectively) is similar to that of the whole group with female respondents a slightly higher percentage of the sample (approximately 58% cf 53%) compared to male respondents (42% cf 46%). Age groups show some differences between the two subgroups (Table 5.2) and the whole group (Table 5.1). While the marginal majority for the whole group is 18-44 years of age (45%), this age group is the majority for the international tourists (51%), but just under a third of the domestic tourists (32%). The majority age group for the domestic tourists is 45-64 years of age (58%), with the single largest age group being 45-54 years (32%). In summary, respondents' ages span from 18 years to over 75 years for the whole group and the two subgroups, but the majority of domestic tourists are older than the majority of international tourists.

Compared with the age of tourists to Australia and Victoria which are similar percentages for each age group (Table 5.3), the majority of the total sample are older. The international tourist sample is similar for 18-24 years and 45-64 years but has less 25-44 year olds (36% cf 42%) and more 65 years or over (12% cf 7%). The majority of the domestic tourist sample in the 45-64 years is much greater (58% cf 33%), but all other age groups are less.

Table 5.3: Age of sample compared to visitors to Australia and Victoria

Age Group	Total Sample	Sample Subgroups		Age Group (if different from sample)	International Visitors*		Domestic Visitors*	
		International Tourists	Domestic Tourists		Victoria	Australia	Victoria	Australia
18-24 years	13%	16%	7%	15-24 years	17%	16%	17%	17%
25-44 years	32%	36%	25%		42%	43%	38%	39%
45-64 years	44%	37%	58%		34%	34%	33%	33%
65 years or over	11%	12%	9%		7%	7%	12%	11%

*Tourism Victoria (2005c); Note: Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding or missing values

The language most spoken at home variable shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 is used as an indicator of culture in this study and based on the purposeful convenience and quota sampling method used in data collection, the resulting three language groups reflect the eight selected tourist populations of interest to this study: English-speaking tourists (domestic from NSW, Qld, SA, and international from NZ, UK, US); and Chinese- or Japanese-speaking international tourists from Asia. Of the Chinese-speaking respondents, the majority spoke Mandarin (approximately 61%), almost a third spoke Cantonese (30%) and a small proportion spoke other Chinese dialects (8%). Some tourists are sampled from these three language groups who resided in other regions or countries such as English-speaking international tourists from Asia, but these respondents have been removed from the sample as they did not attain the minimum sample size for separate analysis, which was

previously discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.3.5. Table 5.2 confirms that in the final sample, all domestic tourists are English-speaking and the proportions of the international tourists who are Chinese-speaking or Japanese-speaking are similar.

The demographic profile of the respondents who completed the *after-visit* survey are shown in Tables 5.4 and 5.5 and these respondents are a further subgroup of the *in-situ* survey respondents shown in Tables 5.1 to 5.3.

Table 5.4: Demographic profile of the respondents to the after-visit survey (N = 418)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender			
	Female	247	59.1
	Male	167	39.9
	Missing	4	1.0
Age			
	18-24	33	7.9
	25-34	66	15.8
	35-44	57	13.6
	45-54	107	25.6
	55-64	106	25.4
	65-74	42	10.0
	75+	6	1.4
	Missing	1	0.2
Language Most Spoken at Home			
	English	325	77.8
	Chinese (Mandarin)	33	7.9
	Chinese (Cantonese)	16	3.8
	Chinese (Dialect)	8	1.9
	Japanese	36	8.6
	Missing	0	0.0

Table 5.5: Demographic profile of international and domestic tourist respondents to the after-visit survey

Variable	International Tourists (N=280)		Domestic Tourists (N=138)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Female	166	59.3	81	58.7
Male	111	39.6	56	40.6
Missing	3	1.1	1	0.7
Age				
18-24	26	9.3	7	5.1
25-34	58	20.7	8	5.8
35-44	35	12.5	22	15.9
45-54	56	20.0	51	37.0
55-64	67	23.9	39	28.3
65-74	32	11.4	10	7.2
75+	6	2.1	0	0.0
Missing	0	0.0	1	0.7
Language Most Spoken at Home				

English	187	66.8	138	100.0
Chinese (Mandarin)	33	11.8	0	0.0
Chinese (Cantonese)	16	5.7	0	0.0
Chinese (Dialect)	8	2.9	0	0.0
Japanese	36	12.9	0	0.0
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0

Gender balance for this sample and its two subgroups (domestic and international tourists), is similar to that of the whole group and its two subgroups with more female respondents compared to male respondents for all groups. The female respondents in the after-visit survey sample are a slightly higher percentage than for the *in-situ* survey sample (approximately 59% cf 55%) and the corresponding percentage of male respondents is slightly lower (approximately 40% cf 45%). The age of the majority of the *after-visit* subgroup are similar to the whole group for respondents 45-64 years of age (51% cf 45%), 18-44 years (37% cf 44%), and 65 years and over (11% for both groups). Also similar to the whole group, the international and domestic tourist subgroups for the after-visit sample differ from the whole sample and in a similar trend, whereby a greater proportion of the international respondents are in the younger 18-44 years category (42% cf 51%) and a much greater proportion of the domestic tourists are in the 45-64 years category (65% cf 58%).

In relation to language most spoken at home, the Chinese-speaking international tourists show similar subgroup proportions to the whole group (13% for both groups) and the form of Chinese language spoken is of similar proportion with the majority speaking Mandarin (58% cf 60%), almost a third speaking Cantonese (28% cf 30%) and a small proportion speaking other Chinese dialects (14% cf 8%). Table 5.5 confirms that in the final after-visit sample, all domestic tourists are English-speaking, but the proportion of international Japanese-speaking respondents is less than the Chinese-speaking respondents (9% cf 13%) and much less for the whole subgroup sample (Table 5.4) compared with the Japanese-speaking proportion of the *in-situ* survey (9% cf 12%).

5.3.1 Demographic Profile Summary

The gender balance of the samples is quite representative with a marginally higher proportion of females to males for the total sample (55% cf 45%) with similar proportions for the domestic tourist subsample (58% cf 42%) and the international tourist subsample (53% cf 46%). For the after-visit survey, the proportion of females to males was slightly higher (60% cf 40%), with the same proportions for the domestic and international tourist subsamples.

Age groups show some difference between the total sample, the two subsamples of domestic and international tourists, and in comparison with all tourists to Australia and Victoria. While respondents' ages range from 18 years to over 75 years for all samples and subsamples, the majority of domestic tourists are older than the majority of international tourists and the domestic tourist sample aged 45-64 years is much greater than for all domestic tourists to Australian and Victoria (58% cf 33%). Similarly, the international tourist sample is also marginally older compared

with all international tourists to Australia and Victoria with marginally more 45-64 years (37% cf 34%) and even more 65 years or over (12% cf 7%). The after-visit sample has a greater proportion aged 45 years or over than the total sample (62% cf 54%) with even greater proportions for the domestic tourists (73.5%) than the international tourists (58%). These age group proportions suggest some caution should be applied when inferring the study results to the younger age groups of 18-34 years, especially for domestic tourists. This difference is even more pronounced for the after-visit sample, which measures the benefits gained construct, with only 24% being 18-34 years, compared with 31% for the total sample, while domestic tourists in this age group comprise only 11%. The low proportions of domestic tourists 18-34 years, further suggests that the QVM is less popular for the younger adult members of this tourist group.

The cultural profile of the samples based on language spoken at home, shows 100% English-speaking samples for all of the Western markets. The proportions of Chinese- and Japanese-speaking international tourists are similar for the total sample (13% and 12%, respectively), but considerably less Japanese-speaking tourists completed the after-visit survey representing only 9% of the total after-visit sample. As discussed in Chapter Six, the sample sizes for the various cultural groups within the after-visit survey restrict cultural group analysis of the benefits gained construct measured in the after-visit survey, to three combined samples: two English-speaking Western tourist groups (domestic tourists and international tourists) and one group of Chinese- and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists.

5.4 Trip and Travel Characteristics

The characteristics of respondents visiting Melbourne are shown for the whole sample (Table 5.6) and then for the international and domestic tourist subgroups (Table 5.7). Just over half of the whole sample had visited Melbourne previously, but by subgroup, more domestic tourists are repeat visitors (87%) than the international tourists (36%). More than 62% of all respondents are visiting Melbourne on holiday, while another 17% or more are visiting friends and relatives. Almost 10% of all the respondents chose the 'other' category for this question (16% for the domestic tourist subgroup), and further analysis of some additional comments written on the surveys for this question, revealed many of these were visiting Melbourne to attend the Australian Open Tennis tournament that was on at the time. The length of visit for more than two thirds of the whole sample is 1-7 nights, and even more of the domestic tourists are staying for this length of time (82%). A greater proportion of the international tourists are staying longer, 8 or more nights (40%).

More than half of all respondents are staying in hotels (3 star or more) or serviced apartments, although a further 20% are staying in the home of friends or relatives. Nearly 10% of the whole sample are staying in backpacker/youth hostels, but analysis by subgroup shows this was a popular accommodation for international tourists (13%) compared with domestic tourists (2%).

Table 5.6: Melbourne trip profile of the respondents to the in-situ survey (N = 961)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Nights stayed in Melbourne this trip			
	1-3 nights	265	27.6
	4-7 nights	375	39.0
	8-14 nights	161	16.8
	15 or more nights	156	16.2
	Missing	4	0.4
Main purpose of trip to Melbourne			
	Holiday	614	63.9
	Visiting friends/relatives	174	18.1
	Convention/conference	9	0.9
	Business	33	3.4
	Employment	9	0.9
	Education	34	3.5
	Other	87	9.1
	Missing	1	0.1
Previous visit to Melbourne			
	Yes	504	52.4
	No	456	47.5
	Missing	1	0.1
Accommodation in Melbourne this trip			
	Home of friends/relatives	193	20.1
	Hotel (4 or 5 star)	236	24.6
	Hotel (3 star)	155	16.1
	Hotel (2 star or less)	17	1.8
	Motel	35	3.6
	Bed & breakfast/guest house	14	1.5
	Backpacker/youth hostel	94	9.8
	Serviced Apartment	104	10.8
	Rented house/apartment/unit/flat	45	4.7
	Own property (e.g. holiday house)	3	0.3
	Other	63	6.6
	Missing	2	0.2

Table 5.7: Melbourne trip profile of the international and domestic respondents to the in-situ survey

Variable	International Tourists (N=646)		Domestic Tourists (N= 315)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Nights stayed in Melbourne this trip				
1-3 nights	148	22.9	117	37.1
4-7 nights	232	35.9	143	45.4
8-14 nights	122	18.9	39	12.4
15 or more nights	141	21.8	15	4.8
Missing	3	0.5	1	0.3
Main purpose of trip to Melbourne				
Holiday	418	64.7	196	62.2
Visiting friends/relatives	120	18.6	54	17.1
Convention/conference	6	0.9	3	1.0

Business	25	3.9	8	2.5
Employment	8	1.2	1	0.3
Education	32	5.0	2	0.6
Other	36	5.6	51	16.2
Missing	1	0.2	0	0.0
Previous visit to Melbourne				
Yes	230	35.6	274	87.0
No	415	64.2	41	13.0
Missing	1	0.2	0	0.0
Accommodation in Melbourne this trip				
Home of friends/relatives	128	19.8	65	20.6
Hotel (4 or 5 star)	143	22.1	93	29.5
Hotel (3 star)	108	16.7	47	14.9
Hotel (2 star or less)	12	1.9	5	1.6
Motel	12	1.9	23	7.3
Bed & breakfast/guest house	13	2.0	1	0.3
Backpacker/youth hostel	88	13.6	6	1.9
Serviced Apartment	54	8.4	50	15.9
Rented house/apartment/unit/flat	35	5.4	10	3.2
Own property (e.g. holiday house)	3	0.5	0	0.0
Other	48	7.4	15	4.8
Missing	2	0.3	0	0.0

Some comparison of the sample with all visitors to Australia and Victoria on selected trip characteristics is shown in Tables 5.8, 5.9 and 5.10.

Length of visit information is only available for domestic visitors (Table 5.8), but a greater proportion of the domestic tourist subsample is staying longer with almost two-thirds staying 4 or more nights compared with all domestic visitors to Victoria and Australia where more than two-thirds stay only 1-3 nights.

Table 5.8: Length of visit of sample compared to visitors to Australia and Victoria

Age Group	Total Sample	Sample Subgroups		Age Group (if different from sample)	International Visitors*		Domestic Visitors*	
		Internat-ional Tourists	Domestic Tourists		Victoria	Australia	Victoria	Australia
1-3 nights	28%	23%	37%		N/A	N/A	76%	68%
4-7 nights	39%	36%	45%		N/A	N/A	19%	21%
8-14 nights	17%	19%	12%		N/A	N/A	4%	8%
15 or more nights	16%	22%	5%		N/A	N/A	1%	3%

*Tourism Victoria (2005c); Note: Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding or missing values; N/A: not available

By purpose of visit (Table 5.9), more of the sample are on holiday, less are on business, and a similar proportion are visiting friends and relatives, excepting the domestic tourist subsample where the proportion visiting friends and relatives (17%) is much less than for all domestic visitors to Victoria (36%) and Australia (36%).

Table 5.9: Purpose of visit of sample compared to visitors to Australia and Victoria

Purpose of Visit	Total Sample	Sample Subgroups		Purpose of Visit (if different from sample)	International Visitors*		Domestic Visitors*	
		International Tourists	Domestic Tourists		Victoria	Australia	Victoria	Australia
Holiday	64%	65%	62%	Holiday or Leisure	51%	54%	45%	43%
VFR	18%	19%	17%		21%	21%	36%	36%
Convention/conference	1%	1%	1%	Not included	-	-	-	-
Business	3%	4%	2%		18%	15%	16%	19%
Employment	1%	1%	1%		1%	1%	-	-
Education	4%	5%	1%		7%	5%	-	-
Other	9%	5%	16%		2%	3%	4%	5%

*Tourism Victoria (2005c); Note: Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding or missing values

Table 5.10: Accommodation of sample compared to visitors to Australia and Victoria

Accommodation	Total Sample	Sample Subgroups		Accommodation (if different from sample)	International Visitors*		Domestic Visitors*	
		International Tourists	Domestic Tourists		Victoria	Australia	Victoria	Australia
	-	-	-	Hotel, resort, motel or motor inn	16%	17%	25%	26%
Home of friends/relatives	20%	20%	20%		30%	29%	44%	42%
Hotel (4 or 5 star)	25%	22%	29%		-	-	-	-
Hotel (3 star)	16%	17%	15%		-	-	-	-
Hotel (2 star or less)	2%	2%	2%		-	-	-	-
Motel	4%	2%	7%		-	-	-	-
B&B/guest house	1%	2%	1%		-	-	2%	1%
Backpacker/youth hostel	10%	14%	2%		5%	9%	-	-
Serviced Apartment	11%	8%	16%		-	-	-	-
Rented house/apartment /unit/ flat	4%	5%	3%		34%	27%	6%	9%
Own property (e.g. holiday house)	1%	1%	1%		18%	15%	6%	4%
	-	-	-	Caravan park or commercial camping ground	1%	1%	-	-
	-	-	-	Caravan or camping near road or on private property	7%	5%	4%	5%-
	-	-	-	Caravan	2%	3%	-	-
	-	-	-	Educational Institution	4%	3%	-	-
	-	-	-	Homestay	6%	6%	-	-
Other	6%	7%	5%		4%	4%	3%	4%

*Tourism Victoria (2005c); Note: Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding or missing values

For accommodation (Table 5.10), considerably more of the sample are staying in hotels and motels with the international tourist subsample totalling 43%, and 51% if serviced apartments are included, whereas only 16% of all international visitors to Victoria and Australia stay in such accommodation. While 25% of all domestic visitors to Victoria and Australia stay in such accommodation, the domestic tourist subsample totals 53% and 69% respectively, if serviced apartments are included.

The accommodation categories where the proportion of the sample is considerably less than for all visitors, are those of the home of friends or relatives, and rented house/apartment/unit/flat. For the international tourist subsample, the proportion staying in backpacker/youth hostel (14%) is considerably more than for all international visitors to Victoria (5%) and Australia (9%).

The trip characteristics of the respondents who completed the after-visit survey are shown in Tables 5.11 and 5.12 and these respondents are a further subgroup of the in-situ survey respondent characteristics shown previously in Tables 5.6 to 5.7.

Table 5.11: Melbourne trip profile of the respondents to the after-visit survey (N = 418)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Nights stayed in Melbourne this trip			
	1-3 nights	113	27.0
	4-7 nights	169	40.4
	8-14 nights	79	18.9
	15 or more nights	56	13.4
	Missing	1	0.2
Main purpose of trip to Melbourne			
	Holiday	280	67.0
	Visiting friends/relatives	76	18.2
	Convention/conference	3	0.7
	Business	12	2.9
	Employment	3	0.7
	Education	8	1.9
	Other	36	8.6
	Missing	0	0.0
Previous visit to Melbourne			
	Yes	229	54.8
	No	189	45.2
	Missing	0	0.0
Accommodation in Melbourne this trip			
	Home of friends/relatives	81	19.4
	Hotel (4 or 5 star)	113	27.0
	Hotel (3 star)	70	16.7
	Hotel (2 star or less)	5	1.2
	Motel	16	3.8
	Bed & breakfast/guest house	7	1.7
	Backpacker/youth hostel	40	9.6
	Serviced Apartment	45	10.8
	Rented house/apartment/unit/flat	16	3.8
	Own property (e.g. holiday house)	1	0.2
	Other	24	5.7
	Missing	0	0.0

Table 5.12: Melbourne trip profile of the international and domestic respondents to the after - visit survey

Variable	International Tourists (N=280)		Domestic Tourists (N= 138)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Nights stayed in Melbourne this trip				
1-3 nights	65	23.2	48	34.8
4-7 nights	99	35.4	70	50.7
8-14 nights	62	22.1	17	12.3
15 or more nights	53	18.9	3	2.2
Missing	1	0.4	0	0.0
Main purpose of trip to Melbourne				
Holiday	189	67.5	91	65.9
Visiting friends/relatives	56	20.0	20	14.5
Convention/conference	2	0.7	1	0.7
Business	8	2.9	4	2.9
Employment	2	0.7	1	0.7
Education	8	2.9	0	0.0
Other	15	5.4	21	15.2
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0
Previous visit to Melbourne				
Yes	109	38.9	120	87.0
No	171	61.1	18	13.0
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0
Accommodation in Melbourne this trip				
Home of friends/relatives	60	21.4	21	15.2
Hotel (4 or 5 star)	67	23.9	46	33.3
Hotel (3 star)	47	16.8	23	16.7
Hotel (2 star or less)	3	1.1	2	1.4
Motel	5	1.8	11	8.0
Bed & breakfast/guest house	7	2.5	0	0.0
Backpacker/youth hostel	38	13.6	2	1.4
Serviced Apartment	20	7.1	25	18.1
Rented house/apartment/unit/flat	13	4.6	3	2.2
Own property (e.g. holiday house)	1	0.4	0	0.0
Other	19	6.8	5	3.6
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0

Comparison of the after-visit subsample (N=418) with the whole sample (N=961), shows similarities for each of the trip characteristics. Similar proportions have previously visited Melbourne (55% cf 52%). The main purpose of visit is holiday (67% cf 64%) followed by visiting friends and relatives (18% cf 18%), and similar proportions chose the 'other' category (8.6% cf 9.1%) which was largely due to domestic visitors in both samples (15.2% cf 16.2%), many of whom were visiting Melbourne for the Australian Open Tennis tournament. Approximately two-thirds of each sample stayed 1-7 nights (68% cf 67%) and the majority of each sample stayed in hotels (3 star or above) and serviced apartments (55% cf 52%), followed by the home of friends or relatives (19% cf 20%).

The characteristics of respondents visiting QVM are shown for the whole sample in Table 5.13 and then for the international and domestic tourist subgroups (Table 5.14).

Table 5.13: QVM visit profile of the respondents to the in-situ survey (N = 961)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
QVM visit arrangements			
	Independently	867	90.2
	Organised tour group	39	4.1
	Other	54	5.6
	Missing	1	0.1
Travel group			
	Alone	136	14.2
	As a couple	340	35.4
	As a group of parents and children	84	8.7
	With other relatives	70	7.3
	With friends	199	20.7
	With family and friends	93	9.7
	With a tour group	19	2.0
	With business colleagues	6	0.6
	Sporting/community group	2	0.2
	Other	8	0.8
	Missing	4	0.4
Previous visit to QVM			
	Yes	455	47.3
	No	505	52.5
	Missing	1	0.1
Main form of transport to QVM this trip			
	Bicycle	11	1.1
	Bus	49	5.1
	Car	99	10.3
	Taxi	33	3.4
	Train	72	7.5
	Tram	347	36.1
	Walked	346	36.0
	Other	3	0.3
	Missing	1	0.1
Information sources used by visitors to QVM*			
	Friends/relatives	466*	48.5*
	Travel agent	38	4.0
	Internet	26	2.7
	Television	14	1.5
	Magazine	30	3.1
	Newspaper	12	1.2
	Radio	4	0.4
	Brochure	100	10.4
	Travel guide book	176	18.3
	Airline	6	0.6
	Accommodation provider	33	3.4
	Visitor information centre	33	3.4
	Tour operator	28	2.9
	Been there before	254	26.4
	Walked past	30	3.1
	Other	38	4.0
	Missing	1	0.1

*Multiple responses could be given so sums to more than Frequency of N=961 and Percentage of 100%

Table 5.14: QVM visit profile of the international and domestic respondents to the in-situ survey

Variable	International Tourists (N=646)		Domestic Tourists (N= 315)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
QVM visit arrangements				
Independently	577	89.3	290	92.1
Organised tour group	26	4.0	13	4.1
Other	42	6.5	12	3.8
Missing	1	0.2	0	0.0
Travel group				
Alone	109	16.9	27	8.6
As a couple	223	34.5	117	37.1
As a group of parents and children	44	6.8	40	12.7
With other relatives	41	6.3	29	9.2
With friends	139	21.5	60	19.0
With family and friends	64	9.9	29	9.2
With a tour group	14	2.2	5	1.6
With business colleagues	3	0.5	3	1.0
Sporting/community group	0	0.0	2	0.6
Other	5	0.8	3	1.0
Missing	4	0.6	0	0.0
Previous visit to QVM				
Yes	238	36.8	217	68.9
No	407	63.0	98	31.1
Missing	1	0.2	0	0.0
Main form of transport to QVM this trip				
Bicycle	9	1.4	2	0.6
Bus	32	5.0	17	5.4
Car	63	9.8	36	11.4
Taxi	19	2.9	14	4.4
Train	52	8.0	20	6.3
Tram	220	34.1	127	40.3
Walked	250	38.7	96	30.5
Other	0	0.0	3	1.0
Missing	1	0.2	0	0.0
Information sources used by visitors to QVM*				
Friends/relatives	308	47.7	158	50.2
Travel agent	34	5.3	4	1.3
Internet	17	2.6	9	2.9
Television	2	0.3	12	3.8
Magazine	22	3.4	8	2.5
Newspaper	5	0.8	7	2.2
Radio	3	0.5	1	0.3
Brochure	65	10.1	35	11.1
Travel guide book	157	24.3	19	6.0
Airline	5	0.8	1	0.3
Accommodation provider	26	4.0	7	2.2
Visitor information centre	21	3.3	12	3.8
Tour operator	22	3.4	6	1.9
Been there before	108	16.7	146	46.3
Walked past	20	3.1	10	3.2
Other	26	4.0	12	3.8
Missing	1	0.2	0	0.0

*Multiple responses could be given so sums to more than Frequency of N=961 and Percentage of 100%

Two forms of transport are the main one used to get to the QVM by the total sample respondents, tram (36%) and walking (36%). However, more domestic tourists travel by tram (40%) and more international tourists walk (39%).

For information sources used by the visitor in association with their QVM visit, multiple responses are encouraged with four main sources found for the total sample: friends/relatives (49%), been there before (26%), travel guide book (18%) and brochure (10%). Similar information sources are used by the international and domestic tourist subgroup for friends/relatives and brochures but more international tourists used a travel guide book (24%), and many more domestic tourists knew about the QVM by having been there before (46%). Analysis of the travel group for respondents visiting QVM reveals three main types of groups for the total sample there: as a couple (35%), with friends (21%), and alone (14%). While a similar proportion of international and domestic tourist subsamples are visiting as a couple (35% and 37% respectively), considerably fewer domestic tourists are visiting alone (9%) and more are visiting as a family group of parents and children (13%).

Of these selected trip characteristics, the only information available to compare the sample with all visitors to Australia and Victoria is shown in Table 5.15. Here it can be seen that tourists visiting the QVM are considerably less likely to be alone or visiting with business colleagues, and more likely to be visiting as a couple, than tourists travelling in Australia and Victoria.

Table 5.15: Travel party of sample compared to visitors to Australia and Victoria

Travel Party	Total Sample	Sample Subgroups		Travel Party (if different from sample)	International Visitors*		Domestic Visitors*	
		Internat-ional Tourists	Domestic Tourists		Victoria	Australia	Victoria	Australia
Alone	14%	17%	9%		50%	47%	24%	26%
As a couple	35%	35%	37%	Adult couple	26%	28%	30%	28%
As a group of parents and children	9%	7%	13%	Family group	8%	11%	18%	20%
With other relatives	7%	6%	9%		-	-	-	-
With friends	21%	22%	19%		-	-	-	-
With family and friends	10%	10%	9%	Friends &/or relatives	10%	10%	22%	21%
With a tour group	2%	2%	2%		-	-	-	-
With business colleagues	1%	1%	1%		7%	5%	4%	4%
Sporting/community group	1%	0%	1%		-	-	-	-
Other	1%	1%	1%		-	-	2%	1%

*Tourism Victoria (2005c); Note: Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding or missing values

The QVM visit characteristics of the respondents who completed the after-visit survey are shown in Tables 5.16 and 5.17 and these respondents are a further subgroup of the in-situ survey respondents' QVM visit characteristics shown previously in Tables 5.13 to 5.14.

Table 5.16: QVM visit profile of the respondents to the after-visit survey (N = 418)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
QVM visit arrangements			
	Independently	386	92.3
	Organised tour group	15	3.6
	Other	17	4.1
	Missing	0	0.0
Travel group			
	Alone	76	18.2
	As a couple	160	38.3
	As a group of parents and children	31	7.4
	With other relatives	24	5.7
	With friends	76	18.2
	With family and friends	43	10.3
	With a tour group	5	1.2
	With business colleagues	1	0.2
	Sporting/community group	0	0.0
	Other	2	0.5
	Missing	0	0.0
Previous visit to QVM			
	Yes	203	48.6
	No	215	51.4
	Missing	0	0.0
Main form of transport to QVM this trip			
	Bicycle	4	1.0
	Bus	22	5.3
	Car	39	9.3
	Taxi	11	2.6
	Train	33	7.9
	Tram	146	34.9
	Walked	163	39.0
	Other	0	0.0
	Missing	0	0.0
Information sources used by visitors to QVM*			
	Friends/relatives	182*	43.5*
	Travel agent	16	3.8
	Internet	12	2.9
	Television	6	1.4
	Magazine	14	3.3
	Newspaper	5	1.2
	Radio	1	0.2
	Brochure	51	12.2
	Travel guide book	88	21.1
	Airline	1	0.2
	Accommodation provider	17	4.1
	Visitor information centre	19	4.5
	Tour operator	14	3.3
	Been there before	131	31.3
	Walked past	14	3.3
	Other	16	3.8
	Missing	0	0.0

*Multiple responses could be given so sums to more than Frequency of N=418 and Percentage of 100%

Table 5.17: QVM visit profile of the international and domestic respondents to the after-visit survey

Variable	International Tourists (N=280)		Domestic Tourists (N= 138)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
QVM visit arrangements				
Independently	260	92.9	126	91.3
Organised tour group	7	2.5	8	5.8
Other	13	4.7	4	2.9
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0
Travel group				
Alone	57	20.4	19	13.8
As a couple	108	38.6	52	37.7
As a group of parents and children	14	5.0	17	12.3
With other relatives	20	7.1	4	2.9
With friends	47	16.8	29	21.0
With family and friends	32	11.4	11	8.0
With a tour group	2	0.7	3	2.2
With business colleagues	0	0.0	1	0.7
Sporting/community group	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other	0	0.0	2	1.4
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0
Previous visit to QVM				
Yes	106	37.9	97	70.3
No	174	62.1	41	29.7
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0
Main form of transport to QVM this trip				
Bicycle	3	1.1	1	0.7
Bus	16	5.7	6	4.3
Car	30	10.7	9	6.5
Taxi	5	1.8	6	4.3
Train	25	8.9	8	5.8
Tram	93	33.2	53	38.4
Walked	108	38.6	55	39.9
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0
Information sources used by visitors to QVM*				
Friends/relatives	123	43.9	59	42.8
Travel agent	14	5.0	2	1.4
Internet	9	3.2	3	2.2
Television	2	0.7	4	2.9
Magazine	9	3.2	5	3.6
Newspaper	3	1.1	2	1.4
Radio	1	0.4	0	0.0
Brochure	34	12.1	17	12.3
Travel guide book	79	28.2	9	6.5
Airline	1	0.4	0	0.0
Accommodation provider	13	4.6	4	2.9
Visitor information centre	12	4.3	7	5.1
Tour operator	10	3.6	4	2.9
Been there before	61	21.8	70	50.7
Walked past	10	3.6	4	2.9
Other	9	3.2	7	5.1
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0

*Multiple responses could be given so sums to more than Frequency of N=418 and Percentage of 100%

Comparison of the after-visit subsample (N=418) with the whole sample (N=961), shows similarities for all of the characteristics including visiting independently rather than in a tour group, high proportions of domestic tourists having previously visited, information sources used to hear about the QVM, and the main form of transportation to the QVM. Slight differences were found in the travel group on the QVM visit with more after-visit survey respondents visiting QVM alone (18% cf 14%) or as a couple (38% cf 35%), especially for the international tourist subgroup.

5.4.1 Trip and Travel Characteristics Summary

One characteristic of particular interest is the travel arrangements of tourists visiting QVM because these evidence that more than 90% of all respondents are visiting independently and only 4% are visiting as part of a tour group. This low percentage on tour groups applies equally to international tourists (4%) and domestic tourists (4%). This contrasts the sample of this study with many existing studies of Asian tourists to Australia and their motivation and behaviour where the sample largely has comprised visitors on tour groups (for example, for Chinese tourists, Weiler and Yu, 2004; Yu and Weiler, 2006).

Another characteristic of note is the high proportion of repeat visitors to both the destination of Melbourne and to the QVM attraction. More than half of the whole sample are repeat visitors to Melbourne (52%) and by subgroup, considerably more domestic tourists are repeat visitors (87%) than international tourists (36%). Similar proportions of the whole sample are found for repeat visitors to QVM (47%), and by subgroup, again considerably more domestic tourists are repeat visitors (70%) than international tourists (37%). These high proportions of repeat visitors suggest high levels of satisfaction for domestic and international tourists with the destination of Melbourne and QVM as an attraction at the destination.

5.5 Cultural Experience Constructs and Normality of the Data

Initial analysis of the 124 measurement items for the four constructs comprising the cultural experience motivational process research model proposed in this study is undertaken to check the normality of the data. All items are measured on a six-point Likert-type scale of agreement and all are positively worded. The measurement items for each of the four constructs are presented in separate tables: attitudes (Tables 5.18, 5.19); motives (Tables 5.20, 5.21); benefits sought (Table 5.22); benefits gained (Table 5.23); and a combined table for benefits sought and gained scores (Table 5.24). One table for each construct shows the central tendency and spread of these measures as well as missing values and outliers for the items. The other tables rank the measurement items for each construct by mean scores of agreement with the statements.

5.5.1 Cultural Experience Attitudes

For the cultural experience attitudes construct, 29 measurement items are used in the questionnaire and Table 5.18 shows that 27 items have some missing values with the greatest number 3.5% for the item: I like going to Australian aboriginal cultural performances and

exhibitions. The slightly higher rate of missing values for this item is possibly because some respondents have never attended or had the opportunity to attend such cultural experiences. Table 5.19 shows the cultural experience attitudes ranked by mean scores of agreement with the statements, with means ranging from 3.04 to 5.10.

Table 5.18: Normality of the cultural experience attitudes data set

Measurement Item I like going ...	Valid Cases		Missing Values		Out-liers	Mean[a]	StDev	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
	N	%	N	%	N				
2.1 to art galleries	961	100.0	0	0	0	4.13	1.47	-0.63	-0.61
2.2 to classical music performances	956	99.5	5	0.5	0	3.55	1.51	-0.13	-1.08
2.3 to modern music performances	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	4.00	1.50	-0.50	-0.82
2.4 to the ballet	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	3.06	1.53	0.27	-1.06
2.5 to dance performances	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	3.57	1.51	-0.15	-1.06
2.6 to the opera	951	99.0	10	1.0	0	3.04	1.55	0.32	-1.02
2.7 to theatrical performances of written stories	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	3.85	1.53	-0.40	-0.93
2.8 to musicals	954	99.3	7	0.7	2	4.29	1.42	-0.75	-0.25
2.9 to museums	957	99.6	4	0.4	2	4.57	1.21	-1.04	0.90
2.10 to arts and cultural festivals	954	99.3	7	0.7	2	4.48	1.28	-0.81	0.05
2.11 to historic buildings, sites and monuments	956	99.5	5	0.5	0	4.80	1.15	-1.10	1.08
2.12 to Australian aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions	927	96.5	34	3.5	0	4.20	1.34	-0.63	-0.28
2.13 to markets	957	99.6	4	0.4	3	5.10	1.08	-1.57	2.63
2.14 to cultural performances held in historical settings	952	99.1	9	0.9	2	4.29	1.25	-0.70	0.04
2.15 to cultural experiences involving Australian history	954	99.3	7	0.7	2	4.40	1.23	-0.74	0.21
2.16 to see Australian art	954	99.3	7	0.7	2	4.31	1.28	-0.71	-0.05
2.17 to cultural experiences because they are related to my work	946	98.4	15	1.6	0	3.34	1.58	0.14	-1.14
2.18 to cultural experiences to have fun	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	4.74	1.16	-1.19	1.32
2.19 to cultural experiences to make others happy	947	98.5	14	1.5	0	4.02	1.43	-0.52	-0.60
2.20 to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	958	99.7	3	0.3	0	4.16	1.36	-0.69	-0.32
2.21 to cultural experiences because local people attend	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	3.87	1.38	-0.43	-0.68
2.22 to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	958	99.7	3	0.3	2	4.43	1.16	-1.06	0.98
2.23 to famous cultural places	956	99.5	5	0.5	0	4.83	1.05	-1.23	1.95
2.24 to see famous performers/entertainers	950	98.9	11	1.1	2	4.58	1.23	-0.91	0.31
2.25 to see famous shows performed	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	4.66	1.20	-1.01	0.60
2.26 to cultural experiences to learn	953	99.2	8	0.8	2	4.51	1.23	-0.90	0.39
2.27 to cultural experiences for a sense of escaping into another world and getting away from it all	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	4.25	1.46	-0.66	-0.50
2.28 to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	961	100.0	0	0	0	4.19	1.33	-0.62	-0.32
2.29 to cultural experiences on package tours	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	3.25	1.58	0.11	-1.12

a. A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

Table 5.19: Cultural experience attitudes scores

Attitudes Measurement Item	Attitudes sample	
	N	Mean[a]
2.13 to markets	957	5.10
2.23 to famous cultural places	956	4.83
2.11 to historic buildings, sites and monuments	956	4.80
2.18 to cultural experiences to have fun	959	4.74
2.24 to see famous performers/entertainers	950	4.58
2.25 to see famous shows performed	953	4.66
2.9 to museums	957	4.57
2.26 to cultural experiences to learn	953	4.51
2.10 to arts and cultural festivals	954	4.48
2.22 to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	958	4.43
2.15 to cultural experiences involving Australian history	954	4.40
2.16 to see Australian art	954	4.31
2.8 to musicals	954	4.29
2.14 to cultural performances held in historical settings	952	4.29
2.27 to cultural experiences for a sense of escaping into another world and getting away from it all	953	4.25
2.12 to Australian Aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions	927	4.20
2.28 to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	961	4.19
2.20 to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	958	4.16
2.1 to art galleries	961	4.13
2.19 to cultural experiences to make others happy	947	4.02
2.3 to modern music performances	957	4.00
2.21 to cultural experiences because local people attend	953	3.87
2.7 to theatrical performances of written stories	953	3.85
2.5 to dance performances	957	3.57
2.2 to classical music performances	956	3.55
2.17 to cultural experiences because they are related to my work	946	3.34
2.29 to cultural experiences on package tours	957	3.25
2.4 to the ballet	955	3.06
2.6 to the opera	951	3.04

a. A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

Attitudes towards different types of cultural experiences from Table 5.19 shows the most strongly liked cultural experiences are markets, famous cultural places, followed by historic buildings, sites and monuments. Famous performers and shows are also liked as well as museums, and arts and cultural festivals. Cultural experiences specific to Australia such as Australian history, Australian art, and Australian aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions are more middle ranked (11th, 12th, and 16th, respectively). Lower middle ranking cultural experiences are musicals, art galleries and modern music performances. Marginally-liked cultural experiences are the theatre, dance and classic music performances, with the mean for each of these just above the 3.5 neutral point midway between slightly disagree and slightly agree. Least liked-cultural experiences are the ballet and opera, with means only marginally above slightly disagree.

Two attitudes towards psycho-socio-physiologically-based outcomes from going to cultural experiences have high ranking means: having fun (ranks 4th) and to learn (ranks 8th). This suggests respondents like going to cultural experiences for hedonic-related outcomes as well as educational outcomes. Going to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others also

ranks highly (10th) and this shows the importance of favourable word-of-mouth in influencing people's attendance at cultural experiences. Liking cultural experiences for escape-related outcomes is middle ranked (15th), and marginally above social interaction-related outcomes (17th). All of these outcomes are above the 3.5 neutral point.

The standard deviations for the cultural experience attitudes items (Table 5.18), range between 1.05 and 1.58. When considered together with item rankings (Table 5.19), the lowest divergence in responses is for the top ranking cultural experiences of going to markets, and to famous cultural places. The range of responses is greatest for the third and fourth last ranking items: going to cultural experiences because they are related to my work, and going to cultural experiences on package tours.

5.5.2 Cultural Experience Motives

For the cultural experience motives construct, 31 measurement items are used in the questionnaire and Table 5.20 shows that 30 items have some missing values with the greatest number 2.3% for the item: I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling to do something related to my work. The slightly higher rate of missing values for this item is possibly because some respondents are retired from work or do not work and so considered the question not applicable to them.

Table 5.20: Normality of the cultural experience motives data set

Measurement Item **I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...**	Valid Cases		Missing Values		Out-liers	Mean[a]	StDev	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
	N	%	N	%	N				
3.1 to have fun	961	100.0	0	0.0	3	5.13	0.97	-1.70	3.88
3.2 to be entertained by others	954	99.3	7	0.7	2	4.57	1.20	-1.02	0.69
3.3 to relax physically	959	99.8	2	0.2	2	4.61	1.18	-1.01	0.77
3.4 to relax mentally	958	99.7	3	0.3	0	4.78	1.13	-1.20	1.45
3.5 to have thrills and excitement	954	99.3	7	0.7	2	4.36	1.26	-0.75	0.07
3.6 to get emotionally involved	954	99.3	7	0.7	0	3.98	1.35	-0.45	-0.52
3.7 to do something I want to do	952	99.1	9	0.9	3	5.03	1.04	-1.50	2.79
3.8 to do something with my family and friends	954	99.3	7	0.7	0	4.81	1.15	-1.34	1.88
3.9 to do something by myself	949	98.8	12	1.2	0	4.07	1.47	-0.53	-0.73
3.10 to meet locals	956	99.5	5	0.5	1	4.27	1.35	-0.67	-0.32
3.11 to learn about local culture	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	4.69	1.19	-1.13	1.21
3.12 to learn about local history	959	99.8	2	0.2	2	4.68	1.17	-1.07	0.97
3.13 to learn about local performing arts	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	4.21	1.28	-0.64	-0.11
3.14 to do something related to my work	939	97.7	22	2.3	0	3.15	1.58	0.26	-1.09
3.15 to enjoy something unique to the destination	953	99.2	8	0.8	3	5.01	1.07	-1.60	3.11
3.16 to have a change from my daily routine	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	4.80	1.22	-1.30	1.54
3.17 to forget about demands of daily life	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	4.49	1.42	-0.86	-0.14
3.18 to escape into another world	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	4.23	1.52	-0.64	-0.65
3.19 to satisfy my curiosity	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	4.86	1.12	-1.25	1.66
3.20 to tell my friends and relatives about it	954	99.3	7	0.7	0	4.11	1.45	-0.53	-0.63
3.21 to enhance my social position	951	99.0	10	1.0	0	2.61	1.43	0.68	-0.49
3.22 to see famous cultural places	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	4.82	1.12	-1.27	1.74
3.23 to hear famous performers/entertainers	957	99.6	4	0.4	2	4.42	1.22	-0.73	0.03

3.24 to see famous shows performed	955	99.4	6	0.6	2	4.42	1.25	-0.77	0.10
3.25 to gain the respect of others	956	99.5	5	0.5	0	2.65	1.49	0.68	-0.57
3.26 to demonstrate my ability to travel	951	99.0	10	1.0	0	3.11	1.61	0.26	-1.20
3.27 to go somewhere safe	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	3.83	1.59	-0.33	-1.03
3.28 to get value for money	957	99.6	4	0.4	2	4.34	1.44	-0.85	-0.12
3.29 to have a high quality experience	951	99.0	10	1.0	0	4.83	1.08	-1.26	1.95
3.30 to buy goods and souvenirs	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	3.53	1.54	-0.16	-1.06
3.31 to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	4.01	1.53	-0.54	-0.74

A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

Table 5.21: Cultural experience motives scores

Motives Measurement Item	Motives sample	
	N	Mean[a]
3.1 to have fun	961	5.13
3.7 to do something I want to do	952	5.03
3.15 to enjoy something unique to the destination	953	5.01
3.19 to satisfy my curiosity	955	4.86
3.29 to have a high quality experience	951	4.83
3.22 to see famous cultural places	955	4.82
3.8 to do something with my family and friends	954	4.81
3.16 to have a change from my daily routine	953	4.80
3.4 to relax mentally	958	4.78
3.11 to learn about local culture	957	4.69
3.12 to learn about local history	959	4.68
3.3 to relax physically	959	4.61
3.2 to be entertained by others	954	4.57
3.17 to forget about demands of daily life	953	4.49
3.23 to hear famous performers/entertainers	957	4.42
3.24 to see famous shows performed	955	4.42
3.5 to have thrills and excitement	954	4.36
3.28 to get value for money	957	4.34
3.10 to meet locals	956	4.27
3.18 to escape into another world	957	4.23
3.13 to learn about local performing arts	953	4.21
3.20 to tell my friends and relatives about it	954	4.11
3.9 to do something by myself	949	4.07
3.31 to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	957	4.01
3.6 to get emotionally involved	954	3.98
3.27 to go somewhere safe	957	3.83
3.30 to buy goods and souvenirs	955	3.53
3.14 to do something related to my work	939	3.15
3.26 to demonstrate my ability to travel	951	3.11
3.25 to gain the respect of others	956	2.65
3.21 to enhance my social position	951	2.61

a. A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

Table 5.21 shows the cultural experience motives ranked by mean scores of agreement with the statements, with means ranging from 2.61 to 5.13. This is a wider range compared to the range of means scores for the cultural experience attitudes items of 3.04 to 5.10, particularly for the lowest mean with 2.61 being between strongly disagree and slightly disagree, while 3.04 is between slightly disagree and slightly agree. Six of the top nine most agreed motives for going to cultural attractions and events while travelling are generally psycho-socio-physiologically-based: having fun,

doing something I want to do, satisfying curiosity, social kinship with family and friends, from change from daily routine, and relaxing mentally. These include the hedonic-related motive of having fun which ranks as the top motive based on mean score, and also ranked highly as a liked attitude about going to cultural experiences in general (4th). They also include the escape-related motive of a change from daily routine, although other escape-related motives are lower ranking (but well above the 3.5 neutral point): to forget about daily life (14th), and to escape into another world (20th).

The other three of the top nine most agreed motives are also part attribute-based as they refer to a specific aspect of the cultural experience, namely, enjoying something unique to the destination, having a high quality experience, and seeing famous cultural places. The latter also ranked second in attitudes as a most liked cultural experience. Seeing famous performers and shows ranks lower as motives for going to cultural attractions and events while travelling, than as liked cultural experiences (15th and 16th cf 5th and 6th). To get emotionally involved and go somewhere safe are also low ranking psycho-socio-physiologically-based motives, but their mean scores are above the neutral point of 3.5 for neither agree or disagree. Low ranking attribute-based motives are consuming refreshments at the cultural experience, and shopping for goods and souvenirs, but their mean scores are also marginally above the neutral point. Learning by attending cultural experiences has marginally dropped from an eighth ranked liking about cultural experiences to a middle ranking motive for going while travelling with learning about local culture and history (10th and 11th, respectively), while learning about local performing arts ranks much lower (21st), but with a mean of 4.21 is still an agreed item between slightly agree and strongly agree. Four items have a mean score below the neutral point of 3.5. The three lowest ranking motives are all related to social recognition which is a psycho-sociologically-based motive that in this study has not been positively associated as a motive for going to cultural experiences while travelling. The fourth item is going to cultural experiences to do something related to one's work which in this study has not been positively associated as a motive for going to cultural experiences while travelling. It was also one of the four attitudes towards cultural experiences in general that was marginally below the neutral point.

The standard deviations for the cultural experience motives items (Table 5.20), range between 0.97 and 1.61, which is similar to the range for the cultural experience attitudes of between 1.05 and 1.58 (Table 5.18). When considered together with item ranking (Table 5.21), the lowest divergence in responses is for the top ranking motive for attending cultural attractions and events while travelling: to have fun. The range of responses is greatest for the third last ranking motive: to demonstrate my ability to travel.

5.5.3 Cultural Experience Benefits Sought and Gained

For the cultural experience benefits sought and gained constructs, 32 measurement items are used in the questionnaire with the benefits sought items reworded as benefits gained as seen in Table 5.24. Therefore these two sets of items will be discussed together, although the data set sizes

differ as benefits sought items are measured for the whole sample (961 cases) and benefits gained items are measured as a subset of the full sample (418 cases).

Table 5.22: Normality of the benefits sought data set

Measurement Item From my visit to Queen Victoria Market, I expect ...	Valid Cases		Missing Values		Out-liers	Mean[a]	StDev	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
	N	%	N	%	N				
4.1 to be emotionally involved	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	3.26	1.44	0.16	-1.02
4.2 to be physically involved	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	3.57	1.40	-0.14	-0.97
4.3 to have fun	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	4.81	1.12	-1.32	1.95
4.4 to be entertained	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	4.16	1.33	-0.63	-0.34
4.5 to relax physically	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	4.05	1.37	-0.54	-0.54
4.6 to relax mentally	958	99.7	3	0.3	0	4.19	1.33	-0.67	-0.23
4.7 to experience thrills and excitement	958	99.7	3	0.3	0	3.64	1.44	-0.16	-0.92
4.8 to gain knowledge	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	4.00	1.35	-0.48	-0.58
4.9 to forget about work and responsibilities	955	99.8	2	0.2	0	3.98	1.57	-0.38	-0.99
4.10 to escape into another world	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	3.69	1.58	-0.20	-1.13
4.11 to interact with staff	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	3.55	1.41	-0.17	-0.95
4.12 to interact with other visitors	958	99.7	3	0.3	0	3.56	1.37	-0.16	-0.81
4.13 to have a good time with my companions	954	99.3	7	0.7	0	4.81	1.24	-1.39	1.76
4.14 to go to gain the respect of others	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	2.64	1.49	0.71	-0.56
4.15 to see a famous place	958	99.7	3	0.3	0	4.16	1.45	-0.75	-0.37
4.16 to enhance my social position	957	99.6	4	0.4	0	2.27	1.30	1.00	0.25
4.17 a feeling of accomplishment	960	99.9	1	0.1	0	3.11	1.54	0.21	-1.13
4.18 the activities and events to be safe	952	99.1	9	0.9	0	4.25	1.41	-0.77	-0.23
4.19 to be well informed of the different facilities and services available	958	99.7	3	0.3	2	4.21	1.31	-0.79	0.09
4.20 to receive high quality service	960	99.9	1	0.1	2	4.32	1.30	-0.74	0.00
4.21 the activities and events to be delivered at promised times	947	98.5	14	1.5	0	4.08	1.40	-0.56	-0.47
4.22 written information to be in my language	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	4.24	1.54	-0.72	-0.55
4.23 signs to be in my language	953	99.2	8	0.8	0	4.23	1.56	-0.70	-0.60
4.24 signs to be clear and helpful	955	99.4	6	0.6	0	4.74	1.22	-1.25	1.43
4.25 the facilities provided to be clean	956	99.5	5	0.5	0	4.93	1.08	-1.18	1.50
4.26 the facilities provided to be comfortable	959	99.8	2	0.2	0	4.83	1.07	-1.03	1.24
4.27 facilities for children to be provided	906	94.3	55	5.7	0	4.23	1.48	-0.70	-0.40
4.28 facilities for disabled visitors to be provided	936	97.4	25	2.6	0	4.65	1.35	-1.11	0.70
4.29 good value for money	956	99.5	5	0.5	3	5.01	0.97	-1.47	3.27
4.30 a range of goods and souvenirs will be available for purchase	960	99.9	1	0.1	0	4.79	1.12	-1.17	1.50
4.31 a range of food and drinks will be available for purchase and consumption at the market	960	99.9	1	0.1	3	5.10	0.89	-1.23	2.42
4.32 a range of food and drinks will be available to purchase and take away from the market	960	99.9	1	0.1	3	5.09	0.97	-1.44	2.99

A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

The standard deviations for the benefits sought items (Table 5.22), range between 0.89 and 1.58, and for the benefits gained items (Table 5.23), from 0.81 to 1.42. When considered together with item ranking (Table 5.24), the lowest divergence in responses for both types of benefits occurs for refreshments-related top ranking benefits. The greatest range of responses is for different benefits sought and gained items: escaping into another world (24th ranking item for benefits sought); written

information being available in my language, and getting a feeling of accomplishment (10th and 29th ranking items, respectively, for benefits gained).

Table 5.23: Normality of the benefits gained data set

Measurement Item From my visit to Queen Victoria Market, ...	Valid Cases		Missing Values		Out-liers	Mean[a]	StDev	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
	N	%	N	%	N				
01 I was emotionally involved	413	98.8	5	1.2	0	3.49	1.34	-0.21	-0.91
02 I was physically involved	412	98.6	6	1.4	0	3.98	1.30	-0.49	-0.51
03 I had fun	417	99.8	1	0.2	2	4.86	0.92	-0.98	1.64
04 I was entertained	418	100.0	0	0.0	2	4.51	1.05	-0.83	0.59
05 I relaxed physically	416	99.5	2	0.5	2	4.23	1.19	-0.67	-0.02
06 I relaxed mentally	416	99.5	2	0.5	2	4.33	1.12	-0.74	0.21
07 I experienced thrills and excitement	413	98.8	5	1.2	0	3.37	1.29	-0.03	-0.71
08 I gained knowledge	416	99.5	2	0.5	0	3.91	1.24	-0.42	-0.40
09 I forgot about work and responsibilities	415	99.3	3	0.7	2	4.44	1.32	-0.88	0.18
10 I escaped into another world	415	99.3	3	0.7	0	3.92	1.39	-0.35	-0.70
11 I interacted with staff	416	99.5	2	0.5	0	3.97	1.34	-0.56	-0.40
12 I interacted with other visitors	417	99.8	1	0.2	0	3.43	1.27	-0.21	-0.77
13 I had a good time with my companions	407	97.4	11	2.6	0	4.73	1.26	-1.36	1.62
14 I gained the respect of others	401	95.9	17	4.1	0	2.87	1.36	0.29	-0.89
15 I saw a famous place	417	99.8	1	0.2	2	4.37	1.26	-0.78	0.13
16 I enhanced my social position	412	98.6	6	1.4	0	2.20	1.11	0.76	-0.05
17 I got a feeling of accomplishment	415	99.3	3	0.7	0	3.43	1.42	-0.17	-0.97
18 the activities and events were safe	412	98.6	6	1.4	2	4.88	0.92	-1.25	2.84
19 I was well informed of the different facilities and services available	415	99.3	3	0.7	0	4.12	1.18	-0.53	0.05
20 I received high quality service	414	98.8	4	1.0	2	4.36	1.05	-0.67	0.67
21 the activities and events were delivered at promised times	381	91.2	37	8.9	2	4.19	1.14	-0.73	0.56
22 written information was available in my language	409	97.9	9	2.2	0	4.62	1.42	-1.06	0.22
23 signs were in my language	413	98.8	5	1.2	0	4.71	1.41	-1.23	0.64
24 signs were clear and helpful	414	99.0	4	1.0	0	4.83	1.05	-1.13	1.57
25 the facilities were clean	413	98.8	5	1.2	2	4.43	1.05	-0.60	0.21
26 the facilities were comfortable	408	97.6	10	2.4	2	4.41	0.96	-0.48	0.20
27 facilities for children were provided	355	84.9	63	15.1	0	4.00	1.23	-0.42	-0.23
28 facilities for disabled visitors were provided	349	83.5	69	16.5	0	4.06	1.16	-0.43	-0.03
29 I received good value for money	413	98.8	5	1.2	1	4.76	0.83	-0.71	0.88
30 a suitable range of goods and souvenirs were available for purchase	415	99.3	3	0.7	2	5.00	0.88	-0.74	0.39
31 a suitable range of food and drinks were available for purchase and consumption at the market	416	99.5	2	0.5	2	5.17	0.83	-0.95	1.08
32 a suitable range of food and drinks will be available to purchase and take away from the market	417	99.8	1	0.2	2	5.21	0.80	-0.98	1.02

A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

Table 5.24: Cultural experience benefits sought and gained scores

Benefits Sought Measurement Item	Benefits Gained Measurement Item	Benefits Sought sample		Benefits Gained sample	
		N	Mean[a]	N	Mean[a]
4.31 a range of food and drinks will be available for purchase and consumption at the market	31 a suitable range of food and drinks were available for purchase and consumption at the market	960	5.10	415	5.17
4.32 a range of food and drinks will be available to purchase and take away from the market	32 a suitable range of food and drinks will be available to purchase and take away from the market	960	5.09	416	5.21
4.29 good value for money	29 I received good value for money	956	5.01	412	4.76
4.25 the facilities provided to be clean	25 the facilities were clean	956	4.93	412	4.43
4.26 the facilities provided to be comfortable	26 the facilities were comfortable	959	4.83	407	4.41
4.3 to have fun	03 I had fun	959	4.81	416	4.86
4.13 to have a good time with my companions	13 I had a good time with my companions	954	4.81	406	4.72
4.30 a range of goods and souvenirs will be available for purchase	30 a suitable range of goods and souvenirs were available for purchase	960	4.79	414	5.00
4.24 signs to be clear and helpful	24 signs were clear and helpful	955	4.74	413	4.83
4.28 facilities for disabled visitors to be provided	28 facilities for disabled visitors were provided	936	4.65	348	4.05
4.20 to receive high quality service	20 I received high quality service	960	4.32	413	4.35
4.18 the activities and events to be safe	18 the activities and events were safe	952	4.25	411	4.88
4.22 written information to be in my language	22 written information was available in my language	955	4.24	408	4.63
4.23 signs to be in my language	23 signs were in my language	953	4.23	412	4.71
4.27 facilities for children to be provided	27 facilities for children were provided	906	4.23	354	4.00
4.19 to be well informed of the different facilities and services available	19 I was well informed of the different facilities and services available	958	4.21	414	4.12
4.6 to relax mentally	06 I relaxed mentally	958	4.19	415	4.33
4.15 to see a famous place	15 I saw a famous place	958	4.16	416	4.37
4.4 to be entertained	04 I was entertained	955	4.16	417	4.51
4.21 the activities and events to be delivered at promised times	21 the activities and events were delivered at promised times	947	4.08	380	4.19
4.5 to relax physically	05 I relaxed physically	959	4.05	415	4.23
4.8 to gain knowledge	08 I gained knowledge	959	4.00	415	3.91
4.9 to forget about work and responsibilities	09 I forgot about work and responsibilities	955	3.98	414	4.44
4.10 to escape into another world	10 I escaped into another world	959	3.69	414	3.92
4.7 to experience thrills and excitement	07 I experienced thrills and excitement	958	3.64	412	3.37
4.2 to be physically involved	02 I was physically involved	957	3.57	411	3.98
4.12 to interact with other visitors	12 I interacted with other visitors	958	3.56	416	3.43
4.11 to interact with staff	11 I interacted with staff	957	3.55	415	3.97
4.1 to be emotionally involved	01 I was emotionally involved	959	3.26	412	3.49
4.17 a feeling of accomplishment	17 I got a feeling of accomplishment	960	3.11	414	3.42
4.14 to go to gain the respect of others	14 I gained the respect of others	957	2.64	400	2.87
4.16 to enhance my social position	16 I enhanced my social position	957	2.27	411	2.20

a. A 6-level scale was used where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree

Table 5.22 shows that all 32 benefits sought items have some missing values, although the percentage of missing values is only more than 1.0% for three items with the greatest number 5.7% for the item: expecting facilities for children to be provided. This is possibly due to the many tourists visiting alone or as a couple (49.6%) as previously seen in the travel group characteristics (Table

5.13) and so considered the question not applicable to them. The benefits gained items shown in Table 5.23 have a higher percentage of missing values for more items with the greatest number for the items: facilities for disabled visitors were provided (17%); facilities for children were provided (15%); the activities and events were delivered at promised times (9%); and gaining the respect of others (4%). All are possibly due to respondents considering them not applicable, but the first three might also have been considered not applicable because these respondents did not observe these attribute-based benefits during their experience.

Table 5.24 shows the cultural experience benefits ranked by mean scores of agreement with the statements for the benefits sought items, with means ranging from 2.27 to 5.10. The mean scores for the benefits gained items have an even wider range from 2.20 to 5.17. These ranges are similar to the highest means for the attitudes and motives construct items (5.10 and 5.13, respectively), but show a wider spread for the lowest means than for the other two construct items (3.04 and 2.61, respectively).

Only two of the top sixteen benefits sought from the QVM experience are psycho-socio-physiologically-based and these items are: having fun, and a good time with companions, (ranking 6th and 7th, respectively). The hedonic-related benefit of having fun also ranks highly as a benefit gained from the experience (5th) as well as being the top ranked motive for going to cultural experiences while travelling, and the fourth ranked most liked attitude about going to cultural experiences in general. Having a good time with companions ranks eighth as a benefit gained, and the related motive of going to cultural experiences while travelling to do something with family and friends was ranked slightly higher (7th). All the other high ranking benefits sought are part attribute-based as they refer to a specific aspect of the experience with the top most agreed benefits sought being refreshments to consume onsite (1st), refreshments to take away (2nd), good value for money (3rd), clean and comfortable facilities (4th and 5th), shopping for goods and souvenirs (8th), clear and helpful signs (9th), disabled facilities (10th) and high quality service (11th). For the benefits gained from the experience, the two highest ranking items are refreshments consumed and taken away (2nd and 1st, respectively), but this is followed by shopping for goods and souvenirs, safe activities, having fun, signage, good value for money, and having a good time with companions. Consuming refreshments, and shopping for goods and souvenirs at the cultural experience ranked lowly as motives for attending cultural experiences while travelling. Gaining knowledge from the QVM experience does not rank highly as a benefit sought (22nd) or as a benefit gained (26th) and these are lower rankings than liking to learn by attending cultural experiences (8th) and learning about local culture and history as motives for attending cultural experiences while travelling (10th and 11^{th,} respectively). These differences suggest that the QVM experience differs from other types of cultural experiences which will be further discussed in later chapters of this study. Items with mean scores below the 3.5 midway neutral point, number four for benefits sought and six for benefits gained. All are psycho-socio-physiologically-based and the four in common to both benefits, relate to emotional involvement, and social recognition from the experience. These findings for social recognition-related benefits are similar to the social recognition-related motives which were also

below the 3.5 neutral point, and so reinforces one finding in this study that social recognition is not positively associated with the motivational process for cultural experiences. Escape-related items have mixed rankings as benefits although all have means above the 3.5 neutral point. Escape into another world ranks similarly for both benefits sought and benefits gained (24th and 25th respectively), however forgetting about work and responsibilities ranks more strongly as a benefit gained (12th) than as a benefit sought (23rd).

5.6 Preliminary Data Analysis

5.6.1 Missing Data

The existence of missing responses where the values of a variable are unknown may be due to respondents providing ambiguous answers or their answers not being properly recorded (Malhotra et al., 1996). As the question scales used in this study did not include the option to answer 'don't know/unsure' or 'not applicable' these types of missing values did not apply. The existence of missing data in attitudes, motivation and benefits research is not surprising as every respondent may not be able to provide responses to all the variables put to them. For example, with consumption experience-related benefits variables, some respondents may not have encountered that particular element of the consumption experience. This type of missing data is termed 'not applicable' (Hair et al., 1995, p. 45), and needs to be considered when analysing the data with remedies for missing data being applied to reduce potential hidden biases of the results, and also to reduce the practical impact of missing data on the sample size available for analysis.

With large sets of scale items for each of the four motivational process constructs of interest to this study, missing values occurred for the majority of the 124 variables measuring the combined motivational process constructs (29 variables for attitudes; 31 for motives; and 32 for benefits sought in the in-situ survey and 32 for benefits gained in the after-visit survey). While the detail of these and other missing values was outlined in the previous section on normality of data, some imputation for missing values was undertaken to identify badly completed surveys for removal as discussed in section 4.3.5 of the previous chapter and to enable preliminary descriptive analysis of the sample drawn from each market in the final retained data set in section 4.3.4. The final retained data set with imputation for missing values will be used in the reliability analysis of the construct scale sets discussed in next section of this chapter and the subsequent factor analyses in Chapter Six.

Listwise deletion would mean that all cases having a missing value for any of the variables in the data would be excluded from all computations which would reduce the sample size considerably in this study because of the large number of 153 variables measured in the survey overall. The excluded cases would result in a considerable loss of information. Pairwise deletion would mean that only cases having missing values on variables tagged for a particular computation would be excluded from the analysis but this would still reduce the sample size considerably, especially in the analysis of the motivational process constructs which are measured by relatively large sets of scale

items. Pairwise deletion also has at least four major problems when used in SEM (Byrne, 2001) and is not generally recommended for use in SEM unless the number of missing observations is small (Kline, 2005).

Of the imputation for missing value methods, mean substitution is simple but also has many statistical problems especially relevant to SEM. It tends to distort the underlying distribution of data, reducing variability and making distribution more peaked at the mean (Vriens & Melton, 2002 cited in Kline, 2005) and therefore Kline (2005) recommends using other imputation methods that take better advantage of the structure in the data. Other authors caution against mean imputation in SEM which is based on variance and covariance because mean imputation reduces variance of the variable and correlation between the variable in question and other variables in the model (Brown, 1994 cited in Byrne, 2001).

Model-based imputation methods for missing values analysis are considered more sophisticated than any of the previously discussed methods and Kline (2005) recommends the expectation-maximization (EM) method because it is based on the EM algorithm which is related to the maximum likelihood method which is the most widely used estimation algorithm in SEM.

Incomplete data in terms of both the amount and pattern of missing values can bias conclusions drawn from an empirical study and so must be addressed regardless of their missingness (Byrne, 2001). The EM imputation method was implemented in SPSS version 12.0 to create a new data file for the construct measurement scales with no missing values for use in the factor analyses and SEM. Little's MCAR test was significant (p=.000; Chi-square=16566.66; df=15442), indicating the missing values were not missing completely at random but this treatment of missing data is considered acceptable as the extent of missing values prior to EM imputation was not more than 5.7% for any item as reported in the previous section on the normality of the data. Treatment of missing responses poses problems, particularly if the proportion of missing responses is more than 10% (Malhotra et al., 1996).

5.6.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made on the characteristics and is assessed by determining the proportion of systematic variation in a scale (Malhotra et al., 1996). A summated scale is being used in this study to measure four of the motivational process constructs, whereby several items are summed to form a total score and each item is deemed to measure some aspect of the construct measured by the entire scale. Approaches for assessing reliability in a summated scale include internal consistency methods for determining the association between scores. If the association is high, the scale yields consistent results and is therefore reliable (Malhotra et al., 1996). Two methods commonly used for measuring internal consistency are the split-half reliability and the coefficient alpha or Cronbach alpha (Malhotra et al., 1996).

Split-half reliability is the simplest measure of internal consistency with the set of items constituting a scale are divided into two halves, the resulting half scores are correlated and if there are high correlations between the halves this indicates high internal consistency. How the scale items are split is a problem with this approach as this influences the results. Common approaches for splitting the items are halves based on odd- and even-numbered items or randomly. To overcome this problem, a popular approach is the use of Cronbach alpha or the coefficient alpha which is the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale items (Churchill, 1979; Malhotra et al., 1996).

Coefficient alpha or Cronbach alpha is considered absolutely "the first measure one calculates to assess the quality of the instrument (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1967). A low coefficient alpha indicates the sample of items performs poorly in capturing the construct that motivated the measure.

When constructs are multi-dimensional, as proposed for four of the motivational process constructs being investigated in this study, the coefficient alpha would be calculated for each dimension (Churchill, 1979). Multi-dimensional constructs use scales that include several sets of items designed to measure different aspects, dimensions or components of the construct. In this situation, Malhotra et al. (1996) advises against measuring internal consistency across dimensions of a construct as these dimensions are somewhat independent and so this would be inappropriate. Rather internal consistency reliability can be computed for each dimension using Cronbach alpha as Zeitlin and Westwood (1986) report for measuring emotional response to advertising using multi-dimensional scales. Therefore in this study, it is proposed to measure the internal consistency reliability for each of the construct dimensions found in the exploratory factor analysis which will be reported in Chapter Six of this thesis.

Using Cronbach alpha to measure internal consistency across all items constituting each construct is problematic also because the coefficient value which varies from 0 to 1, with a value of 0.6 or less generally indicating unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability, tends to increase with an increase in the number of scale items whereby the coefficient alpha may be artificially, and inappropriately, inflated by including several redundant scale items (Malhotra et al., 1996). Each of the four motivational process constructs being measured in this study constitutes relatively large sets of scale items across multi-dimensions. Therefore a high and possibly inflated Cronbach alpha based on all items in each construct would be expected and was found as reported in Table 5.25 where the coefficient alphas for each cultural experience construct was 0.92 or above using SPSS for Windows Version 12.0 statistical program. Similarly, the split-half reliability alphas for the two parts of each construct are based on relatively large sets of scale items for each construct with the two parts comprised of the first and second half of each scale set respectively. These coefficient alphas for both halves of each construct's scale set indicate high and possibly inflated coefficient alpha with all parts being well above 0.6 and the lowest coefficient being 0.87 for both parts of the attitude construct.

Table 5.25: Reliability analysis of the survey instrument

Construct	Number of Cases	Number of Items	Coefficient Alpha	Split-half Reliability	
				Part 1	Part 2
Attitudes	961	29	.917	.874	.878
Motives	961	31	.919	.876	.877
Benefits Sought	961	32	.935	.905	.914
Benefits Gained	417	32	.919	.879	.888

5.6.3 Mann-Whitney U Test Results

To establish whether the large sample who completed the in-situ survey can be used to measure the three cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, and benefits sought, and the smaller sample of the after-visit survey respondents can be used for the fourth motivational process construct of benefits gained, two sample proportions tests are undertaken. The two samples to be used in these tests are the after-visit survey respondent sample compared to the in-situ survey respondents who did not complete the after-visit survey to establish the extent to which these two independent groups come from the same population.

As discussed in the data analysis approaches used to undertake descriptive analysis in this study (Chapter 4, section 4.6.1), the Mann-Whitney *U* test in SPSS Version 12.0 is selected for these statistical tests of the difference in location of central tendency on selected variables because it is a powerful non-parametric equivalent of the parametric *t* test. For the dichotomous scale data (questions 5.1, 5.5, 5.8.1 – 5.8.16), a cross-tab procedure in a 2 x 2 contingency table using SPSS Version 12.0 was also undertaken to conduct a chi-square test for a significant difference in proportions obtained from two independent samples (Malhotra et al., 1996). As the Pearson chi-square value for the asymptotic significance (2-sided) was the same value as the Mann-Whitney U test (2-tailed probability) reported in Table 5.26, the results of the chi-square test are not reported separately.

The most significant differences (at $p<0.001$) between respondents who completed the after-visit survey and those who did not are noted in only two of the 29 respondent characteristics: age and travel group to QVM this trip (see Table 5.26). Further detail of these characteristics with significant differences can be seen in Table 5.27 for age and Table 5.28 for travel group. In terms of age, a greater percent of the after-visit respondents are 45-64 years of age compared with those who did not complete the after-visit survey (51% cf 38%) and the reverse applies to the younger age groups with less of the after-visit group aged 18-44 years (37% cf 51%). Both groups have a similar percent of respondents 65 years and over (12% cf 10%). Some caution should apply to the interpretation of results relating to younger adult visitors, especially for the benefits gained construct but this caution had already been noted in the demographic profile summary of the samples (section 5.3.1). By travel group, more of the after-visit respondents are visiting as a couple compared with those who did not complete the after-visit survey (38% cf 33%) and more are also visiting alone (18% cf 11%), while less are visiting with friends (18% cf 23%), or with a tour group

(1% cf 8%). The latter is interesting to note and forewarns that any findings relating to those on tour groups need to be interpreted with particular caution, although this applied anyway given the small sample size of respondents who were visiting as part of an organised tour compared with those visiting independently. Table 5.28 confirms that the vast majority of respondents in the group that answered the after-visit survey and those who did not, were visiting independently (92% cf 89%), and only a small percent were visiting as part of an organised tour group (4% for both groups).

Table 5.26: Mann-Whitney U test of significant differences in demographic, travel and trip characteristics

Demographic, Travel and Trip Characteristics	Completed After Visit	Did not complete After Visit	Z test	2-tailed probability
	N	N		
1.1 Region or country lived	418	543	-0.839	0.401
1.2 Australian state or territory lived, if permanent resident	138	176	-0.288	0.774
1.3 Language most spoken at home	418	543	-2.063	0.039*
1.4 Length of nights stayed in Melbourne this trip	417	540	-0.481	0.630
1.5 Age	417	538	-4.185	0.000***
1.6 Gender	414	540	-2.572	0.010*
5.1 Melbourne previous visit	418	542	-1.244	0.213
5.2 Purpose of trip to Melbourne	418	542	-1.899	0.058
5.3 Accommodation in Melbourne	418	541	-0.925	0.355
5.4 Main form of transport used to get to QVM	418	542	-1.371	0.170
5.5 QVM previous visit	418	542	-0.637	0.524
5.6 Travel arrangements to QVM this trip	418	542	-1.900	0.057
5.7 Travel group this QVM visit	418	539	-3.633	0.000***
5.8.1 Heard about QVM from friends/relatives	418	542	-2.721	0.007*
5.8.2 Heard about QVM from travel agent	418	542	-0.182	0.855
5.8.3 Heard about QVM from internet	418	542	-0.272	0.785
5.8.4 Heard about QVM from television	418	542	-0.052	0.959
5.8.5 Heard about QVM from magazine	418	542	-0.351	0.726
5.8.6 Heard about QVM from newspaper	418	542	-0.132	0.895
5.8.7 Heard about QVM from radio	418	542	-0.749	0.454
5.8.8 Heard about QVM from brochure	418	542	-1.588	0.112
5.8.9 Heard about QVM from travel guide book	418	542	-1.911	0.056
5.8.10 Heard about QVM from airline	418	542	-1.331	0.183
5.8.11 Heard about QVM from accommodation provider	418	542	-0.940	0.347
5.8.12 Heard about QVM from visitor information centre	418	542	-1.654	0.098
5.8.13 Heard about QVM from tour operator	418	542	-0.699	0.484
5.8.14 Heard about QVM as been there before	418	542	-3.009	0.003**
5.8.15 Heard about QVM from walking passed	418	542	-0.351	0.726
5.8.16 Heard about QVM from other source	418	542	0.182	0.855

*$p<0.05$ **$p<0.01$ ***$p<0.001$

Table 5.27: Demographic profile of after-visit survey respondents compared with nno after-visit survey respondents

Variable	Completed After Visit (N=418)		Did Not Complete (N= 543)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Female	247	59.66	277	51.30
Male	167	40.34	263	48.70
Missing	4	0.96	3	0.55
Age				
18-24	33	7.91	90	16.57
25-34	66	15.79	104	19.15
35-44	57	13.64	83	15.29
45-54	107	25.60	100	18.42
55-64	106	25.36	108	19.89
65-74	42	10.05	49	9.02
75+	6	1.44	4	0.74
Missing	1	0.24	5	0.92
Language Most Spoken at Home				
English	325	77.75	395	72.74
Chinese (Mandarin)	33	7.89	42	7.74
Chinese (Cantonese)	16	3.83	21	3.87
Chinese (Dialect)	8	1.91	2	0.37
Japanese	36	8.61	83	15.29
Missing	0	0.0	0	0.0

Table 5.28: QVM visit profile of after-visit survey respondents compared with non after-visit survey respondents

Variable	Completed After Visit (N=418)		Did Not Complete (N= 543)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
QVM visit arrangements				
Independently	386	92.34	481	88.75
Organised tour group	15	3.59	24	4.43
Other	17	4.07	37	6.83
Missing	0	0.0	1	0.18
Travel group				
Alone	76	18.18	60	11.13
As a couple	160	38.23	180	33.40
As a group of parents and children	31	7.42	53	9.83
With other relatives	24	5.74	46	8.53
With friends	76	18.18	123	22.82
With family and friends	43	10.29	50	9.28
With a tour group	5	1.20	14	7.55
With business colleagues	1	0.24	5	0.93
Sporting/community group	0	0.0	2	0.37
Other	2	0.48	6	1.11
Missing	0	0.0	4	0.74

Table 5.29: Mann-Whitney U test of significant differences in cultural experience attitudes

Cultural Experience Attitudes Measurement Item I like going ...	Completed After-Visit	Did not complete After-Visit	Z test	2-tailed probability
	N	N		
2.1 to art galleries	418	543	-3.665	0.000***
2.2 to classical music performances	416	540	-2.638	0.008**
2.3 to modern music performances	417	540	-1.323	0.186
2.4 to the ballet	414	541	-1.378	0.168
2.5 to dance performances	416	541	-0.442	0.658
2.6 to the opera	414	537	-2.104	0.035*
2.7 to theatrical performances of written stories	415	538	-2.760	0.006**
2.8 to musicals	417	537	-1.976	0.048*
2.9 to museums	418	539	-3.452	0.001**
2.10 to arts and cultural festivals	416	538	-2.170	0.030*
2.11 to historic buildings, sites and monuments	417	539	-1.435	0.151
2.12 to Australian aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions	402	525	-0.091	0.927
2.13 to markets	415	542	-1.807	0.071
2.14 to cultural performances held in historical settings	413	539	-3.463	0.001**
2.15 to cultural experiences involving Australian history	414	540	-3.144	0.002**
2.16 to see Australian art	413	541	-2.451	0.014*
2.17 to cultural experiences because they are related to my work	410	536	-0.916	0.360
2.18 to cultural experiences to have fun	418	541	-2.385	0.017*
2.19 to cultural experiences to make others happy	412	535	-0.165	0.869
2.20 to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	416	542	-2.471	0.013*
2.21 to cultural experiences because local people attend	415	538	-1.443	0.149
2.22 to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	416	542	-2.096	0.036*
2.23 to famous cultural places	415	541	-3.689	0.000***
2.24 to see famous performers/entertainers	411	539	-0.721	0.471
2.25 to see famous shows performed	414	539	-0.383	0.702
2.26 to cultural experiences to learn	415	538	-2.258	0.024*
2.27 to cultural experiences for a sense of escaping into another world and getting away from it all	416	537	-1.742	0.082
2.28 to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	418	543	-0.479	0.632
2.29 to cultural experiences on package tours	417	540	-0.811	0.417

*$p<0.05$ **$p<0.01$ ***$p<0.001$

The most significant differences (at $p<0.001$) between respondents who completed the after-visit survey and those who did not are noted in only two of the 29 cultural experience attitudes for the items: I like going to classical music performances; and I like going to famous cultural places (see Table 5.29).

The most significant differences (at $p<0.001$) between respondents who completed the after-visit survey and those who did not are noted in only three of the 31 cultural experience motives for why respondents go to cultural attractions and events while travelling and these are the items: to learn about local culture; to enjoy something unique to the destination; and to have a change from daily routine (see Table 5.30).

Table 5.30: Mann-Whitney U test of significant differences in cultural experience motives

Cultural Experience Motives Measurement Item I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...	**Completed After-Visit** **N**	**Did not complete After-Visit** **N**	**Z test**	**2-tailed probability**
3.1 to have fun	418	543	-0.281	0.775
3.2 to be entertained by others	413	541	-2.476	0.013*
3.3 to relax physically	417	542	-0.050	0.960
3.4 to relax mentally	415	543	-0.341	0.733
3.5 to have thrills and excitement	415	539	-2.928	0.003**
3.6 to get emotionally involved	413	541	-1.510	0.131
3.7 to do something I want to do	416	536	-2.676	0.007**
3.8 to do something with my family and friends	415	539	-0.153	0.878
3.9 to do something by myself	415	534	-2.141	0.032*
3.10 to meet locals	414	542	-2.390	0.017*
3.11 to learn about local culture	417	540	-3.599	0.000***
3.12 to learn about local history	417	542	-3.425	0.001**
3.13 to learn about local performing arts	415	538	-1.713	0.087
3.14 to do something related to my work	410	529	-0.739	0.460
3.15 to enjoy something unique to the destination	416	537	-4.313	0.000***
3.16 to have a change from my daily routine	416	538	-3.666	0.000***
3.17 to forget about demands of daily life	415	538	-2.428	0.015*
3.18 to escape into another world	418	539	-1.162	0.245
3.19 to satisfy my curiosity	415	540	-3.389	0.001**
3.20 to tell my friends and relatives about it	416	538	-1.196	0.232
3.21 to enhance my social position	415	536	-2.135	0.033*
3.22 to see famous cultural places	417	538	-1.977	0.048*
3.23 to hear famous performers/entertainers	417	538	-1.068	0.285
3.24 to see famous shows performed	417	538	-0.891	0.373
3.25 to gain the respect of others	416	540	-1.275	0.202
3.26 to demonstrate my ability to travel	414	537	-0.201	0.841
3.27 to go somewhere safe	418	539	-2.735	0.006**
3.28 to get value for money	417	540	-2.560	0.010*
3.29 to have a high quality experience	415	536	-2.802	0.005**
3.30 to buy goods and souvenirs	415	540	-1.168	0.243
3.31 to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	417	540	-1.178	0.239

*$p<0.05$ **$p<0.01$ ***$p<0.001$

There are no significant differences (at $p<0.001$) for any of the 32 cultural experience benefits sought items between respondents who completed the after-visit survey and those who did not (see Table 5.31).

Table 5.31: Mann-Whitney U test of significant differences in cultural experience benefits sought

Cultural Experience Benefits Sought Measurement Item From my visit to Queen Victoria Market, I expect ...	Completed After-Visit	Did not complete After-Visit	Z test	2-tailed probability
	N	N		
4.1 to be emotionally involved	417	542	-1.539	0.124
4.2 to be physically involved	417	540	-0.374	0.705
4.3 to have fun	417	542	-0.117	0.907
4.4 to be entertained	417	538	-0.275	0.783
4.5 to relax physically	418	541	-1.697	0.090
4.6 to relax mentally	417	541	-0.857	0.392
4.7 to experience thrills and excitement	417	541	-2.362	0.018*
4.8 to gain knowledge	418	541	-0.521	0.603
4.9 to forget about work and responsibilities	415	540	-0.728	0.466
4.10 to escape into another world	418	541	-0.514	0.607
4.11 to interact with staff	418	539	-0.008	0.994
4.12 to interact with other visitors	418	540	0.495	0.621
4.13 to have a good time with my companions	415	539	-0.928	0.353
4.14 to go to gain the respect of others	417	540	-1.699	0.089
4.15 to see a famous place	417	541	-0.232	0.817
4.16 to enhance my social position	416	541	-1.688	0.092
4.17 a feeling of accomplishment	418	541	-0.318	0.751
4.18 the activities and events to be safe	416	536	-1.073	0.283
4.19 to be well informed of the different facilities and services available	416	542	-1.355	0.175
4.20 to receive high quality service	418	542	-2.541	0.011*
4.21 the activities and events to be delivered at promised times	414	533	-1.102	0.270
4.22 written information to be in my language	415	540	-1.963	0.050
4.23 signs to be in my language	413	540	-1.724	0.085
4.24 signs to be clear and helpful	416	539	-1.753	0.080
4.25 the facilities provided to be clean	416	540	-1.940	0.052
4.26 the facilities provided to be comfortable	418	541	-1.122	0.262
4.27 facilities for children to be provided	393	513	-0.567	0.571
4.28 facilities for disabled visitors to be provided	408	528	-2.127	0.033*
4.29 good value for money	416	540	-0.131	0.896
4.30 a range of goods and souvenirs will be available for purchase	417	543	-0.518	0.605
4.31 a range of food and drinks will be available for purchase and consumption at the market	418	542	-0.962	0.336
4.32 a range of food and drinks will be available to purchase and take away from the market	418	542	-2.136	0.033*

*$p<0.05$ **$p<0.01$ ***$p<0.001$

The Mann-Whitney *U* test results overall, show few significant differences (at $p<0.001$) for those who completed the after-visit survey compared with those who did not. Significant differences are found for only seven of the 121 variables measured in the *in-situ* survey of this study: the two demographic, travel and trip characteristics of age and travel group; two of the 29 cultural experience attitudes, and three of the 31 motives. Furthermore, there are no significant differences (at $p<0.001$) between the two groups for the 32 benefits sought items. These statistical test results support using the larger sample of the in-situ survey respondents (n=961) for the three motivational constructs of attitudes, motives and benefits sought, and the smaller sample of the after-visit survey respondents (n=418) for the fourth motivational construct of benefits gained in the further statistical

analysis of the next chapter where the hypotheses that were developed and presented in Chapter Three of this thesis will be tested.

5.7 Summary

In this chapter, the data for the respondents in the sample for this study was analysed to describe the characteristics of the sample and initial analysis of their responses to measurement items for the 153 variables in the combined in-situ and after-visit surveys. The sample's demographic, travel and trip characteristics were profiled for the group as a whole and then as two subgroups – international and domestic tourists. Representativeness of the sample was compared with the wider population of international and domestic tourist to Australia and the state of Victoria on selected criteria for which information exists.

The gender balance of the samples is quite representative although the proportion of females to males is a marginally higher for both the total in-situ sample and the after-visit samples, but with similar proportions for the domestic tourist subsamples and the international tourist subsamples.

Age groups show some difference between the total sample, the two subsamples of domestic and international tourists, and in comparison with all tourists to Australia and Victoria. In summary, the majority of domestic tourists are older than the majority of international tourists and the domestic tourist sample aged 45-64 years is much greater than for all domestic tourists to Australian and Victoria (58% cf 33%). The after-visit sample has a greater proportion aged 45 years or over than the total sample (62% cf 54%) with even greater proportions for the domestic tourists (73.5%) than the international tourists (58%). These age group proportions suggest some caution should be applied when inferring the study results to the younger age groups of 18-34 years, especially for domestic tourists. This difference is even more pronounced for the after-visit sample, which measures the benefits gained construct, with only 24% being 18-34 years, compared with 31% for the total sample, while domestic tourists in this age group comprise only 11%. The low proportions of domestic tourists 18-34 years, further suggest that the QVM is less popular for the younger adult members of this tourist group.

The cultural profile of the samples based on language spoken at home, shows 100% English-speaking samples for all of the Western markets and similar proportions of Chinese- and Japanese-speaking international tourists for the total sample (13% and 12%, respectively). Two sample proportions tests for significant differences between those respondents who completed the after-visit survey and those who did not, found few significant differences between the two samples supporting the use of the in-situ survey sample (N=961) for the cultural experience attitude, motives and benefits sought constructs and the after-visit survey sample (N=418) for the cultural experience benefits gained construct. The one exceptional difference was the low response rate to the after-visit survey from Japanese-speaking tourists which, combined with the minimum sample size requirements for factor analysis and structural equation modeling discussed in Chapter Four,

restricts benefits gained analysis to three combined subsamples of the total eight population units: English-speaking international tourists (N=187), Chinese- or Japanese-speaking international tourists from Asia (N=93), and English-speaking domestic tourists (N=138).

In terms of the travel and trip profile of the samples, two characteristics were of particular interest. The very high proportion of tourists visiting QVM independently (more than 90% of all respondents) and the very low proportion visiting as part of a tour group only (4%), the latter applying equally to international tourists (4%) and domestic tourists (4%), were noted. This contrasts the sample of this study with many existing studies of Asian tourists to Australia and their motivation and behaviour where the sample largely has comprised visitors on tour groups (e.g., for Chinese tourists, Weiler and Yu, 2004; Yu and Weiler, 2006). The other characteristic of note was the high proportion of repeat visitors to both the destination of Melbourne and to the QVM attraction with more than half of the whole sample repeat visitors to Melbourne (52%) and by subgroup, considerably more domestic tourists were repeat visitors (87%) than international tourists (36%). Similar proportions of the whole sample were found for repeat visitors to QVM (47%), and by subgroup, again considerably more domestic tourists were repeat visitors (70%) than international tourists (37%). These high proportions of repeat visitors suggest high levels of satisfaction for domestic and international tourists with the destination of Melbourne and QVM as an attraction at the destination. In later analysis chapters, this study will contribute a better understanding of visitor satisfaction with QVM, when satisfaction is inferred by comparison of the benefits sought and the benefits gained constructs which will give more detailed knowledge of the specific benefits with which tourists are satisfied or dissatisfied.

Analysis of mean scores for all 124 items measuring the combined motivational process constructs demonstrated the majority of items were found to be positively associated with the cultural experience motivational process. On a 6-point scale where 1 indicates totally disagree and 6 indicates totally agree, mean scores ranged for attitudes items (3.04 to 5.10), motives items (2.61 to 5.13), benefits sought items (2.27 to 5.10), and for the benefits gained items (2.20 to 5.17). All 124 items measuring the combined motivational process constructs also demonstrated good spread of responses with standard deviations ranging for attitudes items (1.05 to 1.58), motives items (0.97 to 1.61), benefits sought items (0.89 to 1.58), and for the benefits gained items (0.81 to 1.42).

Further analysis of mean scores by ranking the measurement items within each of the four motivational process constructs indicated the position of individual items in relation to cultural experiences. Attitudes towards different types of cultural experiences showed the most strongly liked cultural experiences are markets, famous cultural places, followed by historic buildings, sites and monuments, while the least liked-cultural experiences are the ballet and opera, with means only marginally above slightly disagree. Attitudes towards psycho-socio-physiologically-based outcomes from going to cultural experiences were above the 3.5 neutral point with the two highest ranking means being: having fun (ranks 4th) and to learn (ranks 8th), suggesting respondents like going to cultural experiences for hedonic-related outcomes as well as educational outcomes.

Going to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others also ranked highly (10th) showing the importance of favourable word-of-mouth in influencing people's attendance at cultural experiences. Liking cultural experiences for escape-related outcomes is middle ranked (15th), and marginally above social interaction-related outcomes (17th).

Six of the top nine most agreed motives for going to cultural attractions and events while travelling were psycho-socio-physiologically-based and included the top ranking hedonic-related motive of having fun. They also include the escape-related motive of a change from daily routine, although other escape-related motives are lower ranking (but well above the 3.5 neutral point): to forget about daily life (14th), and to escape into another world (20th). The three lowest ranking motives are all marginally below the 3.5 neutral mean score and are all related to social recognition which is a psycho-sociologically-based motive that in this study has not been positively associated as a motive for going to cultural experiences while travelling. The other three of the top nine most agreed motives are also part attribute-based as they refer to a specific aspect of the cultural experience, namely, enjoying something unique to the destination, having a high quality experience, and seeing famous cultural places.

Only two of the top sixteen benefits sought from the QVM experience are psycho-socio-physiologically-based and these items are: having fun, and a good time with companions, (ranking 6th and 7th, respectively). The hedonic-related benefit of having fun also ranks highly as a benefit gained from the experience (5th) and having a good time with companions ranks eighth as a benefit gained. All the other high ranking benefits sought are part attribute-based as they refer to a specific aspect of the experience. Items with mean scores below the 3.5 midway neutral point, number four for benefits sought and six for benefits gained. All are psycho-socio-physiologically-based and the four in common to both benefits, relate to emotional involvement, and social recognition from the experience. These findings for social recognition-related benefits reinforce the earlier finding for motives that social recognition is not positively associated with the motivational process for cultural experiences. Escape-related items have mixed rankings as benefits although all have means above the 3.5 neutral point. Escape into another world ranks similarly for both benefits sought and benefits gained (24th and 25th respectively), however forgetting about work and responsibilities ranks more strongly as a benefit gained (12th) than as a benefit sought (23rd).

Preliminary analysis of the data for normality, central tendency and spread, scale reliability, missing values and their treatment, found the data suitable for subsequent factor analyses in Chapter Six.

Chapter 6 Factor Analysis Results

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, descriptive data analysis was presented that determined the characteristics of the sample and subsamples, and the normality of the data. The purpose of this chapter is to test research hypotheses outlined in Chapter Three with an emphasis on determining the underlying dimensions of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs and developing measurement models of their confirmed structure. Cross-cultural research of tourists' cultural experience attitudes and motivations is lacking to date despite the cross-cultural nature of international tourism (Reisinger, 2005). Therefore a further focus is testing for cultural differences in the factorial dimensions and structure.

For each of the four motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained towards attending cultural experiences, measurement models are developed using a cross-validation method applied to a combined sample of English-speaking Western tourists visiting Melbourne, Australia. This involves determining the underlying dimensionality structure of cultural experience motivational process constructs by randomly splitting the sample into a calibration sample for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and then undertaking confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on a validation sample to cross-validate the proposed dimensionality in each measurement model. Cross-cultural validation for each measurement model is also examined for some of Australia's major tourist markets for factor configural and metric invariance, firstly by invariance testing of the English-speaking Western tourist sample measurement models for the four different cultural group subsamples of interest to this study: English-speaking domestic tourists in Australia from the nearby states (NSW, SA, and Qld); English-speaking international tourists from North America, New Zealand, and United Kingdom and Ireland. These measurement models derived from English-speaking Western tourists are then cross-culturally validated for Asian tourists represented by a sample of Chinese- or Japanese-speaking tourists from Asia. Firstly, the underlying dimensionality and factorial configurance of the models is tested for the combined Asian sample and then each of the Asian subsamples is tested for cultural group difference in metric invariance.

The subsample selected for developing the measurement models is the English-speaking Western tourists. This study is testing the global hypothesis as argued by Schutte and Ciarlante (1998) drawing on the work of Hofstede (1984), Trompenaars (1993) and others, that Asian consumer behaviour is distinctively different from Western consumer behaviour and therefore these cultural differences are pervasive enough to call for different marketing strategies. There are similarities within Asia such as the importance of family, group orientation and the issue of face, that differentiate them from the rest of the world, particularly the West and so justify the use of the terms 'Asian culture' and 'Asian consumer behaviour'. Just as these similarities in no way deny the

existence of cultural heterogeneity in the region, they do imply that the differences within Asia are less significant than the differences from the world outside Asia (Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998). Similarly, using the combined sample of English-speaking tourists to develop and confirm the measurement models, is not denying the existence of cultural heterogeneity within the four markets of North America, New Zealand, United Kingdom and Ireland, and domestic tourists in Australia; however it is using language as one of the main sources of culture, rather than nationality which is one source of culture, but often not the main one. Cultures do not correspond to nation-states, but to linguistic, ethnic, religious or even organisational entities (Usunier and Lee, 2005). English-speaking respondents from these four geographic markets comprise a sample representative of Western culture for developing the cultural experience motivational process measurement models. The hypothesis that Asian consumer behaviour is distinctively different from Western consumer behaviour is then tested by cross-validating the measurement models developed on the Western culture sample, with the Asian culture sample comprised of Chinese- and Japanese-speaking tourists from Asia.

The measurement models are not developed with the Asian culture samples for cross-validation on the Western culture samples, because of the presence of multiple languages and dialects in Asian culture as evidenced within the Asian tourist sample which comprises two Asian languages (Chinese and Japanese) and several dialects within the Chinese-speaking sample which are represented in this study by Mandarin (62%), Cantonese (30%) and other Chinese dialects (8%). Two further hypotheses to be tested in this study are whether there are significant differences: (i) within the Asian tourists for the two subsamples of Chinese-speaking tourists from Asia and Japanese tourists; and (ii) within the English-speaking Western tourists for the four subsamples of domestic interstate tourists in Australia, and international tourists from New Zealand, North America, and United Kingdom and Ireland.

All of these Western and Asian cultural groups are major tourist markets for Melbourne and Australia as well as for many other destinations. A further rationale for developing and confirming the measurement models for the English-speaking Western tourists and then cross-validating it with Asian tourists (Chinese- or Japanese-speaking) is that the majority of published tourist motivation research and theory has involved English-speaking tourists, particularly tourists in or from North America and the UK, as previously discussed in Chapter Four analysis of existing research for measuring each of the motivational process constructs of interest to this study. Schutte and Ciarlante (1998) confirm that Western cultures form the basis for most of the existing body of consumer behaviour literature and theory. Within the literature deemed accurate and relevant to the topic of consumer behaviour in Asia, the literature was found to be far richer on Chinese and Japanese consumer behaviour than for other Asian consumers (Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998), further justifying cross-validating the models on an Asian sample of Chinese- or Japanese-speaking tourists from North East or South East Asia.

Cross-national validation studies of consumer behaviour theory are needed and recommended by Lee and Green (1991) who note a tendency for consumer researchers to implicitly or explicitly assume that models of consumer behaviour developed on American consumers are universally applicable without testing the underlying model assumptions or the model linkages. Their cross-cultural research examined the applicability of the Fishbein behavioural intentions model (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein, 1967) in Korea and the United States. Theory suggested that this model which is well supported on American consumers where individualist culture is dominant, would not be as powerful in understanding, or predicting behavioural intentions in an Eastern culture characterised by a strong group-orientation. Nonetheless the study revealed that the unmodified Fishbein model does predict behavioural intention even in the context of Confucian culture, although not as accurately as for American consumers. However, the way in which the model works was found to be different because of the greater weight of the different dimensions in determining the behavioural intentions of Korean consumers (Lee and Green, 1991).

The research hypotheses addressed in this chapter relate specifically to Hypothesis Four of this thesis that the cultural experience motivational process constructs will differ by culture with three specific cultural group hypotheses: for differences between Western and Asian tourists, within Asian cultural groups between Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking tourists, but no significant differences between Western tourist cultural groups (as stated in Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework).

6.2 Statistical Analyses

A two-stage process in the exploration and validation of the factorial structure of the questionnaire items will be used in this study as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), including the recommended cross-validation procedure (Hair et al., 2006) of randomly dividing the participants into two samples (1:2 ratio) before analysis by using the random sample selection procedure in SPSS version 12.0. The size of the English-speaking Western tourist subsample for the in-situ survey (N = 720) is highly suitable for developing and confirming the construct measurement models for three of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives and benefits sought using a two-stage statistical analysis process and a cross-validation procedure with a randomly split sample. This provides a calibration sample (N = 362) for estimating and fine-tuning the factor model in the exploratory factor analysis and a validation sample (N = 358) for testing the stability of the final model (Hsu, 2001). For the benefits gained construct measured by the after visit survey, the 43% response rate produced an English-speaking Western tourist subsample (N = 325) that is also suitable for developing and confirming the measurement model for this construct using a two-stage statistical analysis process and cross-validation procedure with a randomly split sample of a calibration sample (N = 169) and a validation sample (N =156).

In the first stage of analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to determine the underlying measurement model is undertaken for each motivational process construct using maximum

likelihood extraction with oblique rotation on the measurement items for each construct until a satisfactory model of the factorial structure of the questionnaire items is determined. With reference to minimum sample size, the size of the calibration samples (N = 362 for attitudes, motives and benefits sought constructs; N = 169 for the benefits gained construct) used in the EFA allows the full questionnaire item sets for each construct (29 attitude items; 31 motive items; 32 benefits sought and gained items) to be used with a case per variable ratio of at least five for each variable which is above the general rule of a minimum of three (Cattell, 1978 cited in Mundfrom et al., 2005) and fulfils or exceeds the recommended five cases (Hair et al., 2006). As the primary objective is to identify the latent dimensions of the cultural experience constructs represented in the original variables and because the scales being used to measure each of the constructs are unvalidated and so there is little knowledge about the amount of unique error variance, maximum likelihood extraction based on shared variance is deemed an appropriate factor analysis method to use. Because correlation between the construct dimensions is expected, the use of the oblique rotation method, OBLIMIN in SPSS version 12.0, is justified (Hair et al., 2006).

Dimensions are initially extracted in the EFA based on eigenvalues greater than one, but the scree plot of the eigenvalues is then inspected to identify the factor solution where there is a major departure from linearity and specify this number of factors, where it differs from eigenvalues greater than one. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing items needed to respecify the factor model, and then a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Evaluation of variables for possible deletion because they are not adequately accounted for by the solution is based on several criteria. Any variable(s) lacking at least one significant factor loading or cross-loading with moderate size loadings on several factors, all of which are significant, are removed (Hair et al., 2006). Factor loadings of $\pm$.30 to $\pm$.40 are minimally acceptable, $\pm$.50 or greater are considered practically significant and loadings exceeding $\pm$.70 considered indicative of well defined structure and are the goal of any factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006). Items are removed if the communality value is below the .20 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. While Hair et al. (2006) recommend variables should generally have communalities of greater than .50 to be retained in the analysis, a .20 threshold is adopted in this study as several authors acknowledge low communality patterns commence at .20 (Costello and Osborne, 2005; Mundfrom et al., 2005). Further discriminant validity of the factorial structure is based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. While the factor pattern matrix has loadings that represent the unique contribution of each variable to the factor (and is used to identify significant factor loadings and any cross-loadings as discussed above), the factor structure matrix has simple correlations between variables and factors with these loadings containing both the unique variance between variables and factors and the correlation among factors (Hair et al., 2006). Inspection of the structure matrix is undertaken to ensure the factors represent distinguishable constructs, that is, the factor item with the lowest structure coefficient is a higher value than the structure coefficients for all the items within the other factors. The internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated

using Cronbach alpha coefficients, the most commonly used measure to assess the consistency of the entire scale and the generally agreed upon lower limit Cronbach alpha value is .70, although it may decrease to .60 in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2006). Each separate item within each dimension is also considered with further items eliminated if required so that all items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations (the correlation of the item to the summated scale score) greater than 0.5 as generally recommended (Hair et al., 2006). Dimensions are retained if they have two or more significantly loading items. The model derived from the EFA is subsequently evaluated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) from the second stage of analysis.

In the second stage of analysis, a series of CFA analyses are undertaken with the participants' responses. Initially, one-factor congeneric models for each of the constructs is undertaken to test for internal validity, and then the factorial validity of the hypothesised model derived from the EFA is tested for discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). In these models, the variances of the latent variables are set to unity in order to identify the models and maximum-likelihood estimation procedures on the covariance structures are conducted in AMOS version 5.0 program. In evaluating the factorial validity of the full measurement structure, both pattern and structure coefficients are considered. Multiple criteria are employed to assess the goodness-of-fit of the models, although index cutoff values for distinguishing acceptable and unacceptable model fit will be adjusted based on model characteristics in accordance with guidelines for using fit indices in different situations as outlined by Hair et al. (2006). Statistical fit of the models is determined by the chi-square (χ^2) and how it quantifies the differences between the observed and estimated covariance matrices. A small χ^2 value (and a corresponding large *p*-value) that indicates no statistically significant difference between the matrices is the desired measure of model fit (Hair et al., 2006). Absolute fit of the models is also determined by the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the standardised root mean-square residual (SRMR), and the root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA). Further descriptive fit of the models is determined by using the incremental fit measures of the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). Parsimonious fit is determined by the normed chi-square ratio of χ^2 to degrees of freedom (*df*). The desired threshold for the GFI, AGFI, TLI and CFI is .90 as noted by Hair et al, (2006) for being the commonly cited guideline, although it is further noted that the .90 threshold has no statistical basis for either the GFI or AGFI. For the RMSEA which expresses the lack of fit due to reliability and model specification or misspecification, it has been suggested that values <.05 constitute good fit, values in the .05 to .08 range acceptable fit, values in the .08 to .10 range marginal fit, and values > .10 poor fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1992). The SRMR is the average of differences between the sample correlations and the estimated population correlations. It has a range from 0 to 1 and values of .08 or less are desired (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

Where model respecification is required in the CFAs to improve data fit to the model, items for possible elimination are identified using multiple strategies and eliminated one at a time. For pairs of items with high correlations greater than 1.0 in the sample covariance matrix indicating some

item redundancy or multicollinearity, and *t*-values greater than ±2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating that the model is not explaining the association between these pairs of variables, the items with the lower model weight parameter loading are removed. The significance of parameter estimates is checked for possible removal of structural paths with high non-significant weights. Modification indices are also checked for values greater than 4.0 to identify parameters to be estimated in the revised model to significantly reduce the chi-square and improve model fit.

The central interest to this study is whether there are cultural differences in the final measurement models for the four cultural experience motivational process constructs (attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained) between the Western and Asian tourist samples (Hypothesis One). A further interest is whether there are cultural differences in the cultural experience motivational process constructs and their measurement for each of the six cultural group subsamples within the Western and Asian tourist samples (Hypotheses Two and Three). CFA is a highly suitable statistical method for testing these hypotheses as CFA has been defined as, "a decision rule to accept or reject one or more hypotheses about a population factor structure based on sample data" (Hurley et al., 1997). A further advantage of CFA is that it allows the invariance of measurement models and how they compare to be tested with multiple groups (Hurley et al., 1997).

Following the development of the measurement models for each of the motivational process constructs derived from the English-speaking Western tourist validation sample, each measurement model is then tested for cultural difference in a series of nested models using the multi-sample analysis feature within the SEM statistical analysis computer software program, AMOS version 5.0. The first model tested is whether the latent factor structure underlying the set of items derived from the English-speaking Western tourist validation sample is the same in the subsamples of English-speaking Western tourists. If the latent factor structure is the same across samples, then invariance testing of factor loadings is undertaken to test whether the samples are calibrating the items in a similar fashion (Hurley et al., 1997). For the English-speaking Western tourist samples, it is hypothesised that they will be using identical frames of reference and the factorial configural structure and factor loadings will be invariant (Hypothesis 2). Because theory supports differences between Western and Asian cultures, the measurement model derived from the English-speaking Western tourist validation sample for each latent construct is then cross-validated with the Asian tourist data sample (N = 241) and it is hypothesised that factorial configural structure will be different for the Asian and Western data samples (Hypothesis 1). The resultant measurement model for each motivational process construct and the Asian tourist sample is then further tested for latent factor structure and invariance of factor loadings with the Chinese-speaking and the Japanese-speaking subsamples where it is hypothesised that because of the language differences, the subsamples will not be invariant (Hypothesis 3).

The sample sizes are adequate for each motivational process construct measurement model derived from the English-speaking Western tourist sample to be tested for Eastern culture cross-validation with an Asian tourist data sample (N = 241) as the latter exceeds the recommended

minimum threshold of 100 to 150 cases for SEM. Sample sizes are also adequate for invariance testing of all four motivational process constructs with the six country- or region-of-residence subsamples, except for the benefits gained construct and the two Asian subsamples. Country- or region-of-residence subsamples are adequate for invariance testing of each measurement model for the three constructs measured in the *in-situ* survey (attitudes, motives and benefits sought), providing the number of variables in the final measurement models for each construct is reduced to 25 or less as expected: English-speaking tourists from North America (N=124), New Zealand (N=140), United Kingdom and Ireland (N=141), and domestic interstate in Australia (N=315); Japanese international tourists (N=119); and Chinese-speaking tourists from Asia (N=122). For the benefits gained construct measured in the after visit survey, the measurement model derived from the English-speaking Western tourist sample is then cross-culturally validated with a combined Asian sample of Chinese- and Japanese-speaking tourists from Asia (N=93). This sample size is adequate for cross-cultural validation of the final measurement model for this construct providing the number of variables in the CFA is reduced to 19 or less as expected. Invariance testing of the cross-cultural differences within the Asian sample for the two different cultural group subsamples cannot be undertaken as the sample sizes of each separate subsample are significantly below the recommended minimum threshold of 100 to 150 cases for SEM.

An examination of 'measurement invariance' enables to determine whether the items and the underlying constructs mean the same thing to members of different groups (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002). The central concern is whether or not components of the measurement model are invariant (i.e., equivalent) across particular groups (Byrne, 2001). The general process of determining non-equivalence of measurement parameters across groups is by conducting a series of increasingly restrictive tests (Byrne, 2001). In this invariance testing, the χ^2 difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$) is used as the index of difference in fit between the baseline model and successively constrained models as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). A nonsignificant value of χ^2 indicates failure to reject the null hypothesis that the hypothesized covariance matrix is identical to the observed covariance matrix, which is usually accepted as evidence of adequate fit (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002). In particular, factorial invariance of each construct measurement model for different cultural groups of tourists is tested at the construct level for metric invariance of factor loadings (i.e., that all factor loading parameters are equal across all groups). The latter indicates whether the strengths of the relations between specific scale items and the underlying constructs are invariant or differ (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002) and are considered an important prerequisite for meaningful cross-group comparison (Bollen, 1989).

Two separate groups of analyses are conducted within this invariance testing of each measurement model for different cultural groups: factorial structure for configural invariance, and metric invariance of factor loadings. Firstly, the measurement model for each cultural experience motivational process construct (attitudes, motives, benefits sought and gained) is tested for configural invariance by assessing whether the simple structure of factor loadings is obtained for

each of the cultural groups (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1998). For each measurement model, the data fit is tested for each cultural group sample separately to establish structural similarity and to create a baseline model where the parameter matrices of the models for each cultural group are not constrained to be equal to each other except for the referent parameter associated with each construct, which is set equal to unity across groups to identify the model. Given that the χ^2 and its degrees of freedom are additive, the sum of the χ^2 values derived from the model-fitting process for each group separately, reflects the extent to which the underlying structure fits the data across groups when no cross-group constraints are imposed (Byrne, 2001). The χ^2 and its associated degrees of freedom for the baseline model should be very close to the sum of the individual models as found in this analysis for each of the cultural experience motivational process constructs and each of the different cultural groups of tourists. The fit of the unconstrained baseline model with no restrictions on model parameters is then compared with a constrained model in which all factor loadings are constrained to be equal across groups.

If factor configural invariance is not found then evidence exists that the samples are using different conceptual frameworks of reference when interpreting and responding to the items, and so, the samples cannot be directly compared. At this point the less restrictive EFA procedures may be employed to determine where the 'breakdowns' occurred, particularly if the expectation was the samples would interpret the items using identical frames of reference (Hurley et al., 1997). If the factor metric invariance is not found and the model results in a dramatic loss in fit, then an exploratory approach may be employed to uncover which item or items result in the greatest differences (Hurley et al., 1997).

6.3 Preliminary Analysis of the Data

Prior to analysis, the calibration and validation data samples are checked for normality of data distribution, outliers and screened for missing values. For scores that are normally distributed, skewness and kurtosis values will equal zero, although values ranging from –1.50 to +1.50 may be considered to approximate a normal distribution (Muthen and Kaplan, 1985 cited in Byrne and Campbell, 1999). As previously discussed in Chapter Five, most items for each construct approximated normality. Outliers per item in the calibration and validation samples are checked, but no observations are extreme on a sufficient number of variables to be considered unrepresentative of the population.

The data is assessed for sampling adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test on the calibration and validation samples and each of the cultural group subsamples for the four subscales: cultural experience attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained (see Table 6.1).

As values above 0.50 indicate appropriateness of applying factor analysis with values of 0.70 or above considered 'middling' and 0.80 or above regarded as 'meritorious' (Hair et al., 2006), in

interpreting these values, all subscale data samples and subsamples are adequate for analysis. Benefits gained construct values are not given for the five international tourist cultural group subsamples as the sample sizes were too small for separate analysis and so invariance testing of this construct used a combined English-speaking Western international tourist sample which was tested against the domestic tourist sample in the English-speaking measurement model. For cross-cultural validation of the benefits gained measurement model with the Asian tourist sample, separate invariance testing between the Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking subsamples cannot be undertaken due to insufficient sample size.

Table 6.1 KMO sampling adequacy results for sample suitability for factorabilty

Sample	N =	Attitudes 29 items	Motives 31 items	Benefits Sought 32 items	Benefits Sought 28 items[a]	Benefits Gained 32 items	Benefits Gained 28 items[a]
EFA Calibration							
English-speaking Western tourists *in-situ* survey	362	.92	.90	.91	.90		
English-speaking Western tourists after visit survey	169					.82	.85
CFA Validation							
English-speaking Western tourists *in-situ* survey	358	.87	.88	.89	.88		
English-speaking Western tourists after visit survey	156					.82	.82
Validation of CFA Measurement Models							
Asian tourists *in-situ* survey	241	.89	.87	.88	.87		
Asian tourists after visit survey	93					.74	.73
Invariance Testing							
English-speaking domestic interstate tourists *in-situ* survey	315	.90	.90	.89	.88		
after visit survey	138					.85	.85
English-speaking Western international tourists after visit survey	187					.82	.84
New Zealand tourists	140	.86	.84	.83	.85		
North American tourists	124	.80	.79	.83	.83		
UK & Ireland tourists	141	.79	.83	.86	.86		
Chinese-speaking tourists from Asia	122	.82	.79	.82	.82		
Japanese-speaking tourists from Asia	119	.84	.79	.80	.80		

a: without items 14, 21, 27 & 28 due to number of missing responses

Another method indicating the appropriateness of factor analysis is a statistically significant Bartlett test of sphericity which indicates that the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al., 2006). This test is statistically significant samples and subsamples of the four cultural experience motivational process constructs, further indicating appropriateness of the data sets for factor analysis.

6.3.1. Missing Values

In this factor analysis for each of the motivational process constructs, missing values are replaced a model-based imputation method such as the expectation-maximization (EM) method recommended by Kline (2005) because it is based on the EM algorithm which is related to the maximum likelihood method and this is the most widely used estimation algorithm in SEM. As the

dimensions found in the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) are to be used in SEM confirmatory factor analyses (CFA), this is the preferred treatment of missing values.

This method is preferred to other commonly used methods such as substitution of means or with the scale median of 3.5 that could be considered to represent neither agreement nor disagreement with the statement or that the statement was not applicable to the respondent, both of which reduce the variance of variables involved. Treating missing values as listwise deletions in SPSS was not used because of the practical impact of this treatment of missing data that would reduce the sample size available for analysis. Treating missing values as pairwise deletions in SPSS was also not used in the EFA because of the practical impact in reducing the sample size and additionally this treatment of missing data has major problems when used in SEM (Byrne, 2001) and is not generally recommended for use unless the number of missing observations is small (Kline, 2005). As the dimensions derived from the EFA are to be used in SEM CFA in the next stage of analysis, these issues are relevant considerations to the missing data treatment in this study.

Incomplete data and the treatment of missing responses can pose problems, particularly if the proportion of missing responses is more than 10% (Malhotra et al., 1996). As reported in the Chapter Five descriptive analysis section on the normality of the data for each of the motivational process constructs, the largest number of missing values for any individual variable within each construct for all respondents to the *in-situ* survey (N = 961) is 5.7% which is well below the 10% problem threshold but was found for the benefits sought item 4.27: *I expect facilities for children to be provided*. Three individual variables within the benefits gained construct for all respondents to the *after visit* survey (N = 418) are closer to or greater than the 10% problem threshold: 16.5% for item 6.28 *facilities for disabled visitors were provided*; 15.1% for item 6.27 *facilities for children were provided;* and 8.9% for item 6.21 *the activities and events were delivered at promised times.* These items are eliminated as poor variables from the scale sets prior to factor analysis as discussed in the next section.

6.3.2 Minimum Sample Sizes and Elimination of Poor Variables

General rules regarding minimum sample sizes for particular types of data analysis need to be considered. While it is commonly agreed that the highest cases-per-variable ratio should be obtained to minimise the chances of "overfitting" the data by deriving factors that are sample specific with little generalisability (Hair et al., 2006), practical data collection considerations such as the cost of obtaining such sample sizes present limitations that make it difficult to achieve ideal sample sizes. Preferably the sample size should be 100 or larger, and all the samples and subsamples used in this study largely fulfil or exceed this criterion as discussed earlier in this chapter in section 6.2 on the statistical analysis methods to be used and the associated sample sizes. The only exception to this minimum sample size of 100 applies to the benefits gained construct measured by the after visit survey where the Asian tourist validation sample (N = 93) is just under this threshold. A further general rule for sample sizes and factor or multivariate analysis,

relates to the ratio between the number of cases or sample elements for every variable that is to be analysed and this was also discussed in section 6.2 of this chapter where it was noted that the sample sizes of the calibration and validation samples for English-speaking Western tourists (to be used in the EFA and CFA) allow the full questionnaire item sets for each construct to be used with a case per variable ratio of at least five for each variable, which fulfils or exceeds the recommended minimum of 5 cases (Hair et al., 2006). The Asian tourist sample for the benefits gained construct is not a limitation here, because this sample will be for used for validation of the construct measurement model derived from the EFA and CFA performed on the English-speaking Western tourist sample, and expected to comprise considerably less items than the initial 32 item set.

Preliminary variable analysis is also recommended in Likert-type scales as used to measure each of the motivational process constructs in this study, to identify any "poor" items that should be eliminated. In such scales, several items may be included to form an index with each statement assumed to represent an aspect of a common attitudinal domain (Zikmund, 2000). Item analysis should be performed to ensure that final items evoke a wide response and discriminate among those with positive and negative attitudes. Items that are poor because they lack clarity or elicit mixed response patterns should be eliminated (Zikmund, 2000). Variable analysis was undertaken by checking the descriptive analysis tables presented in Chapter Five (section 5.5) showing the normality of data for each of the items representing aspects of the four constructs. Values for the means, standard deviation, and proportion of missing values were checked to elicit item clarity and response patterns. As Likert type scale of agreement was used, items with low mean values will not be automatically eliminated.

For the attitude construct, none of the 29 items warrants elimination based on these statistical measures. Two items (2.2 and 2.5) have mean values close to the scale median of 3.5, but the standard deviation value of 1.51 for both items is towards the upper range for the attitude construct items that is between 1.08 and 1.58. Items (2.11 and 2.13) with low standard deviation have means well above the median for the scale. Item (2.12) has the largest number of missing responses in this scale set (3.5%), but that is well below the previously discussed 10% threshold.

For the motive construct, none of the 31 items warrants elimination. One item (3.30) has a mean value close to the scale median of 3.5, but the standard deviation value of 1.54 is towards the upper range for the motive construct items that is between .97 and 1.61. Items (3.1 and 3.7) with low standard deviation have mean values well above the median for the scale. Item 3.14 has the largest number of missing responses for any item in this scale set (2.3%), but this is well below the previously discussed 10% threshold.

For the benefits sought and gained constructs, none of the 32 items common to both constructs warrants elimination due to lack of variability. Two different items have a mean value close to the scale median of 3.5 in the benefits sought scale (4.11) and in the benefits gained scale (.01), but the standard deviation values (1.41 and 1.34 respectively), are towards the upper range for both

benefit constructs which is .89 to 1.58 for benefits sought, and .80 to 1.42 for benefits gained. The items in each scale with low standard deviation (item 4.31 and 4.32, respectively), have mean values well above the median for the scale. Four items warrant elimination based on the number of missing responses that is closer to or greater than the 10% problem threshold. Three of these were previously identified in section 6.3.1 because of their large number of missing responses within the benefits gained construct for all respondents to the *after visit* survey (N = 418): 16.5% for item 6.28 *facilities for disabled visitors were provided*; 15.1% for item 6.27 *facilities for children were provided;* and 8.9% for item 6.21 *the activities and events were delivered at promised times.* Further justification for the elimination of these items was the even larger proportions of missing responses found in the English-speaking Western tourist calibration (N = 169) and validation (N = 156) samples: item 28 (23.1% cf 17.3%), item 27 (21.3% cf 16%) and item 21 (13.6% cf 9%). Item 14 *gained the respect of others,* also warrants elimination as it has the next highest proportion of missing responses in the calibration sample (6.5%) and a very high proportion for the North American subsample (13.2%). The low ranking of these items by mean value also supports their elimination: item 27 ranks 10th for benefits sought and 20th for benefits gained; item 28 ranks 15th for benefits sought and 21st for benefits gained; item 21 ranks 31st for benefits sought and 21st for benefits gained; and item 14 ranks 31st for benefits sought and 21st for benefits gained; and item 14 ranks 20thfor benefits sought and 19th for benefits gained. Items eliminated from the benefits gained scale are also eliminated from the benefits sought scale as these scales have items in common with only minor wording changes.

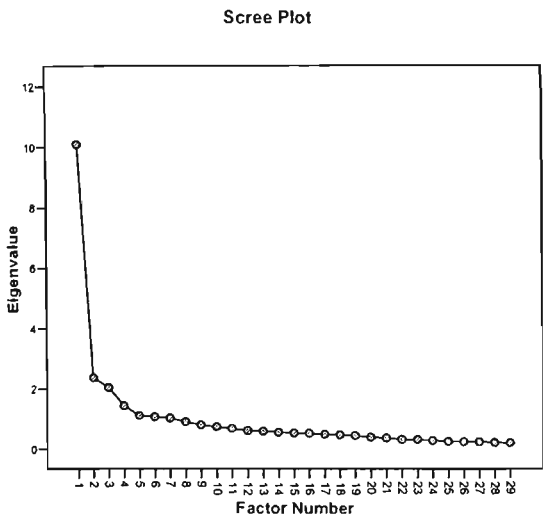
6.4 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Attitudes

6.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Attitude Dimensionality on the Calibration Sample

The EFA is conducted on the 29 items of the cultural experience attitude scale using the calibration sample (N = 362) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially seven factors are extracted for cultural experience attitudes based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but four factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.1a) and are retained in the final model with satisfactory factorial structure based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.1b).

Figure 6.1 Scree plots of EFA attitudes construct for English-speaking tourist calibration sample

6.1a



6.1b

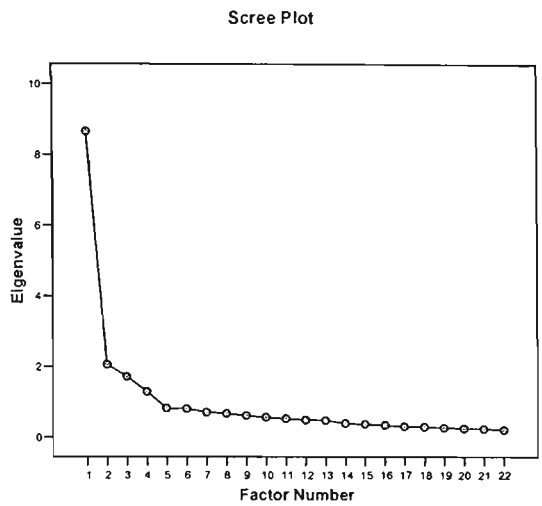


Table 6.2 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 23 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing seven items to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Various criteria for identifying and evaluating variables for possible deletion are used as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the EFA statistical analysis methods used in this study. Two items (2.13 and 2.29) are removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. Four further items (2.1, 2.3, 2.17, and 2.27) are removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. The internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficients and while the coefficients for all of four factors are .81 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006), one further item (2.8) is eliminated so that all items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations greater than 0.5 as generally recommended (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the four-factor solution accounted for 55 percent of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of squared loadings. Several of the factor intercorrelations are .30 or greater, which justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Table 6.2 EFA on calibration sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience attitudes derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors			
I like going ...		I	II	III	IV
2.15	to cultural experiences involving Australian history	**.78**	-.02	.04	-.05
2.14	to cultural performances held in historical settings	**.74**	-.09	.02	-.08
2.16	to see Australian art	**.71**	-.01	.11	-.01
2.12	to Australian aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions	**.69**	.20	.02	.04
2.11	to historic buildings, sites and monuments	**.68**	-.08	-.07	.00
2.26	to cultural experiences to learn	**.66**	-.08	.03	.12
2.9	to museums	**.64**	.03	.00	.07
2.10	to arts and cultural festivals	**.57**	.01	.18	-.02
2.23	to famous cultural places	**.55**	-.28	-.04	.18
2.18	to cultural experiences to have fun	**.44**	-.06	.04	.32
2.25	to see famous shows performed	.02	**-.97**	.02	-.03
2.24	to see famous performers/entertainers	.01	**-.71**	.08	.10
2.4	to the ballet	-.05	.02	**.84**	.01
2.5	to dance performances	.07	-.04	**.71**	.07
2.6	to the opera	.04	.03	**.68**	-.02
2.2	to classical music performances	.21	.06	**.56**	-.00
2.7	to theatrical performances of written stories	.06	-.20	**.48**	-.01
2.21	to cultural experiences because local people attend	-.00	.07	.12	**.82**
2.20	to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	-.02	-.04	-.00	**.81**
2.19	to cultural experiences to make others happy	-.04	-.03	-.01	**.65**
2.22	to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	.29	-.13	-.02	**.51**
2.28	to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	.33	-.04	-.00	**.41**
Reliability Alpha		.91	.85	.81	.84
Factor intercorrelations					
Factor I: Art, history and culture interaction					
Factor II: Famous culture		-.30			
Factor III: Traditional performing arts		.50	-.24		
Factor IV: Positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences		.55	-.40	.30	
Percentage of explained variance		30.57	12.82	6.88	4.71
Eigenvalue after rotation		7.13	3.11	4.38	5.21

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .40 are shown in bold type. $N = 362$

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 7 iterations

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.2, shows four interpretable cultural experience attitude factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. Factors two and three are based entirely of items consisting of different types of cultural experiences that were developed by expanding and adapting the arts enthusiast scale: factor two comprises two items consistent with liking famous cultural experiences and factor three comprises five items consistent with liking traditional performing arts. The first factor comprises 10 items consistent with liking art, culture and history interaction: eight concern a liking for different types of cultural experiences, including those involving Australian art, history and culture; and two concern a liking for attending these types of cultural experiences to learn and have fun. The fourth factor comprises five items consistent with liking cultural experiences that have positive word-of-mouth either as recommended cultural experiences, ones that friends and family have done or because local people attend. Of the eight commonly sought psychological motive or

benefit items, respondents did not express an association for one item: *a liking for going to cultural experiences for a sense of escaping into another world and getting away from it all.*

6.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Attitude Dimensionality on the Validation Sample

One-factor congeneric models using maximum likelihood CFAs are initially evaluated for the four hypothesised cultural experience attitude latent constructs of liking art, culture and history interaction; famous culture, traditional performing arts, and positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences derived from the EFA. Multiple criteria for assessing goodness-of-fit of the models are applied and multiple strategies for identifying possible model respecification are used to improve the model fit if required, as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the CFA statistical analysis methods used in this study.

The one-factor model for the construct of liking art, history and culture interaction, initially reveals poor fit of the data to the model statistically, χ^2 (35, *N*= 358) = 260.49, *p* = .000, and practically with RMSEA = .13 (.12; .15), TLI = .79, CFI = .84, GFI = .87, AGFI = .80 and SRMR = .07. Good fit of the data for the construct is achieved after removing four items relating to different types of cultural experiences: item 2.15 *to cultural experiences involving Australian history* because it is highly correlated with two other items indicating considerable overlap in measurement between these items; item 2.9 *to museums* as the item with the lower model weight loading within a pair of variables with *t*-value greater than ±2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating the model was not explaining the association between these variables; and items 2.23 *to famous cultural places* and 2.12 *to Australian Aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions* based on modification indices error term correlation recommendations. The resultant fit of the English-speaking tourist data to the model is excellent statistically,χ^2 (9, *N*= 358) = 16.10, *p* = .065, and practically with RMSEA = .05 (.00; .08), TLI = .98, CFI = .99, GFI = .99, AGFI = .97 and SRMR = .03.

The two-item liking famous culture construct is evaluated as a two-factor model with the liking art and history interaction latent construct. Although the two-factor model is statistically significant, χ^2 (19, *N*= 358) = 32.36, *p*= .028, this data is an excellent fit to the model for the other fit indices, RMSEA = .04 (.01; .07), TLI = .98, CFI = .98, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, and SRMR = .03. The liking for traditional performing arts construct is also evaluated as a two-factor model with the liking art and history interaction latent construct after the initial five-item construct is reduced to a three-item construct following the removal of item 2.5 *to dance performances* based on high correlations with other traditional performing arts items and a *t*-value greater than ±2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating the model was not explaining the association between these variables; and the removal of item 2.6 *to the opera* based on modification indices error term correlation recommendations. Although the two-factor model is statistically significant, χ^2 (26, *N*= 358) = 52.80,

p = .001, this data is an excellent fit to the model for the other fit indices, RMSEA = .05 (.03; .08), TLI = .95, CFI = .97, GFI = .97, AGFI = .95, and SRMR = .04.

Acceptable fit of the data for the construct of liking positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences is achieved after removing the item 2.19 *to cultural experiences to make others happy* based on modification indices error term correlation recommendations and this item having the lowest standardised estimate model weight loading. The resultant fit is acceptable both statistically χ^2 (2, N= 358) = .363, p = .834, and practically with RMSEA = .00 (.00; .06), TLI = 1.01, CFI = 1.00, GFI = .99, AGFI = .99 and SRMR = .006.

Scree plots for all four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the factors comprising six-, two-, three-, and four-items respectively are .79, .84, .69, and .79, all of which are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006).

A four-factor independent cluster measurement model comprising latent variables for liking art and history interaction; famous culture, traditional performing arts, positive word-of-mouth, is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs as hypothesized from the CFAs. The correlations between the four constructs in the full measurement model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

The initial data fit to the model is not acceptable as the model is statistically significant: χ^2 (84, N= 358) = 258.78, p= .000, and practically, several of the fit indices are less than the recommended .90 threshold measure, GFI = .92, AGFI = .88, TLI = .88, CFI = .90, although the RMSEA = .08 (.07; .09), and the SRMR = .06 are acceptable. The model is respecified with two items (2.18 and 2.26) eliminated one at a time from the art and history construct based on t-values greater than $\pm$2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix. The resultant data fit to the model is still statistically significant, χ^2 (59, N= 358) = 142.09, p = .000, but the fit is excellent for the other fit indices, GFI = .94, AGFI = .91, TLI = .92, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06 (.05; .08), and the SRMR = .05. The model is also more parsimonious with a normed chi-square ratio of 2.4.

The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.3. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective four factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .56 to a high of .94. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the four cultural experience attitude factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.2). The factor, liking art and history, has correlation of .59, .69 and .35 respectively with the factors, liking positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences, traditional performing arts and famous culture. The liking positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences factor has correlation of .48 and .36

respectively with the factors, liking traditional performing arts and famous culture. The correlation between these latter two factors is .33.

Table 6.3 CFA on validation sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience attitudes

Questionnaire Item **I like going ...**		**Factors**							
		Art and history		**Positive word-of-mouth**		**Traditional performing arts**		**Famous culture**	
		P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
2.14	to cultural performances held in historical settings	.72	.72	0[a]	.43	0[a]	.50	0[a]	.26
2.16	to see Australian art	.66	.66	0[a]	.39	0[a]	.46	0[a]	.24
2.11	to historic buildings, sites and monuments	.57	.57	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.39	0[a]	.20
2.10	to arts and cultural festivals	.70	.70	0[a]	.41	0[a]	.48	0[a]	.25
2.21	to cultural experiences because local people attend	0[a]	.43	.72	.72	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.26
2.20	to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	0[a]	.42	.70	.70	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.25
2.22	to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	0[a]	.42	.71	.71	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.26
2.28	to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	0[a]	.33	.56	.56	0[a]	.27	0[a]	.20
2.4	To the ballet	0[a]	.46	0[a]	.32	.66	.66	0[a]	.22
2.2	to classical music performances	0[a]	.44	0[a]	.30	.63	.63	0[a]	.21
2.7	to theatrical performances of written stories	0[a]	.46	0[a]	.32	.67	.67	0[a]	.22
2.25	to see famous shows performed	0[a]	.27	0[a]	.28	0[a]	.25	.77	.77
2.24	to see famous performers/entertainers	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.31	.94	.94

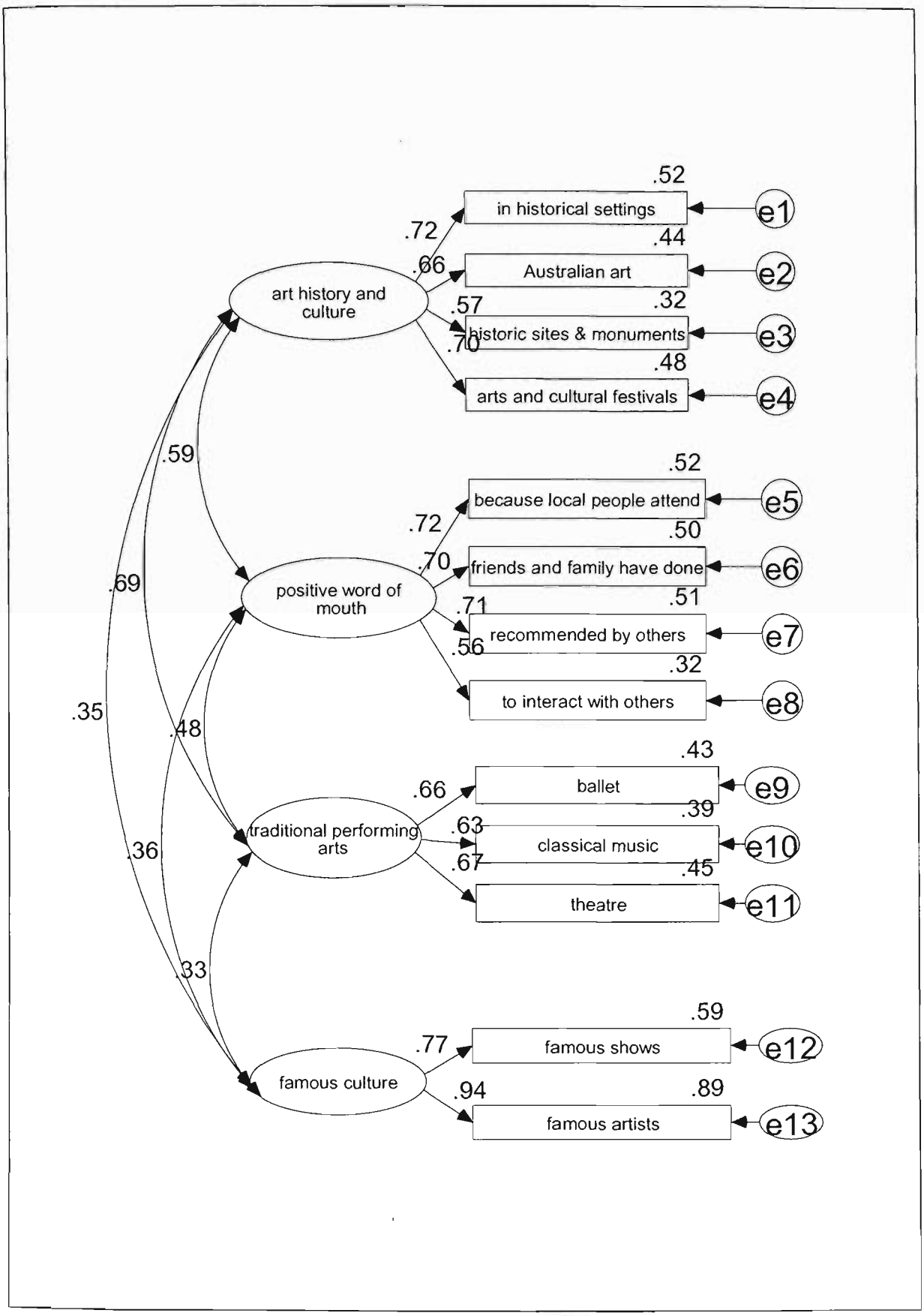
Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 358. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Four dimensions for cultural experience attitudes were derived from the EFA (i.e., liking art, culture and history interaction; famous culture; traditional performing arts; and positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences). Results of the CFAs validate a similar structure of four dimensions for the final hypothesized measurement model for cultural experience attitudes except for the liking art, culture and history interaction latent construct that required model respecification involving the removal of the interaction related items of to learn and to have fun and therefore an associated name change to liking art and history.

The resultant four dimensions in the full measurement model are also consistent with some theoretical formulations. Three dimensions are consistent with liking for different types of cultural experiences (art and history; traditional performing arts; and famous culture) and the other dimension comprises several commonly found socio-psychologically-based items consistent with a liking for positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences.

Figure 6.2 Hypothesised model of cultural experience attitudes for CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists



Theoretical formulations for the importance of word-of-mouth communications and referrals for marketing purposes, especially for intangible service experiences such as tourism and cultural experiences, are widely found in the marketing literature (e.g., Kotler, 1997), the services marketing

literature (e.g., Haywood, 1989), the tourism marketing literature (e.g., Kotler et al., 2006) and the arts marketing literature (e.g., Kotler and Scheff, 1997). Recent focus group research of convenience sampled visitors to art museums in the United States (Geissler et al., 2006) further highlights the importance of word-of-mouth communications in the initial decision to visit a particular art museum with many people relying on friends and family members to provide information and opinions about these types of cultural experiences.

All four cultural experience attitude dimensions have implications for market segmentation and marketing strategies as demonstrated by the liking for going to positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences. The other three attitude dimensions highlight particular types of cultural experiences liked by tourists that should be featured in marketing campaigns. The liking for famous culture dimension has an additional marketing implication as it emphasizes the importance of branding via brand names, brand image and unique features. This was also highlighted in the recent focus group research of convenience sampled visitors to art museums in the United States (Geissler et al., 2006) that found an art museum's name and image were very important considerations when deciding whether to visit. Participants also felt that it was appropriate to "market" an art museum as a brand in order to distinguish one art museum from another, to establish a brand name and to tell people what you offer and how it is unique (Geissler et al., 2006).

6.4.3 Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Attitudes Model for English-speaking tourists

To test hypothesis two that there is not a significant difference between different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists for the cultural experience attitude construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience attitudes model derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is undertaken. Results of the four-factor measurement model for cultural experience attitudes (Figure 6.2) assessed separately for each group of English-speaking tourists, establish structural similarity and excellent fit of the data to the model on most fit indices for each group (see lines 1 to 4, Table 6.4).

Table 6.4 Invariance testing on validation sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience attitudes for four English-speaking tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Domestic (Australia)	139.57	59	.000	.94	.91	.93	.95	.07	.05, .08	.05
New Zealand	79.08	59	.042	.92	.88	.96	.97	.05	.01, .08	.06
North America	94.40	59	.002	.90	.85	.91	.93	.07	.04, .10	.06
UK and Ireland	84.67	59	.016	.91	.87	.93	.95	.06	.03, .08	.07
Baseline	397.88	236	.000	.92	.88	.93	.95	.03	.03, .04	.07
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	419.97	263	.000	.92	.89	.94	.95	.03	.02, .03	.07

Note: Domestic (Australia) (N= 315); New Zealanders (*N* = 140); North Americans (*N* = 124); tourists from UK and Ireland (*N* = 141)

Although the hypothesised model is statistically significant for all groups, all other indices show practical fit is excellent except for the AGFI that is below the .90 threshold for all groups. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.4 (line 5), the χ^2 value of 397.88, with 236 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of .95 and .03 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience attitudes has excellent fit for the baseline model.

Having established excellent fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the four groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.4 (lines 5 and 6), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of 22.09 with 27 degrees of freedom, which is not statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints hold across the four groups for factor loadings and no further tests of factor loadings are needed to pinpoint the location of any non-invariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are equivalent (invariant) across the four English-speaking tourist groups.

6.4.4 Validation and Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Attitudes Measurement Model for the Asian Tourist Sample

To test hypothesis one that there is significant difference between Western and Asian tourists for the cultural experience attitude construct, the hypothesised four-factor independent cluster measurement model for cultural experience attitudes derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is tested for the Asian tourist sample (N = 241). The model is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs of liking art and history; famous culture, traditional performing arts, and positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences. The correlations between the four constructs in the model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

Although significant difference between Western and Asian tourists is hypothesised, the initial data fit to the model is acceptable. The model is statistically significant: χ^2 (59, N= 241) = 123.37, p= .000, but the data is an acceptable fit to the model for the other fit indices, GFI = .93, AGFI = .89, TLI = .92, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .07 (.05; .08), and the SRMR = .05.

The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.5. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective four factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .56 to a high of .90. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the four cultural experience attitude factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.3 at end of chapter). The factor, liking art and history, has correlation of .50, .64 and .40 respectively with the factors, liking positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences, traditional performing arts and

famous culture. The liking positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences factor has correlation of .47 and .62 respectively with the factors, liking traditional performing arts and famous culture. The correlation between these latter two factors is .35.

Table 6.5 Validation of CFA cultural experience attitudes model with Asian tourist sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the four factors

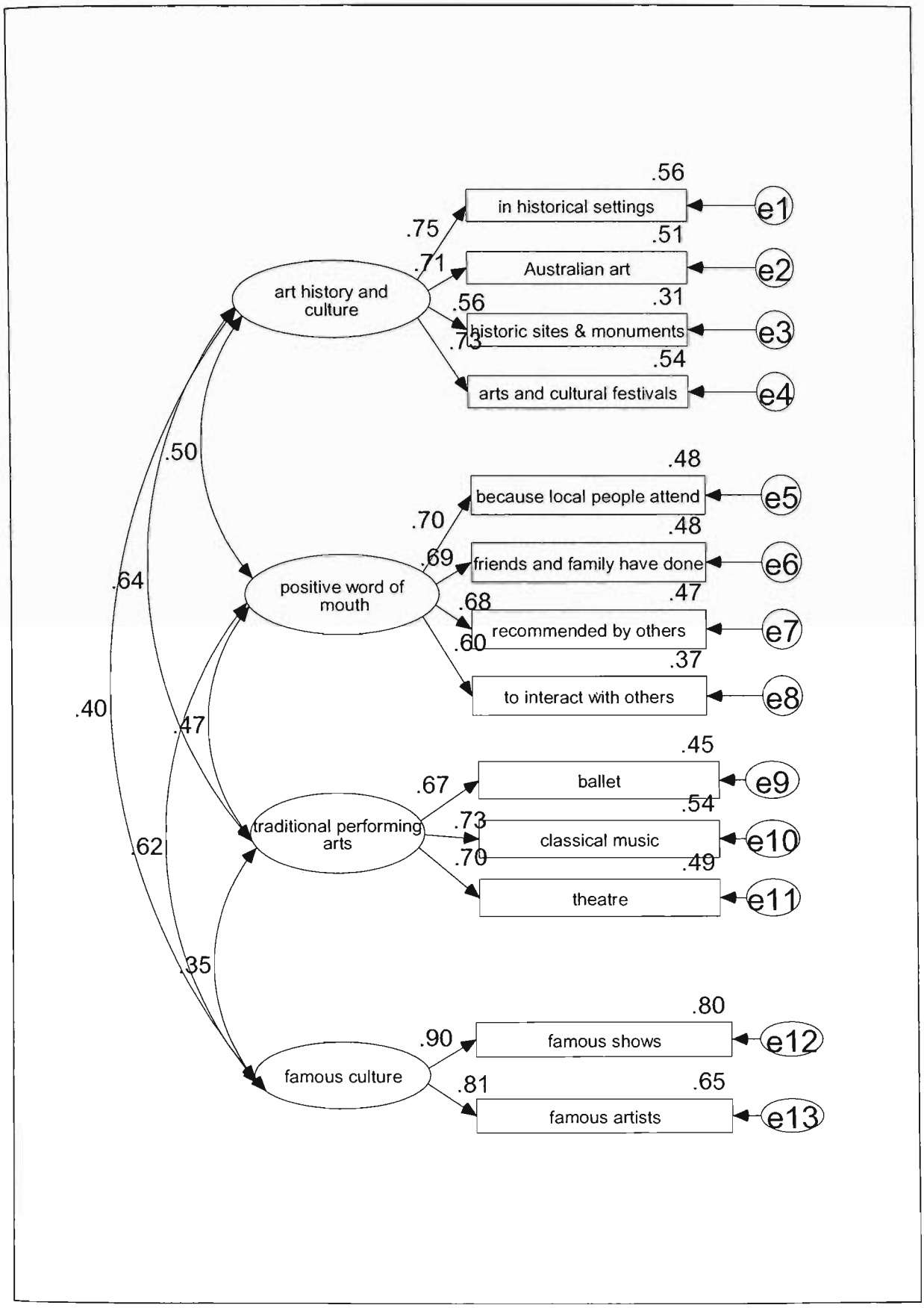
Questionnaire Item		Factors							
		Art and history		**Positive word-of-mouth**		**Traditional performing arts**		**Famous culture**	
I like going ...		P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
2.14	to cultural performances held in historical settings	.75	.75	0[a]	.38	0[a]	.48	0[a]	.30
2.16	to see Australian art	.71	.71	0[a]	.36	0[a]	.46	0[a]	.29
2.11	to historic buildings, sites and monuments	.56	.56	0[a]	.28	0[a]	.36	0[a]	.22
2.10	to arts and cultural festivals	.73	.73	0[a]	.37	0[a]	.47	0[a]	.29
2.21	to cultural experiences because local people attend	0[a]	.35	.70	.70	0[a]	.33	0[a]	.43
2.20	to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	0[a]	.35	.69	.69	0[a]	.33	0[a]	.43
2.22	to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	0[a]	.34	.68	.68	0[a]	.32	0[a]	.42
2.28	to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	0[a]	.30	.61	.61	0[a]	.29	0[a]	.38
2.4	To the ballet	0[a]	.43	0[a]	.32	.67	.67	0[a]	.23
2.2	to classical music performances	0[a]	.47	0[a]	.35	.73	.73	0[a]	.26
2.7	to theatrical performances of written stories	0[a]	.45	0[a]	.33	.70	.70	0[a]	.24
2.25	to see famous shows performed	0[a]	.36	0[a]	.56	0[a]	.31	.90	.90
2.24	to see famous performers/entertainers	0[a]	.32	0[a]	.50	0[a]	.28	.81	.81

Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 358. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Scree plots for each of the four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the four-item factors of liking art and history, and positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences, the three-item traditional performing arts factor, and the two-item famous culture factor are respectively .79, .86, .74, and 84, all of which are above the .70 threshold.

Figure 6.3 Hypothesised model of cultural experience attitudes from CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists for international Asian tourists



To test hypothesis three that there is significant difference between Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists for the cultural experience attitude construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience attitudes model for Asian tourists is undertaken. Results of the four-factor

measurement model for cultural experience attitudes (Figure 6.3) assessed separately for each group of Asian tourists, establish structural similarity and an acceptable fit of the data to the model on most fit indices for each group (see lines 1 and 2, Table 6.6). Although the hypothesised model is statistically significant for both groups, other indices show practical fit is acceptable. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.6 (line 3), the χ^2 value of 195.90, with 118 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of .93 and .05 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience attitudes has acceptable fit for the baseline model.

Table 6.6 Invariance testing on Asian international tourist sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience attitudes for two Asian tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Chinese-speaking	85.85	59	.013	.90	.85	.92	.94	.06	.03, .09	.06
Japanese-speaking	110.04	59	.000	.88	.82	.90	.92	.09	.06, .11	.07
Baseline	195.90	118	.000	.89	.83	.91	.93	.05	.04, .07	.07
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	203.85	127	.000	.89	.84	.92	.93	.05	.04, .06	.07

Note: Chinese-speaking Asian international tourists (N= 122); Japanese-speaking Asian international tourists (N= 119)

Having established excellent fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the two groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.6 (lines 3 and 4), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of 7.95 with 9 degrees of freedom, which is not statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints hold across the two groups for factor loadings and no further tests of factor loadings are needed to pinpoint the location of any noninvariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are equivalent (invariant) across the two Asian tourist groups.

6.4.5 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Attitudes Summary Discussion

It was hypothesised that there are significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for the dimensionality of the cultural experience attitudes construct. It was further hypothesised that the dimensionality would not be significantly different for different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists, but would be significantly different for different language cultural groups of Asian tourists. There was no evidence to support the significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for cultural experience attitudes dimensionality. The Asian sample validated the four-factor measurement model derived from the Western tourist sample.

The resultant four dimensions in the cultural experience attitudes model are liking art and history, positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences, traditional performing arts and famous culture. These

dimensions are consistent with some theoretical formulations as discussed in section 6.4.2 where their marketing implications are also raised. A summation of the four attitude dimensions found in this study is that three are consistent with a liking of different types of cultural experiences (art and history; traditional performing arts; and famous culture) and the other dimension comprises several commonly found socio-psychologically-based items consistent with a liking for positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences.

Evidence from the invariance testing of different cultural groups within the Western tourists and the Asian tourists, supports equivalence of the factor configural structure and metric invariance of the factor loadings indicating that the cultural groups are calibrating the items in a similar fashion, for different cultural groups of both Western and Asian tourists. This was hypothesised for the English-speaking Western tourists but does not confirm the hypothesised finding for the Asian tourists that there are significant differences between dimensionality of the cultural experience attitude construct for Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists.

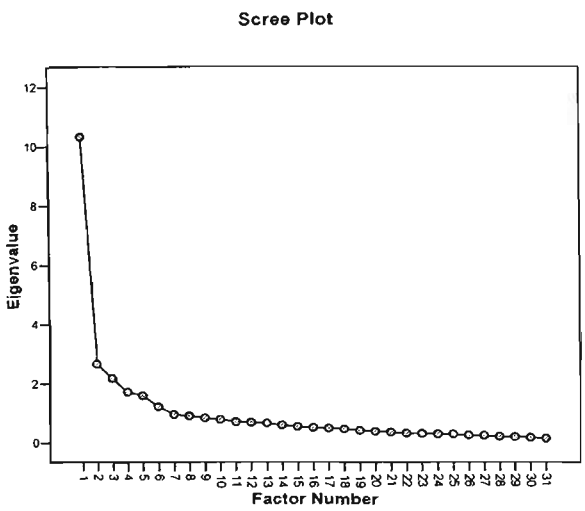
6.5 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Motives

6.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motive Dimensionality on the Calibration Sample

The EFA is conducted on the 31 items of the cultural experience motive scale using the calibration sample (N = 362) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially six factors are extracted for cultural experience motives based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but five factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.4a) that are further reduced to a final model of four factors based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.4b) with satisfactory factorial structure.

Figure 6.4 Scree plots of EFA motives construct for English-speaking tourist calibration sample

6.4a



6.4b

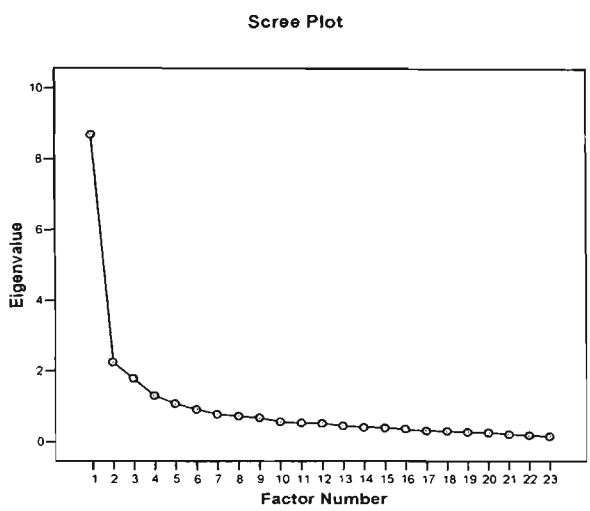


Table 6.7 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 19 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing 12 items to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Various criteria for identifying and evaluating variables for possible deletion are used as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the EFA statistical analysis methods used in this study. One item (3.14) is removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. Four items (3.6, 3.9, 3.8, and 3.10) are removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. Two factors are specified based on the scree plot and the internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficients. While the coefficients for all two factors are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006), one further item (3.24) is eliminated so that all items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations greater than 0.5 as generally recommended (Hair et al., 2006). One item (3.23) is then removed for low communality value below 0.2 and a further five items (3.25, 3.18, 3.5, 3.22, and 3.1) are removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. Three factors are specified based on the scree plot after the removal of items 3.24, 3.23, and 3.25 and then four factors are specified (see Figure 6.4) after the removal of items 3.5, 3.22 and 3.1. The internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficients and the coefficients for all four factors are .83 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the four-factor solution accounts for 57% of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of squared loadings. Several of the factor intercorrelations are .30 or greater, which justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Table 6.7 EFA on calibration sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience motives derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors			
I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...		**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	**.70**	.07	.05	-.14
3.17	to forget about demands of daily life	**.59**	.18	.19	.07
3.19	to satisfy my curiosity	**.47**	.09	.12	-.27
3.7	to do something I want to do	**.46**	.31	-.08	-.23
3.29	to have a high quality experience	**.42**	.19	.18	-.17
3.3	to relax physically	-.08	**.94**	.01	.00
3.4	to relax mentally	.05	**.88**	.00	.03
3.2	to be entertained by others	.15	**.50**	.03	-.05
3.26	to demonstrate my ability to travel	-.04	-.12	**.75**	-.12
3.27	to go somewhere safe	.23	.08	**.69**	.13
3.30	to buy goods and souvenirs	-.04	.08	**.62**	.06
3.28	to get value for money	.35	-.05	**.60**	.12
3.31	to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	.03	.01	**.53**	-.13
3.21	to enhance my social position	-.18	.19	**.51**	-.06
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	.11	.02	**.45**	-.22
3.11	to learn about local culture	.04	-.03	.03	**-.91**
3.12	to learn about local history	.05	-.02	.03	**-.88**
3.13	to learn about local performing arts	-.05	.09	.11	**-.69**
3.15	to enjoy something unique to the destination	.41	.09	-.13	**-.43**
Reliability Alpha		.85	.83	.83	.87
Factor intercorrelations					
Factor I: Novelty					
Factor II: Relaxation		.43			
Factor III: Safe consumption		.32	.40		
Factor IV: Learn local culture		-.41	-.39	-.28	
Percentage of explained variance		35.63	8.02	8.15	4.82
Eigenvalue after rotation		4.27	4.37	4.19	4.36

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .42 are shown in bold type. $N = 362$

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 20 iterations

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.7, shows four interpretable cultural experience motive factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. Three of the factors are based on 12 of the 29 socio-physio-psychologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found motives for attending cultural-related attractions and events. Two factors comprise largely psychologically-based items for going to cultural experiences while travelling: factor one comprises five items consistent with novelty-related motives, and factor four comprises four items consistent with learning-related motives. Another factor comprises three items consistent with psycho-socio-physiologically-based, relaxation-related motives. The other factor in the solution comprises seven items consistent with safe consumption: two attribute-related and five socio-physio-psychologically-related items. This factor solution of largely psychologically- or experiential-related dimensions reflects the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996), although the inclusion of two attribute-based motives in one factor within the EFA solution is noted.

6.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Motives Dimensionality on the Validation Sample

One-factor congeneric models using maximum likelihood CFAs are initially evaluated for the four hypothesised cultural experience motive latent constructs of novelty, relaxation, safe consumption, and learn local culture derived from the EFA. Multiple criteria for assessing goodness-of-fit of the models are applied and multiple strategies for identifying possible model respecification are used to improve the model fit if required, as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the CFA statistical analysis methods used in this study.

The one-factor model for the construct of novelty initially reveals acceptable fit of the data to the model except statistically it is significant, χ^2 (5, *N*= 358) = 19.78, *p* = .001, and practically, other than a poor RMSEA = .09 (.05; .14), all of the fit indices are above the .90 threshold with TLI = .93, CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .93 and SRMR = .04. Excellent fit of the data for the construct is achieved after removing item 3.29 *to have a high quality experience* as one of a pair of variables with a *t*-value greater than ±2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating the model was not explaining the association between these variables and modification indices indicated correlating this items error term with three other items in the model. The resultant fit of the English-speaking tourist data to the model is excellent statistically,χ^2 (2, *N*= 358) = 3.37, *p* = .185, and practically with RMSEA = .04 (.00; .12), TLI = .99, CFI = .99, GFI = .99, AGFI = .98 and SRMR = .02. The three-item relaxation construct is evaluated as a two-factor model with the novelty latent construct. Although the two-factor model is statistically significant, χ^2 (13, *N*= 358) = 47.40, *p*= .000, this data is an acceptable fit to the model for the other fit indices, TLI = .94, CFI = .96, GFI = .96, AGFI = .92, RMSEA = .09 (.06; .011), and SRMR = .06.

Excellent fit of the data for the construct of safe consumption is achieved after removing two items: 3.28 *to get value for money* as one of several pairs of variables with a *t*-value greater than ±2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix; and item 3.26 *to demonstrate my ability to travel* as one of several pairs of items with high correlations greater than 1.0 in the sample covariance matrix indicating some item redundancy or multicollinearity. The resultant fit is excellent both statistically χ^2 (5, *N*= 358) = 8.702, *p* = .122, and practically with TLI = .98, CFI = .99, GFI = .99, AGFI = .97, RMSEA = .05 (.00; .10), and SRMR = .02.

The four-item learn local culture construct is evaluated as a one-factor model congeneric model and the data fit to the model is excellent statistically, χ^2 (2, *N*= 358) = 1.493, *p*= .474, and practically, TLI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, GFI = .99, AGFI = .99, RMSEA = .00 (.00; .10), and SRMR = .01.

Scree plots for all four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the factors comprising four-, two-, five-, and four-items respectively are .74, .82, .76, and .87, all of which are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006).

A four-factor independent cluster measurement model comprising latent variables for liking art and history interaction; famous culture, traditional performing arts, positive word-of-mouth, is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs as hypothesized from the CFAs. The correlations between the four constructs in the full measurement model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

The initial data fit to the model is not acceptable as the model is statistically significant, χ^2 (98, N= 358) = 299.65, p= .000, and practically, several of the fit indices are less than the recommended .90 threshold measure, GFI = .91, AGFI = .87, TLI = .89, CFI = .92, although the RMSEA = .08 (.07; .09), and the SRMR = .07 are acceptable. The model is respecified with four items (3.15, 3.7, 3.27 and 3.19) eliminated one at a time based largely on t-values greater than $\pm$2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix. Although the resultant data fit to the model is still statistically significant, χ^2 (48, N= 358) = 83.60, p = .001, the fit is excellent for the other fit indices, GFI = .96, AGFI = .94, TLI = .97, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .05 (.03; .06), and the SRMR = .04. The model is also more parsimonious with a normed chi-square ratio of 1.7.

The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.8. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective four factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .52 to a high of .92. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the four cultural experience motive factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.5). The factor, social consumption, has correlation of .52, .31 and .25 respectively with the factors, novelty, learn local culture and relaxation. The novelty factor has correlation of .32 and .57 respectively with the factors, learn local culture and relaxation. The correlation between these latter two factors is .35.

Scree plots for each of the four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the four-item social consumption factor, the three-item factors of learn local culture and relaxation, and the two-item novelty factor are respectively .74, .87, .82, and .77, all of which are above the .70 threshold.

Figure 6.5 Hypothesised model of cultural experience motives for CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists

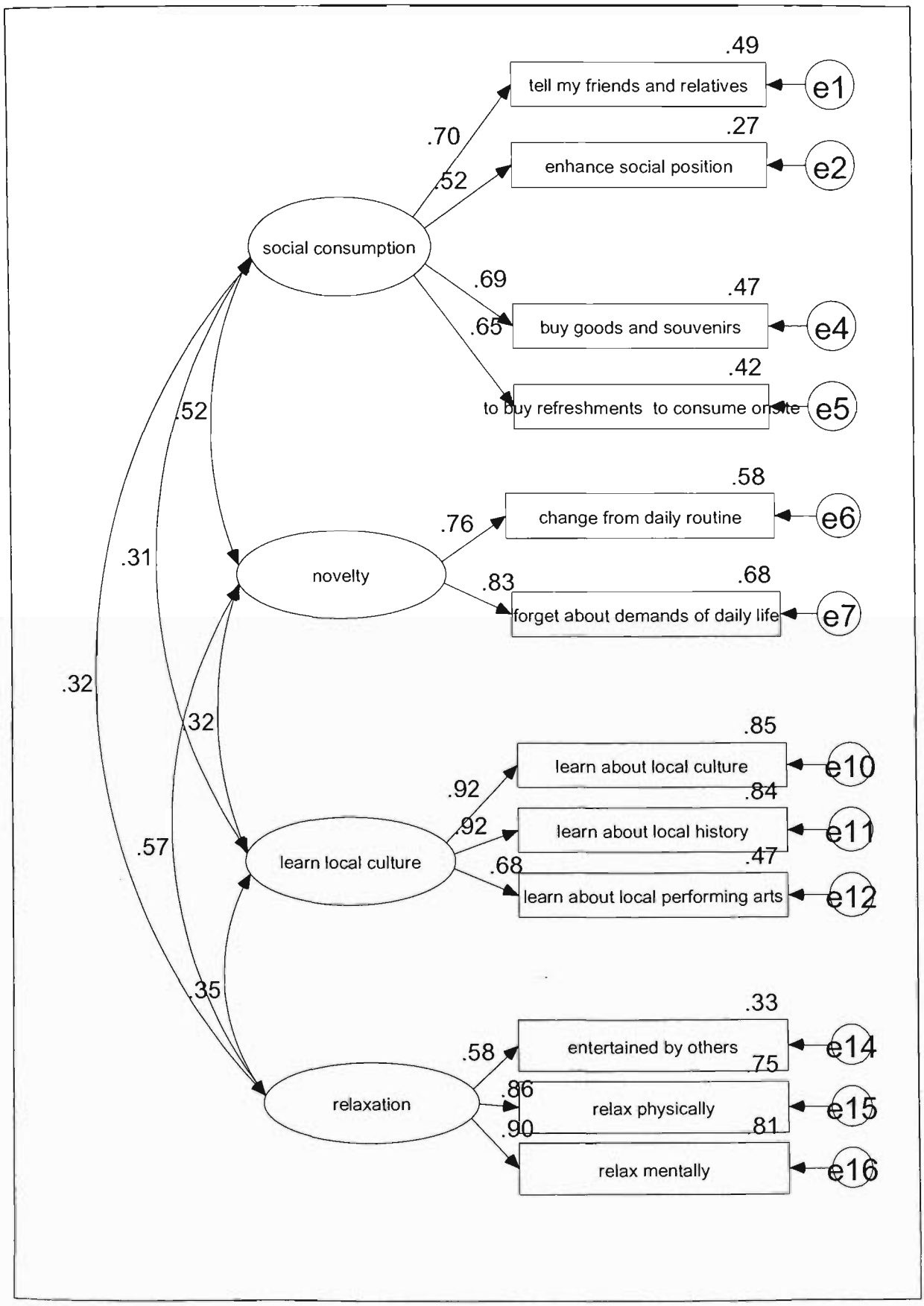


Table 6.8 CFA on validation sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience motives

Questionnaire Item		Factors							
I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...		**Social consumption**		**Novelty**		**Learn local culture**		**Relaxation**	
		P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	.70	.70	0[a]	.36	0[a]	.22	0[a]	.23
3.21	to enhance my social position	.52	.52	0[a]	.27	0[a]	.16	0[a]	.17
3.30	to buy goods and souvenirs	.69	.69	0[a]	.36	0[a]	.21	0[a]	.22
3.31	to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	.65	.65	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.20	0[a]	.21
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	0[a]	.40	.77	.77	0[a]	.25	0[a]	.44
3.17	to forget about demands of daily life	0[a]	.43	.83	.83	0[a]	.27	0[a]	.47
3.11	to learn about local culture	0[a]	.29	0[a]	.30	.92	.92	0[a]	.32
3.12	to learn about local history	0[a]	.28	0[a]	.29	.92	.92	0[a]	.32
3.13	to learn about local performing arts	0[a]	.21	0[a]	.22	.68	.68	0[a]	.24
3.2	to be entertained by others	0[a]	.19	0[a]	.33	0[a]	.20	.58	.58
3.3	to relax physically	0[a]	.28	0[a]	.49	0[a]	.30	.86	.86
3.4	to relax mentally	0[a]	.29	0[a]	.51	0[a]	.31	.90	.90

Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 358. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Four motive dimensions for attending cultural attractions and events while traveling were derived from the EFA (i.e., novelty; relaxation; safe consumption; learn local culture). Results of the CFAs validate a similar structure of four dimensions for the final hypothesized measurement model for cultural experience motives except for the safe consumption latent construct that required model respecification involving the removal of the going somewhere safe item and therefore an associated name change to social consumption. The resultant four dimensions in the full measurement model are also consistent with some theoretical formulations. Two factors are consistent with going to cultural attractions and events while traveling for the largely psychologically-based motives consistent with novelty and learning which are commonly found motives or benefits in other research of cultural and tourism experiences (for a summary of commonly found dimensions see Kay, 2006a). A third factor is consistent with physio-psychologically-based motives of relaxation (physically and mentally), and relaxation has also been commonly found in cultural experience motivation research. The fourth factor combines social prestige and word-of-mouth psychologically-based motives with cultural experience attribute-based motives of buying goods and souvenirs and consuming refreshments at the cultural experience.

While social prestige is a commonly found motive for attending cultural experiences, this latter factor contrasts with the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcomes (Tian et al., 1996), by validating the retention of the two attribute-based motives within the social consumption dimension. This research finding is similar to other recent research of art museum experiences (Geissler et al., 2006) and performing arts experiences (Swanson and Davis, 2006), which also acknowledge the importance of some ancillary services and their quality to the cultural experience. The provision of cafes or coffee shops was considered to enhance the sociable aspect of the art museum

experience in recent focus group research of convenience sampled visitors to art museums in the United States (Geissler et al., 2006). Similarly, recent exploratory factor analysis research of performing arts audience members in the United States included attribute importance items for evaluating the quality of the experience at live performances and found an ancillary quality dimension that included food quality and gift shop item prices (Swanson and Davis, 2006). The other important item within this social consumption motive dimension, is going to cultural experiences to tell others about them, and this finding is supported by theoretical formulations that have been identified in previous research of tourist motives and benefits dimensionality at cultural or other types of experiences, whereby either a separate 'show and tell' dimension has been found (e.g., Lang and O'Leary, 1997) or a similar item is found within a related dimension (e.g., Weaver et al., 2002).

The combination of learning and hedonic-entertainment-consumption related dimensions found in this study is supported by substantive theoretical formulations in cultural and other tourism motivation and benefits related literature (e.g., Eastgate et al., 2006; Kay, 2006a). Furthermore, recent qualitative research of art museum visitors (Geissler et al., 2006) endorses the widely acknowledged perception that cultural experiences offer 'edutainment' – a unique blend of education and entertainment. In turn, the four cultural experience motive dimensions of novelty, social consumption, learn local culture, relaxation and their combinations, have extensive marketing implications, especially in terms of market segmentation, positioning, product development, branding, programming and packaging, and communication campaigns and strategies.

6.5.3 Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Motives Model for English-speaking tourists

To test hypothesis two that there is not a significant difference between different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists for the cultural experience motive construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience motives model derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is undertaken. Results of the four-factor measurement model for cultural experience motives (Figure 6.5) assessed separately for each group of English-speaking tourists, establish structural similarity and excellent fit of the data to the model for each group (see lines 1 to 4, Table 6.9) on most fit indices. Although the hypothesised model is statistically significant for all groups, all other indices show practical fit is excellent except for the AGFI that is below the .90 threshold for all groups. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.9 (line 5), the χ^2 value of 388.97, with 192 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of .95 and .06 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience attitudes has excellent fit for the baseline model.

Table 6.9 Invariance testing on validation sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience motives for four English-speaking tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Domestic (Australia)	136.18	48	.000	.93	.89	.95	.94	.08	.06, .09	.06
New Zealand	91.22	48	.000	.91	.85	.92	.94	.08	.06, .11	.07
North America	79.20	48	.003	.91	.85	.92	.95	.07	.04, .10	.07
UK and Ireland	82.22	48	.002	.92	.86	.93	.95	.07	.04, .10	.07
Baseline	388.97	192	.000	.92	.87	.93	.95	.04	.03, .04	.06
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	436.79	216	.000	.91	.87	.93	.94	.04	.03, .04	.06

Note: Domestic (Australia) (N= 315); New Zealanders (*N* = 140); North Americans (*N* = 124); tourists from UK and Ireland (*N* = 141)

Having established excellent fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the four groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.9 (lines 5 and 6), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of 47.82 with 24 degrees of freedom, which is statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints do not hold across the four groups for factor loadings and further tests of factor loadings are needed to pinpoint the location of any noninvariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are not equivalent (noninvariant) across the four English-speaking tourist groups.

6.5.4 Validation and Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Motives Measurement Model for the Asian Tourist Sample

To test hypothesis one that there is significant difference between Western and Asian tourists for the cultural experience motive construct, the hypothesised four-factor independent cluster measurement model for cultural experience motives derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is tested for the Asian tourist sample (N = 241). The model is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs of social consumption, novelty, learn local culture, and relaxation. The correlations between the four constructs in the model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

Significant difference between Western and Asian tourists is hypothesised and the fit of the Asian tourist data to the four-factor measurement motives model is initially poor. The model is statistically significant, χ^2 (59, *N*= 241) = 123.37, *p*= .000, and other than an acceptable SRMR = .08, the data is a poor fit to the model for all of the other fit indices, GFI = .89, AGFI = .82, TLI = .85, CFI = .89, and RMSEA = .11 (.09; 12). Acceptable fit of the data to the model is achieved following the removal of three items: item 3.2 from the relaxation construct, item 3.13 from the learn local culture construct, and item 3.31 from the social consumption construct. The resultant fit of the data to the

model is still statistically significant, $\chi^2(21, N= 241) = 34.96$, $p= .029$, but excellent for all of the other fit indices, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94, TLI = .97, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .05 (.02; 08) and SRMR = .04. The novelty construct is retained despite item 3.17 to *forget about demands of daily life* having a negative error term (e7) and a regression weight loading of 1.03.

The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.10. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective four factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .39 to a high of 1.03. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the four cultural experience motive factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.6). The factor, social consumption, has correlation of .41, .37 and .32 respectively with the factors, novelty, learn local culture, and relaxation. The novelty factor has correlation of .14 and .37 respectively with the factors, learn local culture and relaxation. The correlation between these latter two factors is .45.

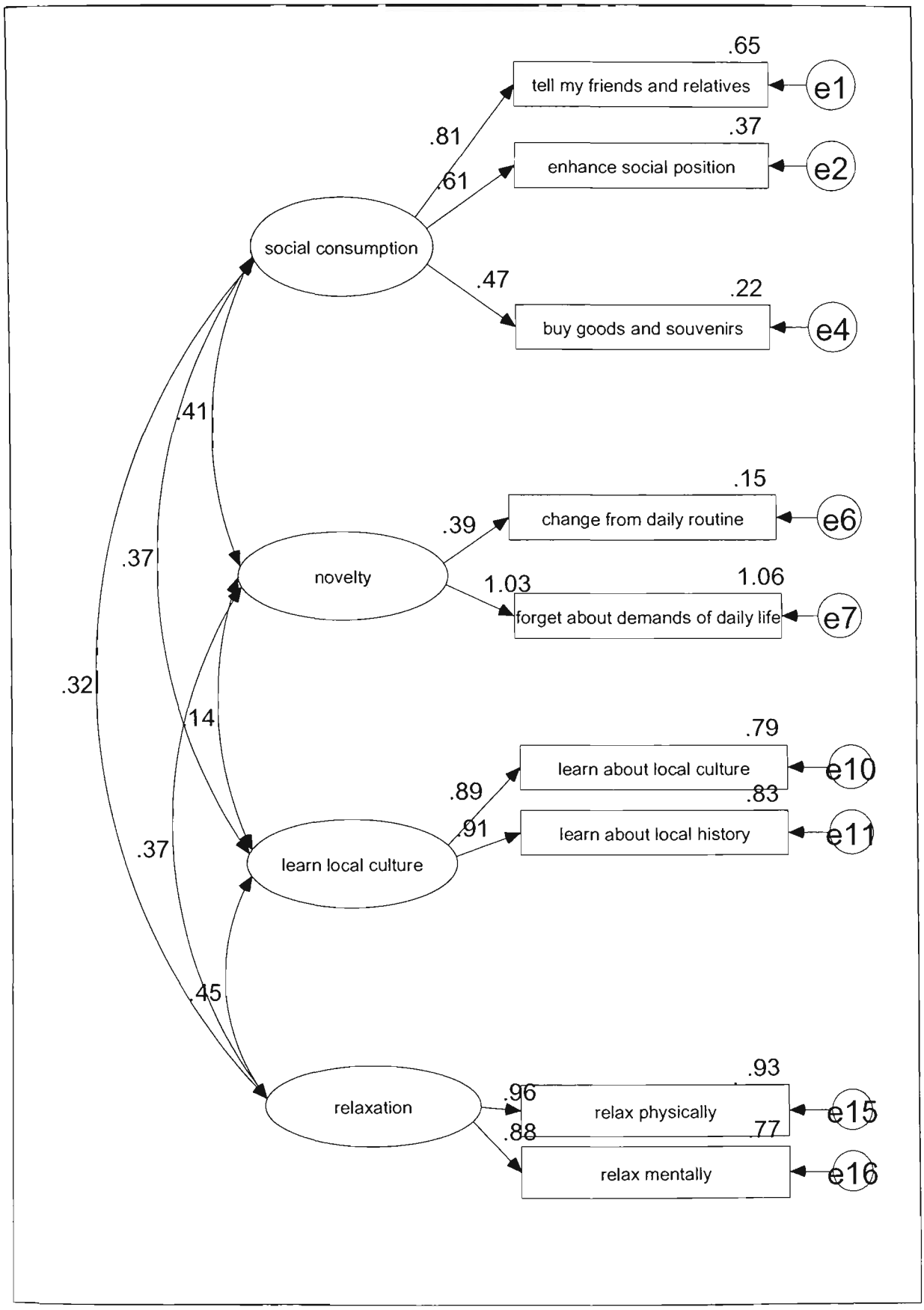
Table 6.10 Validation of CFA cultural experience motives model with Asian tourist sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the four factors

Questionnaire Item **I like going ...**		**Factors**							
		Social consumption		**Novelty**		**Learn local culture**		**Relaxation**	
		P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	.81	.81	0[a]	.33	0[a]	.30	0[a]	.26
3.21	to enhance my social position	.61	.61	0[a]	.25	0[a]	.23	0[a]	.20
3.30	to buy goods and souvenirs	.47	.47	0[a]	.19	0[a]	.17	0[a]	.15
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	0[a]	.16	.39	.39	0[a]	.06	0[a]	.14
3.17	to forget about demands of daily life	0[a]	.42	1.03	1.03	0[a]	.15	0[a]	.38
3.11	to learn about local culture	0[a]	.33	0[a]	.13	.89	.89	0[a]	.40
3.12	to learn about local history	0[a]	.34	0[a]	.13	.91	.91	0[a]	.41
3.3	to relax physically	0[a]	.31	0[a]	.35	0[a]	.43	.96	.96
3.4	to relax mentally	0[a]	.28	0[a]	.32	0[a]	.39	.88	.88

Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 358. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero. a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Scree plots for each of the four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the three-item social consumption factor, and the two-item factors of learn local culture, novelty and relaxation are respectively .66, .57, .90, and .91, only two of which are above the .70 threshold.

Figure 6.6 Hypothesised model of cultural experience motives from CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists for international Asian tourists



To test hypothesis three that there is significant difference between Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists for the cultural experience motive construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience motives model for Asian tourists is undertaken. Results of the four-factor

measurement model for cultural experience motives (Figure 6.6) assessed separately for each group of Asian tourists, establish structural similarity and an acceptable fit of the data to the model on most fit indices for each group (see lines 1 and 2, Table 6.11). Although the hypothesised model is statistically significant for both groups, other indices show practical fit is acceptable. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.11 (line 3), the χ^2 value of 73.51, with 42 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of .96 and .06 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience motives has acceptable fit for the baseline model.

Table 6.11 Invariance testing on Asian international tourist sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience motives for two Asian tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Chinese-speaking	34.77	21	.030	.94	.88	.93	.96	.07	.02, .12	.06
Japanese-speaking	38.74	21	.010	.94	.87	.93	.96	.09	.04, .13	.06
Baseline	73.51	42	.002	.94	.87	.93	.96	.06	.03, .08	.06
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	74.68	47	.006	.94	.88	.94	.96	.05	.03, .07	.06

Note: Chinese-speaking Asian international tourists (N= 122); Japanese-speaking Asian international tourists (N= 119)

Having established acceptable fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the two groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.11 (lines 3 and 4), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of 1.17 with 5 degrees of freedom, which is not statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints hold across the two groups for factor loadings and no further tests of factor loadings are needed to pinpoint the location of any non-invariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are equivalent (invariant) across the two Asian tourist groups.

6.5.5 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Motives Summary Discussion

It was hypothesised that there are significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for the dimensionality of the cultural experience motives construct. It was further hypothesised that the dimensionality would not be significantly different for different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists, but would be significantly different for different language cultural groups of Asian tourists. There was no evidence to support the significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for cultural experience motives dimensionality. The Asian sample validated the four-factor measurement model derived from the Western tourist sample.

The resultant four motive dimensions in the model for attending cultural attractions and events while on holiday are for social consumption, novelty, relaxation and to learn local culture motives. These

dimensions are consistent with some theoretical formulations as discussed in section 6.5.2 where their marketing implications are also raised. A summation of the four motive dimensions found in this study is that two factors are consistent with going to cultural attractions and events while traveling for the largely psychologically-based motives consistent with novelty and learning which are commonly found motives or benefits in other research of cultural and tourism experiences. A third factor is consistent with physio-psychologically-based motives of relaxation (physically and mentally), and relaxation has also been commonly found in cultural experience motivation research. The fourth factor combines social prestige and word-of-mouth psychologically-based motives with cultural experience attribute-based motives of buying goods and souvenirs and consuming refreshments at the cultural experience. This combination factor validates the importance of sometimes so-called ancillary services of consuming refreshments and shopping for goods and souvenirs at cultural experiences because of their contribution to the cultural experience itself and to other associated socio-psychological aspects such as the cultural experience as a social experience. The combination of learning and hedonic-entertainment-consumption related dimensions found in this study endorses the widely acknowledged perception that cultural experiences are perceived as offering 'edutainment' – a unique blend of education and entertainment.

Evidence from the invariance testing of different cultural groups within the Western tourists does not confirm the hypothesised finding that there would not be significant differences in the dimensionality of the cultural experience motive construct between these groups. Significant differences are found in the cultural experience motive dimensions for different cultural groups of English-speaking Western tourists. For the different cultural groups within the Asian tourists, invariance testing evidence does not confirm the hypothesised finding that there would be significant differences in the dimensionality of the cultural experience motive construct between these groups. Rather, significant differences were not found in the cultural experience motive dimensions for the Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists.

6.6 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Benefits Sought

6.6.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Benefits Sought Dimensionality on the Calibration Sample

The EFA is conducted on the 28 items of the cultural experience benefits sought scale using the calibration sample (N = 362) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially five factors are extracted for cultural experience benefits sought based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but four factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.7a) and retained in the final model with satisfactory factorial structure based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.7b).

Figure 6.7 Scree plots of EFA benefits sought construct for English-speaking tourist calibration sample

6.7a *6.7b*

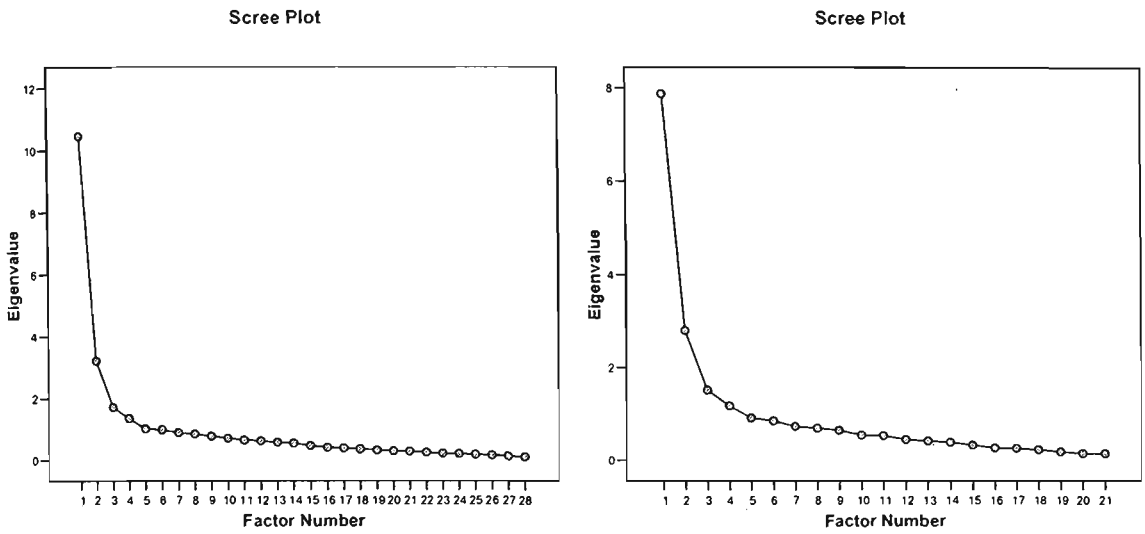


Table 6.12 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 21 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing seven items to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Various criteria for identifying and evaluating variables for possible deletion are used as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the EFA statistical analysis methods used in this study. Five items (4.16, 4.18, 4.19, 4.15 and 4.9) are removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. One item (4.13) is removed for low loadings of .28 or less on all four factors and low cross-loadings on two factors. A further item (4.26) is removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for these four factors are .78 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the four-factor solution accounted for 56% of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of squared loadings. Several of the factor intercorrelations are greater than .30 that justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.12, shows four interpretable cultural experience benefits sought factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations.

Table 6.12 EFA on calibration sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience benefits sought derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors			
From my visit I expect ...		**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
4.12	to interact with other visitors	**.76**	-.07	-.02	.09
4.7	to experienced thrills and excitement	**.70**	.03	.02	-.08
4.11	to interact with staff	**.70**	-.10	-.01	.03
4.17	to get a feeling of accomplishment	**.69**	-.09	-.08	.11
4.1	to be emotionally involved	**.67**	.09	.03	-.08
4.8	to gain knowledge	**.64**	-.00	-.04	-.02
4.2	to be physically involved	**.59**	.03	.12	-.04
4.10	to escape into another world	**.54**	.01	-.00	-.18
4.4	to be entertained	**.52**	.04	.10	-.28
4.3	to have fun	**.44**	.06	.25	-.25
4.23	signs to be in my language	-.01	**-.92**	-.04	-.03
4.22	written information to be in my language	.05	**-.92**	-.10	-.03
4.24	signs to be clear and helpful	.06	**-.73**	.12	.03
4.25	facilities provided to be clean	-.08	**-.57**	.22	-.18
4.20	to receive high quality service	.22	**-.41**	.12	-.03
4.31	a range of food and drinks to purchase and consume at the market	-.06	.04	**.93**	-.02
4.32	a range of food and drinks to purchase and take away	.08	.04	**.85**	.10
4.30	a range of goods and souvenirs will be available to purchase	.06	.19	**.43**	.06
4.29	good value for money	-.04	-.17	**.43**	-.11
4.5	to relax physically	.05	-.08	-.05	**-.89**
4.6	to relax mentally	.14	-.12	-.05	**-.78**
Reliability Alpha		.89	.88	.78	.91
Factor intercorrelations					
Factor I: Physio-socio-psychological					
Factor II: Own language information		-.38			
Factor III: Refreshments and shopping		.29	-.46		
Factor IV: Relaxation		-.56	.29	-.25	
Percentage of explained variance		34.28	10.65	5.92	5.46
Eigenvalue after rotation		6.11	4.65	3.67	4.12

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .40 are shown in bold type. $N = 362$

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 8 iterations

Two factors are based on 12 of the 16 socio-physio-psychologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found benefits sought for attending cultural-related attractions and events. The first factor comprises ten items consistent with a range of commonly sought physio-socio-psychologically-related benefits. The fourth factor comprises two physio-psychologically-related items that are consistent with relaxation (physical and mental). The other two factors are predominantly attribute based with the second factor comprising five facility and service attribute-related items largely consistent with seeking the benefit of own language information, and the third factor comprising four attribute-related items consistent with seeking refreshments and shopping. With two attribute-based and two psychologically-based factors, this EFA factor solution for benefits sought is in contrast with the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996).

6.6.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Benefits Sought Dimensionality on the Validation Sample

One-factor congeneric models using maximum likelihood CFAs are initially evaluated for the four hypothesised cultural experience benefits sought latent constructs derived from the EFA. Multiple criteria for assessing goodness-of-fit of the models are applied and multiple strategies for identifying possible model respecification are used to improve the model fit if required, as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the CFA statistical analysis methods used in this study.

The one-factor congeneric model for the construct of physio-socio-psychological benefits initially reveals poor fit of the data to the model, both statistically, χ^2 (35, *N*= 358) = 237.02, *p* = .000, and practically, for all other fit indices, TLI = .80, CFI = .84, GFI = .88, AGFI = .82, RMSEA = .13 (.11; .14), and SRMR = .07. Excellent fit of the data for the construct is achieved after removing three items with a *t*-value greater than ±2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating the model was not explaining the association between these variables: 4.12 *to interact with other visitors*; 4.2 *to be physically involved*; and 4.3 *to have fun*. The resultant fit of the English-speaking tourist data to the model is excellent statistically,χ^2 (14, *N*= 358) = 14.70, *p* = .399, and practically with TLI = .99, CFI = .99, GFI = .99, AGFI = .98, RMSEA = .01 (.00; .05), and SRMR = .02. The final model is renamed, socio-psychological, following the removal of the physical involvement item. The two-item relaxation construct is evaluated as a two-factor model with the socio-psychological benefits latent construct. Although the two-factor model is statistically significant, χ^2 (26, *N*= 358) = 61.08, *p*= .000, this data is an excellent fit to the model for the other fit indices, TLI = .96, CFI = .97, GFI = .96, AGFI = .94, RMSEA = .06 (.04; .08), and SRMR = .04.

The one-factor congeneric model for the construct of refreshments and shopping also reveals poor fit of the data to the model initially, both statistically, χ^2 (2, *N*= 358) = 26.81, *p* = .000, and practically, for many other fit indices, TLI = .87, CFI = .96, GFI = .96, AGFI = .82, RMSEA = .19 (.13; .25), and SRMR = .06. To enable removal of item 4.30 *expecting a range of goods and souvenirs to be available for purchase*, the three-item construct is evaluated as a two-factor model with the socio-psychological benefits latent construct. The resultant fit is excellent both statistically χ^2 (34, *N*= 358) = 46.71, *p* = .072, and practically with TLI = .99, CFI = .99, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, RMSEA = .03 (.00; .05), and SRMR = .04.

Poor fit of the data to the model is also initially revealed for the one-factor congeneric model for the construct of own language information both statistically, χ^2 (5, *N*= 358) = 175.37, *p* = .000, and practically, for all other fit indices, TLI = .71, CFI = .85, GFI = .84, AGFI = .51, RMSEA = .31 (.27; .35), and SRMR = .12. Item 4.23 *expecting signs to be in my language* is removed as one of several pairs of items with high correlations greater than 1.0 in the sample covariance matrix indicating some item redundancy or multicollinearity. To enable removal of item 4.20 *expecting to receive high quality service*, the three-item construct is evaluated as a two-factor model with the physio-socio-psychological benefits latent construct. The resultant fit is excellent both statistically χ^2

(34, N= 358) = 45.71, p = .087, and practically with TLI = .99, CFI = .99, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, RMSEA = .03 (.00; .05), and SRMR = .04.

Scree plots for all four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the factors comprising six-, two-, and two of three-items respectively are .81, .81, .77, and .91, all of which are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006).

A four-factor independent cluster measurement model comprising latent variables for socio-psychologically-related benefits, own language information, refreshments and relaxation is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs as hypothesized from the CFAs. The correlations between the four constructs in the full measurement model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

Although the model is statistically significant, χ^2 (84, N= 358) = 193.57, p= .000, the initial data fit to the model is acceptable for the other fit indices, GFI = .93, AGFI = .91, TLI = .94, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .06 (.05; .07), and the SRMR = .06. The model is respecified with two items (4.29 and 4.11) eliminated one at a time based largely on t-values greater than $\pm$2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix. The socio-psychological factor is renamed edutainment following the removal of the interaction item. The resultant data fit to the model is excellent, both statistically, χ^2 (59, N= 358) = 75.35, p = .099, and practically, GFI = .97, AGFI = .95 TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03 (.00; .04), and the SRMR = .04. The model is also more parsimonious with a normed chi-square ratio of 1.3.

The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.13. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective four factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .51 to a high of .99. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the four cultural experience benefits sought factors with one exception. The distinction between the factors edutainment and relaxation lacks discriminatory validity as theoretically expected considering the underlying psychological basis of both factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.8). The factor, edutainment, has correlation of .34, .29 and .74 respectively with the factors, signage and facilities, refreshments, and relaxation. The signage and facilities factor has correlation of .40 and .24 respectively with the factors, refreshments, and relaxation. The correlation between these latter two factors is .19.

Scree plots for each of the four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the six-item edutainment factor, the three-item signage and facilities factors, and the two-item factors of refreshments and relaxation are respectively .80, .77, .87, and .91, all of which are above the .70 threshold.

Table 6.13 CFA on validation sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience benefits sought

		Factors							
Questionnaire Item		**Edutain-ment**		**Signs and facilities**		**Refresh-ments**		**Relaxation**	
From my visit I expect...		P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
4.17	to get a feeling of accomplishment	.51	.51	0[a]	.17	0[a]	.15	0[a]	.37
4.1	to be emotionally involved	.56	.56	0[a]	.19	0[a]	.16	0[a]	.42
4.8	to gain knowledge	.74	.74	0[a]	.25	0[a]	.22	0[a]	.55
4.10	to escape into another world	.62	.62	0[a]	.21	0[a]	.18	0[a]	.46
4.4	to be entertained	.67	.67	0[a]	.23	0[a]	.20	0[a]	.50
4.7	to experienced thrills and excitement	.73	.73	0[a]	.25	0[a]	.21	0[a]	.54
4.22	written information to be in my language	0[a]	.22	.65	.65	0[a]	.26	0[a]	.15
4.24	signs to be clear and helpful	0[a]	.32	.93	.93	0[a]	.38	0[a]	.22
4.25	facilities provided to be clean	0[a]	.24	.71	.71	0[a]	.29	0[a]	.17
4.31	a range of food and drinks to purchase and consume at the market	0[a]	.29	0[a]	.40	.99	.99	0[a]	.19
4.32	a range of food and drinks to purchase and take away	0[a]	.23	0[a]	.32	.79	.79	0[a]	.15
4.5	to relax physically	0[a]	.68	0[a]	.22	0[a]	.18	.93	.93
4.6	to relax mentally	0[a]	.67	0[a]	.22	0[a]	.17	.91	.91

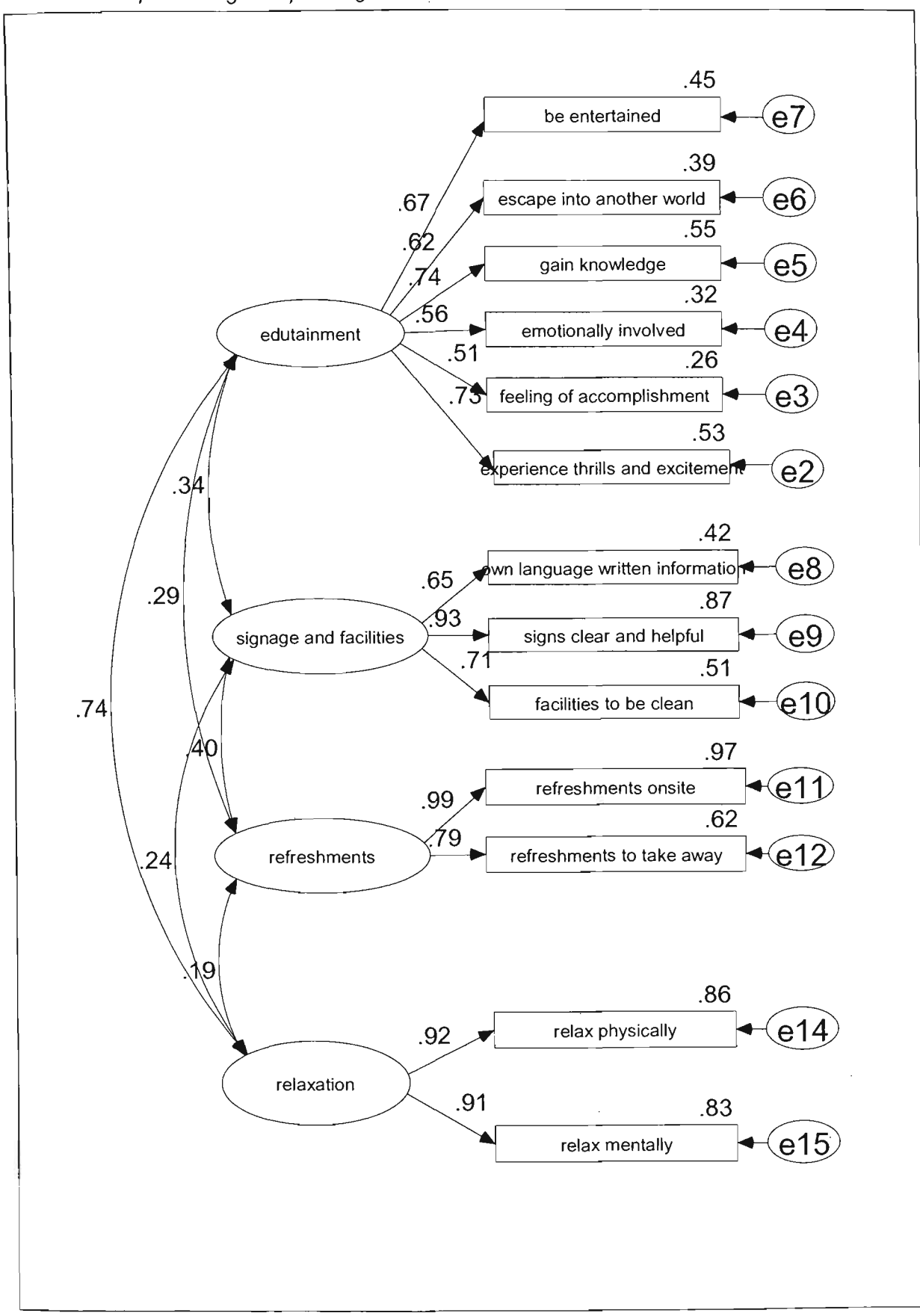
Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 358. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Four dimensions for benefits sought from experiencing cultural attractions and events while traveling were derived from the EFA (i.e., physio-socio-psychological benefits; own language information; refreshments and shopping; and relaxation). Results of the CFAs validate a similar structure of four dimensions for the final hypothesized measurement model for cultural experience benefits sought except latent construct minor respecification required an associated name change to three of the constructs: edutainment; signage and facilities; and refreshments.

The resultant four dimensions in the full measurement model are also consistent with some theoretical formulations. One factor, edutainment, is wholly psychologically-based, another factor, relaxation, is part physiological and part psychological, and the other two factors are attribute-based: one emphasizing the importance of consuming refreshments at the cultural experience and the other highlighting the importance of clear and helpful signs and clean facilities.

Figure 6.8 Hypothesised model of cultural experience benefits sought for CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists



Relaxation is a commonly found benefit sought from tourism experiences in general (Eastgate et al., 2006) and from cultural and heritage tourism related experiences (Kay, 2006a). In the previous

section 6.5 of this research on dimensionality of motives for attending cultural attractions and events while traveling, relaxation was an identified motive factor that is also found as a separate benefit sought factor from cultural experiences. The other psychologically-based benefits sought factor is a composite of six-items consistent with the 'edutainment' concept identified in recent research of art museum visitors (Geissler et al., 2006) and identified in the previous section of this research on dimensionality of motives for attending cultural attractions and events while traveling as two separate motive factors: novelty and learn local culture. From the benefits literature (e.g., Eastgate et al., 2006; Kay, 2006a), other commonly found education-related dimensions include learning, gaining knowledge or discovery, while commonly found hedonic-entertainment-consumption-related dimensions include excitement, escape, and entertainment. Recent qualitative research of art museum experiences also emphasises that for cultural experiences as entertainment, the art itself is thought to have hedonic value (Geissler et al., 2006). This edutainment dimension of benefits sought from cultural experiences contrasts with the theoretical formulation posited by McKercher and du Cros (2002) that many cultural tourism experiences have their basis in entertainment and only a small number of tourists really seek a deep learning experience when they travel, with the majority traveling for pleasure or escapist reasons and participating in activities that will provide a sense of enjoyment.

The findings regarding the role of escapist reasons in this research of tourists' cultural experience motivational process are contradictory. While they are one of the six items within the composite edutainment factor for benefits sought from cultural experiences, the escapist reason item was the one psychologically-related item not associated with dimensionality of attitudes about going to cultural experiences (section 6.4) nor was it associated within the motives for attending cultural attractions and events while travelling (section 6.5).

The two attribute-based factors contrast with the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996). However they validate recent qualitative research of art museum experiences (Geissler et al., 2006) and empirical research of performing arts experiences (Swanson and Davis, 2006), which acknowledge the importance of some ancillary services and their quality to the cultural experience, particularly socialising in cultural venue cafes or coffee shops and the importance of the food quality and other ancillary services such as preshow activities and gift shop items. While refreshments has been identified in this study as a two-item separate benefit sought factor from cultural experiences, in the previous section (6.5) on motives for attending cultural attractions and events while travelling, consuming refreshments at the cultural experience was an item within the social consumption motive factor. The other attribute-based factor of signs and facilities for benefits sought from cultural experiences, has only limited theoretical formulations from the benefits sought research literature (e.g., literature review summaries by Eastgate et al., 2006; Kay, 2006a), but it highlights the importance of clear signs, clean facilities and for written information to be in the visitor's language. An investigation of benefits sought by visitors to historic houses combines both utilitarian and experiential theories within a research methodology that uses a benefits sought scale

to identify benefit visitor clusters which are compared with historic house service quality ratings measured on a HISTOQUAL scale (Frochot, 2004) adapted from SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1988) and based on five dimensions: responsiveness, tangibles, communications, consumables and empathy. Overall, the tangibles dimension showed to be the most important of all across the sample, followed by communication, responsiveness, consumables and empathy with these dimensions displaying significant differences across the four benefit visitor segments except for the responsiveness dimension.

The cultural experience benefits sought dimensions found in this study, have extensive marketing implications, especially in terms of market segmentation; product development, programming and packaging; and communication campaigns and strategies.

6.6.3 Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Benefits Sought Model for English-speaking tourists

To test hypothesis two that there is not a significant difference between different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists for the cultural experience benefits sought construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience benefits sought model derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is undertaken. Results of the four-factor measurement model for cultural experience benefits sought (Figure 6.8), assessed separately for each group of English-speaking tourists, establish structural similarity and acceptable fit of the data to the model for each group (see lines 1 to 4, Table 6.14) on most fit indices. Although the hypothesised model is statistically significant for two groups (domestic tourists, and tourists from NZ), all other indices show practical fit is excellent except for the AGFI that is below the .90 threshold for three of the four groups except for the domestic tourist group. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.14 (line 5), the χ^2 value of 386.41, with 236 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of .97 and .03 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience benefits sought has excellent fit for the baseline model.

Table 6.14 Invariance testing on validation sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience benefits sought for four English-speaking tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Domestic (Australia)	141.19	59	.000	.94	.90	.94	.96	.07	.05, .08	.05
New Zealand	120.40	59	.000	.88	.82	.91	.93	.09	.06, .11	.06
North America	61.23	59	.003	.93	.89	.99	.99	.02	.00, .06	.05
UK and Ireland	63.48	59	.396	.93	.89	.99	.99	.02	.00, .06	.05
Baseline	386.41	236	.322	.92	.88	.96	.97	.03	.02, .04	.05
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	425.45	263	.000	.92	.88	.96	.96	.03	.02, .03	.05

Note: Domestic (Australia) (N= 315); New Zealanders (*N* = 140); North Americans (*N* = 124); tourists from UK and Ireland (*N* = 141)

Having established excellent fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the four groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.14 (lines 5 and 6), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of 39.04 with 27 degrees of freedom, which is not statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints hold across the four groups for factor loadings and further tests of factor loadings are not needed to pinpoint the location of any non-invariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are equivalent (invariant) across the four English-speaking tourist groups.

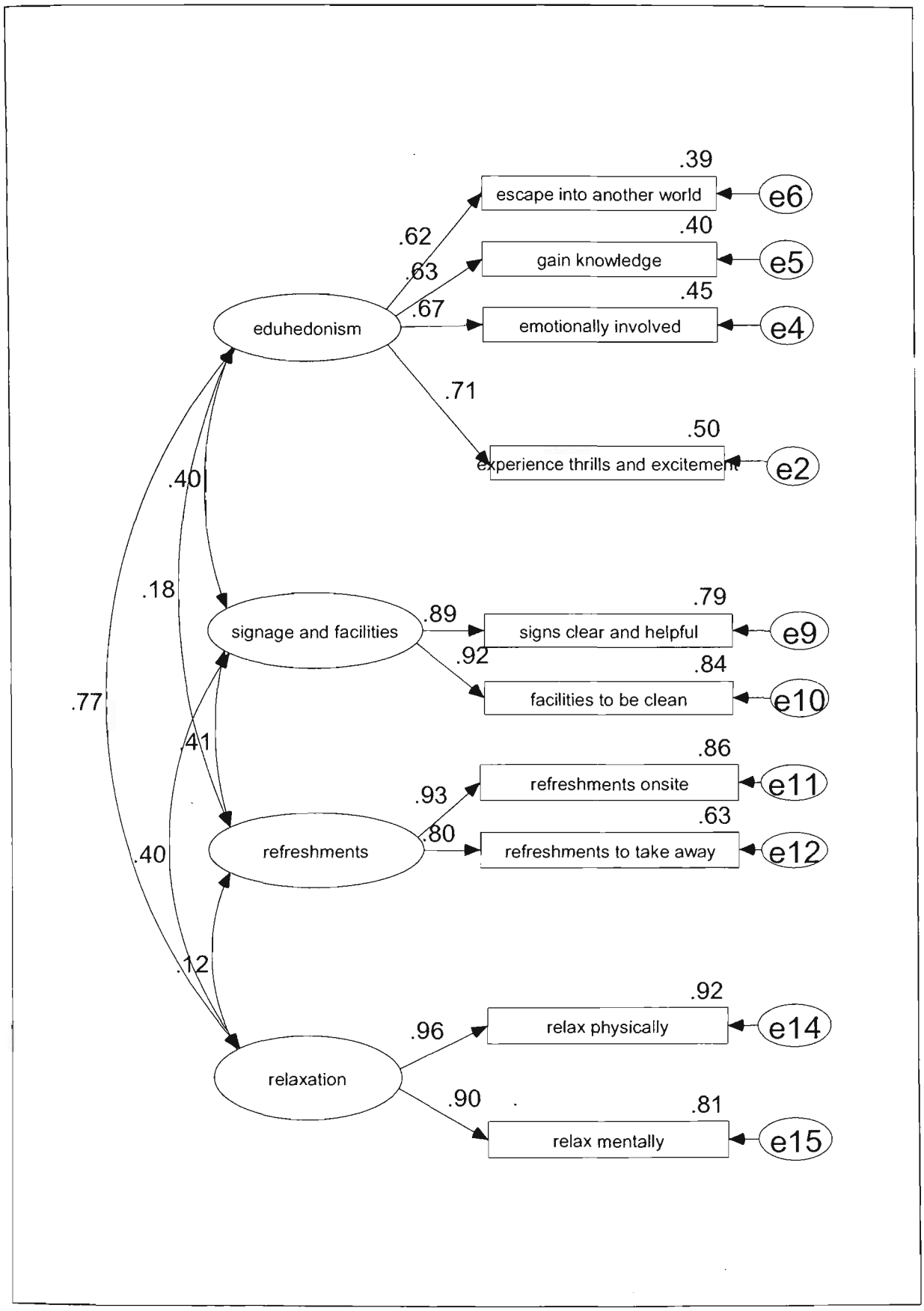
6.6.4 Validation and Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Benefits Sought Measurement Model for the Asian Tourist Sample

To test hypothesis one that there is significant difference between Western and Asian tourists for the cultural experience benefits sought construct, the hypothesised four-factor independent cluster measurement model for cultural experience benefits sought derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is tested for the Asian tourist sample (N = 241). The model is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs of edutainment, signage and facilities, refreshments, and relaxation.

The correlations between the four constructs in the model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

Significant difference between Western and Asian tourists is hypothesised, but the initial fit of the Asian tourist data to the four-factor measurement benefits sought model is acceptable except for being statistically significant and an AGFI below the .90 threshold. The model fit is statistically, χ^2 (59, *N*= 241) = 139.36, *p*= .000, and practically, GFI = .92, AGFI = .87, TLI = .93, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .08 (.06; .09) and SRMR = .06. Excellent fit of the data to the model is achieved following the removal of three items: item 4.4 and 4.17 from the edutainment construct requiring it to be renamed eduhedonism, and item 4.22 from the signs and facilities construct, indicating that Asian tourists did not expect written information to be in their own language. The resultant fit of the data to the model is still statistically significant, χ^2 (29, *N*= 241) = 44.28, *p*= .034, but excellent for all of the other fit indices, GFI = .97, AGFI = .93, TLI = .98, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05 (.01; 07) and SRMR = .04.

Figure 6.9 Hypothesised model of cultural experience benefits sought from CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists for international Asian tourists



The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.15. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective four factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .62 to a high of .96. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant

validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the four cultural experience benefits sought factors with one exception. The distinction between the factors eduhedonism and relaxation lacks discriminatory validity as theoretically expected considering the underlying psychological basis of both factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.9). The factor, eduhedonism, has correlation of .40, .18 and .77 respectively with the factors, signs and facilities, refreshments, and relaxation. The signs and facilities factor has correlation of .41 and .40 respectively with the factors, refreshments, and relaxation. The correlation between these latter two factors is .12.

Table 6.15 Validation of CFA cultural experience benefits sought model with Asian tourist sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the four factors

		Factors							
Questionnaire Item **From my visit I expect ...**		**Psychological**		**Signs and facilities**		**Refreshments**		**Relaxation**	
		P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
4.1	to be emotionally involved	.67	.67	0[a]	.27	0[a]	.12	0[a]	.52
4.8	to gain knowledge	.63	.63	0[a]	.26	0[a]	.11	0[a]	.49
4.10	to escape into another world	.62	.62	0[a]	.25	0[a]	.11	0[a]	.48
4.7	to experienced thrills and excitement	.71	.71	0[a]	.29	0[a]	.12	0[a]	.55
4.24	signs to be clear and helpful	0[a]	.36	.89	.89	0[a]	.37	0[a]	.36
4.25	facilities provided to be clean	0[a]	.37	.92	.92	0[a]	.38	0[a]	.37
4.31	a range of food and drinks to purchase and consume at the market	0[a]	.16	0[a]	.38	.93	.93	0[a]	.11
4.32	a range of food and drinks to purchase and take away	0[a]	.14	0[a]	.33	.80	.80	0[a]	.09
4.5	to relax physically	0[a]	.74	0[a]	.39	0[a]	.11	.96	.96
4.6	to relax mentally	0[a]	.70	0[a]	.36	0[a]	.11	.90	.90

Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 358. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Scree plots for each of the four constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the four-item eduhedonism factor, and two-item factors of signs and facilities, refreshments, and relaxation are respectively .75, .90, .85, and .93, all of which are above the .70 threshold.

To test hypothesis three that there is significant difference between Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists for the cultural experience benefits sought construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience motives model for Asian tourists is undertaken. Results of the four-factor measurement model for cultural experience benefits sought (Figure 6.9) assessed separately for each group of Asian tourists, establish structural similarity and an acceptable fit of the data to the model on most fit indices for each group (see lines 1 and 2, Table 6.16). Although the hypothesised model is statistically significant for the Chinese-speaking tourists and not for the Japanese-speaking tourists, all other indices show practical fit is excellent except for the AGFI that is below the .90 threshold for both groups. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.16 (line 3), the

χ^2 value of 79.31, with 58 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of .97 and .04 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience benefits sought has acceptable fit for the baseline model.

Table 6.16 Invariance testing on Asian international tourist sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience benefits sought for two Asian tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Chinese-speaking	43.63	29	.040	.93	.87	.96	.97	.07	.01, .10	.04
Japanese-speaking	35.67	29	.183	.94	.89	.98	.99	.04	.00, .09	.06
Baseline	79.31	58	.033	.94	.88	.97	.98	.04	.01, .06	.04
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	90.45	64	.016	.93	.88	.97	.98	.04	.02, .06	.05

Note: Chinese-speaking Asian international tourists (N= 122); Japanese-speaking Asian international tourists (N= 119)

Having established acceptable fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the two groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.16 (lines 3 and 4), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of 11.14 with 6 degrees of freedom, which is not statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints hold across the two groups for factor loadings and no further tests of factor loadings are needed to pinpoint the location of any non-invariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are equivalent (invariant) across the two Asian tourist groups.

6.6.5 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Benefits Sought Summary Discussion

It was hypothesised that there are significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for the dimensionality of the cultural experience benefits sought construct. It was further hypothesised that the dimensionality would not be significantly different for different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists, but would be significantly different for different language cultural groups of Asian tourists. There was no evidence to support the significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for cultural experience benefits sought dimensionality. The Asian sample validated a four-factor measurement model similar to the model derived from the Western tourist sample.

The resultant four benefits sought dimensions in the model that are expected from visiting cultural experiences are edutainment (eduhedonism for the Asian tourist model), signage and facilities, refreshments and relaxation. These dimensions are consistent with some theoretical formulations as discussed in section 6.6.2 where their marketing implications are also raised. A summation of the four benefits sought dimensions found in this study is that two factors are psychologically-based and two are attribute-based. The psychologically-based factor of relaxation is commonly found in the cultural experience benefits sought research. The other psychologically-based factor of

edutainment (eduhedonism) is a composite of commonly found education-related and hedonic-entertainment-consumption-related benefits sought dimensions. Recent qualitative research of art museum experiences acknowledges and further supports the combined edutainment offerings of such experiences as well as emphasising that for cultural experiences as entertainment, the art itself is thought to have hedonic value (Geissler et al., 2006). The two attribute-based dimensions of signage and facilities, and refreshments contrast with the trend in the literature emphasizing a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996). However, they validate recent research of art museum experiences (Geissler et al., 2006) and performing arts experiences (Swanson and Davis, 2006) that acknowledge the importance of some ancillary services and their quality to the cultural experience. The relevance of both utilitarian attribute-related dimensions such as tangibles and consumables, as well as experiential-related dimensions has also been supported in research of benefits sought by visitors to historic houses (Frochot, 2004).

Evidence from the invariance testing of different cultural groups within the Western tourists and the Asian tourists, supports equivalence of the factor configural structure and metric invariance of the factor loadings indicating that the cultural groups are calibrating the items in a similar fashion, for different cultural groups of both Western and Asian tourists. This was hypothesised for the English-speaking Western tourists, but does not confirm the hypothesised finding for the Asian tourists that there are significant differences between dimensionality of the cultural experience benefits sought construct for Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists.

6.7 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Benefits Gained

6.7.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Benefits Gained Dimensionality on the Calibration Sample

The EFA is conducted on the 28 items of the cultural experience benefits gained scale using the calibration sample (N = 169) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially, extraction of seven factors based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0 is attempted for cultural experience benefits gained, but a local minimum is not found despite increasing iterations to 200 and so the extraction is terminated. Three factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.10a) and retained in the final model with satisfactory factorial structure based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.10b), although five factors have eigenvalues greater than 1.0.

Figure 6.10 Scree plot for EFA benefits gained construct for English-speaking tourist calibration sample

6.10a *6.10b*

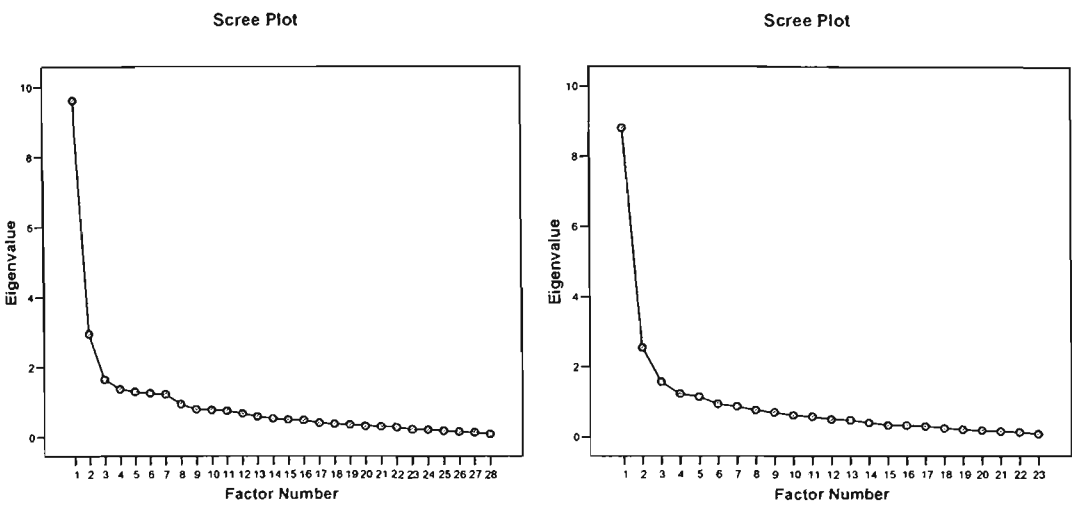


Table 6.17 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 23 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing five items to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Various criteria for identifying and evaluating variables for possible deletion are used as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the EFA statistical analysis methods used in this study. Three items (6.13, 6.15 and 6.12) are removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. One item (6.18) is removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. A further item (6.24) is removed for cross-loadings greater than .40 on factors one and three. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for these three factors are .87 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the three-factor solution accounted for 50% of the total variance allowing for the extractions sums of squared loadings. One factor intercorrelation is greater than .30 that justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.17, shows three interpretable cultural experience benefits gained factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. One factor comprises 13 items consistent with a range of commonly found socio-physio-psychologically-related benefits. These items are from the 16 socio-physio-psychologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found benefits gained from attending cultural-related attractions and events. The other two factors are predominantly attribute-based with the second factor comprising two items consistent with experiencing own language information and the other factor comprising eight items consistent with experiencing consumerables of refreshments, goods and souvenirs, and quality facilities and

services. With two attribute-based and one psychologically-based factors, this EFA factor solution for benefits gained is in contrast with the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996).

Table 6.17 EFA on calibration sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the three factors of cultural experience benefits gained derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors		
From my visit ...		I	II	III
6.26	facilities provided were comfortable	**.81**	-.08	.10
6.25	facilities provided were clean	**.76**	-.02	.13
6.20	I received high quality service	**.67**	.16	-.18
6.19	I was well informed of the different facilities and services available	**.65**	.00	-.10
6.29	I received good value for money	**.57**	.01	-.19
6.30	a range of goods and souvenirs were available to purchase	**.57**	-.09	-.07
6.32	a suitable range of food and drinks were available to purchase and take away	**.55**	-.19	-.06
6.31	a suitable range of food and drinks were available for purchase and consumption	**.51**	-.14	-.07
6.23	signs were in my language	.10	**-.91**	-.03
6.22	written information was in my language	.22	**-.85**	-.06
6.7	I experienced thrills and excitement	.02	.02	**-.78**
6.1	I was emotionally involved	-.09	-.11	**-.70**
6.17	I got a feeling of accomplishment	-.06	-.06	**-.70**
6.10	I escaped into another world	.04	-.02	**-.65**
6.9	I forgot about work and responsibilities	-.08	.00	**-.62**
6.2	I was physically involved	-.08	-.16	**-.60**
6.8	I gained knowledge	.21	.08	**-.60**
6.16	I enhanced my social position	-.03	.09	**-.58**
6.3	I had fun	.28	.00	**-.55**
6.5	I relaxed physically	.25	.14	**-.54**
6.6	I relaxed mentally	.23	.14	**-.54**
6.11	I interacted with staff	.17	.00	**-.51**
6.4	I was entertained	.30	.03	**-.50**
Reliability Alpha		.87	.94	.90
Factor intercorrelations				
Factor I: Consumerables, facilities and services				
Factor II: Own language information		-.25		
Factor III: Socio-physio-psychological		-.54	.08	
Percentage of explained variance		28.44	15.90	5.93
Eigenvalue after rotation		6.43	2.23	7.03

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .40 are shown in bold type. $N = 169$

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 9 iterations

Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing five items to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Various criteria for identifying and evaluating variables for possible deletion are used as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the EFA statistical analysis methods used in this study. Three items (6.13, 6.15 and 6.12) are removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. One item (6.18) is removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. A further item

(6.24) is removed for cross-loadings greater than .40 on factors one and three. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for these three factors are .87 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the three-factor solution accounted for 50% of the total variance allowing for the extractions sums of squared loadings. One factor intercorrelation is greater than .30 that justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.17, shows three interpretable cultural experience benefits gained factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. One factor comprises 13 items consistent with a range of commonly found socio-physio-psychologically-related benefits. These items are from the 16 socio-physio-psychologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found benefits gained from attending cultural-related attractions and events. The other two factors are predominantly attribute-based with the second factor comprising two items consistent with experiencing own language information and the other factor comprising eight items consistent with experiencing consumerables of refreshments, goods and souvenirs, and quality facilities and services. With two attribute-based and one psychologically-based factors, this EFA factor solution for benefits gained is in contrast with the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996).

6.7.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Benefits Gained Dimensionality on the Validation Sample

One-factor congeneric models using maximum likelihood CFAs are initially evaluated for the three hypothesised cultural experience benefits gained latent constructs derived from the EFA. Multiple criteria for assessing goodness-of-fit of the models are applied and multiple strategies for identifying possible model respecification are used to improve the model fit if required, as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the CFA statistical analysis methods used in this study.

The one-factor congeneric model for the construct of socio-physio-psychological benefits initially reveals poor fit of the data to the model, both statistically, χ^2 (65, N= 156) = 328.95, p = .000, and practically, for all other fit indices with TLI = .62, CFI = .68, GFI = .77, AGFI = .68, RMSEA = .16 (.15; .18), and SRMR = .10. Four items are removed with a t-value greater than $\pm$2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating the model was not explaining the association between these variables: 6.5 *to relax physically*; 6.16 *the activities and events were safe,* 6.9 *forgot about work and responsibilities*, and *6.2 was physically involved.* A further two items are removed based on inspection of the modification indices for values greater than 4.0 which identify parameters to be estimated in the revised model to significantly reduce the chi-square and to improve model fit. Rather than covary the numerous recommended items which creates ambiguity, two of the items with the lower model weight parameter loading are removed: *6.4 was entertained*,

and *6.3 had fun*. The resultant fit of the English-speaking tourist data to the model is excellent statistically, χ^2 (14, *N*= 156) = 21.71, *p* = .085, and practically with TLI = .96, CFI = .97, GFI = .96, AGFI = .93, RMSEA = .06 (.00; .11), and SRMR = .04. The final model is renamed, eduhedonism, as the latent construct is largely consistent with gaining knowledge combined with experiencing several hedonic-related emotions.

The one-factor congeneric model for the construct of consumerables, facilities and services also reveals poor fit of the data to the model initially, both statistically, χ^2 (20, *N*= 156) = 196.29, *p* = .000, and practically, for all other fit indices with TLI = .55, CFI = .68, GFI = .76, AGFI = .57, RMSEA = .24 (.21; .27), and SRMR = .13. Excellent fit of the data to the model is achieved with removal of three items with a *t*-value greater than $\pm$2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix indicating the model was not explaining the association between these variables: *6.19 well informed of the different facilities and services available, 6.25 facilities were clean*, and *6.29 good value for money*. The resultant fit of the English-speaking tourist data to the model is excellent statistically, χ^2 (5, *N*= 156) = 10.57, *p* = .061, and practically for most of the other fit indices with TLI = .96, CFI = .98, GFI = .97, AGFI = .92, RMSEA = .09 (.00; .16), and SRMR = .05.

The two-item construct for own language information will be tested in the three-factor full measurement model for the cultural experience benefits gained latent construct.

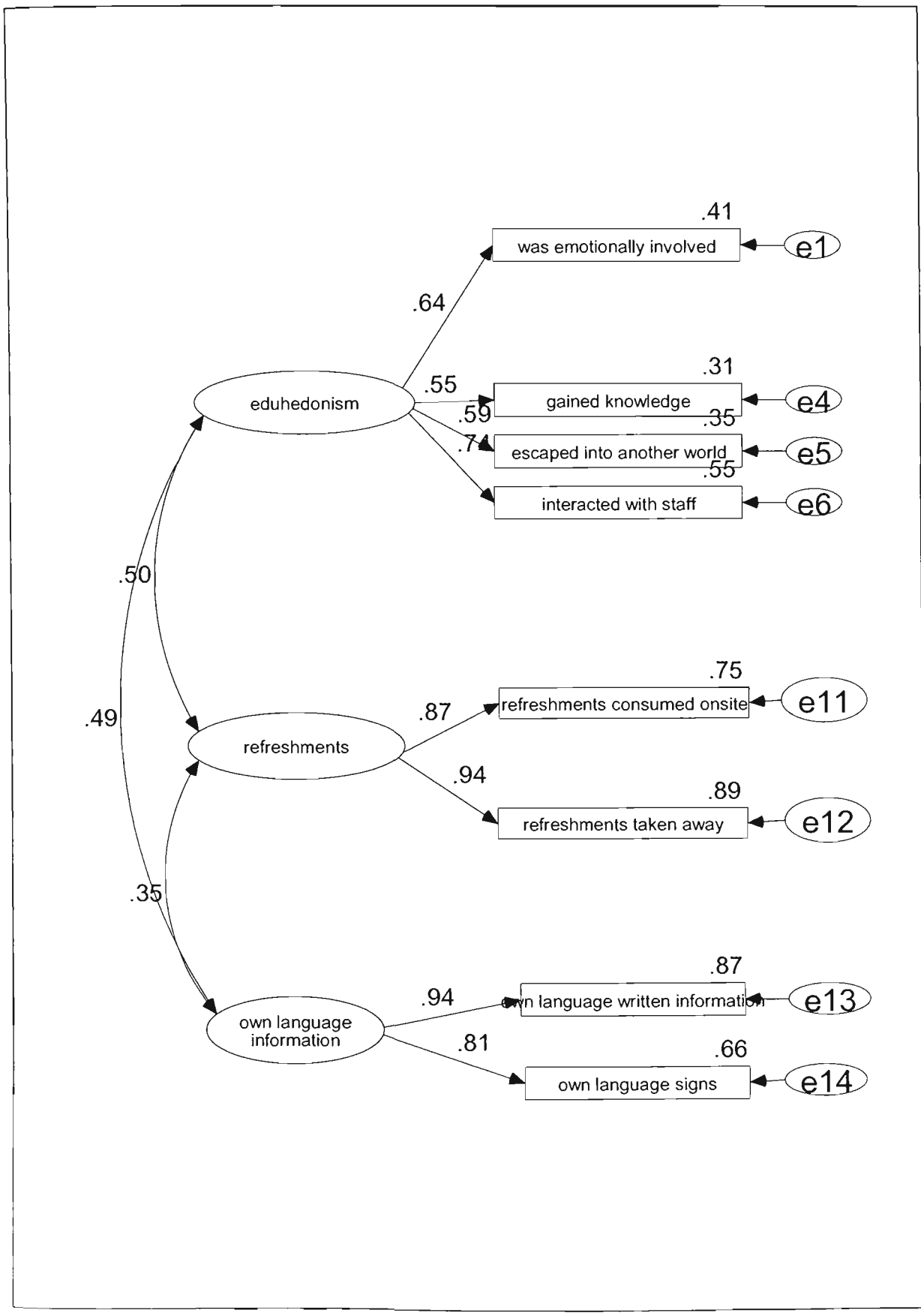
Scree plots for all three constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the factors comprising seven-, five-, and two-items respectively are .80, .80, and .86, all of which are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006).

A three-factor independent cluster measurement model comprising latent variables for eduhedonism, consumerables, facilities and services, and own language information is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs as hypothesized from the CFAs. The correlations between the three constructs in the full measurement model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

The initial data fit to the model is poor, both statistically, χ^2 (74, *N*= 156) = 158.86 *p* = .000, and practically, for most other fit indices with TLI = .88, CFI = .90, GFI = .87, AGFI = .82, RMSEA = .09 (.07; .10), and SRMR = .09. The model is respecified with six items eliminated one at a time. Firstly three items (6.20, 6.26 and 6.30) are removed based largely on *t*-values greater than $\pm$2.0 in the standardised residuals covariance matrix. Another item (6.7) is removed based on inspection of the modification indices which indicate it should be covaried with several other items and so its removal avoids ambiguity created by covarying items. A further two items (6.17 and 6.6) are removed to improve discriminant validity based on inspection of the factor pattern and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters in the model. The resultant data fit to the model is

excellent, both statistically, χ^2 (17, *N*= 156) = 19.21, *p* = .317, and practically, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94 TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03 (.00; .08), and the SRMR = .04. The model is also more parsimonious with a normed chi-square ratio of 1.13.

Figure 6.11 Hypothesised model of cultural experience benefits gained for CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists



The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.18. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective three factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .55 to a high of .94. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the three cultural experience benefits gained factors. Intercorrelations between the latent variables are positive and significant (see Figure 6.11). The factor, eduhedonism, has correlation of .50 and .49 respectively with the factors, refreshments and own language information. The correlation between these latter two factors is .35.

Scree plots for each of the three constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the four-item eduhedonism factor and the two-item factors of refreshments and own language information are respectively .72, .90 and .86, all of which are above the .70 threshold.

Three dimensions for benefits gained from experiencing cultural attractions and events while traveling were derived from the EFA (i.e., consumerables, facilities and services; own language information; and socio-physio-psychological benefits). Results of the CFAs validate a similar structure of three dimensions for the final hypothesized measurement model for cultural experience benefits gained except respecification of two latent constructs required an associated name change in the three resultant constructs: eduhedonism, refreshments and own language information.

Table 6.18 CFA on validation sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the three factors of cultural experience benefits gained

		Factors					
Questionnaire Item **From my visit ...**		**Edu-hedonism**		**Refresh-ments**		**Own language information**	
		P	S	P	S	P	S
6.1	I was emotionally involved	.64	.64	0[a]	.32	0[a]	.31
6.8	I gained knowledge	.55	.55	0[a]	.28	0[a]	.27
6.10	I escaped into another world	.59	.59	0[a]	.30	0[a]	.29
6.11	I interacted with staff	.74	.74	0[a]	.37	0[a]	.36
6.31	a suitable range of food and drinks were available for purchase and consumption	0[a]	.43	.87	.87	0[a]	.30
6.32	a suitable range of food and drinks were available to purchase and take away	0[a]	.47	.94	.94	0[a]	.33
6.22	written information was in my language	0[a]	.46	0[a]	.33	.94	.94
6.23	signs were in my language	0[a]	.40	0[a]	.28	.81	.81

Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; *N* = 156. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

The resultant three dimensions in the full measurement model are also consistent with some theoretical formulations. One factor, eduhedonism, is largely psychologically-based and the other two factors are attribute-based: one emphasizing the importance of consuming refreshments at the cultural experience and the other highlighting the importance of own language information.

The eduhedonism dimension combines several commonly found benefits from tourism experiences in general (Eastgate et al., 2006) and from cultural and heritage tourism related experiences (Kay, 2006a), especially education-related dimensions such as learning, gaining knowledge or discovery, and hedonic-entertainment-consumption-related dimensions such as excitement, escape and entertainment. Hedonic consumption is based on emotional feelings and experiences in using products (Mowen and Minor, 1998) and is highly associated with products that are intrinsically more emotionally involving than packaged goods with examples from previous research including performing arts-related products of rock concerts, theatre and dance (Holbrook and Schindler, 1994). Furthermore, cultural offerings are considered to satisfy consumer wants in the hedonic or aesthetic realm (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) and recent qualitative research of art museum experiences (Geissler et al., 2006) also emphasises that the cultural experience itself is thought to have hedonic value. Escapist benefits are included in this eduhedonism factor for benefits gained from cultural experiences, similar to the inclusion of escapist benefits within the edutainment factor for benefits sought from cultural experiences.

The two attribute-based factors contrast with the trend in the literature emphasising a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcomes (Tian et al., 1996). However the refreshments construct validates recent qualitative research of art museum experiences (Geissler et al., 2006) and empirical research of performing arts experiences (Swanson and Davis, 2006), which acknowledge the importance of some ancillary services and their quality to the cultural experience, particularly socialising in cultural venue cafes or coffee shops. In addition to being a relevant dimension of benefits gained from cultural experiences, refreshments were identified in this earlier in this study as a relevant dimension of benefits sought from cultural experiences (section 6.6), and as items within a related dimension of motives for going to cultural experiences while travelling (section 6.5). The other attribute-based factor of own language information when experiencing cultural experiences is not identified in literature review summaries of commonly found benefits from cultural and other tourist experiences (Eastgate et al., 2006; Kay, 2006a). However, it has some theoretical support from Frochot's (2004) investigation of benefits sought by visitors to historic houses which combined both utilitarian and experiential theories and found a communications dimension displayed significant differences across the four benefit visitor segments. Furthermore, it is a relevant dimension to test in cross-cultural research of tourist experiences.

The cultural experience benefits gained dimensions found in this study, have extensive marketing implications, especially in terms of customer satisfaction, positive word-of-mouth and potential repeat patronage as well as for market segmentation; product development, programming and packaging; and communication campaigns and strategies.

6.7.3 Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Benefits Gained Model for English-speaking tourists

To test hypothesis two that there is not a significant difference between different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists for the cultural experience benefits gained construct, invariance testing of the cultural experience benefits gained model derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is undertaken. Results of the three-factor measurement model for cultural experience benefits sought (Figure 6.11), assessed separately for the two groups of English-speaking domestic tourists and English-speaking international tourists, establish structural similarity and excellent fit of the data to the model for each group (see lines 1 and 2, Table 6.19) on most fit indices. For the multi-group baseline model, the key indexes are the χ^2 statistic, and the CFI and RMSEA values (Byrne, 2001). As seen in Table 6.19 (line 3), the χ^2 value of 32.52, with 34 degrees of freedom, provides the baseline value against which all subsequent tests for invariance are compared. The CFI and RMSEA values of 1.00 and .00 respectively, indicate that the hypothesised measurement model of cultural experience benefits gained has acceptable fit for the baseline model.

Table 6.19 Invariance testing on validation sample: Model fit for multi-group model of cultural experience benefits sought for two English-speaking tourist groups

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% confidence interval of RMSEA	SRMR
Domestic (Australia)	19.77	17	.286	.97	.93	.99	.99	.03	.00, .09	.04
International	12.74	17	.754	.98	.96	1.011	1.000	.00	.00, .05	.03
Baseline	32.52	34	.540	.98	.95	1.002	1.000	.00	.00, .04	.04
Metric invariance: equal factor loadings	33.33	39	.726	.98	.95	1.007	1.000	.00	.00, .03	.04

Note: Domestic (Australia) (N= 138); International (*N* = 187)

Having established acceptable fit of the baseline model, testing for invariance of factorial metric measurement across the two groups is undertaken on the constrained model. Chi-square difference test are used to establish the difference in fit between the baseline model and the constrained model. As seen in Table 6.19 (lines 3 and 4), comparison of the χ^2 difference between these two models and their associated degrees of freedom yields a χ^2 difference value of .81 with five degrees of freedom, which is not statistically significant at the .05 probability level. This indicates that the equality constraints hold across the two groups for factor loadings and further tests of factor loadings are not needed to pinpoint the location of any non-invariance. In other words, the parameter loadings are equivalent (invariant) across the two English-speaking tourist groups.

6.7.4 Validation and Invariance Testing of the Hypothesised Cultural Experience Benefits Gained Measurement Model for the Asian Tourist Sample

To test hypothesis one that there is significant difference between Western and Asian tourists for the cultural experience benefits gained construct, the hypothesised three-factor independent cluster measurement model for cultural experience benefits gained derived from the English-speaking tourist validation sample is tested for the Asian tourist sample (N = 93). The model is specified so that items load uniquely on their respective latent constructs of eduhedonism, refreshments, and own language information. The correlations between the three constructs in the model are freely estimated except for the referent parameter loading weight associated with each construct that is set to unity to identify the model.

Significant difference between Western and Asian tourists is hypothesised, but the initial fit of the Asian tourist data to the three-factor measurement benefits gained model is excellent except for an AGFI below the .90 threshold, both statistically, χ^2 (17, N = 93) = 20.13, p= .268, and practically, GFI = .95, AGFI = .89, TLI = .98, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05 (.00; .11) and SRMR = .06. Excellent fit for all fit indices is achieved following the removal of the own language information latent construct as the covariance with the refreshment latent construct is non significant and the error variance (e13) for the own language written information item within this two-item construct is also non-significant. The resultant fit of the data to the model is excellent both statistically, χ^2 (8, N= 93) = 9.172, p= .328, and practically with GFI = .97, AGFI = .91, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04 (.00; .13) and SRMR = .04.

The factor patterns and structure coefficients for the estimated parameters are presented in Table 6.20. All factor pattern coefficients on the respective two factors are statistically significant and range from a low of .21 to a high of .98. Inspection of the structure coefficients shows discriminant validity with a clear distinction between the items comprising the two cultural experience benefits gained factors. Intercorrelation between the latent variables is positive and significant (see Figure 6.12) with the correlation between the eduhedonism and refreshment factors being .17.

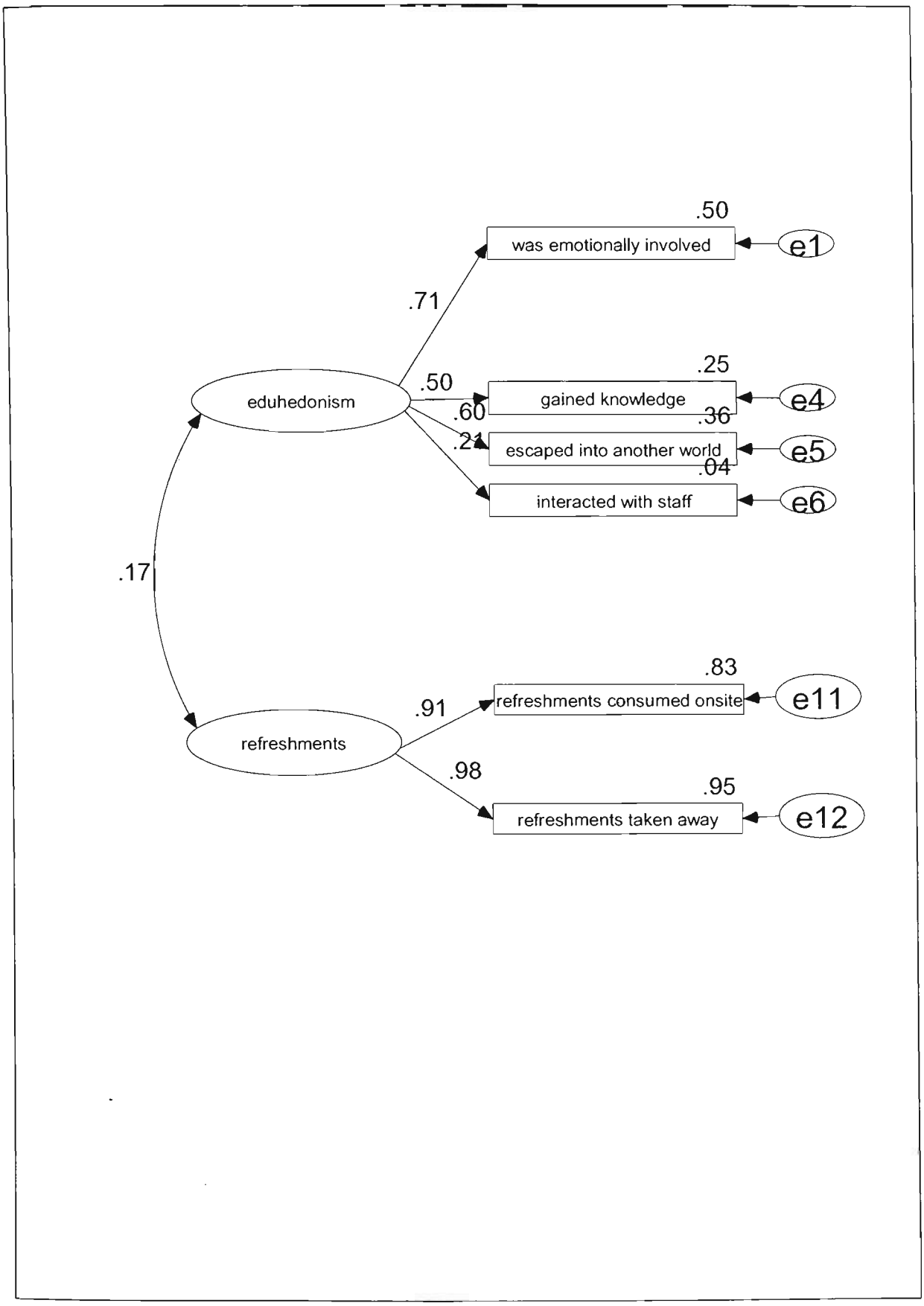
Table 6.20 Validation of CFA cultural experience benefits gained model with Asian tourists sample: Factor pattern and structure coefficients for the two factors

		Factors			
Questionnaire Item **From my visit ...**		**Edu-hedonism**		**Refresh-ments**	
		P	S	P	S
6.1	I was emotionally involved	.71	.71	0[a]	.12
6.8	I gained knowledge	.50	.50	0[a]	.08
6.10	I escaped into another world	.60	.60	0[a]	.10
6.11	I interacted with staff	.21	.21	0[a]	.04
6.31	a suitable range of food and drinks were available for purchase and consumption	0[a]	.15	.91	.91
6.32	a suitable range of food and drinks were available to purchase and take away	0[a]	.17	.98	.98

Note: P = pattern coefficient; S = structure coefficient; N = 93. Factor correlations were free to be estimated. All pattern coefficients are statistically different from zero.

a. Parameters fixed at reported levels to identify the model

Figure 6.12 Hypothesised model of cultural experience benefits gained from CFA validation sample of English-speaking tourists for international Asian tourists



Scree plots for the two constructs demonstrate that they are unidimensional and the resultant Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the four-item eduhedonism factor and the two-

item refreshments factor are respectively .57 and .94 which identifies the Cronbach alpha for the eduhedonism factor as below the recommended .70 threshold (Hair et al., 2006).

Hypothesis three that there is significant difference between Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking Asian tourists for the cultural experience benefits gained construct cannot be tested as the subsample size for the two groups of Asian tourists, namely Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking, required for invariance testing of the cultural experience benefits gained model for Asian tourists to be undertaken is below the recommended minimum of 100 cases for each group.

6.7.5 Dimensionality of Cultural Experience Benefits Gained Summary Discussion

It was hypothesised that there are significant differences between Western and Asian tourists for the dimensionality of the cultural experience benefits gained construct. It was further hypothesised that the dimensionality would not be significantly different for different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists, but would be significantly different for different language cultural groups of Asian tourists.

The first hypothesis was supported with differences between Western and Asian tourists for cultural experience benefits gained dimensionality. Of the three-factor model derived from the Western tourist sample, the Asian sample validated two factors: eduhedonism and refreshments. The own language information benefit gained from experiencing cultural attractions was not validated for the Asian tourists which is expected as very few cultural attractions in Australia provide written information in languages other than English.

These dimensions are consistent with some theoretical formulations as discussed in section 6.7.2 where their marketing implications are also raised.

A summation of the three benefits gained dimensions found in this study is that one factor is psychologically-based and two are attribute-based. The psychologically-based factor of eduhedonism is a composite of commonly found education-related and hedonic-entertainment-consumption-related dimensions. That the cultural experience itself has hedonic value has been acknowledged in the literature (Geissler et al., 2006; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Holbrook and Schindler, 1994). The two attribute-based dimensions of refreshments and own language information contrast with the trend in the literature emphasizing a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcome (Tian et al., 1996). However, the refreshment dimension validates recent research of art museum experiences (Geissler et al., 2006) and performing arts experiences (Swanson and Davis, 2006) that acknowledge the importance of some ancillary services and their quality to the cultural experience. The own language information dimension is a relevant dimension to test in cross-cultural research of tourist experiences and has some theoretical support from Frochot's (2004) investigation of benefits sought by visitors to historic houses which combined both utilitarian and

experiential theories and found a communications dimensions displayed significant differences across the benefit visitor segments.

Invariance testing of the benefits gained cultural experience construct for different cultural groups of Western tourists supports hypothesis two that there is not a significant differences between these tourists. The invariance of the factor configural structure and metric invariance of the factor loadings indicate that the two different cultural groups of English-speaking tourists, domestic tourists in Australia and international tourists, are calibrating the items in a similar fashion. Hypothesis three that there is a significant difference between different language cultural groups of Asian tourists could not be tested as the subsample size for the two groups of Asian tourists of interest to this study, namely Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking, were below the recommended minimum of 100 cases for each group.

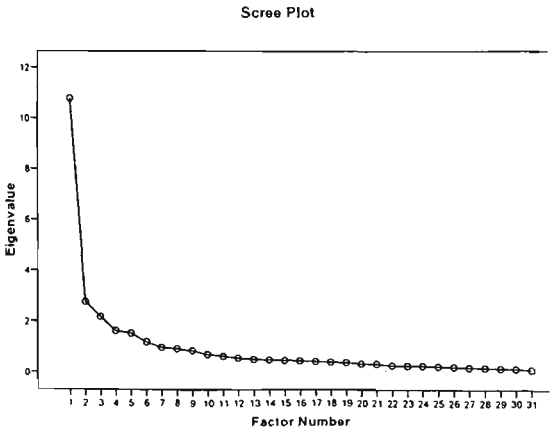
6.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Western Tourist Motives Differences

6.8.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motive Dimensionality for the Domestic Tourist Sample

The EFA is conducted on the 31 items of the cultural experience motive scale using the domestic tourist sample (N = 315) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially six factors are extracted for cultural experience motives based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but three factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.13a) that are later increased to a final model of five factors based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.13b) with satisfactory factorial structure.

Figure 6.13 Scree plots of EFA motives construct for English-speaking domestic tourist sample

6.13a



6.13b

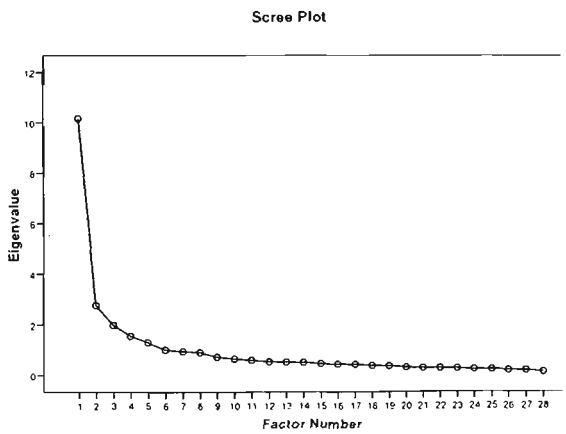


Table 6.21 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 25 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing six items to respecify

the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Various criteria for identifying and evaluating variables for possible deletion are used as previously discussed in section 6.2 outlining the EFA statistical analysis methods used in this study. Two items are firstly removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices (3.23 and 3.9). One item (3.14) is then removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. Five factors are specified based on the scree plot and a further two items are removed to improve discriminant validity (3.24 and 3.6) with one further item removed for cross-loadings greater than 3.2 on factors three and five.

Table 6.21 EFA for the domestic tourist sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the five factors of cultural experience motives derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors				
I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...		**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**V**
3.11	to learn about local culture	**.98**	-.02	.01	-.02	-.07
3.12	to learn about local history	**.93**	-.00	-.02	-.01	.01
3.13	to learn about local performing arts	**.75**	.06	.08	.06	-.08
3.15	to enjoy something unique to the destination	**.53**	.08	-.30	.14	.09
3.10	to meet locals	**.52**	.01	.23	.08	-.03
3.22	to see famous places	**.45**	.04	.02	.07	.24
3.17	to forget about demands of daily life	-.04	**.84**	-.07	.09	.03
3.18	to escape into another world	.01	**.78**	.14	.02	-.03
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	.20	**.45**	-.33	.15	.17
3.19	to satisfy my curiosity	.32	**.40**	-.09	-.05	.25
3.25	to gain the respect of others	.11	.00	**.69**	.06	.21
3.21	to enhance my social position	.15	.10	**.63**	.04	.16
3.3	to relax physically	-.07	.14	.10	**.83**	-.10
3.4	to relax mentally	-.02	.22	.02	**.75**	-.09
3.2	to be entertained by others	.09	-.13	.04	**.73**	.03
3.1	to have fun	.16	-.07	-.07	**.72**	.01
3.7	to do something I want to do	-.05	.06	-.19	**.52**	.16
3.5	to have thrills and excitement	.11	.14	.16	**.52**	.09
3.8	to do something with my family and friends	-.05	-.04	-.23	**.46**	.22
3.28	to get value for money	-.04	-.01	-.06	-.05	**.86**
3.27	to go somewhere safe	.08	.09	.11	.07	**.67**
3.30	to buy goods and souvenirs	-.03	.05	.20	.08	**.49**
3.31	to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	.07	.05	.19	.10	**.45**
3.29	to have a high quality experience	.18	.09	-.20	.16	**.45**
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	.19	.19	.23	-.06	**.41**
Reliability Alpha		.88	.83	.79	.88	.82
Factor intercorrelations						
Factor I: Local Culture Knowledge						
Factor II: Escape and Novelty		.38				
Factor III: Social Recognition		.04	.13			
Factor IV: Hedonism		.50	.49	.01		
Factor V: Good Value Consumption		.40	.50	.18	.42	
Percentage of explained variance		34.40	7.98	7.31	4.14	3.32
Eigenvalue after rotation		6.10	5.18	1.72	6.32	5.34

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .41 are shown in bold type. $N = 315$

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 18 iterations

The internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficients and the coefficients for all five factors are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006) as seen in table 6.21. Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the five-factor solution accounts for 57 percent of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of squared loadings. Several of the factor intercorrelations are .30 or greater, which justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.21, shows five interpretable cultural experience motive factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. Three of the factors are based on 13 of the 29 psycho-socio-physiologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found motives for attending cultural-related attractions and events and these items comprise factors that are highly compatible with the literature: Escape and Novelty (4 items), Social Recognition (2 items) and Hedonism (7 items). The other two factors are largely psycho-socio-physiologically-based, but include some attribute-related items as well. One seven-item factor is dominantly local culture learning-related, but includes the partly attribute-based items of enjoying something unique to the destination, meeting locals and seeing famous cultural places. The other six-item factor, Good Value Consumption, includes the attribute-based items of going to cultural experiences while travelling to buy goods and souvenirs and to buy refreshments to consume at the cultural experience as well as the partly attribute-based item of seeking a high quality experience.

This factor solution for the domestic tourist sample retains more motive items than any other samples in this study, extracts the largest number of motive factors (five) at least two of which are partly attribute-related. Consumption of refreshments and shopping for goods and souvenirs are important attributes that motivate domestic tourists to attend cultural experiences while travelling.

6.8.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motive Dimensionality for the New Zealand Tourist Sample

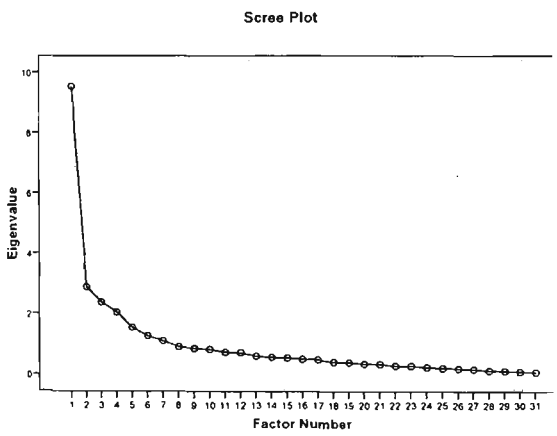
The EFA is conducted on the 31 items of the cultural experience motive scale using the New Zealand tourist sample (N = 140) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially seven factors are extracted for cultural experience motives based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but four factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.14a) that are further reduced to three factors, but then increased back to four factors in the final model based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.14b) with satisfactory factorial structure.

Table 6.22 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 17 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing 14 items based on

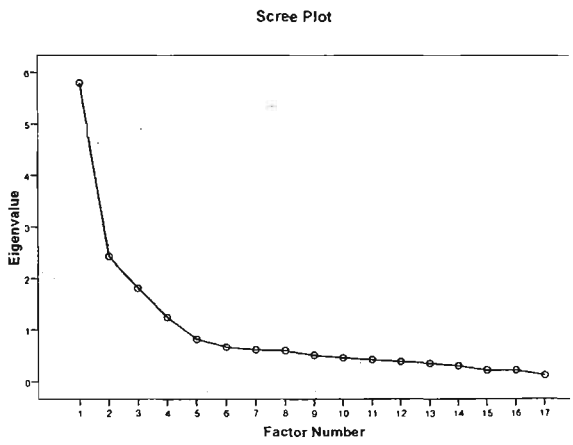
various criteria (see section 6.2) to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. One item (3.9) is removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. Nine items are then removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices (3.18, 3.14, 3.6, 3.17, 3.30, 3.8, 3.22, 3.24 and 3.23). A further four items are then removed: one item (3.10) for cross-loadings greater than .32 on two factors, one item (3.16) so that all items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations greater than 0.5 as generally recommended (Hair et al., 2006), one item (3.15) to increase the Cronbach alpha coefficient for Factor 2 as recommended by the SPSS analysis output, and a fourth item (3.4) so that all factors are positive. The internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficients and the coefficients for all of four factors are .77 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the four-factor solution accounts for 57% of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of squared loadings. Several of the factor intercorrelations are .30 or greater, which justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Figure 6.14 Scree plots of EFA motives construct for English-speaking New Zealand tourist sample

6.14a



6.14b



Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.22, shows four interpretable cultural experience motive factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. Three factors comprise largely psychologically-based items for going to cultural experiences while travelling: factor one comprises three items consistent with learning about local culture, factor three comprises six items that are hedonic-related, while factor four has four items that are largely social recognition-related. The other factor of four items is largely attribute-based and consumption-related whereby these tourists go to cultural attractions

while travelling to go somewhere safe, get value for money, have a high quality experience and consume refreshments at the cultural experience.

Table 6.22 EFA for the New Zealand tourist sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience motives derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors			
I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...		**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
3.11	to learn about local culture	**.95**	-.00	.02	-.10
3.12	to learn about local history	**.91**	-.03	-.01	.00
3.13	to learn about local performing arts	**.80**	-.06	-.00	.15
3.27	to go somewhere safe	-.13	**.80**	.01	.06
3.28	to get value for money	-.08	**.80**	.08	.04
3.29	to have a high quality experience	.27	**.51**	.17	-.06
3.31	to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	.14	**.47**	-.11	.20
3.1	to have fun	-.03	.02	**.85**	-.14
3.2	to be entertained by others	.01	-.06	**.78**	.01
3.5	to have thrills and excitement	-.08	-.08	**.69**	.31
3.3	to relax physically	-.11	.03	**.52**	.15
3.19	to satisfy my curiosity	.22	.19	**.48**	-.18
3.7	to do something I want to do	.06	.27	**.45**	-.03
3.25	to gain the respect of others	.07	.09	-.06	**.75**
3.21	to enhance my social position	.02	-.02	.12	**.69**
3.26	to demonstrate my ability to travel	-.04	.29	-.02	**.54**
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	.07	.21	.29	**.35**
Reliability Alpha		.91	.77	.83	.77
Factor intercorrelations					
Factor I: Local Culture Knowledge					
Factor II: Safe and Good Value Consumption		.28			
Factor III: Hedonism		.36	.38		
Factor IV: Social Recognition		.11	.42	.21	
Percentage of explained variance		25.95	17.37	8.85	4.85
Eigenvalue after rotation		3.33	3.55	3.84	2.65

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .35 are shown in bold type. *N* = 140

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 11 iterations

6.8.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motive Dimensionality for the North American Tourist Sample

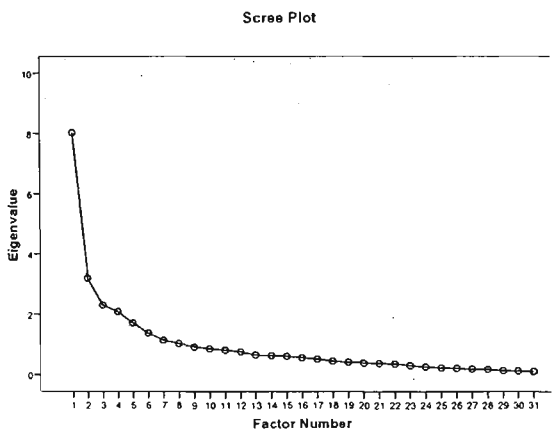
The EFA is conducted on the 31 items of the cultural experience motive scale using the North American sample (N = 124) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially eight factors are extracted for cultural experience motives based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but four factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.15a) and are retained in the final model based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.15b) with satisfactory factorial structure.

Table 6.23 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 17 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing 14 items based on various criteria (see section 6.2) to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared

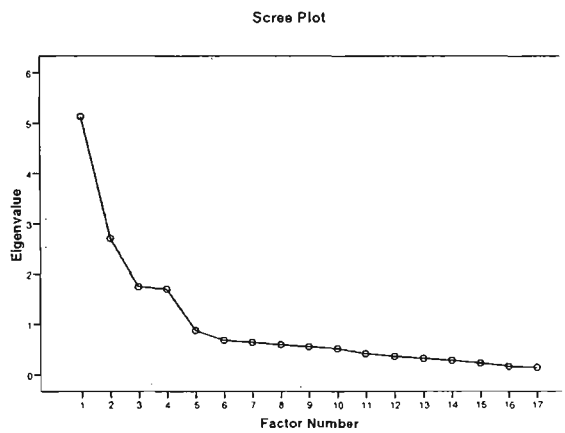
variance. Five items (3.14, 3.8, 3.22, 3.20 and 3.6) are removed to improve discrirninant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. Two items (3.9 and 3.28) are removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. A further two items (3.29 and 3.17) are removed for cross-loadings greater than .32 on several factors and an additional five items (3.1, 3.18, 3.31, 3.30 and 3.17) are removed so that all items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations greater than 0.5 as generally recommended (Hair et al., 2006). The internal reliability coefficients for all of four factors are .81 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the four-factor solution accounts for 57% of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of squared loadings. At least two factor intercorrelations are .30 or close to it, which justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Figure 6.15 Scree plots of EFA motives construct for English-speaking North American tourist sample

6.15a



6.15b



Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.23, shows four interpretable cultural experience motive factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations.

Two of the factors are based on eight of the 29 psycho-socio-physiologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found motives for attending cultural-related attractions and events and these items comprise factors that are highly compatible with the literature: hedonism (4 items) and social recognition (4 items). The other two factors include some attribute-related items to different degrees. One eight-item factor. Local Culture and Knowledge, is dominantly local culture learning-related, but includes the partly attribute-based items of enjoying something unique to the destination and meeting locals. The other two-item Famous Culture factor is dominantly attribute-based with the motives for going to cultural experiences while travelling being to hear famous performers/entertainers and to see famous shows performed.

Table 6.23 EFA on the North American tourist sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the four factors of cultural experience motives derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors			
I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...		**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
3.11	to learn about local culture	**.96**	-.01	.07	-.10
3.13	to learn about local performing arts	**.72**	-.11	.18	.05
3.12	to learn about local history	**.67**	-.09	.20	-.17
3.15	to enjoy something unique to the destination	**.65**	.07	-.04	.09
3.10	to meet locals	**.58**	-.04	-.11	.21
3.19	to satisfy my curiosity	**.57**	.10	-.19	.06
3.7	to do something I want to do	**.57**	.20	-.05	-.16
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	**.54**	.08	-.07	.14
3.4	to relax mentally	-.03	**.95**	.-.09	.02
3.3	to relax physically	-.04	**.82**	.04	.06
3.2	to be entertained by others	.01	**.64**	.14	-.07
3.5	to have thrills and excitement	.17	**.47**	.04	.13
3.23	to hear famous performers/entertainers	.03	.10	**.85**	.10
3.24	to see famous shows performed	-.02	.08	**.84**	.08
3.26	to demonstrate my ability to travel	.06	-.02	-.05	**.81**
3.21	to enhance my social position	-.09	..13	.08	**.74**
3.25	to gain the respect of others	.07	.00	.16	**.70**
Reliability Alpha		.86	.82	.87	.81
Factor intercorrelations					
Factor I: Local Culture Knowledge and Novelty					
Factor II: Hedonism		.28			
Factor III: Famous Culture		.07	.15		
Factor IV: Social Recognition		.18	.30	.09	
Percentage of explained variance		27.16	13.21	8.71	8.28
Eigenvalue after rotation		4.01	3.06	1.82	2.40

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .47 are shown in bold type. *N* = 124

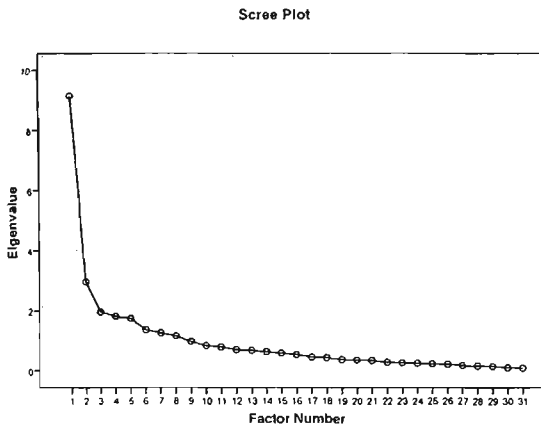
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 6 iterations

6.8.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motive Dimensionality for the United Kingdom and Ireland Tourist Sample

The EFA is conducted on the 31 items of the cultural experience motive scale using the UK and Ireland sample (N = 141) and undertaken in SPSS version 12.0 with the maximum likelihood extraction method and an oblique rotation method (OBLIMIN). Initially eight factors are extracted for cultural experience motives based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but five factors are specified based on the scree plot (see Figure 6.16a) that are further reduced to a final model of three factors based on both eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot (see Figure 6.16b) with satisfactory factorial structure.

Figure 6.16 Scree plots of EFA motives construct for English-speaking UK and Ireland tourist sample

6.16a



6.16b

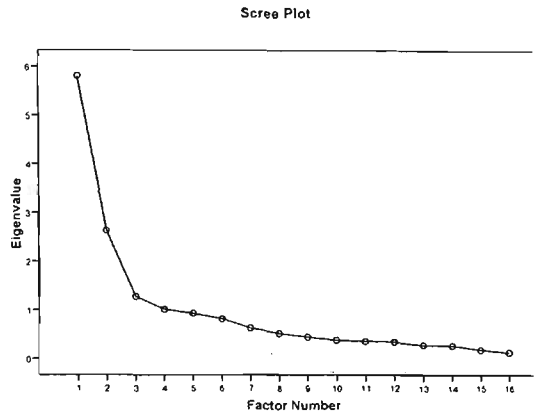


Table 6.24 displays the pattern coefficients and the factor intercorrelations for the final solution based on 14 items. Satisfactory factorial structure is achieved by removing 17 items based on various criteria (see section 6.2) to respecify the factor model and a new factor solution is derived after the removal of each item because maximum likelihood extraction is based on shared variance. Three items (3.8, 3.9 and 3.14) are removed for communality values below the 0.2 threshold indicating that the variable shares a low amount of variance with all the other variables. Four factors are specified based on the scree plot and a further two items are removed for low communality values below the 0.2 threshold (3.13 and 3.6). Four items (3.5, 3.1, 3.7, and 3.10) are removed to improve discriminant validity of the factorial structure based on inspection of the pattern and structure matrices. Three factors are then specified based on the scree plot and a further two factors are removed: one to improve discriminant validity (3.23) and the other for communality below the minimum threshold (3.24). Internal reliability of each dimension is then calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficients. While the coefficients for all three factors are above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006), two further items (3.22 and 3.21) are eliminated so that all items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations greater than 0.5 as generally recommended (Hair et al., 2006). A further two items are removed for discriminant validity reasons (3.3 and 3.17) and three factors are specified based on the scree plot (Figure 3.16b) after the removal of these items. Item 3.28 is then removed for cross-loading on all factors and the internal reliability coefficients are recalculated for the 15 items with one further item (3.2) removed so that items retained have corrected item-to-total correlations greater than 0.5. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for all three factors are .82 or above which is above the commonly used threshold value of .70 for acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Because the factors are correlated, the sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance, but the three-factor solution accounts for 56 percent of the total variance allowing for the extraction sums of

squared loadings. Several of the factor intercorrelations are .30 or greater, which justifies using the maximum likelihood extraction method with an oblique rotation.

Inspection of the pattern coefficients and factor intercorrelations for the final solution displayed in Table 6.24, shows three interpretable cultural experience motive factors that are consistent with some theoretical formulations. The three factors are largely based on psycho-socio-physiologically-related items that were identified from the literature as commonly found motives for attending cultural-related attractions and events. One factor of two items is entirely local culture and history learning-related. The other two factors each comprise six items respectively, one largely social recognition-related but including the attribute-based item of going to cultural experiences while travelling to buy goods and souvenirs, and the other is largely escape- and novelty-related, although it includes two attribute-related items of seeking a high quality experience and enjoying something unique to the destination.

Table 6.24 EFA on the United Kingdom and Ireland tourist sample: Factor pattern coefficients for the three factors of cultural experience motives derived from oblique rotation

Questionnaire Item		Factors		
I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling ...		**I**	**II**	**III**
3.12	to learn about local history	**.95**	.03	.01
3.11	to learn about local culture	**.85**	.07	.07
3.25	to gain the respect of others	.08	**.87**	-.13
3.21	to enhance my social position	.03	**.80**	-.20
3.26	to demonstrate my ability to travel	.06	**.77**	.09
3.27	to go somewhere safe	-.01	**.63**	.27
3.30	to buy goods and souvenirs	-.12	**.50**	.10
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	.11	**.49**	.21
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	-.05	.02	**.77**
3.18	to escape into another world	-.15	.12	**.70**
3.19	to satisfy my curiosity	.12	-.04	**.69**
3.15	to enjoy something unique to the destination	.25	-.19	**.58**
3.29	to have a high quality experience	.18	.14	**.56**
3.4	to relax mentally	.24	.07	**.42**
Reliability Alpha		.92	.85	.82
Factor intercorrelations				
Factor I: Local Culture Knowledge				
Factor II: Social Recognition, Consumption and Safety		.09		
Factor III: Escape and Novelty		.45	.32	
Percentage of explained variance		27.27	19.71	9.32
Eigenvalue after rotation		2.78	3.41	3.77

Note: Coefficients exceeding an arbitrary cut-off loading of .42 are shown in bold type. $N = 141$

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 6 iterations

6.9 Chapter Summary

Confirmatory factor analysis of the cultural experience motivational process constructs to test for cultural differences is used in this chapter. This is an appropriate test given a lack of cross-cultural tourist motivational research despite the cross-cultural nature of international tourism noted in the literature (Reisinger, 2005), and an appropriate method considering extensive theoretical

formulations arguing the global hypothesis that Asian consumer behaviour is distinctively different from Western consumer behaviour and therefore these cultural differences call for different marketing strategies, The specific hypotheses tested in this chapter regarding the dimensionality of the cultural experience motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained are threefold: (i) that they would be different for Western and Asian tourists, (ii) not different for four groups of English-speaking Western tourists and (iii) different for two groups of Asian tourists, namely Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking.

The findings do not support the first hypothesis for cultural experience attitudes, motives and benefits sought dimensionality, but support it for the benefits gained construct. The second hypothesis is supported for all constructs except motives where differences are found for different groups of English-speaking Western tourists. The third hypothesis can only be tested for the first three constructs in the cultural experience motivational process due to sample sizes, but these findings do not support the hypothesis of differences between different language cultural groups of Asian tourists for cultural experience attitudes, motives and benefits sought.

Dimensionality derived for cultural experience attitudes comprises four factors that are validated for Western and Asian tourists as well as for different cultural groups of both Western and Asian tourists: a liking for art, culture and history; traditional performing arts; famous culture; and positive word-of-mouth cultural experiences. Dimensionality derived for cultural experience motives comprises four factors that are validated for Western and Asian tourists as well as for different cultural groups of Asian tourists, but found to be not equivalent for different cultural groups of Western tourists: novelty, social consumption, learning local culture, and relaxation. Dimensionality for cultural experience benefits sought comprises four factors that are validated for Western and Asian tourists as well as for different cultural groups of both Western and Asian tourists: edutainment, signs and facilities, refreshments, and relaxation. Dimensionality for cultural experience benefits gained comprises three factors that are validated for different groups of Western tourists, with only the first two factors validated for Asian tourists: eduhedonism, refreshments, and own language information.

While there are theoretical formulations for most of these dimensions as discussed in sections 6.4.2, 6.5.2, 6.6.2 and 6.7.2, there are unique interrelations between them as noted from this study. Positive word-of-mouth has an important role in the cultural experience motivational process, not only as a separate attitude dimension whereby there was an expressed liking for going to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others and that friends and family have done, and an important item within the motive dimension of social consumption, but benefits gained from the cultural experience have behavioural outcomes of relevance to the likelihood of recommending the experience to others. Relaxation (mentally and physically) is a separate motive dimension and a benefits sought dimension, but only mental relaxation is gained from cultural experiences as a part of the eduhedonism dimension. Ancillary consumerables such as consuming refreshments on-site are an important part of the cultural experience. Social consumption is one of the four motives for

attending cultural experiences while traveling, and refreshments are a separate benefit dimension that is both sought and gained from cultural experiences. Another major finding is that cultural experiences offer a unique combination of education and entertainment, edutainment, and also uniquely combine education with emotionally-involving consumption experiences, eduhedonism, which are benefits both sought and gained by tourists. These and other dimensions found in this study for the cultural experience motivational process further combine utilitarian, attribute-based dimensions as well as psychologically-based dimensions and this finding contrasts with the trend in the literature emphasizing a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and towards experiential and psychological outcomes (Tian et al., 1996). Consumers in the twenty-first century consume experiences as a complex package of tangible and intangible elements.

These findings have marketing implications that have been raised in this chapter and will be further discussed in the next chapter. The lack of differences between Western and Asian tourists and between Chinese-speaking and Japanese Asian tourists, have market segmentation implications and highlights the existence of some global market segments across cultures that are also distinguishable market segments within their respective cultural groups. For example, the sample of Asian tourists interviewed in this study by purposeful convenience quota sampling at a major tourist attraction are an identifiable and attractive market segment characterized by demographic, travel and trip characteristics, and cultural experience motivational dimensions, but they cannot be considered representative of all tourists from China and Japan. Considering that all the tourists in this study were sampled at a major tourist attraction rather than at cultural venues per se, the findings are very encouraging for cultural attractions and also for destinations such as Melbourne positioning themselves as cultural capitals, because they indicate a liking for particular types of cultural experiences by all six tourist markets of interest to this study. The other dimensions identified for each of the motivational process constructs have extensive marketing implications, especially in terms of market segmentation, product development, branding, programming and packaging, communication campaigns and strategies. In addition, benefits gained as the behavioural outcome construct in the cultural experience motivational process have implications for future behaviour such as the likelihood to revisit and to recommend the experience to others. The importance of the latter for cultural experiences has been noted in the literature and validated in this study's findings as important to the constructs of attitudes and motives towards cultural experiences that occur in the early stages of the motivational process.

Chapter 7 Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

In this study, a body of tourist motivation literature was systematically reviewed and research gaps for the study of tourist cultural experience motivation were identified. These findings directed the focus of this study that investigated the nature of the cultural experience motivational process for tourists. Overviews of the literature of specific relevance to the motivational process constructs of personal attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained were provided in Chapter Two. A conceptual framework model was developed in Chapter Three that drew these areas of research together within the context of tourists' motivational process for attending cultural experiences. Having outlined the research methodology for testing the hypothesised conceptual model for the constructs of relevance to tourists' motivational process for cultural experiences and their dimensionality in Chapter Four, the results were presented and discussed in Chapters Five and Six. This chapter presents the conclusions that are drawn from this study.

In the introductory chapters of this thesis, the background and need for this study were established whereby many destinations are positioned and marketed as 'cultural and event capitals' yet little is known about tourists' motivational processes for attending cultural experiences, especially the more temporal performances, festivals and events. From the cultural providers' perspective, tourist markets represent new audiences. Existent research on cultural tourists has largely focused on identifying cultural tourists per se by their attendance at particular cultural experiences and understanding their motivations in a situational context. Furthermore, cross-cultural research of tourists' attitudes and motivations is lacking despite the cross-cultural nature of international tourism (Reisinger, 2005).

The present study addresses these gaps by focusing on the potential of major tourist markets from Western and Asian cultures as new audiences for various cultural experiences. It recognises that consumer motivation is a complex process involving attitudes, motives and expected benefits sought from the cultural experience and the related behavioural outcome of benefits gained. Developing generic models and parsimonious scales for measuring these motivational process constructs and their underlying dimensionality, testing them for cultural group invariance and considering the marketing implications, are the new contributions of this study to the understanding of tourists' motivational processes for cultural experiences.

In the literature review and research methods chapters, the absence of suitable, pre-validated, generic scales for measuring the motivational constructs and their dimensionality in a cultural experience context are acknowledged and an extensive literature review was undertaken. Instrument development was therefore necessary and implemented in a thorough manner with particular attention to various cross-cultural research methodology problems such as ensuring that it was culturally sensitive and demonstrated cultural equivalence and scalar measurement

equivalence for the three cultural language groups of interest to this study: English-speaking Western tourists, Chinese-speaking or Japanese-speaking tourists from Asia. Despite confusion in the motivation literature with divergent research approaches and the constructs often used interchangeably, three multi-item measurement scales were developed to measure the four motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained, all incorporating utilitarian-based items in recognition of Haley's (1968) seminal work as well as the more recently favoured psychologically-based items (Tian et al., 1996). These items also tested the push/pull dimension approach to tourist motivation emphasised in Crompton's (1979) seminal study of motivations for pleasure travel which identified seven socio-psychological domains: two 'pull' dimensions (novelty and educational/intellectual fulfilment) and five 'push' dimensions (rest and relaxation, prestige/status, socialization, social kinship, and regression). The three motivational process constructs of motives, benefits sought and benefits gained, also included hedonic-related items because of their fundamental relevance to aesthetic products (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) which are the context for this study and it was hypothesised that hedonic-based underlying dimension(s) would be found. Two other types of underlying dimensions were also hypothesised for these constructs based on the conceptual approach to leisure and tourism motivation of Iso-Ahola (1982; 1989) who theorised a dichotomy of tourist intrinsic motives based on seeking and avoidance/escape motives.

A large dataset was needed to undertake the statistical analysis associated with testing the four constructs for the six major tourist markets identified as sampling populations for this study: four Western cultures represented by English-speaking tourists from North America, New Zealand, United Kingdom and Ireland, Australia (interstate); and two Asian cultures represented by Japanese tourists and Chinese-speaking tourists from any Asian countries. A popular tourist attraction was needed as the sampling site and the Queen Victoria Market (QVM) in the Melbourne CBD proved ideal with 961 usable surveys obtained from on-site data collection between December 2005 and February 2006 using a structured questionnaire administered by bilingual data collectors fluent in English and Chinese or Japanese.

The data was examined in SPSS 12.0 to determine sample characteristics, data normality and factorability and one distinguishing feature of the data sample was the predominance of independent tourists compared with tourists on tour groups for the overall sample (90% cf 4%) as well as for all six subsamples: domestic (92% cf 4%) New Zealand (96% cf 2%), North American (87% cf 9%), UK and Ireland (92% cf 4%), Asian Chinese-speaking, (94% cf 3%) and Asian Japanese-speaking(75% cf 5%).

To develop the construct models, determine dimensionality, and test for cultural group differences, a two-stage exploration and validation procedure on randomly split samples (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988) was undertaken using Maximum Likelihood extraction and Oblimin rotation in the exploratory factor analysis, followed by confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS 5.0 with invariance

testing for Western cultural group differences. The model fit and invariance of the Asian data were then tested.

In section 7.2, conclusions that stem from the analysis of the body of literature relating to the tourist motivational process and this study's research of tourists' motivational process for cultural experiences are discussed. Conclusions drawn in relation to the dimensionality of cultural experience motivation constructs tested in the hypothesised models and the concepts within these models are also presented in this section. For attitudes and motives constructs this research is a generic study of tourist's attitudes towards attending cultural experiences in general and their motives for attending (or not attending) cultural experiences while on holiday. For the benefits sought and gained constructs of the cultural experiences motivational process, this research is a case study of tourists' experiences at a single destination, but these findings are also worthy of consideration within the broader context of other tourists' motivational process for cultural experiences because they focus on generic benefits (sought and gained) by tourists at any cultural experience. Marketing implications and other related managerial considerations of the findings of this research are presented in section 7.3. Limitations of this research on tourists' cultural experiences motivational process and the constructs of personal attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained are presented in 7.4 and their implications for future research are also considered in this section. Recommendations for future research are suggested in Section 7.5.

7.2 Conclusions from this Study of Cultural Experience Motivation for Tourists and its Dimensionality

The salient constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained within the motivational process for cultural experiences are reduced to a small set of dimensions that support the first three hypotheses of this study (H1, H2 and H3) whereby the underlying dimensions of the attitudes construct, primarily include cultural experiences and psycho-socio-physiologically-related outcomes, while for the motives, benefits sought and benefits gained constructs, they primarily include hedonic, seeking and escaping related dimensions. Furthermore, some of these underlying dimensions are attribute-based and others are psychologically-based, socio-psychologically-based or psycho-socio-physiologically-based. Dimensions relevant to more than one construct are identified, indicating construct inter-relationships. For the hypotheses claiming that the motivational process will differ by culture (H4), although significant differences were hypothesised between Western and Asian cultures (H4a), and within the two Asian cultural groups (H4c), these were not supported, revealing an unexpected breaking down of the previously identified cultural divide between Western and Asian cultures that will be discussed in the next section and the new finding of a global market segment of independently travelling tourists with similar motivational processes for cultural experiences, the marketing implications for which will be discussed in Section 7.3. The four Western cultural groups have similar attitudes and benefits as predicted in Hypothesis 4b, but differing motives whereby H4b is not supported for the motives construct within the cultural

experience motivational process for the Western tourists. This latter finding is extremely interesting as it has not been found before and is discussed further in section 7.2.3.

7.2.1 Breaking Down of the Cultural Divide Between the West and the East

The unexpected finding of this study is its lack of support for the previously identified great cultural divide between Western and Asian consumer behaviour in general (Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998), in tourism services contexts between hosts and guests (Reisinger and Turner, 1998a, 1998b, 2002a, 2002b; Turner et al., 2001), and in one study of tourist cultural festival motivations in an Asian setting (Lee, 2000). Rather this study found more differences between English-speaking Western cultures than between Western and Asian cultures or amongst different Asian cultures. As summarised in Tables 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3, there were no significant differences found for the underlying dimensions between West and East cultural language groups, with the exception of one benefits gained dimension. This will be further discussed in the next section on the findings of this study compared with the first three hypotheses of this study (H1, H2 and H3) regarding the nature of the underlying dimensions for the four motivational process constructs. The measurement models identifying the underlying dimensions or factors for each of the four motivational process constructs were firstly developed with the total Western tourist sample, then tested with the total Asian tourist sample data.

Table 7.1 Summary of motivational process construct items, factors and invariance testing

				Western Tourists (English-speaking)			**Asian Tourists (Chinese- or Japanese-speaking)**		
	Items	EFA		CFA			CFA		
	In the Scale	Items	Factors	Items	Factors	Invariance Testing	Items	Factors	Invariance Testing
Attitudes	29	22	4	10	4	invariant[a]	10	4	invariant[c]
Motives	31	19	4	12	4	not invariant[a]	9	4	invariant[c]
Benefits Sought	28	21	4	13	4	invariant[a]	10	4	invariant[c]
Benefits Gained	28	24	3	10	3	invariant[b]	6	2	Insufficient sample sizes for testing differences in Asian cultural language groups

[a] Invariance testing of 4 English-speaking Western Tourist groups: Domestic, NZ, North American, UK and Ireland

[b] Invariance testing of 2 English-speaking Western Tourist groups: Domestic, International

[c] Invariance testing of 2 Asian Tourist groups: Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking

Table 7.1 highlights that the number of factors is the same for the Western tourists and the Asian tourists with the one benefits gained construct dimension exception, which means hypothesis 4a, that there is a significant difference between Western and Asian tourists for each of the four cultural experiences motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained, is not supported. Table 7.1 further highlights the findings of the invariance testing of the construct models for each of the four motivational process constructs associated with testing H4b and H4c. The invariant results for the Western tourists in three of the four tests, support H4b for attitudes, benefits sought and benefits gained but provide the new insight that there are significant differences between Western tourists in relation to cultural experience motives. The invariant

results for the three tests that could be undertaken for the Asian tourists, surprisingly reveal that H4c is not supported for attitudes, motives or benefits sought whereby there would be significant differences between different cultural groups of international tourists from Asia, namely, Chinese-speaking, and Japanese-speaking. Insufficient sample sizes prevented the testing of H4c for the benefits gained construct.

Table 7.2 Summary confirmatory factor analysis dimensions for Western Tourist (English-speaking) validation sample

Attitudes	Motives	Benefits Sought	Benefits Gained
Art, Culture & History (4)*	Novelty (2)	Edutainment (6)	Eduhedonism (4)
Traditional Performing Arts (3)	Social Consumption (4)	Signage & Facilities (3)	Own Language Information (2)
Famous Culture (2)	Local Culture Knowledge (3)	Refreshments (2)	Refreshments (2)
Positive W-O-M and Social Interaction(4)	Relaxation (3)	Relaxation (2)	

NB: ()* number in brackets refers to number of items comprising the dimension

Table 7.3 Summary confirmatory factor analysis dimensions for Asian Tourist (Chinese- and Japanese-speaking) samples

Attitudes	Motives	Benefits Sought	Benefits Gained
Art, Culture & History (4)*	Novelty (2)	Eduhedonism (4)	Eduhedonism (4)
Traditional Performing Arts (3)	Social Consumption (3)	Signage & Facilities (2)	Refreshments (2)
Famous Culture (2)	Local Culture Knowledge 2)	Refreshments (2)	
Positive W-O-M and Social Interaction(4)	Relaxation (2)	Relaxation (2)	

NB: ()* number in brackets refers to number of items comprising the dimension

Cultural differences between the Western and Asian tourists are not found in this study and this was unexpected based on the body of previous literature considered in the literature review where the cultural divide has been supported for consumer behaviour in general (e.g., Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998) and for tourists' satisfaction with hotels-based service quality and reaction to service personnel (e.g., Reisinger and Turner, 1998a; Reisinger and Turner, 1998b, 2002a, 2002b; Turner et al., 2001). The unexpected finding in this study, suggests the issue is unique to the context of understanding tourist motivation in relation to attending cultural experiences such as cultural attractions and events. Another possible explanation could be that the cultural divide between Western and Asian cultures is breaking down rapidly and tourism is contributing to this by giving Westerners a greater understanding of Asian culture and vice versa. Some supporting evidence for this, especially from the Asian tourist's perspective, is provided in this study by the previously noted high proportions within this study's sample of repeat visitors to Melbourne as a destination and the QVM as an attraction at the destination indicating a familiarity of the Asian tourists with Western culture and a satisfaction with their previous visits and experiences (see section 5.4.1). Repeat tourism is a worldwide phenomenon and is a widely acknowledged important goal of the marketing function for many destinations, attractions, and events (Kotler et al., 2006). Another contributing factor in this study is that the sample may have been distinct in some

ways. Although sampled onsite at the popular QVM attraction using purposeful convenience sampling to achieve quotas in the six different cultural groups being studied, the proportion of the sample staying in 3-star accommodation or higher, is a significantly greater proportion of the sample than for tourists in general to Australia and Melbourne (see section 5.4) which may be due to the CBD location of QVB. This accommodation characteristic implies that the sample may also have been distinct in other ways with a stronger predominance of people with high income levels and high education levels (two socio-demographics that are not directly measured in this study).

7.2.2 The Cultural Experience Motivational Process Construct Dimensions

This study posits that Western and Asian tourists' motivation is a complex process involving and influenced by their enthusiasm towards different types of experiences and what these experiences offer as well as the motives that drive tourists to attend, and the expectations they form in anticipation of the cultural experience. The findings inform marketing strategies for attracting independently travelling tourists from major Western and Asian markets to cultural experiences that are complex packages of elements.

The overall research hypotheses relating to the underlying dimensions of the motivational process constructs claimed that the attitudes construct would primarily include cultural experience and psycho-socio-physiological outcome related dimensions, while for the motives, benefits sought and benefits gained constructs, they would primarily include hedonic, seeking, and escaping-related dimensions (H1, H2 and H3). The findings from the descriptive analysis of individual items measuring each construct (Chapter 5), the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses of the dimension structure and composition (Chapter 6), and the further exploratory factor analysis of the motives construct for English-speaking Western tourists (discussed in the next section), strongly support these hypotheses relating to the types and character of underlying dimensions of the cultural experience motivational process constructs for tourists. Unexpected differences were found for the cultural experience motivational process by ethnic cultural group, but these differences are the focus of separate Hypothesis 4 (H4a, b, and c), that is discussed in the sections preceding and following this section.

Table 7.2 summarises the confirmatory factor analysis dimensions found for the English-speaking Western tourist validation sample and Table 7.3 highlights the similarity of dimensions found when the construct measurement models were tested for model fit with the Asian data sample. These findings support the first three hypotheses of this study (H1, H2 and H3) in relation to the underlying dimensions of the salient constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained within the motivational process for cultural experiences whereby the underlying dimensions of the attitudes construct, primarily include cultural experiences and psycho-socio-physiologically-related outcomes, while for the motives, benefits sought and benefits gained constructs, they primarily include hedonic and seeking related dimensions. Only the escape-related dimensions for the motives, benefits sought and benefits gained constructs in the overall measurement models of this

study are not supported by the findings, indicating only partial support for Iso-Ahola's general leisure motivation theory (1982; 1989) that leisure motivation primarily involves seeking-related, intrinsic reward motivations and escape-related motivations. Some caution needs to be taken though before interpreting the absence of escape-related dimensions found for the overall measurement models of this study as applicable across all motivational process constructs for all cultural groups. As discussed in the next section of this chapter, cultural differences for the motives construct were found for English-speaking Western tourists and further exploratory analysis of the motives construct for each of the four Western tourist subsamples found escape to be an underlying motive dimension for domestic Australian tourists and tourists from the UK and Ireland. The hedonic-related dimensions for the motives, benefits sought and benefits gained constructs further supports Hirschman and Holbrook's hedonic and experiential consumption theory (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) as being particularly applicable to aesthetic product.

Furthermore, some of these underlying dimensions are attribute-based in stark contrast to others that are largely psycho-socio-physiologically-based. More attribute-based dimensions are found for the benefits sought and benefits gained constructs re-affirming Haley's (1968) early benefits research with its emphasis on attribute-based dimensions but the existence of emphasis on largely psycho-socio-physiologically-based dimensions also partially supports the more recent claim that the operationalisation of benefits research is experiencing a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcomes (Tian et al., 1996). Some are a mixture of both, such as the motive dimension of social consumption which mixes the consumption of refreshments at the cultural experience as an opportunity for social interaction, a finding recently identified in an exploratory qualitative study of services sought at cultural attractions of relevance to arts marketing (Geissler et al., 2006).

Dimensions relevant to more than one construct within the motivational process model are also identifable in Tables 7.2 and 7.3, suggesting construct inter-relationships. For example, a liking for social interaction is identified within an attitude dimension associated with going to cultural experiences, and a motive dimension. Two motive dimensions of novelty and local cultural knowledge carry through the motivational process as a combined hedonic- and education-related benefits sought dimension, edutainment for Westerners and eduhedonism for Asians, that then becomes a combined hedonic- and education-related benefits gained dimension. The hedonic-related motive of relaxation also carries through the motivational process as an expected benefits sought from the experience, but is not found as a benefit gained from the experience. The concern expressed in Chapter Five from the analysis of mean scores for individual construct measurement items, that QVM experience (benefits sought and benefits gained) differed from the expressed motives for attending cultural experiences, suggesting that the QVM experience was different to cultural experiences for most respondents, was not found to be the case in either the exploratory factor analysis or the confirmatory factor analysis. These noted inter-relationships across constructs from the EFA and CFA confirm that the QVM experience can be considered a type of cultural

experience. At the minimum they suggest that attitudes and motives driving tourists to attend cultural experiences were of relevance to the benefits sought and some of the benefits gained from the QVM experience.

These last two examples of construct inter-relationships spanning both benefits sought and benefits gained are also examples of where satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the experience can be inferred from comparing the differences between benefits sought and benefits gained dimensions. Western and Asian tourists are satisfied with their edutainment/eduhedonism benefits from the QVM experience and the attribute-based refreshments benefits, but their relaxation expectations are not achieved and other attributes of signage and facilities could be improved for Westerners. The one significant difference found for the underlying dimensions between Western and Asian cultural language groups is 'own language information' which was identified in the benefits gained confirmatory analysis model developed with Western tourist sample dataset, but was removed in the respecified model for the Asian tourist sample dataset. Considering that the QVM does not provide signs or other information in languages other than English, but both Western and Asian cultural groups expect signs and facilities as an underlying benefits sought dimension, this finding is not surprising and indicates an area where dissatisfaction can be inferred for the Chinese- and Japanese-speaking tourists. These satisfaction/dissatisfaction findings have marketing implications that are further discussed in section 7.3.

7.2.3 Differences in Western Tourist Cultural Experience Motives Dimensions

The lack of invariance found in the cultural experience motive construct dimensionality for the English-speaking Western tourists, required exploratory factor analysis to be undertaken for each of the four different cultural groups of Western tourists, particularly as the expectation was that the samples would interpret the items using identical frames of reference (Hurley et al., 1997). This further research for the English-speaking Western tourists and the motives construct explores the cultural differences within the different groups of Western tourists for construct dimensionality structure overall and differences in the importance of individual variables within the factors. It provides extremely interesting findings that have not been found before and are summarised in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4 Summary exploratory factor analysis motive dimensions for Western Tourist (English-speaking) subsamples found to be not invariant in the motive construct CFA

Motives			
Domestic Tourists	**New Zealand Tourists**	**North American Tourists**	**UK and Ireland Tourists**
Local Culture Knowledge (6)	Local Culture Knowledge (3)	Local Culture Knowledge and Novelty (8)	Local Culture Knowledge (2)
Escape and Novelty (6)	Safe and Good Value Consumption (4)	Hedonism (4)	Social Recognition, Consumption and Safety (6)
Social Recognition (2)	Hedonism (6)	Famous Culture (2)	Escape and Novelty (6)
Hedonism (7)	Social Recognition (4)	Social Recognition (4)	
Good Value Consumption (7)			

NB: ()* number in brackets refers to number of items comprising the dimension

All four groups share a motivation for going to cultural experiences for the seeking-related dimensions which supports Iso-Ahola's general leisure motivation theory (1982; 1989). The specific dimensions sought by all four groups of Western tourists from cultural experiences are acquiring local culture knowledge. Another seeking-related motivation sought from cultural experiences is hedonic-related experiences, excepting those from the UK and Ireland. This emphasis on hedonic-related experiences from attending cultural experiences further supports Hirschman and Holbrook's hedonic and experiential consumption theory (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) as being particularly applicable to aesthetic product . Only two groups of Western tourists exhibit escape-related dimensions in support of the other part of Iso-Ahola's general leisure motivation theory (1982; 1989). Australian domestic tourists and tourists from the UK and Ireland exhibit escape-related dimensions from attending cultural experiences. One other finding that is applicable to all four groups is the presence of a social recognition-related dimension. This finding is of particular interest because earlier analysis of individual measurement items by mean scores within the motivational process constructs discussed in Chapter Five, found that social recognition was a psycho-sociologically-based motive that in this study for the total sample is not positively associated as a motive for going to cultural attractions and events while travelling, with all three items scoring as the three lowest motive items and marginally below the 3.5 midway neutral point on the 6-point measurement scale. Enhancing social position, however, is an important item within the social consumption dimension of the measurement model for the underlying motives dimensions developed in the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses for the Western tourists and then reconfirmed with the Asian tourist dataset, confirming its relevance as a cultural experience motive for both of these cultural language groups. So the presence of a social recognition-related dimension in the exploratory factor analysis of the motives construct for all four English-speaking Western tourist subsamples, further reaffirms its relevance as a motive for Western tourists to attend cultural experiences.

In addition to these broad findings in common to all or several of the four English-speaking Western tourist motives for attending cultural experiences while on holiday, the exploratory factor analysis findings for the underlying dimensions of the motives construct also exhibit some cultural group differences. Seeking local cultural knowledge, hedonism and social recognition is common to the domestic tourists, New Zealanders and the North Americans. In addition, the North Americans are interested in novelty and famous culture, a combination that could be summarised as a driving motive for 'must do' cultural experiences. The New Zealanders' additional dimension is safe and good value consumption which suggests they are less adventurous than the North Americans and the domestic Australian tourists, and more thrifty tourists than the other Western cultural groups excepting the domestic Australian tourists. Both the New Zealanders and the North Americans are less escapist as tourists than the domestic Australian tourists and the tourists from the United Kingdom and Ireland. Tourists from the UK and Ireland are not as hedonistic, seek safety in common with the New Zealanders and escape and novelty in common with the domestic Australian

tourists, but otherwise seek the commonly found motives of local cultural knowledge and social recognition (albeit combined with safety). Domestic Australian tourists are more hedonistic than the New Zealanders and the North Americans based on number of hedonistic-related items comprising the dimension. Otherwise they seek escape and novelty in common with the tourists from UK and Ireland, good value consumption in common with the New Zealanders, social recognition and local cultural knowledge in common with all other Western cultural groups.

7.3 Marketing Implications

Overall, this study finds strong positive agreement by all six tourist populations studied towards attending cultural attractions and events. This is an encouraging outcome as it highlights the potential of tourist markets from diverse cultural backgrounds. Some findings of this study that are contrary to existing research or new contributions to the understanding of tourists' motivational process for attending cultural attractions and events, have multiple marketing implications. Firstly, the absence of cultural group differences between Western and Asian tourists in the motivational process constructs and their underlying dimensions, is contrary to the differences found in much consumer behaviour, tourism and hospitality literature. The similarity in underlying dimensions of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained for Western and Asian tourists highlights a global market segment of independently travelling tourists with similar motivational processes for cultural experiences. In the early stages of the motivational process, marketing communication campaigns and activities, in particular, have an important role to play in converting positive attitudes and motives for attending cultural experiences into actual attendances. However, the presence of cultural group differences for different groups of English-speaking, Western tourists, in relation to the motives construct is a new and interesting finding of this study with further market segmentation implications. These findings encourage marketing cultural attractions and events to tourists, without focussing on cultural group differences, except when addressing different cultural groups of Western tourists.

The improved understanding of the motivational process of tourist markets for cultural experiences while on holiday resulting from this study, has numerous marketing implications as previously discussed in relation to each of the four motivational process constructs and summarised below.

From the attitudes construct findings (sections 6.4.2 and 6.4.5), the development of appropriate marketing communication campaigns and the importance of branding to attract tourists to cultural experiences are acknowledged. The liking of cultural experiences that have been positively recommended emphasises the importance of word-of-mouth (W-O-M) communications as information sources influencing tourists' liking for different types of cultural experiences. This finding supports the general finding in the literature of the importance of W-O-M communications in the consumer decision-making process for cultural products (Geissler et al., 2006; Haywood, 1989). Three types of cultural experiences are liked by all tourist markets and should be considered in marketing campaigns: art and history, traditional performing arts and famous culture.

From the motives construct findings (sections 6.5.2 and 6.5.5), where the greatest cultural group differences were found within the different cultural groups of Western tourists (section 6.8), psycho-socio-physiologically-based dimensions commonly found in the literature are supported for tourist markets in general such as social recognition, novelty, learning local culture, and relaxation. This combination of learning and hedonic-entertainment consumption related dimensions supports substantial theoretical formulations identified in cultural and other tourism motivation literature reviews (e.g., Eastgate et al., 2006; Kay, 2006b) and recent qualitative research endorsing the perception that cultural experiences offer a unique blend of education and entertainment, referred to as 'edutainment' (Geissler et al., 2006). However the inclusion of some attribute-based motives within some dimensions is contrary to the trend acknowledged in the literature of a conceptual shift away from activities and amenities and toward experiential and psychological outcomes (Tian et al., 1996), but consistent with recent exploratory research of cultural experiences where the provision of ancillary services such as cafes and gift shops are considered to enhance the sociable aspects of the experience (Geissler et al., 2006; Swanson and Davis, 2006). When marketing to Western cultural groups, discernable differences highlighted in the previous section (section 7.2.3) should be addressed. Edutainment-related and social recognition dimensions are relevant to all Western cultural groups, but unique cultural group differences are also noted. Tourists from the UK and Ireland are not as hedonistic but are more escapist, New Zealand tourists are less adventurous and more thrifty, the North American combination of novelty and famous culture related dimensions is summarised as a driving motive for 'must do' cultural experiences, while the domestic tourists are the most hedonistic of the four cultural groups. These findings have extensive marketing implications for market segmentation, positioning, product development, branding, programming and packaging as well as for communication campaigns and strategies.

In the two benefits-related later stages of the motivational process, the findings (sections 6.6.2, 6.6.5, 6.7.2 and 6.7.5) emphasise the importance of the cultural experience delivering the desired benefits in order for positive behavioural outcomes to result from the experience such as satisfaction (section 7.2.2). Measuring the benefits sought and benefits gained from the cultural experience in two stages, enables tourist satisfaction/dissatisfaction to be inferred (section 7.2.2) and all three constructs have marketing implications for determining appropriate types and levels of psycho-socio-physiologically-related benefits as well as service attributes and quality sought by the tourists from the cultural experience. Behavioural outcomes such as benefits gained and satisfaction, in turn, influence future behavioural intentions such as positive word-of-mouth communications to other potential tourist markets for cultural experiences and intentions to revisit (e.g., Thrane, 2002). This study's findings highlight that all tourist target markets seek and gain from their cultural experiences several attribute-based features as well as psycho-socio-physiologically-based benefits. Edutainment and hedonism-related benefits are sought and gained from cultural experiences, but all tourist target markets also sought attribute-based benefits of refreshments, signage and other facilities. Eduhedonism-related benefits and attribute-based refreshments benefits are gained from the QVM experience for all tourist groups, but information in own language

was only found as a benefit gained for Western tourists. Considering both Western and Asian cultural groups were expecting written information in own language as an underlying benefits sought dimension and the QVM does not provide signs or other information in languages other than English, the lack of support by the Asian tourists for a benefits gained dimension based on own language information is not surprising and indicates an area where dissatisfaction can be inferred for the Chinese- and Japanese-speaking tourists. These benefit and satisfaction/dissatisfaction-related findings have multiple marketing implications, especially for communication strategies, product development and delivery, including service and attribute quality levels.

In the conceptual framework procedural model for researching segmentation of the cultural experience tourist market and for developing effective marketing strategies presented in Chapter Three (Figure 3.2, p. 123) which was adapted from the literature (particularly, Alzua et al., 1998; Morrison et al., 1994), the final steps proposed are identifying target markets for cultural experiences and developing a marketing strategy model for each cultural experience tourist target market based on the earlier findings of this study. The target markets have been identified as the six tourist populations of interest to this study, with Asian tourists and Western tourists comprising one global market segment, except for cultural group differences between the Western tourists in relation to their motives for attending cultural experiences. The marketing strategy model resulting from this study's findings endorses the importance of an understanding of the tourist motivational process for cultural experiences as an essential foundation for developing effective marketing strategies or campaigns for attracting tourists to cultural experiences and delivering cultural experiences with positive behavioural outcomes that have been influenced by the earlier motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives and expectations. That all tourist markets are motivated to attend and consume cultural experiences that are a complex bundle of product attributes and psycho-socio-physiologically-related benefits has been confirmed in this study.

Furthermore, the marketing implications of this study's findings highlight how different marketing strategies and activities are particularly relevant to different stages of the motivational process for cultural experiences. Communication campaigns and strategies are particularly relevant to the formation of attitudes, motives and expectations towards cultural experiences, while product development, delivery, packaging and programming are relevant to the consumption experience, especially the expected benefits sought from the experience, the motivational process related behavioural outcomes of perceived benefits gained following the consumption experience and satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the experience which in turn influences future attitudes and motives towards cultural experiences.

The parsimonious, generic scales for measuring cultural experience motivational process constructs that were developed and tested in this study resulted in new knowledge about the cultural experience motivational process for tourists and the associated marketing implications.

7.4 Research Limitations

While the research of tourist motivation to date is substantial, especially for tourist motives and benefits, there is a lack of pre-validated measurement scales for each of the constructs, cross-cultural research of cultural group differences, and substantive theory of construct dimensionality to govern confirmatory factor analysis model development and re-specification. Nonetheless, despite this limitation, a comprehensive and well thought through measurement instrument is developed which proves to be culturally sensitive, while avoiding the cross-cultural research problems of cultural or measurement scale inequivalence.

Due to the large number of populations selected for sampling in this research (four English-speaking Western groups and two Asian tourist groups: Chinese-speaking and Japanese-speaking), combined with reduced sample sizes for the after-visit sample which measured the benefits gained construct, limitations occurred for the testing of the benefits gained construct in H4a, b and c. In H4b, the invariance testing for the benefits gained construct within the Western tourist sample is restricted to two groups of English-speaking tourists (domestic tourists and international tourists) compared with analysis for the other three cultural experience latent constructs that is undertaken for four groups of English-speaking tourists (domestic tourists, and international tourists from New Zealand, North America, and the United Kingdom and Ireland). Insufficient sample sizes for the two Asian tourist samples responding to the after-visit survey measuring the benefits gained construct, prevented the testing of H4c for the benefits gained construct as the sample sizes for the two groups of Asian tourists (Chinese- and Japanese speaking) are below the recommended minimum of 100-150 cases for each group in confirmatory factor analysis invariance testing. Indeed, the combined Asian sample for the benefits gained construct (N = 93) is close to this minimum threshold for confirmatory factor analysis sample size within the testing of H4a for cultural differences between the Western and Asian tourist groups. Also caution is recommended in interpreting any findings from this study for the domestic tourist younger adults (18-34 years), as this age group is under-represented in the sample, especially in comparison with the proportions of this age group for domestic tourists in Australia and to Melbourne.

International tourist's ethnic cultural orientation tested in H4 (a,b and c) for differences in the motivational process constructs by culture is measured in this study by language spoken at home. This is considered a broader measure of culture than nationality as language is one of the key underlying dimensions of culture (Cateora and Graham, 2002). That it does not cover all cultural dimensions recommended in cross-cultural studies for more grounded inferences of culture is acknowledged, such as Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimensions of power distance, collectivism/individualism, masculinity/femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. These dimensions have been used extensively in cross-cultural studies in international marketing. Schutte and Ciarlante (1998) warn however, of great variation between both Western and Asian cultures along two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions: uncertainty avoidance and masculinity/femininity, and of

great variation between the individual Asian cultures themselves. Nevertheless, they acknowledge the similarities between Asian cultures along the dimensions, and their contrast with Western cultures lead them to conclude that 'Asian' cultural is indeed fundamentally different from 'Western' culture (Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998).

The significant new findings of a lack of difference between Western and Asian tourists in this study's rigorous quantitative measurement of cultural differences in attitudes and behaviour, could have been influenced by limitations associated with the cultural site and the research method used in this study. Restricting the enquiry to a single site in a single location raises some limitations, especially for the benefits sought and gained constructs that were measured in a site specific context to generate data of sufficient richness to apply multivariate analysis techniques. Site specific research makes it more difficult to link the research to the wider field of enquiry and to generalise about the results obtained. Markets may induce more familiarity with the basic experience than other cultural contexts, such as museums and monuments, and whether markets are cultural events could be debated. These limitations are also associated with the breadth versus depth of research dilemma. This study adopted a breadth approach in relation to the motivational process by investigating four interrelated constructs so that the relationships and any cultural differences could be examined. Depth in research from the cultural differences in the motivational process examined in this study is achieved by including two Asian groups (Chinese and Japanese) to allow comparisons to be made between Western and Asian cultural groups. Quantitative research was used in this study to empirically test cultural differences and to build upon the existing body of research relating to tourist's motivational process. Limitations of quantitative research, especially in a cross-cultural context have been previously acknowledged and in view of the findings of this research and the rich mix of motivational constructs identified in the literature review, future research using a qualitative approach may uncover any limitations of the quantitative approach used in this study and enable further indepth analysis of the motivational process constructs and cultural differences.

7.5 Recommendations for Future Research

In this study, parsimonious, generic scales for measuring the motivational process constructs of attitudes, motives, benefits sought and benefits gained in a cultural experience context have been developed for use in future studies. These scales are also suitable for inferring the visitor related motivational process construct of satisfaction/dissatisfaction by comparing the benefits sought results with the benefits gained results for any discrepancies or gaps. The influence of the selected socio-demographic variable of culture on the motivational process for cultural experiences was specifically tested in this study and found to have a major influence on the cultural experience motivational process such as culture of English-speaking Western tourists. Other socio-demographics of potential relevance to the cultural experience motivational process could be tested in future research. For example, age group may have a significant influence and two other socio-demographics not directly measured in this study, but acknowledged as characteristics of this

study's sample population and therefore of possible indirect influence are high income levels and high education levels inferred from the high proportion staying in 3-star accommodation or higher.

With the new conclusion from this study that there are more differences between Western tourists in the cultural experience motivational process for motives than between Western and Asian tourists or between different Asian cultural groups, future research needs to explore and test differences between the different groups of English-speaking tourists for each of the other constructs. For example, it was decided in this research to develop and confirm the measurement models for each motivational process construct using a combined sample of English-speaking Western tourists who were then compared with the Asian tourists. Future research could develop and confirm measurement models for the constructs using a sample of English-speaking international tourists, and these models could then be tested with the domestic tourist sample as well as the Asian tourist sample. This approach would provide more detailed analysis and understanding of the underlying differences and similarities in cultural experience motivational constructs dimensionality for these major markets of English-speaking Western tourists who share some cultural similarities as supported by the invariance testing findings for the cultural experience constructs of attitudes, benefits sought and benefits gained, but also some differences as evidenced by the non-invariant finding for the cultural experience motives construct.

Having found some unexpected differences between English-speaking Western tourists in this study and recommended future research methods for gaining more insight into these differences in the previous paragraph, future research should also focus on testing for differences between important tourist markets of non-English-speaking Western tourists. For Australia, these markets should include tourists from the current major European market of Germany identified as a Tier 2 market and also the potential European markets identified as Tier 3 Markets in forecasts of international tourists to Australia and Victoria over the next ten years between 2006-2015 of France, Italy, the Netherlands and Switzerland (Tourism Victoria, 2006a).

Acknowledging the high proportions of independent tourists sampled in this study which enables an important contribution to understanding the cultural experience motivational process for these tourists and associated cultural language group differences, future research could focus on tour groups from major tourist markets and a comparison of their motivational process and underlying dimensions. Independent tourists are an important and growing market, especially given the high proportions of repeat visitors found in this study. These tourists are also highly receptive and responsive to marketing communication activities and strategies, as their plans are less fixed than tourists travelling on tour groups. Independent tourists however, are only a segment of the large, emerging tourists markets of Asia such as China. Tour groups are another important market segment, and based on Pearce's (Pearce and Lee, 2005) travel career approach to tourist motivation, one that is particularly relevant to emerging tourist markets, in the early stages of international travel careers.

The new conclusions from this study identify cross-cultural tourist markets as new audiences for cultural experiences. This addresses the research problem of the potential of major tourist markets as new audiences for cultural experiences at cultural attractions and events. By researching their cultural experience motivational process, determining the underlying dimensions of relevance to the process, and any cultural language group similarities and differences, this research complements and contributes to the existing cultural tourism research that largely focuses on understanding tourist motivation and behaviour at cultural experiences per se and neglects cross-cultural perspectives despite their importance to international tourism. By applying the latest methods of confirmatory factor analysis in structural equation modeling to determine measurement models for each of the significant constructs of the cultural experience motivational process and their underlying dimensionality, it is possible to statistically test for cultural language group similarities and differences in relation to these using invariance testing, and this is a further contribution of this study to understanding cultural differences in the cultural experience motivational process. From these latest methods and the resulting conclusions, new insight with marketing implications for destinations, attractions and events is provided in addition to parsimonious, generic scales for use in future studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendices

Appendix 1: Survey Instruments and Cover Letter - English Version

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School of Hospitality, Tourism & Marketing
Footscray Park Campus
Ballarat Road
Footscray

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

We would like to invite you to be part of a study into why tourists attend cultural attractions and events

A Victoria University research project
being undertaken by Pandora Kay as part of the requirements for a PhD
supervised by Dr Lindsay Turner

Your participation would be to complete
A SURVEY OF TOURISTS to Queen Victoria Market

Information to Survey Participants

The results of the study will be used to understand why tourists attend local cultural attractions and events and to identify tourist market segments for whom appropriate marketing strategies can be developed.

Participants to be surveyed have been recruited by being the first encountered, at least 18 years of age, and are a tourist to Melbourne (international or domestic interstate). If in a group, then the preferred respondent will be the person whose birthday is nearest to 30 June.

Your participation is voluntary and there is no advantage or disadvantage to the person participating in the survey. You can withdraw from this survey at any time and this withdrawal will not jeopardise you in any way.

Please be assured that your information and answers to these questions will remain strictly confidential and anonymous whereby no information will be released in a way that would enable any person to be identified.

If you would like information of the completed study, please provide your business card or address to the researcher, Pandora Kay.

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University

Contact Details for Pandora Kay:

School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing
Faculty of Business and Law
Footscray Park Campus
Victoria University
P.O. Box 14428, Melbourne City
MC 8001 Australia

Telephone : 61 3 9919 5367
Fax: 61 3 9919 4931
Email: Pandora.Kay@vu.edu.au

WINNER
2000 AUS Tourism Awards

HALL OF FAME
2001 VICTORIAN TOURISM AWARDS

Intercept Questions

..... *(record number for this intercept sheet)*
..... *(record date)*

Hello, my name is ..... and I am an interviewer for a Victoria University study on tourists attending cultural attractions and events in Melbourne and your visit to the Queen Victoria Market. The following questions will take less than 5 minutes to complete and the full survey will only take 15 minutes, if you are eligible. We hope you will help us to learn about tourists' cultural experiences. Your answers will remain strictly confidential and anonymous.

Q1.1 What region or country do you live in? *(Show card No.1)*
(Circle one)

Australia	01	Go to Q1.2
New Zealand	02	Go to Q1.3
North America	03	Go to Q1.3
North East Asia	04	Go to Q1.3
South East Asia	05	Go to Q1.3
United Kingdom and Ireland	06	Go to Q1.3
Other .....*(please record country)*	07	*

*(If not living in any of these, the respondent is not eligible to participate in this study, end interview and thank them for their time)

Q1.2 If you live in Australia as a permanent resident, in which state or territory do you live?
(Circle one)

New South Wales	01	Go to Q1.3
Northern Territory	02	*
Queensland	03	Go to Q1.3
South Australia	04	Go to Q1.3
Tasmania	05	*
Victoria	06	*
Western Australia	07	*

*(If not living in NSW, Qld or South Australia, the respondent is not eligible to participate in this study, end interview and thank them for their time)

Q1.3 What language is the <u>one</u> most spoken at home? ***(Circle one)***

English	01	Go to Q1.4
Chinese (Mandarin)	02	Go to Q1.4
Chinese (Cantonese)	03	Go to Q1.4
Chinese (Dialect)	04	Go to Q1.4
Japanese	05	Go to Q1.4
Other .....*(please record language)*	06	*

*(If not English, Chinese or Japanese, end interview and thank them for their time)

Q1.4 How many nights are you staying in Melbourne this trip? *(Circle one)*

1-3 nights	01	Go to Q1.5
4-7 nights	02	Go to Q1.5
8-14 nights	03	Go to Q1.5
15 or more nights	04	Go to Q1.5

(If staying less than one night or more than one year, end interview and thank them for their time)

Q1.5 What is your age group? *(Circle one)*

18-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65-74 75+

(If under 18 years of age, end interview and thank them for their time)

Q1.6 *Record gender* *(Circle one)*

female ....01 male 02

We would like to invite you to be part of a study into why tourists attend cultural attractions and events

A Victoria University research project
being undertaken by Pandora Kay as part of the requirements for a PhD
supervised by Dr Lindsay Turner

Your participation would be to complete
A SURVEY OF TOURISTS to Queen Victoria Market

Information to Survey Participants

The results of the study will be used to understand why tourists attend local cultural attractions and events and to identify tourist market segments for whom appropriate marketing strategies can be developed.

Participants to be surveyed have been recruited by being the first encountered, at least 18 years of age, and are a tourist to Melbourne (international or domestic interstate). If in a group, then the preferred respondent will be the person whose birthday is nearest to 30 June.

Your participation is voluntary and there is no advantage or disadvantage to the person participating in the survey. You can withdraw from this survey at any time and this withdrawal will not jeopardise you in any way.

Please be assured that your information and answers to these questions will remain strictly confidential and anonymous whereby no information will be released in a way that would enable any person to be identified.

If you would like information of the completed study, please provide your business card or address to the researcher, Pandora Kay.

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..... *(record intercept sheet number onto this survey)*

..... *(record date)*

A SURVEY OF TOURISTS visiting Queen Victoria Market

(hand over 'Information to Survey Participants' letter)

(read) Instructions to Survey Participants

On the following pages, you will be presented with a series of questions about you and your cultural tourism experiences. You will be asked to answer all questions, even if some may appear similar.

If uncertain about some answers, please make the best estimate.

If you are unable to answer some questions, please complete the rest of the survey.

We are interested in ALL your comments, whether they are POSITIVE or NEGATIVE

Your completion of this survey is given as your consent to participate.

The personal interview survey should take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Q2. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about **what cultural experiences you like.**

(Show card No.2 – read statements randomly, ask respondent to indicate a level of agreement, and circle the appropriate response)

	I like going	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Totally Agree
2.1	to art galleries	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.2	to classical music performances	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.3	to modern music performances	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.4	to the ballet	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.5	to dance performances	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.6	to the opera	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.7	to theatrical performances of written stories	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.8	to musicals	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.9	to museums	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.10	to arts and cultural festivals	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.11	to historic buildings, sites, and monuments	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.12	to Australian Aboriginal cultural performances and exhibitions	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.13	to markets	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.14	to cultural performances held in historical settings	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.15	to cultural experiences involving Australian history	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.16	to see Australian art	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.17	to cultural experiences because they are related to my work	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.18	to cultural experiences to have fun	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.19	to cultural experiences to make others happy	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.20	to cultural experiences that my friends and family have done	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.21	to cultural experiences because local people attend	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.22	to cultural experiences that have been recommended by others	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.23	to famous cultural places	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.24	to see famous performers/entertainers	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.25	to see famous shows performed	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.26	to cultural experiences to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.27	to cultural experiences for a sense of escaping into another world and getting away from it all	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.28	to cultural experiences for the chance to interact with others	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.29	to cultural experiences on package tours	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q3 Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about **why you go** to cultural attractions and events while travelling.

(Show card No.3 – read statements randomly, ask respondent to indicate a level of agreement, and circle the appropriate response)

	I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Totally Agree
3.1	to have fun	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	to be entertained by others	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	to relax physically	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	to relax mentally	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	to have thrills and excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	to get emotionally involved	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	to do something I want to do	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	to do something with my family and friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	to do something by myself	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	to meet locals	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	to learn about local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	to learn about local history	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	to learn about local performing arts	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	to do something related to my work	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	to enjoy something unique to the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	to have a change from my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	to forget about demands of daily life	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.18	to escape into another world	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	to satisfy my curiosity	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	to tell my friends and relatives about it	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	to enhance my social position	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	to see famous cultural places	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	to hear famous performers/entertainers	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	to see famous shows performed	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	to gain the respect of others	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	to demonstrate my ability to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	to go somewhere safe	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	to get value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	to have a high quality experience	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	to buy goods and souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	to buy food and drinks to consume at the cultural experience	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q4 Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about **what you expect** from your visit to the Queen Victoria Market

(Show card No.4 – read statements randomly, ask respondent to indicate a level of agreement, and circle the appropriate response)

	From my visit to Queen Victoria Market, I expect ...	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Totally Agree
4.1	to be emotionally involved	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.2	to be physically involved	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.3	to have fun	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.4	to be entertained	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.5	to relax physically	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.6	to relax mentally	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.7	to experience thrills and excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.8	to gain knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.9	to forget about work and responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.10	to escape into another world	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.11	to interact with staff	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.12	to interact with other visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.13	to have a good time with my companions	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.14	to gain the respect of others	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.15	to see a famous place	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.16	to enhance my social position	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.17	to get a feeling of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.18	the activities and events to be safe	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.19	to be well informed of the different facilities and services available	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.20	to receive high quality service	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.21	the activities and events to be delivered at promised times	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.22	written information to be in my language	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.23	signs to be in my language	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.24	signs to be clear and helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.25	the facilities provided to be clean	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.26	the facilities provided to be comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.27	facilities for children to be provided	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.28	facilities for disabled visitors to be provided	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.29	good value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.30	a range of goods and souvenirs will be available for purchase	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.31	a range of food and drinks will be available for purchase and consumption at the market	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.32	a range of food and drinks will be available to purchase and take away from the market	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q5 The following questions are about your **trip and travel group** characteristics on this visit.

5.1 Have you visited Melbourne before?
(Circle one)

Yes	01
No	02

5.2 What is the main purpose of this trip to Melbourne?
(Circle one)

Holiday	01
Visiting friends/relatives	02
Convention/conference	03
Business	04
Employment	05
Education	06
Other	07

5.3 Where are you staying in Melbourne this trip?
(Circle one)

Home of friends/relatives	01
Hotel (4 or 5 star)	02
Hotel (3 star)	03
Hotel (2 star or less)	04
Motel	05
Bed & breakfast/guest house	06
Backpacker/youth hostel	07
Serviced apartment	08
Rented house/apartment/unit/flat	09
Own property (e.g. holiday house)	10
Other	11

5.4 What main form of transport did you use to get to the Queen Victoria Market?
(Circle one)

Bicycle	01
Bus	02
Car	03
Taxi	04
Train	05
Tram	06
Walked	07
Other	08

5.5 Have you visited the Queen Victoria Market before?
(Circle one)

Yes	01
No	02

5.6 How did you arrange this visit to the Queen Victoria Market?
(Circle one)

Independently	01
Organised tour group	02
Other	03

5.7 How are you visiting the Queen Victoria Market?
(Circle one)

Alone	01
As a couple	02
As a group of parents and children	03
With other relatives	04
With friends	05
With family and friends	06
With a tour group	07
With business colleagues	08
Sporting/community group	09
Other	10

5.8 How did you hear about the Queen Victoria Market?
(Circle one or more)

Friends/relatives	01
Travel agent	02
Internet	03
Television	04
Magazine	05
Newspaper	06
Radio	07
Brochure	08
Travel guide book	09
Airline	10
Accommodation provider	11
Visitor information centre	12
Tour operator	13
Been there before	14
Walked past	15
Other	16

(read to respondent)
This completes part one of the questionnaire and **after your visit** we hope you will be willing to complete a very short survey of less than 5 minutes about your experience at the **Queen Victoria Market**.

To match both parts together, please provide a fictional name or some other form of identification to be recorded below and on the 'after visit' survey.

..... (*record fictional name here*)

(*record fictional name on 'after visit' survey*
and hand over 'after visit' survey and the return envelope)

(read to respondent)
As part of the Quality Assurance process for this research to verify that you were a survey respondent and this survey has been correctly presented to you, could we please have the following details to enable a Victoria University researcher to contact you. Completion of this information is entirely voluntary, but if you choose to do so, your name will be entered in a draw for an iPod nano song player. Completion and return of the 'after visit' survey will give you an additional chance to win the iPod nano player.

Your name: .....

Your country of residence .....

Your home phone number: .....

Your email address: .....

The completed questionnaires will be kept in a secure place at Victoria University.

(read to respondent)
Thank you very much for your time and co-operation in participating in this survey.
Your generous assistance is appreciated.

We would like you to accept this item as a token of our appreciation *(hand over item)*

We hope you enjoy your stay in Melbourne.

INTERVIEWER DECLARATION *(to be completed by interviewer)*
I certify that I have conducted this interview in accordance with my interviewing guidelines and it is a true and accurate record to the best of my knowledge.
I also agree to hold in confidence and not disclose to any other person the content of these questionnaires or any other information relating to this project.

INTERVIEWER NAME:	DATE:
INTERVIEWER SIGNATURE:	

..... *(interviewer to record intercept sheet number onto this survey)*

..... *(interviewer to record fictional name here)*

Why tourists attend cultural attractions and events

A SURVEY OF TOURISTS after visiting Queen Victoria Market

A Victoria University Research Project
being undertaken by Pandora Kay as part of the requirements for a PhD
supervised by Dr Lindsay Turner

Instructions to Survey Participants

On the following pages, you will be presented with a series of questions about you and your cultural tourism experiences. You will be asked to answer all questions, even if some may appear similar.

If uncertain about some answers, please make the best estimate.

If you are unable to answer some questions, please complete the rest of the survey.

We are interested in ALL your comments, whether they are POSITIVE or NEGATIVE

Your completion of this survey is given as your consent to participate.

This survey should take less than 5 minutes to complete.

Part 2: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about **what you gained or received** from your visit to the Queen Victoria Market

For each of the 32 statements please circle the number that best represents your level of agreement.

	From my visit to the Queen Victoria Market	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Totally Agree
01	I was emotionally involved	1	2	3	4	5	6
02	I was physically involved	1	2	3	4	5	6
03	I had fun	1	2	3	4	5	6
04	I was entertained	1	2	3	4	5	6
05	I relaxed physically	1	2	3	4	5	6
06	I relaxed mentally	1	2	3	4	5	6
07	I experienced thrills and excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6
08	I gained knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6
09	I forget about work and responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I escaped into another world	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I interacted with staff	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I interacted with other visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I had a good time with my companions	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I gained the respect of others	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I saw a famous place	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I enhanced my social position	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I got a feeling of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	the activities and events were safe	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I was well informed of the different facilities and services available	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I received high quality service	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	the activities and events were delivered at promised times	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	written information was available in my language	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	signs were in my language	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	signs were clear and helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	the facilities were clean	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	the facilities were comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	facilities for children were provided	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	facilities for disabled visitors were provided	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I received good value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	a suitable range of goods and souvenirs were available for purchase	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	a suitable range of food and drinks were available for purchase and consumption at the market	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	a suitable range of food and drinks were available to purchase and take away from the market	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you very much for completing this survey.

Your generous assistance is appreciated.

Please return the survey by
enclosing it in the addressed postage-paid envelope and posting it
to Pandora Kay, Victoria University

We hope you enjoyed your stay in Melbourne.

Appendices

Appendix 2: Survey Instruments and Cover Letter - Chinese (Simplified) Version

Victoria University
PO Box 14428
Melbourne VIC 8001
Australia

Telephone:
(03) 9919 4430
Facsimile:
(03) 9919 4931

School of Hospitality, Tourism & Marketing
Footscray Park Campus
Ballarat Road
Footscray

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

観光客が文化アトラクションとイベントに来る理由を調査する
研究に参加していただきたいと思います

ビクトリア大学研究プロジェクト
博士課程の一環としてパンドラ・ケイにより実施
監督者：リンゼイ・ターナー博士

参加者の方には、クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットを訪問する
観光客へのアンケートに回答していただきます。

アンケート参加者のための情報

この研究の結果は、観光客が地元の文化アトラクションとイベントに来る理由を理解し、適切なマーケティングストラテジーを開発するための観光マーケットの要素を特定する目的で使用されます。

この研究では、初めてこの調査に参加する 18 歳以上の（海外または国内からの）メルボルンを訪れる観光客を対象としています。グループの場合、望ましい回答者は、誕生日が 6 月 30 日に最も近い人となります。

参加していただくかどうかは任意であり、このアンケートに参加していただくことは、皆様にとって有利にも不利にもなりません。いつでもこのアンケートへの回答をやめていただいてかまいません。やめても、問題が発生することはありません。

皆様の情報とこれらの質問に対する回答は匿名の極秘事項として取り扱われ、回答者が特定される方法で情報が開示されることは一切ありません。

研究終了後、結果を知りたい方は、研究者のパンドラ・ケイに名刺を渡すかまたはご住所を知らせてください。

何か質問がある方、またはこの調査での扱われ方について苦情のある方は、ビクトリア大学の人間研究倫理委員会（Human Research Ethics Committee）までご連絡ください。

パンドラ・ケイ**(Pandora Kay)**の連絡先:

School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing
Faculty of Business and Law
Footscray Park Campus
Victoria University
P.O. Box 14428, Melbourne City
MC 8001 Australia

電話: 61 3 9919 5367
ファックス: 61 3 9919 4931
電子メール: Pandora.Kay@vu.edu.au

WINNER
2000 AUSTRALIAN TOURISM AWARDS

HALL OF FAME
PAST VICTORIAN TOURISM AWARDS

获取问题

…… *（本获取表的记录号）*
…… *（记录日期）*

您好，我名字叫……，是维多利亚大学游客调查的采访员。此次将调查参观墨尔本文化景点和参加墨尔本活动的游客，并调查您对维多利亚女王女王市场的参观情况。若您符合调查条件，那么回答以下问题仅需不到 5 分钟时间，整份调查亦只需 15 分钟。我们希望您能协助我们了解游客的文化经历。您的答案采用无记名方式，将受到严格的保密。

Q1.1 您居住在哪个地区或国家？ *（卡片 1）*
（圈选一项）

澳大利亚	01	转至 Q1.2
新西兰	02	转至 Q1.3
北美洲	03	转至 Q1.3
东北亚	04	转至 Q1.3
东南亚	05	转至 Q1.3
联合王国和爱尔兰	06	转至 Q1.3
其它…… *（请记录国名）*	07	*

*（若没有居住在以上任何国家/地区，则受访者不符合参加此次调查的条件。结束采访并感谢他们抽空参加。）

Q1.6 *记录性别* *（圈选一项）*

女性 ….01 男性 ….02

Q1.2 若您是在澳大利亚生活的永久居民，那么住在哪一州或哪一领地？ *（圈选一项）*

新南威尔士州	01	转至 Q1.3
北领地	02	*
昆士兰州	03	转至 Q1.3
南澳大利亚州	04	转至 Q1.3
塔斯马尼亚州	05	*
维多利亚州	06	*
西澳大利亚州	07	*

*（若没有居住在新南威尔士州、昆士兰州货南澳大利亚州，则受访者不符合参加此次调查的条件。结束采访并感谢他们抽空参加。）

Q1.3 在家里最常讲的语言是哪一种？ *（圈选一项）*

英语	01	转至 Q1.4
汉语（普通话）	02	转至 Q1.4
汉语（广东话）	03	转至 Q1.4
汉语（方言）	04	转至 Q1.4
日语	05	转至 Q1.4
其它…… *（请记录语种）*	06	*

*（若语种不是英语、汉语或日语，则结束采访并感谢他们抽空参加。）

Q1.4 在此次旅行中，您在墨尔本逗留几个晚上？ *（圈选一项）*

1-3 个晚上	01	转至 Q1.5
4-7 个晚上	02	转至 Q1.5
8-14 个晚上	03	转至 Q1.5
15 个晚上或更多	04	转至 Q1.5

（若逗留时间少于一个晚上或超过一年，则结束采访并感谢他们抽空参加。）

Q1.5 您属于哪个年龄段？ *（圈选一项）*

18-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65-74 75+

（若不满 18 岁，则结束采访并感谢他们抽空参加。）

我们诚邀您参加一项关于游客为何参观文化景点及参加活动的调查

维多利亚大学调研项目
本项目由 Pandora Kay 负责开展，为其获得博士学位要求之一
导师：Lindsay Turner 博士

您参与的内容就是完成维多利亚女王市场的《游客调查》

调查参与者须知

本次调查结果将用于了解游客为何参观文化景点及参加活动，并确定游客的细分市场领域，从而制订恰当的市场营销战略。

所招募的调查参与者为最先碰到的、至少年满 18 周岁的墨尔本游客（国际游客或国内跨州游客）。若属于整个团队游客，则出生日期最接近 6 月 30 日的受访者优先。

您的参与为志愿性质，因此对参与此次调查的人员不会造成任何影响。您也可以随时退出调查，亦不会因中途退出而遭受任何形式的危害。

请放心，您关于这些问题的资料和答案采用无记名方式，受到严格的保密。这样，资料的任何透露方式均不会泄露任何人的身份。

若希望了解调查结束后的资料，请向调查员 Pandora Kay 提供您的名片或地址。

若您对受对待的方式存有疑虑或想要投诉，您可联系维多利亚大学的人类研究道德委员会 (Human Research Ethics Committee)。

Pandora Kay 的详细联系方式：

School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing
Faculty of Business and Law
Footscray Park Campus
Victoria University
P.O. Box 14428, Melbourne City
MC 8001 Australia

电话：61 3 9919 5367
传真：61 3 9919 4931
电邮：Pandora.Kay@vu.edu.au

…… *(在本调查表上记录获取单号码)*

…… *(登记日期)*

维多利亚女王市场游客调查

（分发“调查参与者须知”）

*（朗读）*调查参与者指南

在下面几页中，我们将就您自身及您的文化旅游体验向您提出一系列问题。我们请您回答所有问题，即使有些问题看起来可能很相似。

若您无法确定某些答案，则请做出最佳预测。

若您无法回答某些问题，则请继续完成本次调查的剩余部分。

我们对您所有的意见均感兴趣，无论是正面意见还是负面意见。

您若同意参与，那么请您完成此次调查。

完成个人采访调查约需 10 分钟时间。

Q2. 关于**您喜欢什么样的文化体验**，对于以下几种表述，请说明您同意或不同意的程度。

（卡片 2——随机阅读这些表述，要求受访者说明其同意的程度，并圈选恰当的答案）

	我喜欢……	完全不同意	不同意	有点不同意	有点同意	同意	完全同意
2.1	参观美术馆	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.2	欣赏古典音乐表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.3	欣赏现代音乐表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.4	欣赏芭蕾舞	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.5	欣赏舞蹈表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.6	欣赏歌剧	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.7	欣赏小说故事的舞台表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.8	欣赏音乐剧	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.9	参观博物馆	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.10	参加艺术节和文化节	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.11	参观历史建筑、遗址和纪念碑	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.12	欣赏澳大利亚土著文化表演和展览	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.13	参观市场	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.14	参观历史环境中的文化表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.15	体验与澳大利亚历史有关的文化经历	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.16	欣赏澳大利亚艺术	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.17	体验文化经历，因为与我的工作相关	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.18	体验文化经历以享受乐趣	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.19	体验文化经历以愉悦他人	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.20	体验家人朋友业已体验过的文化经历	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.21	体验文化经历，因为当地人都参加	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.22	体验他人推荐的文化经历	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.23	参观著名的文化场所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.24	拜访著名表演家/演艺人士	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.25	欣赏著名的表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.26	体验文化经历来学习知识	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.27	体验文化经历，享受置身于另一个世界的乐趣，并摆脱烦恼	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.28	体验文化经历以期与他人互动	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.29	体验跟团旅游的文化经历	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q3 关于旅游过程中**您为何**参观文化景点和参加活动，对于以下几种表述，请说明您同意或不同意的程度。

（卡片 3——随机阅读这些表述，要求受访者说明其同意的程度，并圈选恰当的答案）

	旅游过程中我参观文化景点和参加活动的目的在于……	完全不同意	不同意	有点不同意	有点同意	同意	完全同意
3.1	享受乐趣	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	通过他人来愉悦自己	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	放松身体	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	放松精神	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	体验刺激和兴奋	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	感情投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	做我喜欢做的事	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	与家人朋友一起做点事	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	自己做点事	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	认识当地人	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	了解当地文化	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	了解当地历史	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	了解当地的表演艺术	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	做些与工作相关的事	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	体验目的地的独特之处	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	改变日常惯例	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	忘却日常生活的需求	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.18	置身于另外一个世界	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	满足自己的好奇心	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	讲给亲戚朋友听	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	加强社会地位	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	参观著名的场所	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	倾听著名表演家/演艺人员的演奏	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	欣赏著名的表演	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	获得他人的尊敬	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	展示自己的旅游能力	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	前往安全的地方	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	让此次旅游物有所值	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	享受高质量的体验	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	购买商品和纪念品	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	购买食品和饮料，以在文化体验过程中享受美食	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q4 关于您对参观维多利亚女王市场**有何期望**，对于以下几种表述，请说明您同意或不同意的程度。

（卡片 4——随机阅读这些表述，要求受访者说明其同意的程度，并圈选恰当的答案）

	对于参观维多利亚女王市场，我希望能够……	完全不同意	不同意	有点不同意	有点同意	同意	完全同意
4.1	全心投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.2	全身投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.3	享受乐趣	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.4	得到愉悦	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.5	放松身体	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.6	放松精神	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.7	体验刺激和兴奋	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.8	获得知识	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.9	忘却工作和责任	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.10	置身于另一个世界	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.11	与员工互动	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.12	与其他游客互动	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.13	与同伴玩得开心	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.14	获得他人的尊敬	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.15	参观著名场所	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.16	加强社会地位	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.17	体验一种成就感	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.18	活动很安全	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.19	充分了解所提供的各种设施和服务	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.20	享受高质量的服务	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.21	能够按照预定时间开展活动	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.22	用我的母语提供书面资料	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.23	标语能够采用我的母语	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.24	标语清楚，能够提供帮助	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.25	所提供的设施干净清洁	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.26	所提供的设施很舒适	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.27	提供儿童专用设施	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.28	提供残疾游客专用的设施	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.29	参观物有所值	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.30	有众多商品和纪念品可以购买	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.31	市场内有众多可以购买的食品和饮料，并可在市场内消费	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.32	市场内有众多可以购买的食品和饮料，并可携带出市场	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q5 以下问题是关于您此次参观的**旅游和旅游团**特点。

5.1 以前您到墨尔本旅游过吗？ *（圈选一项）*

是	01
否	02

5.2 您此次在墨尔本旅行的主要目的是什么？ *（圈选一项）*

度假	01
探亲访友	02
会务/会议	03
出差	04
就业	05
教育	06
其它	07

5.3 此次旅行过程中，您住在墨尔本什么地方？ *（圈选一项）*

亲友家中	01
酒店（四或五星级）	02
酒店（三星级）	03
酒店（二星级或以下）	04
汽车旅馆	05
提供住宿和早餐的旅社/招待所	06
背包客/青年旅馆	07
酒店式公寓	08
租赁的房屋/公寓/单元房/平房	09
自有房产（如度假别墅）	10
其它	11

5.4 您使用何种交通方式抵达维多利亚女王市场的？ *（圈选一项）*

自行车	01
巴士	02
小汽车	03
出租车	04
火车	05
电车	06
步行	07
其它	08

5.5 以前您参观过维多利亚女王市场吗？ *（圈选一项）*

是	01
否	02

5.6 您如何安排此次对维多利亚女王市场的参观？ *（圈选一项）*

自行安排	01
由旅游团组织	02
其它	03

5.7 您如何参观维多利亚女王市场？ *（圈选一项）*

独自	01
夫妻结伴	02
父母和孩子一家人	03
与其他亲戚一起	04
与朋友一起	05
与家人朋友一起	06
与旅游团一起	07
与同事一起	08
体育/社区团体	09
其它	10

5.8 您是从哪里听说维多利亚女王市场的？ *（圈选一项或多项）*

亲友	01
旅行社	02
互联网	03
电视	04
杂志	05
报纸	06
收音机	07
宣传手册	08
旅行指南书籍	09
航空公司	10
酒店	11
游客咨询中心	12
旅游经营单位	13
以前去过	14
路过	15
其它	16

（向受访者读出）

至此，我们完成了此次调查问卷的上半部分。参观结束后，我们希望您能完成一份有关您在维多利亚女王市场内经历的简短调查，时间不超过 5 分钟。

为将这两部分衔接起来，请在下方及“参观后”调查卷里记录一个虚构的姓名或其它形式的身份标识。

…… *（在此记录虚构的姓名）*

（在“参观后”调查卷里记录虚构的姓名，并分发“参观后”调查卷及回邮信封）

（向受访者读出）

在本次调研中，我们将验证您是否属于调查受访者，采访者是否对您正确开展了调查，作为此次调研活动质保流程的一部分，请您提供下列详细联系方式，以便维多利亚大学调研人员与您联系。是否填写这些资料完全出于自愿，但倘若您提供这些资料，您就有机会参与 iPod nano 音乐播放器的抽奖。填写并回邮“参观后”调查卷，您将再获一次参与 iPod nano 音乐播放器抽奖额的机会。

您的姓名：……

您居住的国家：……

您的家庭电话号码：……

您的电邮地址：……

填写完的问卷将安全保存在维多利亚大学里。

（向受访者读出）

非常感谢您抽空配合此次调查。
对于您的慷慨协助，我们表示诚挚的谢意。

希望您能接受这一小小的礼品，以示我们对您的谢意 *（分发礼品）*

祝您在墨尔本旅行愉快。

采访员声明 *（由采访者填写）*

谨此证明，我已根据采访准则开展此次采访工作，且尽我所知，此次采访记录真实准确。同时，我同意严格保密这些问卷内容或本次调查工作所涉及的其它任何资料，不会透露给其他人。

采访员姓名：	日期：
采访员签名：	

…… *(在本调查表上记录获取单号码)*

…… *(登记日期)*

……
（采访者在此记录虚构姓名）

游客为何参观文化景点及参加活动

游客参观维多利亚女王市场后之调查

维多利亚大学调研项目
本项目由 Pandora Kay 负责开展，为其获得博士学位要求之一
导师：Lindsay Turner 博士

*（朗读）*调查参与者指南

在下面几页中，我们将就您自身及您的文化旅游体验向您提出一系列问题。我们请您回答所有问题，即使有些问题看起来可能很相似。

若您无法确定某些答案，则请做出最佳预测。

若您无法回答某些问题，则请继续完成本次调查的剩余部分。

我们对您**所有的**意见均感兴趣，无论是正面意见还是负面意见。

您若同意参与，那么请您完成此次调查。

本次调查完成时间不超过 5 分钟。

第 2 部分：关于您从参观维多利亚女王市场中**获得或收获什么**，对于以下几种表述，请说明您同意或不同意的程度。

对于以下 32 种表述的任何一种，请圈选最能表达您同意程度的数字

	通过参观维多利亚女王市场……	完全不同意	不同意	有点不同意	有点同意	同意	完全同意
01	我得全心投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
02	我得全身投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
03	我享受到乐趣	1	2	3	4	5	6
04	我得到了愉悦	1	2	3	4	5	6
05	我放松了身体	1	2	3	4	5	6
06	我放松了精神	1	2	3	4	5	6
07	我体验到刺激和兴奋	1	2	3	4	5	6
08	我获得了知识	1	2	3	4	5	6
09	我忘却了工作和责任	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	我仿佛置身于另一个世界	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	我实现与员工的互动	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	我与其他游客的互动	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	我与同伴玩得很开心	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	我获得了他人的尊敬	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	我参观了著名的场所	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	我加强了自己的社会地位	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	我体验了一种成就感	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	这里的活动很安全	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	我充分了解了所提供的各种设施和服务	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	我享受到高质量的服务	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	这里的活动都按照预定时间开展	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	书面资料采用我的母语	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	标语采用我的母语	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	标语非常清楚，很有帮助	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	设施干净清洁	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	设施很舒适	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	提供了儿童专用的设施	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	提供了残疾游客专用的设施	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	我觉得此次参观物有所值	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	可购买的商品和纪念品相当多	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	可在市场内购买并消费的食品和饮料相当多	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	可在市场内购买并带出市场的食品和饮料相当多	1	2	3	4	5	6

非常感谢您抽空配合此次调查。

对于您的慷慨协助，我们表示诚挚的谢意。

在您离开澳大利亚之前，
请将此调查卷
装入事先写好地址且邮资已付的信封里，
邮递给维多利亚大学的 Pandora Kay

祝您在墨尔本旅行愉快。

Appendices

Appendix 3: Survey Instruments - Chinese (Traditional) Version

……*(在本调查表上记录获取单号码)*

…….. *(登记日期)*

……

（採訪者在此記錄虛構姓名）

遊客爲何參觀文化景點及參加活動

遊客參觀維多利亞女王市場後之調查

維多利亞大學調研項目
本專案由 Pandora Kay 負責開展，爲其獲得博士學位要求之一
導師：Lindsay Turner 博士

參與調查者指南

本次調查完成時間不超過 5 分鐘。

第 2 部分：關於您從參觀維多利亞女王市場中**獲得或收穫什麼**，對於以下幾種表述，請說明您同意或不同意的程度。

對於以下 32 種表述的任何一種，請圈選最能表達您同意程度的數字

	通過參觀維多利亞女王市場……	完全不同意	不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	同意	完全同意
01	我得全心投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
02	我得全身投入	1	2	3	4	5	6
03	我享受到樂趣	1	2	3	4	5	6
04	我得到了愉悅	1	2	3	4	5	6
05	我放鬆了身體	1	2	3	4	5	6
06	我放鬆了精神	1	2	3	4	5	6
07	我體驗到刺激和興奮	1	2	3	4	5	6
08	我獲得了知識	1	2	3	4	5	6
09	我忘卻了工作和責任	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	我仿佛置身於另一個世界	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	我實現與員工的互動	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	我與其他遊客的互動	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	我與同伴玩得很開心	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	我獲得了他人的尊敬	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	我參觀了著名的場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	我加強了自己的社會地位	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	我體驗了一種成就感	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	這裡的活動很安全	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	我充分瞭解了所提供的各種設施和服務	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	我享受到高品質的服務	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	這裡的活動都按照預定時間開展	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	書面資料採用我的母語	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	標語採用我的母語	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	標語非常清楚，很有幫助	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	設施乾淨清潔	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	設施很舒適	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	提供了兒童專用的設施	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	提供了殘疾遊客專用的設施	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	我覺得此次參觀物有所值	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	可購買的商品和紀念品相當多	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	可在市場內購買並消費的食品和飲料相當多	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	可在市場內購買並帶出市場的食品和飲料相當多	1	2	3	4	5	6

非常感謝您抽空配合此次調查。

對於您的慷慨協助，我們表示誠摯的謝意。

在您离开澳大利亞之前，
請將此調查卷
裝入事先寫好地址且郵資已付的信封裡，
郵遞給維多利亞大學的 Pandora Kay

祝您在墨爾本旅行愉快。

Appendices

Appendix 4: Survey Instruments and Cover Letter - Japanese Version

Victoria University
PO Box 14428
Melbourne VIC 8001
Australia

Telephone:
(03) 9919 4430
Facsimile:
(03) 9919 4931

School of Hospitality, Tourism & Marketing
Footscray Park Campus
Ballarat Road
Footscray

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

我们诚邀您参加一项关于游客为何参观文化景点及参加活动的调查

维多利亚大学调研项目
本项目由 Pandora Kay 负责开展，为其获得博士学位要求之一
导师：Lindsay Turner 博士

您参与的内容就是完成维多利亚女王市场的《游客调查》

调查参与者须知

本次调查结果将用于了解游客为何参观文化景点及参加活动，并确定游客的细分市场领域，从而制订恰当的市场营销战略。

所招募的调查参与者为最先碰到的、至少年满 18 周岁的墨尔本游客（国际游客或国内跨州游客）。若属于整个团队游客，则出生日期最接近 6 月 30 日的受访者优先。

您的参与为志愿性质，因此对参与此次调查的人员不会造成任何影响。您也可以随时退出调查，亦不会因中途退出而遭受任何形式的危害。

请放心，您关于这些问题的资料和答案采用无记名方式，受到严格的保密。这样，资料的任何透露方式均不会泄露任何人的身份。

若希望了解调查结束后的资料，请向调查员 Pandora Kay 提供您的名片或地址。

若您对受对待的方式存有疑虑或想要投诉，您可联系维多利亚大学的人类研究道德委员会 (Human Research Ethics Committee)。

Pandora Kay 的详细联系方式：

School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing
Faculty of Business and Law
Footscray Park Campus
Victoria University
P.O. Box 14428, Melbourne City
MC 8001 Australia

电话：61 3 9919 5367
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电邮：Pandora.Kay@vu.edu.au

WINNER
2000 AUSTRALIAN TOURISM AWARDS

HALL OF FAME
2001 VICTORIAN TOURISM AWARDS

路上で聞くアンケート

…… *(このアンケートシートの番号を記録)*
…… *(記録日)*

こんにちは、私は……と申します。ビクトリア大学で行っている、メルボルンの文化アトラクションとイベントに参加する観光客、および観光客のクイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットへの訪問についての研究のためにインタビューを行っています。調査対象となる方が以下の質問に答えるのに5分間かかります。アンケートすべてに回答していただけた場合、所要時間は15分です。観光客の方々の文化体験に関する調査にご協力いただければと思います。皆様からの回答は、匿名の極秘事項として扱われます。

Q1.1　どの地域または国に住んでいますか? *(カードNo.1を見せる)*
(1つ丸をつける)

オーストラリア	01	Q1.2へ
ニュージーランド	02	Q1.3へ
北アメリカ	03	Q1.3へ
北東アジア	04	Q1.3へ
南東アジア	05	Q1.3へ
連合王国とアイルランド	06	Q1.3へ
その他……*(国名を記入してください)*	07	*

*(上記のいずれかの地域、国に住んでいない場合は、この研究の対象とはなりません。インタビューを終了してお礼を述べます。

Q1.6 *性別*　*(1つ丸をつける)*

女性….01　　男性….02

Q1.2　オーストリアに永住している場合、どの州または準州に住んでいますか？ *(1つ丸をつける)*

ニューサウスウェルズ	01	Q1.3へ
北部準州	02	*
クイーンズランド	03	Q1.3へ
南オーストラリア	04	Q1.3へ
タスマニア	05	*
ビクトリア	06	*
西オーストラリア	07	*

*(ニューサウスウェルズ、クイーンズランドまたは南オーストラリアに住んでいない場合、この研究の対象とはなりません。インタビューを終了してお礼を述べます。)

Q1.3　自国で最も話されている言語は何ですか? *(1つ丸をつける)*

英語	01	Q1.4へ
中国語(標準中国語)	02	Q1.4へ
中国語(広東語)	03	Q1.4へ
中国語(方言)	04	Q1.4へ
日本語	05	Q1.4へ
その他……*(言語を記入してください)*	06	*

*(英語、中国語または日本語でない場合は、インタビューを終了してお礼を述べます。)

Q1.4　この旅行で、メルボルンに何泊しますか?　*1つ丸をつける)*

1-3泊	01	Q1.5へ
4-7泊	02	Q1.5へ
8-14泊	03	Q1.5へ
15泊以上	04	Q1.5へ

(1泊未満、または1年以上の場合、インタビューを終了してお礼を述べます)

Q1.5　どの年齢層ですか?　*(1つ丸をつける)*

18-24　25-34　35-44　45-54　55-64　65-74　75+

*(18歳未満の場合は、インタビューを終了してお礼を述べます。)

観光客が文化アトラクションとイベントに来る理由を調査する
研究に参加していただきたいと思います

ビクトリア大学研究プロジェクト
博士課程の一環としてパンドラ・ケイにより実施
監督者：リンゼイ・ターナー博士

参加者の方には、クイーン･ビクトリア･マーケットを訪問する
観光客へのアンケートに回答していただきます。

アンケート参加者のための情報

この研究の結果は、観光客が地元の文化アトラクションとイベントに来る理由を理解し、適切なマーケティングストラテジーを開発するための観光マーケットの要素を特定する目的で使用されます。

この研究では、初めてこの調査に参加する 18 歳以上の（海外または国内からの）メルボルンを訪れる観光客を対象としています。グループの場合、望ましい回答者は、誕生日が 6 月 30 日に最も近い人となります。

参加していただくかどうかは任意であり、このアンケートに参加していただくことは、皆様にとって有利にも不利にもなりません。いつでもこのアンケートへの回答をやめていただいてかまいません。やめても、問題が発生することはありません。

皆様の情報とこれらの質問に対する回答は匿名の極秘事項として取り扱われ、回答者が特定される方法で情報が開示されることは一切ありません。

研究終了後、結果を知りたい方は、研究者のパンドラ・ケイに名刺を渡すかまたはご住所を知らせてください。

何か質問がある方、またはこの調査での扱われ方について苦情のある方は、ビクトリア大学の人間研究倫理委員会（Human Research Ethics Committee）までご連絡ください。

パンドラ・ケイ**(Pandora Kay)**の連絡先:

School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing
Faculty of Business and Law
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P.O. Box 14428, Melbourne City
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電話: 61 3 9919 5367
ファックス: 61 3 9919 4931
電子メール: Pandora.Kay@vu.edu.au

…… *(このアンケートのシート番号を記録)*

…… *(記録日)*

クイーン･ビクトリア・マーケットを訪れる観光客へのアンケート

(「アンケート参加者のための情報」を手渡す)

*(読み上げる)*アンケート参加者への指示

次のページには、皆様と皆様の文化観光体験に関する一連の質問が記載されています。同じように見える質問もいくつかありますが、すべての質問に答えていただくようお願いいたします。

回答に自信がない場合は、最善を尽くして推測してください。

一部の質問に回答することができない場合、それ以外の質問には答えるようにしてください。

肯定的、または否定的な内容のコメントにかかわらず、すべてのコメントに興味を持っています。

このアンケートに回答していただいた場合、調査に参加する同意をいただいたと見なさせていただきます。

個人的なインタビューの部分は、およそ 10 分間かかります。

Q2. どんな文化体験を好むかについて、次の文にどの程度同意するかお答えください。

(カードNo.2 を見せる – 無作為に質問を読んで回答者にどの程度同意するかを答えてもらい、該当する回答に丸をつける。)

	次の場所に行くことが好きです.....	全くそう思わない	そう思わない	どちらかといえば思わない	どちらかといえばそう思う	そう思う	全くそう思う
2.1	アートギャラリー/美術館	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.2	クラシック音楽のコンサート	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.3	現代音楽のコンサート	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.4	バレエ	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.5	ダンスのコンサート	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.6	オペラ	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.7	小説の劇場公演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.8	ミュージカル	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.9	博物館	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.10	アートフェスティバルと文化フェスティバル	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.11	歴史的な建物、遺跡、記念物	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.12	オーストラリア先住民の文化公演と展覧会	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.13	マーケット	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.14	歴史的な場所で開かれる文化公演	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.15	オーストラリアの歴史に関連した文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.16	オーストラリア美術が見られる場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.17	私の仕事に関係しているため、文化体験ができる場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.18	楽しむための文化体験ができる場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.19	他の人に楽しんでもらうための文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.20	私の友達と家族が体験した文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.21	地元の人々が参加する文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.22	他の人に勧められた文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.23	有名な文化的な場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.24	有名なパフォーマーとエンターテーナーが見られる場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.25	有名なショーが見られる場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.26	学べる文化体験ができる場所	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.27	別の世界へ逃避する感覚が得られ、日常生活の煩わしさから逃れられる文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.28	他の人とやり取りがある文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.29	パッケージツアーの文化体験	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q3　旅行中に文化アトラクションとイベントに行く理由について、次の文にどの程度同意するかお答えください。

(No.3 を見せる – 無作為に質問を読んで回答者にどの程度同意するかを答えてもらい、該当する回答に丸をつける。)

	旅行中に、次の目的で文化アトラクションとイベントに行きます.....	全くそう思わない	そう思わない	どちらかといえばそう思わない	どちらかといえばそう思う	そう思う	全くそう思う
3.1	楽しむため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	もてなしてもらうため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	体をリラックスさせるため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	精神をリラックスさせるため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	スリルと興奮のため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	感情的にかかわるため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	何かやりたいことをするため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	家族や友人と一緒に何かするため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	自分で何かするため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	地元の人々に会うため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	地元文化について学ぶため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	地元の歴史について学ぶため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	地元の舞台芸術について学ぶため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	仕事に関連することをするため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	旅行先特有のことを楽しむため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	毎日の日課とは違うことをするため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	毎日の生活で要求されることを忘れるため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.18	別の世界に逃避するため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	好奇心を満たすため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	友達と親戚に話すため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	自分の社会的地位を高めるため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	有名な場所を見るため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	有名なパフォーマーまたはエンターテーナーを聴くため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	有名なショーの公演を見るため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	他人の尊敬を得るため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	旅行する能力を示すため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	安全な場所に行くため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	金額相応の対価を得るため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	質の高い体験をするため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	商品やお土産を買うため	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	文化体験で食べ物や飲み物を買うため	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q4　クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットで何を期待するかついて、次の文にどの程度同意するかお答えください。

(カードNo.4を見せる－無作為に質問を読んで回答者にどの程度同意するかを答えてもらい、該当する回答に丸をつける。)

	クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットで、次のことを期待します...	全くそう思わない	そう思わない	どちらかといえばそう思わない	どちらかといえばそう思う	そう思う	全くそう思う
4.1	感情的にかかわる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.2	体でかかわる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.3	楽しむ	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.4	もてなしてもらう	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.5	体をリラックスさせる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.6	精神をリラックスさせる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.7	スリルと興奮を得る	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.8	知識を得る	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.9	仕事と責務について忘れる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.10	別の世界に逃避する	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.11	スタッフとやり取りする	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.12	その他の訪問者とやり取りする	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.13	仲間と楽しい時間を過ごす	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.14	他人の尊敬を得る	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.15	有名な場所を見る	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.16	社会的地位を高める	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.17	達成感を得る	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.18	アクティビティーとイベントが安全である	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.19	利用できるさまざまな施設とサービスについて詳しい情報を得る	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.20	質の高いサービスを受ける	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.21	予定時間通りにアクティビティーとイベントが行われる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.22	書面の情報が母国語で書かれている	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.23	標識が母国語で書かれている	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.24	標識が明確で役立つ	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.25	提供されている施設が清潔である	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.26	提供されている施設が心地よい	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.27	子供用の施設が提供されている	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.28	障害者用の施設が提供されている	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.29	金額相応の対価が得られる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.30	多様な商品やお土産が購入できる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.31	マーケットで多様な食べ物や飲み物が購入でき、その場で消費できる	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.32	多様な食べ物や飲み物が購入でき、持ち帰ることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q5　次の質問は、今回の旅行および旅行グループの特徴に関するものです。

5.1 以前メルボルンに来たことがありますか? *(1 つ丸をつける)*

はい	01
いいえ	02

5.2 今回メルボルンを訪れた主な理由は何ですか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

休暇	01
友人/親戚に会う	02
大会/会議	03
出張	04
雇用	05
教育	06
その他	07

5.3 この旅行中、メルボルンではどこに滞在していますか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

友人/親戚の家	01
ホテル(4 または 5 つ星)	02
ホテル(3 つ星)	03
ホテル(2 つ星以下)	04
モーテル	05
ベッド&ブレックファスト/ゲストハウス	06
バックパッカー/ユースホステル	07
家具付きアパート	08
賃借した家/アパート/ユニット/フラット	09
持ち家(別荘など)	10
その他	11

5.4 主にどの交通手段を使ってクイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットに来ましたか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

自転車	01
バス	02
車	03
タクシー	04
電車	05
トラム	06
徒歩	07
その他	08

5.5 以前クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットに来たことがありますか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

はい	01
いいえ	02

5.6 どうやってクイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットに来る手配をしましたか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

独自に手配した	01
ツアーグループが手配した	02
その他	03

5.7 誰とクイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットに来ていますか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

1 人で	01
カップルで	02
両親、子供のグループで	03
その他の親戚と	04
友人と	05
家族と友人と	06
ツアーグループで	07
同僚と	08
スポーツ・地域社会グループで	09
その他	10

5.8 クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットについてどこで知りましたか?
(1 つ丸をつける)

友人/親戚	01
旅行代理店	02
インターネット	03
テレビ	04
雑誌	05
新聞	06
ラジオ	07
パンフレット	08
旅行ガイドブック	09
航空会社	10
宿泊施設の提供業者	11
ビジター情報センター	12
ツアーオペレーター	13
前に来たことがある	14
通り過ぎたことがある	15
その他	16

(回答者に対して読み上げる)
これでアンケートのパート 1 が終わりました。**見学の終了後**、クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットでの体験に関して、5 分未満で記入できる非常に短いアンケートにも回答していただければ幸いです。

パート 1 とパート 2 を合わせるために、この下と「見学後のアンケート」に記録するための偽名またはその他の ID を提供していただきます。

…… *(ここに偽名を記録する)*

(「見学後のアンケート」に偽名を記録し、「見学後のアンケート」と返却用封筒を渡す)

(回答者に対して読み上げる)
皆様がアンケートの回答者だったことと、このアンケートが正しく提示されたことを証明する品質保証プロセスの一環として、ビクトリア大学の研究者が皆様に連絡をとることができるように、次の情報を提供してください。この情報を提供していただくかどうかはまったく任意ですが、提供していただく場合、iPod ナノ・プレイヤーが当たる抽選に皆様のお名前が入ります。「見学後のアンケート」に記入、提出いただいた方には、さらに iPod ナノ・プレイヤーが当たるチャンスがあります。

お名前: ……..

居住国 ……..

ご自宅の電話番号: ……..

電子メールアドレス: ……..

ご記入いただいたアンケートは、ビクトリア大学の安全な場所に保管されます。

(回答者に対して読み上げる)
お時間をとってこのアンケートにご協力いただきまして誠にありがとうございます。
皆様からの寛大なご支援に大変感謝しております。

感謝のしるしとして、贈り物をどうぞお受け取りください。*(贈り物を手渡す)*

メルボルンでの時間をどうぞお楽しみください。

インタビューアによる声明*(インタビューアが記入する)*
インタビューの指針に沿ってこのインタビューを実行し、私の知る限り正確な記録をとったことを証明いたします。
私はまた、これらのアンケートの内容またはこのプロジェクトに関連するその他の情報を機密扱いとし、他の誰にも開示しないことに同意いたします。

インタビューアの名前:	日付:
インタビューアの署名:	

…… *(このアンケートのシート番号を記録)*

…….. *(記録日)*

……
(インタビューアはここに偽名を記録する)

観光客が文化アトラクションとイベントに来る理由

クイーン･ビクトリア・マーケット見学後のアンケート

ビクトリア大学研究プロジェクト
博士課程の一環としてパンドラ・ケイにより実施
監督者：リンゼイ･ターナー博士

*(読み上げる)*アンケート参加者への指示

次のページには、皆様と皆様の文化観光体験に関する一連の質問が記載されています。同じように見える質問もいくつかありますが、すべての質問に答えていただくようお願いいたします。

回答に自信がない場合は、最善を尽くして推測してください。

一部の質問に回答することができない場合、それ以外の質問には答えるようにしてください。

肯定的、または否定的な内容のコメントにかかわらず、すべてのコメントに興味を持っています。

このアンケートに回答していただいた場合、調査に参加する同意をいただいたと見なさせていただきます。

このアンケートの記入にかかる時間は 5 分未満です。

パート 2:　　クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットを訪れて何が得られたかについて、次の文にどの程度同意するかをお答えください。

32 の各質問について、同意するレベルを最も適切に示す番号に丸をつけてください。

	クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットを訪れて.....	全くそう思わない	そう思わない	どちらかといえばそう思わない	どちらかといえばそう思う	そう思う	全くそう思う
01	感情的にかかわった	1	2	3	4	5	6
02	体でかかわった	1	2	3	4	5	6
03	楽しかった	1	2	3	4	5	6
04	もてなされた	1	2	3	4	5	6
05	体がリラックスした	1	2	3	4	5	6
06	精神がリラックスした	1	2	3	4	5	6
07	スリルと興奮を体験した	1	2	3	4	5	6
08	知識を得た	1	2	3	4	5	6
09	仕事と責務について忘れた	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	別の世界に逃避した	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	スタッフとやり取りした	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	他の訪問者とやり取りした	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	仲間と一緒に楽しい時を過ごした	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	他人の尊敬を得た	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	有名な場所を見学した	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	社会的地位を高めた	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	達成感を得た	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	アクティビティーとイベントは安全だった	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	利用できる多様な施設とサービスについて十分な情報があった	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	質の高いサービスを受けた	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	予定された時間通りにアクティビティーとイベントが行われた	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	私の母国語で書面の情報が入手できた	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	私の母国語で標識があった	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	標識は明確で役立つものだった	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	施設は清潔だった	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	施設は居心地のいいものだった。	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	子供用の施設が提供されていた	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	障害者用の施設が提供されていた	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	金額に見合う対価を得た	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	適切な種類の商品やお土産が販売されていた	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	購入してその場で消費できる、適切な種類の食べ物や飲み物が販売されていた	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	購入して持ち帰ることができる、適切な種類の食べ物や飲み物が販売されていた	1	2	3	4	5	6

アンケートにご協力いただきましてありがとうございました。

皆様からの寛大なご支援に感謝しております。

オーストラリアを出発する前にこのアンケートを返送してください
住所が書かれた郵送料支払済みの封筒に入れ、
Pandora Kay, Victoria University まで郵送してください。

メルボルンで楽しい時間を過ごしていただけましたら幸いです。

Appendices

Appendix 5: Data Collection Show Cards - English Version

SHOW CARD 1

Australia

New Zealand

North America: Canada, United States of America

North East Asia: Mainland China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Taiwan

South East Asia: Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam

United Kingdom and Ireland: England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales

SHOW CARD 2:

Q2 I like going .....

Totally Disagree 1

Disagree 2

Slightly Disagree 3

Slightly Agree 4

Agree 5

Totally Agree 6

SHOW CARD 3

Q3 I go to cultural attractions and events while travelling .....

By **cultural attractions** we mean museums and art galleries; zoos and aquariums; historic/history/heritage buildings, sites and monuments; parks and gardens.

By **cultural events** we mean festivals, markets, theatre, music, opera, dance, ballet, cultural performances, exhibitions and displays.

Totally Disagree **1**

Disagree **2**

Slightly Disagree **3**

Slightly Agree **4**

Agree **5**

SHOW CARD 4:

Q4 From my visit to Queen Victoria Market, I expect ……

Totally Disagree …… 1

Disagree …… 2

Slightly Disagree …… 3

Slightly Agree …… 4

Agree …… 5

Totally Agree …… 6

Appendix 6: Data Collection Show Cards – Chinese (Simplified) Version

告示卡 1

澳大利亚

新西兰

北美洲：加拿大、美国

东北亚：中国大陆、香港、日本、韩国、台湾

东南亚：文莱、柬埔寨、印度尼西亚、老挝、马来西亚、缅甸、菲律宾、新加坡、泰国、越南

联合王国和爱尔兰：英格兰、爱尔兰、苏格兰、威尔士

告示卡 **2:**

Q2　　我喜欢……

完全不同意 …… 1

不同意 …… 2

有点不同意 …… 3

有点同意 …… 4

同意 …… 5

完全同意 …… 6

告示卡 3：

Q3　　旅游过程中我参观文化景点和参加活动的目的在于……

这里的**文化景点**指的是博物馆和美术馆；动物园和水族馆；历史性/历史/古代建筑、遗址、纪念碑；公园和花园。

这里的**文化活动**指的是节日、市场、剧院、音乐、歌剧、舞蹈、芭蕾、文化表演、展览和展示。

完全不同意 1

不同意 2

有点不同意 3

有点同意 4

同意 5

完全同意 6

告示卡 **4:**

Q4 对于参观维多利亚女王市场，我希望能够**.....**

完全不同意 1

不同意 2

有点不同意 3

有点同意 4

同意 5

完全同意 6

Appendices

Appendix 7: Data Collection Show Cards – Japanese Version

カード1

オーストラリア

ニュージーランド

北アメリカ: カナダ、アメリカ

北東アジア: 中国本土、香港、日本、韓国、台湾

南東アジア: ブルネイ、カンボジア、インドネシア、ラオス、マレーシア、ミャンマー、フィリピン、シンガポール、タイ、ベトナム

連合王国とアイルランド: イギリス、アイルランド、スコットランド、ウェールズ

カード **2:**

Q2　　次の場所に行くことが好きです **.....**

全くそう思わない 1

そう思わない..... 2

どちらかといえばそう思わない..... 3

どちらかといえばそう思う..... 4

そう思う..... 5

全くそう思う..... 6

カード 3

Q3　　旅行中に、次の目的で文化アトラクションとイベントに行きます .....

文化アトラクションとは、博物館およびアートギャラリー、動物園および水族館、長い歴史を持つ/歴史的な/遺産建造物、史跡、記念碑、公園および庭園のことです。

文化イベントとは、フェスティバル、マーケット、劇場、音楽、オペラ、ダンス、バレエ、文化公演、展覧会および展示会のことです。

全くそう思わない..... 1

そう思わない..... 2

どちらかといえばそう思わない... 3

どちらかといえばそう思う..... 4

そう思う..... 5

全くそう思う..... 6

カード **4:**

Q4 クイーン・ビクトリア・マーケットへの訪問から次のことを期待します

全くそう思わない 1

そう思わない..... 2

どちらかといえばそう思わない..... 3

どちらかといえばそう思う..... 4

そう思う..... 5

全くそう思う..... 6