PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS TOWARDS ABORIGINAL TOURISM

Janine Ashwell

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Faculty Social and Behavioural Science
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Summary

Whilst tourism has been cited as having the potential to provide economic opportunities for remote Aboriginal communities, participation rates of international tourists in Aboriginal tourism activities within Australia have been in decline. A simultaneous drop in visitor numbers to remote destinations has also occurred. To address this research problem, the purpose of the study was to explore the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia. The Aboriginal tourism product range has diversified, offering an array of experiences and accommodation, to meet international tourist needs. Using the consumer-based brand equity framework, this study investigates both the depth and breadth of awareness of the diversified range of products available. Furthermore, it explores international tourists' perceptions of image, quality, value and loyalty. As previous research has identified that remote destinations may be impacted by a number of constraints, further consideration is given to Aboriginal tourism within the context of a remote destination.

An exploratory case study design was implemented with a hybrid sequential mixed methods approach to data collection. Initially, a binary regression model was used to analyse recalibrated international tourist visitor data (n=49568), to identify characteristics which increased the probability of international tourists including a remote destination within their holiday itinerary. Additionally, qualitative thematic analysis of exploratory interviews undertaken with ten tourism stakeholders was performed. The findings of these first two studies were analysed alongside a literature review to identify research questions and measures for the final study. Within the final study, a survey instrument was used with a mix of open and closed

questions, to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists (n=148).

The study initially developed a profile of remote international tourists by identifying a number of characteristics which increased the probability of an international tourist visiting a remote destination. These included age, travel party composition, participation in activities, travel packages, length of stay and stopovers. A conceptual model for consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal tourism context was developed. Only two dimensions, Authenticity and Awareness, had direct relationships with the overall brand equity measure. However, relationships exist between the dimensions with Quality having an indirect relationship with Authenticity mediated by the dimensions of Personality and Value. Furthermore, the study identified that tourist characteristics mediated the relationship between the dimensions and brand equity.

Awareness *per se* was insufficient to increase the likelihood of an international tourist to intend to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, with only awareness gained at the planning stage of the holiday having a positive influence. Gaps in brand knowledge are identified in the work in relation to brand salience, Authenticity, Value and Quality. Finally, the brand equity of Aboriginal tourism activities was found to increase the likelihood of an international tourist's willingness to participate in a remote destination. As with the previous model, tourist characteristics mediated this relationship.

Overall, this research contributes to both theoretical and methodological literature in addition to offering a number of practical implications in regards to target   segmentation,   positioning   and   promotional   strategies.

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor Philosophy at Flinders University. To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorization and consent to carry out this research.

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Janine Ashwell

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to the memory of my father Jack Ashwell, MBE, who dedicated his life to fighting social injustice.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH THIS THESIS

A- Peer review Journal:

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Brands are used to label a product and provide meaning to potential consumers enabling them to make purchase decisions (Keller 1998a). Keller (1993) developed a conceptual framework for consumer-based brand equity which considered the knowledge that consumers have of a brand and the implications of this knowledge on marketing strategies. Aboriginal Tourism is not a new product and, as a result, international tourists may have a number of perceptions or attitudes towards the industry. Research which considers international tourists' current perceptions of Aboriginal tourism will provide decision makers with information required to compare the desired brand identity of their organisation against the current brand image and develop branding strategies to increase their market share. The aim of this research is to identify the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia, with consideration to how this impacts on both intention to participate and willingness to travel to a remote destination to do so.

1.2 Research background

Growth in tourism over the past sixty years has seen it become one of the fastest growing and largest sectors in the world with new destinations emerging in developing countries (Pike 2005). Globally, international tourist arrivals have grown from 25 million in 1950 to 1087 million in 2013, with predictions this growth will continue to 1.8 billion by 2030 (UNWTO 2014). Furthermore, inbound tourism has grown to become one of the major trade categories and is ranked fifth after fuels, chemicals, food and automotive products (UNWTO 2014). Export income generated by inbound tourism was valued at US$1.4 trillion in 2013 and accounts for

approximately 29% of the world's export of commercial services and 6% of goods and services (UNWTO 2014). Within Australia, tourism is recognised as an important industry with international visitors' overnight expenditure between 2012-2013 recorded at AU$28.2 billion (TRA 2013a).

During this period of rapid growth, tourism development in regional and remote Australia occurred, enabling an increase in employment, economic diversification and higher standards of living (Jackson 2009). As over sixty percent of Aboriginal Australians reside in regional or remote areas of Australia (ABS 2011) where fewer employment opportunities exist (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010), tourism has been seen as having the potential to improve the economic status of remote Aboriginal communities (Moscardo & Pearce 1999). This may occur through the development of cultural tourism enterprises (Jackson 2009), or by adding value to mainstream products and services (Ryan & Huyton 2002). Indeed, the capacity to develop unique products is reflected in the diversified merchandise range offered by remote Aboriginal operators (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010).

However, tourism has the potential to offer more than economic opportunities to communities (Higgins-Desbiolles 2006a, 2009; McIntosh 2004; Whitford & Ruhanen 2010), with the literature identifying other social, cultural and environmental benefits (Greathouse-Amador 2005a, 2005b; Higgins-Desbiolles 2006a, 2006b, 2008). Tourism is considered to provide opportunities for Aboriginal communities to dispel inaccurate images (Boyd 2002), and foster and revive Aboriginal peoples' cultures (Greathouse-Amador 2005a, 2005b). Furthermore, within an Australian context, tourism has been highlighted as having the potential to

reconcile Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal communities (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003b, 2006b).

Nevertheless, the combined growth of inbound visitor arrivals and destination choices globally has seen each destination competing for larger market shares (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). The lack of differentiation and increased substitutability between destinations has potentially impacted on continued growth (Pike 2005). It has been argued that the tourism industry differs from conventional export industries, with the tourist brought to the destination to consume products and services, rather than those products being exported overseas (Higgins-Desbiolles 2006a). This adds to the complexity of the purchasing decision for international tourists, as they are often required to make decisions relating to products or services of which they have limited knowledge. As a result, developing a strong destination brand has been considered necessary to reduce the perceived risk for international tourists (Chen & Tsai 2007; Morgan, Pritchard & Pride 2002; Pike 2005). Whilst destination brands offer a range of products and services which are consumed under the brand name (Buhalis 2000), these tourism products and services are offered mainly by SMEs which are independent of each other (Tkaczynski & Rundle-Thiele 2011; Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele & Beaumont 2009). As one type of enterprise within the destination, Aboriginal enterprises may benefit from developing a strong brand which provides a relative conceptual advantage that is hard to imitate by competitors (Dann & Dann 2007, p. 236). This can also be beneficial to international tourists during the destination selection process by reducing perceived risk (Keller 1998a).

1.3 **Research problem**

Whilst tourism has been cited as offering the potential to improve the economic and social well-being of remote Aboriginal communities (Heaney & Salma 2004; Jackson 2009; Moscardo & Pearce 1999), a number of issues have been identified that may impact on the development of Aboriginal tourism (Table 1-1).

It may be considered that two key issues impact on the development of enterprises in remote Australia. Firstly, since 2006, there has been a continuous decline in the amount of international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism within Australia (TRA 2011b). Additionally, there has been a corresponding decline in the number of international tourists who include a remote destination within their travel itinerary (Carson & Harwood 2007). As a result of the identification of these two key issues, the research question was defined as: 'How do international tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia influence their decision to participate, and willingness to travel to a remote destination?'

Table 1-1 Some key issues in the development of Aboriginal Tourism Enterprises

Issue	Author(s)
Decline in participation of Aboriginal Tourism Experiences	(TRA 2011a)
Decline in visitor numbers to remote destinations	(Carson & Taylor 2008, 2009)
Low tourism market profile. Lack of awareness of available products	(Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008)
Lack of interest from domestic tourists	(Oppewal, Huybers & Crouch 2010; TRA 2011a
Participation in Aboriginal tourism is not the main motivation to travel for the majority of tourists	(McKercher 2002; McKercher & Du Cros 2003; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Richards 2002; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008).
Limited knowledge regarding segment needs	(Kutzner & Wright 2010; Kutzner, Wright & Stark 2009; Lynch, M et al. 2011)
Identifying the level of demand	(McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008)
Competition from ecotourism/nature-based tourism	(Buultjens, Gale & White 2010)
Competition from other tourist attractions	(McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Ryan & Huyton 2002)
Cultural products offered by non-Aboriginal operators	(Buultjens & Fuller 2007)

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Tourists' difficulty in identifying authentic experiences to meet personal needs	(Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013b; Yang & Wall 2009)
Lack of available finance	(Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Fuller, Buultjens & Cummings 2005; Shoebridge, Buultjens & Peterson 2012)
Lack of interest in undertaking tourism development Desire to maintain privacy	(Buultjens, Gale & White 2010)
Lack of ownership/control	(Buultjens, Gale & White 2010)
Cultural values and beliefs are in conflict with the requirements of operating a business	(Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Fuller, Buultjens & Cummings 2005)
Limited transport networks to remote areas impact on market access reducing tourist visitor numbers	(McKercher 1998; Prideaux 2000)
Budget restrictions impact on travel to remote areas as greater transportation costs are required	(Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Prideaux 2000)
Time available acts as a constraint to travel to remote areas	(Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Lynch, M et al. 2010, 2011)(
Travel party members, for example children, can act as a constraint	(Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009; McKercher 1998)

McKercher, Ho and Du Cros (2004) identified that tourists' choices for activities are influenced by the attributes of size, location, setting and entertainment. Aboriginal tourism activities are considered a subset of cultural attractions (Hinch & Butler 1996), which compete against other types of attractions in the tourism market (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004). Yet before the activities can be included within choice sets in tourists' decision-making process (Kotler et al. 2010), international tourists need to be aware that Aboriginal tourist activities exist. Recent research into Aboriginal tourism within Australia has identified that low levels of awareness exist amongst international tourists (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a, 2013b; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), with suggestions that increased awareness is needed to reverse declining trends in participation.

To contribute solutions to this research problem, the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists were identified using the consumer-based brand equity framework. Limited applications of this framework have been found in tourism

research (Pike et al. 2010), with the majority of research undertaken into destination brand equity (see Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Pike et al. 2010).

Following a review of the literature in Chapter 3, research questions and objectives were developed to answer the research problem (Table 1-2).

Table 1-2 Research Questions and Objectives

Research question	Objective
1: How do individual characteristics of international tourists influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia?	a) Identify the characteristics of international tourists which increase the probability of including a remote destination during their holiday in Australia b) Consider how these characteristics may be used to segment the target market.
2. How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism? 3: Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to travel to participate in a remote destination?	a) Identify measures of International tourists perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia b) Identify brand equity dimensions that increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. c) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination. d) Explain how the brand equity dimensions of Aboriginal tourism impact on intention to participate in an urban or remote destination
4: How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity? 5: How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?	a) Identify tourist characteristics that increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities.

	b) Identify tourist characteristics that increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination.
	c) Explain how tourist characteristics impact on intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism in an urban or remote destination

1.4 Objective of the study

Research into the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia was expected to achieve the following objective:

To develop a theoretical model using the consumer-based brand equity framework for Aboriginal tourism within Australia, with a view to understanding the influence of brand equity on international tourists' willingness to travel to a remote destination.

1.5 Theoretical background

Brand equity is an intangible asset, which occurs as a result of previous marketing investment, increasing the value of the product to consumers (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010; Keller 1993). Two perspectives on brand equity exist: firm-based or consumer-based brand equity (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Firm-based brand equity focuses on the financial value brand equity generates for an organisation, whilst consumer-based brand equity focuses on market perceptions (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Research within tourism contexts has applied the consumer-based brand equity perspective, generally reflective of the frameworks developed by Aaker (1996), and Keller (1993) (eg. Boo,

Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Im et al. 2012; Kim, H, Kim & An 2003; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). These frameworks focus on understanding consumer perceptions and attitudes to a brand (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010), which can enhance strategic decisions relating to target markets, branding, positioning and the marketing mix (Keller 1993).

Keller's (1993) theoretical framework considered that brand knowledge was constructed from two dimensions: brand awareness and brand image. Brand awareness refers to a consumer's ability to recall a brand unaided or to recognise it when provided with marketing materials (Keller 1993; Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Brand awareness has been utilised within tourism research as a brand equity dimension, applying either recognition measures such as destination name (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011), or recall measures relating to destination characteristics (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). Alternative models created within tourism contexts have proposed that brand awareness directly affected brand experience (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009), perceived quality (Bertsch & Ostermann 2011), and value perceptions (Oh 2000).

A brand image is constructed from the associations a consumer holds in their memory resulting in the consumer's perception in relation to a particular product (Keller 1993). This provides meaning to potential consumers (Keller 2001), and influences tourists' decision-making behaviour (Tasci & Gartner 2007). Brand image can be separated into brand performance and brand meaning (Keller 1993, 1998b). Brand performance relates to the tangible attributes that consumers associate with the product (Keller 2001), such as attractions, people, facilities and environmental issues

such as nature or the weather (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Pike et al. 2010). Alternatively, brand meaning relates to the intangible aspects of brand image, including user profiles, brand usage, brand history and brand personality (Keller 2001).

Brand quality is subjective (Konecnik & Gartner 2007), and may be considered part of the image dimension (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Pike 2002). However, some studies consider image and quality dimensions separately (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). A number of quality measures have been utilised in tourism choice research including areas such as environment and safety (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011), quality of experiences (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Lassar, Mittal & Sharma 1995), employees' attitudes and physical facilities (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008), and authenticity (Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003).

Whilst perceived value has been included as a separate dimension in some models (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013), some have included it within the image dimension (Kim, H, Kim & An 2003). Regardless of whether it is considered a separate dimension or included within the image dimension, value reflects the consumers' overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the perceptions of what is received and what is given (Zeithaml 1988). Whilst some models have considered this dimension in monetary terms (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008; Stevens 1992), alternative research has highlighted the need for value within service contexts to be considered from a multi-dimension perspective (Gallarza, M, Gil-Saura & Holbrook 2011;

Gallarza, M & Gil 2008; Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009).

Williams and Soutar (2009), developed a multi-dimensional scale which consisted of four dimensions: Functional, Social, Emotional and Epistemic. Within an Adventure tourism context, the empirical research indicated that perceived value was better explained by a multi-dimensional perspective than a single 'value for money' item (Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009).

Loyalty has also been applied as a dimension in consumer-based brand equity research in tourism fields (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Ruzzier 2011; Kayaman & Arasli 2007; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). Loyalty within tourism research is commonly measured by behavioural or attitudinal loyalty, although composite measures can be applied (Oppermann 2000). However, a lack of clarity of definitions of loyalty exists within the literature (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Im, Kim, Elliot & Han 2012), which may lead to conflicting results (Churchill Jr 1979). An additional construct of loyalty which may be considered in consumer-based brand equity models is Experiential loyalty (McKercher & Guillet 2011), which posits that tourists transfer loyalty to types of holidays to new destinations to satisfy the need for novelty (Pearce & Kang 2009).

Opportunities to participate in Aboriginal tourism is available in both urban and remote destinations, with the growth in urban enterprises having the potential to impact on demand in remote areas (Ryan & Huyton 2002).Whilst Aboriginal culture is closely associated with land (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003a), knowledge of international tourists' understanding of this may be beneficial when developing marketing strategies. Earlier research has noted that brand equity can influence

destination choice (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Horng et al. 2012). A connection between brand awareness of culinary tourism and a preference for a destination in which to participate in it has been identified (Horng et al. 2012). Alternatively, research has identified that destination image influences wine tourism brand equity (Gómez & Molina 2011). As a result, research developing a consumer-based brand equity model in an Australian Aboriginal context may benefit from considering the influence of the destination on perceptions of authenticity and the overall impact of brand equity on destination choice.

Additionally, previous consumer-based brand equity research has identified that the influence of brand equity may differ between target segments (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). Destination choices are influenced by push and pull factors, in addition to a range of constraints (Crompton 1979b; Decrop 2010; Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009; Um & Crompton 1992), and as a result, willingness to travel to a destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities may be impacted by a number of external factors. Research has yet to investigate the relationships between brand equity, tourist characteristics and destination choice in relation to Aboriginal tourism activities. As a result of this gap in the literature, tourist characteristics will be considered when developing a model based on the consumer-based brand equity framework.

1.6 Key findings and contributions of the research

The findings and contributions of this research are categorised into theoretical contributions, methodological contributions, and practical implications. Firstly, the research identified perceptions and attitudes of international tourists. These findings were used to develop a conceptual framework of consumer-based brand equity in an

Aboriginal tourism context, and its relationship with willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. The model suggests that the two dimensions of Awareness and Authenticity have direct relationships with intention to participate. Additionally, the research identified interrelationships between the brand dimensions. Awareness had no direct relationship with the dimensions of Quality, Value, Personality or Authenticity. The relationship between Quality and Authenticity was mediated by Personality and Value. Furthermore, awareness *per se* was insufficient to increase the likelihood of intention to participate. The logistic regression model identified that only awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities gained during the planning stage had a statistically significant relationship with intention to participate. Additionally, international tourists who gained awareness at this stage of the planning process also had the greatest breadth of awareness.

Furthermore, the brand equity of Aboriginal tourism had a significant relationship with willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in activities. However, tourist characteristics were found to mediate the relationship between the brand dimensions and overall brand equity. Similarly, the predictive variance of the logistic regression model for willingness to travel to a remote destination improved when tourist characteristics were included. As a result, the final conceptual model developed included tourist characteristics as an independent variable.

Gaps in the brand knowledge were also identified, with the study proposing that low levels of awareness reflect gaps in the breadth of products offered, rather than the traditional measures of depth. Whilst high levels of awareness of art and

craft exist, this knowledge is not consistent across all product categories, as associations of Aboriginal tourism are more closely connected with historical or stereotypical themes, rather than contemporary activities which are also provided by Aboriginal operators.

Additionally, low levels of agreement across all the brand dimensions suggest low levels of brand knowledge exist in the international tourist market. When analysing the no response option, value for money had the highest 'don't know' response level. Similarly, the second highest use of the 'don't know' category was found relating to perceived quality, followed by authenticity. Gaps in knowledge related to Authenticity are identified, with particular reference to a lack of brand knowledge related to the importance of place within Aboriginal culture and the authenticity of contemporary products. Furthermore the research identified a lack of knowledge that Aboriginal tourism products are provided by Aboriginal people.

A further theoretical contribution related to target segments, with a profile of a remote international tourist is developed from recalibrated international visitor survey data. The analysis identified that travel party composition, activities, age, length of stay, number of stopovers and pre-booking elements of the holiday prior to arrival all positively increased the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination. Furthermore, a number of previous studies have sought to profile tourists with a pre-disposition to participate in Aboriginal tourism during their holiday. Demographics have been used in alternative research to profile tourists, and whilst this study found age and gender had no statistical significance on intention to participate, travel party composition did.

Likewise, depth of motivation was identified as positively influencing intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. Supportive of earlier studies, the findings suggest that not all tourists classified as cultural tourists are a homogenous group, with varying depths of motivation to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. Additionally, a major contribution of this study was the identification that participating in an Aboriginal tourism activity, or intending to, is not a sufficient precursor to indicate that an international tourist will travel to a remote destination. Finally, in relation to target segments, the study identified that some respondents who initially had no intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday, were willing to travel to a remote destination to participate. Indeed, the results identified that whilst USA/Canadian respondents were willing to travel due to increased perceptions of Authenticity, Europeans perceived it as Adventurous. These findings suggest that the destination influences target segments willingness to not only participate in Aboriginal tourism, but also to travel to a remote destination, and as such should be a part of any marketing campaign.

The final theoretical contribution was the identification of the influence of experiential loyalty on intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during a holiday to Australia. The findings suggest that experiential loyalty as a construct may be more complex than simply the repetition of activities in new destinations. These findings also developed some key areas for future research into experiential loyalty within tourism experiences. Respondents who exhibited experiential loyalty, considered that it influenced their decision due to their interest in cultures. Additionally, previous enjoyment overseas influenced the decision suggesting that global Aboriginal tourism experiences can positively or negatively impact on the brand equity of Australian Aboriginal enterprises. Finally, the study suggests that

previous experience positively influenced the perception of authenticity of Aboriginal tourism activities within remote Australia, and future research may consider this in more depth specifically in terms of its application in promotional strategies.

Methodological contributions were made from this study in relation to the research design and development of measures. Firstly, the development of an exploratory case study research design contributes to the limited applications of mixed method designs identified in the academic marketing literature (Hanson & Grimmer 2007; Harrison & Reilly 2011). Additionally, the sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design which uses three phases of data collection, enabled the researcher to develop measures applicable to this new context which reduced potential bias (Pike & Page 2014), and provided opportunities for the triangulation of a number of perceptions (Sobh & Perry 2006). Finally, this research design contributes to academic literature through the selection of the unit of analysis, with limited research in the context of Australian Aboriginal tourism undertaken in South Australia.

With regards to measures, this research project contributed to tourism and marketing literature by developing Likert items and scales for brand dimensions in this new context. Supporting alternative research, this study proposes that issues may arise in transferring items into new contexts (Pike & Page 2014, p. 216). Firstly, although previous research included authenticity within the quality measure (Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003), this study identified Authenticity as a separate dimension to Quality. Additionally, this research found that some of the commonly applied measures, such as assessments of value for money or quality, could not

always be addressed. Furthermore, a measurement scale for value in an Aboriginal tourism context was developed, adapting the multi-dimensional model applied in alternative research (Williams, P & Soutar 2009).

Finally, the research identified that brand awareness in tourism marketing is complex due to the infrequent exposure to marketing activities. Reflecting the work of Aaker (1996), who identified the type of awareness needed differs between product classes, this study applied a new measure of awareness. Whilst previous studies have applied measures assessing tourists' ability to recall Aboriginal tourism products unaided, commonly termed 'Top of Mind', the study identified that using this as a single awareness measure potentially results in inaccuracies in the levels of demand. In particular, the use of this measure may underestimate demand, and lacks sufficient information to assess where product demands may lie.

As a result of this research design, the findings have been used to generate a number of practical implications for remote Aboriginal operators in relation to market development or penetration strategies (Kotler et al. 2010). Firstly, the case study design enabled the researcher to develop a deeper understanding of the cultural tourist segment and potential avenues of targeting this group to grow the Aboriginal tourism industry. The findings provide some new insights which may be useful in making strategic decisions. Overall the findings highlight the importance of developing a brand and supporting strategies, that target separate segments within the market, rather than an undifferentiated or mass marketing approach (Dann & Dann 2007). When considering intention to participate in Aboriginal activities and willingness to travel to a remote destination, differences between target segments were found. The study proposes that whilst there is a motivation amongst the cultural

tourist target segment to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, target segments have different perceptions and attitudes which need to be reflected in positioning and promotional strategies.

Furthermore, a profile of a remote international tourist was developed, identifying characteristics which increased the propensity for a tourist to visit a remote destination. The exploratory study also identified activities which increase the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination, which may provide new opportunities for remote Aboriginal operators. As previous research identified that, for the majority of international tourists, participation in Aboriginal tourism was opportunity driven (Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), the profile of remote international tourists provides opportunities for market development strategies. Remote operators may target new segments whose primary motivation to travel to remote destinations may not be cultural. This may be done by developing strategic alliances with other remote operators who offer the products. Conversely, remote Aboriginal operators may seek to expand their product mix to new or existing markets, increasing the value offering to reduce international tourists' perception of constraints (Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Lynch, M et al. 2010).

However, some remote Aboriginal operators already offer these products. To overcome low levels of brand salience, several positioning and promotional strategies which highlight both the availability and the additional value to be gained by utilising an Aboriginal operator, may be beneficial. A benefit of undertaking this strategy may be reflected in targeting international tourists with other travel motivations.

As well as this, the current study provides a number of insights into the gaps in brand knowledge which may be presently impacting on the perceived competitive advantage. Positioning strategies which focus on increasing brand knowledge related to the connection between Aboriginal culture and place, and contemporary Aboriginal culture may increase overall perceptions of authenticity, and escalate intention to participate. Additionally, the research identified that some international tourists are unable to make assessments relating to value for money or levels of quality. As these are commonly used within positioning strategies, future research into the positioning strategies of tourism experiences may be advantageous. Moreover, the research highlighted differences in perceived understanding relating to the term 'Aboriginal tourism' between academics, practitioners and tourists. To support positioning strategies focusing on the authenticity of the product, increasing the awareness that Aboriginal tourism activities are offered by Aboriginal people may also be useful.

Lastly, promotional strategies focusing on geographical segments may benefit from considering differences such as levels of trip pre-planning, sources of information used, levels of awareness and knowledge of Aboriginal tourism, and previous experiences overseas. Overall, the research identified international tourists who gained awareness at the planning stage, compared to those who had prior awareness or gained it on arrival, had the greatest levels of brand salience, and an increased propensity to participate. This suggests that marketing managers may find it valuable to focus on targeting segments at the planning stage of their holiday.

1.7 Validity of a non-Aboriginal researcher undertaking the research

As a non-Aboriginal researcher, consideration to the validity of undertaking tourism research in the context of Aboriginal people was given. Rigney (1999, p. 636) considered that: 'Indigenist research is research by Indigenous Australians whose primary informants are Indigenous Australians and whose goals are to serve and inform the Indigenous struggle for self-determination'. However, Rigney (1999) acknowledged that there were still valid reasons for research to be undertaken by non-Aboriginal researchers and that the research could be used to contribute to Aboriginal Australians' right to self-determination. Therefore, the aim of this thesis was to provide information which may be used by Aboriginal people to overcome the personal, community, cultural and political problems they encounter, and to support them in gaining cultural freedom and healing from past oppressions.

Waldby (1995) acknowledged that knowledge is often used to influence the world to meet particular groups' interests (Rigney 1999). Therefore it is important when undertaking research which involves Aboriginal people to consider whether the findings will be, 'liberatory or colonising in orientation' (Rigney 1999, p. 636). As a non-Aboriginal person the researcher does not seek to 'speak on behalf' of Aboriginal peoples, with the findings being made available for exploitation and practical advantage by Aboriginal peoples. It is not the intention of the researcher to produce findings that will be imposed upon Aboriginal people to undertake commercial enterprises or develop branding strategies. Although the research develops a conceptual framework and identifies gaps in knowledge, it does not seek to develop a brand for Aboriginal tourism, nationally or individually. Whilst brand identity reflects the organisations' image, the brand image reflects the consumers'

perception of the identity. Consequently, this demand side of research presents the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists currently towards Australian Aboriginal tourism, which may be used by Aboriginal operators when developing a brand.

The research design is guided by the realism paradigm which considers there is an external reality, with individual perceptions 'a window onto that blurry, external reality' (Sobh & Perry 2006, p. 1999). Reige (2003) considers realists acknowledge differences between, 'the real world and their particular view of it' (Sobh & Perry 2006, p. 1200). As such, the researcher was conscious of their own perceptions and attitudes of, and previous involvement with, Aboriginal tourism both within Australia and worldwide as an 'international tourist' whilst undertaking the research process. Therefore, the triangulation of a number of data sources was used within this exploratory case study design. Furthermore, the research received guidance from four Aboriginal tourism operators who were associated with enterprises in urban and remote locations, to provide an insight into the information which may be beneficial in strategic marketing decisions.

Additionally, acknowledgement to the potential bias of personal values which may occur during data analysis was considered, with value-awareness rather than value-removal required (Sobh & Perry 2006). Following their recommendation, a statement relating to the researcher's background is provided below:

> I am a 45-year-old English female who migrated to Australia six years ago and became a citizen two years ago. I now consider myself Australian. I am married with two children. Prior to migrating to Australia, I travelled extensively in Europe and the USA, and have more recently visited various areas of Australia and travelled to Asia. In addition to participating in Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia, I have participated in a range of experiences overseas, in North Africa, Lapland, USA and Vietnam. However, it

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must be noted, that until migrating to Australia in 2008, my awareness and knowledge of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders was limited. My management training, education and business experience have all been undertaken in Western countries and, as a result, the theoretical, methodological and practical implications resulting from this research are from this perspective.

1.8 Functional definitions

Aboriginal is used to mean the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders of Australia.

Aboriginal tourism: As a subset of cultural tourism, Aboriginal tourism provides tourists with an opportunity to participate in attractions, 'where Aboriginal people are directly involved in the provision of an attraction either through the control and/or by having their culture serve as the essence of the attraction' (Hinch & Butler 1996, p. 10). Cultural tourism is considered to have three principles: the provision of a learning experience; conservation and protection of resources; and the building of relationships (Boyd 2002). A diverse range of products and services are offered under the umbrella of cultural tourism including museums, festivals and visits to historical/heritage sites (DiMaggio & Mukhtar 2004; Kim, H, Cheng & O'Leary 2007; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004), which can enhance a travel experience in either a rural or urban destination (Timothy & Boyd 2006). Cultural tourism can also occur when tourists experience the heritage and culture of a destination through contact with a host population (Wall & Mathieson 2006).

Figure 1-2 represents Hinch and Butler's (1996), definition of Aboriginal tourism, which has been adopted for the purpose of this research. The horizontal axis depicts the range of control of a tourism enterprise, with Aboriginal peoples at the left end of the continuum having no control, whilst those at the right end of the continuum have total control. Between these extremes, a range of control exists with

Aboriginal people employed within the tourism enterprise elected as board members or 'formal partners in development' (Hinch & Butler 1996, p. 17). The vertical axis represents the degree to which the tourist enterprise is based upon Aboriginal culture. Non-Aboriginal tourism is defined as when no Aboriginal theme or control is present. Tourism enterprises where high levels of Aboriginal control and Aboriginal cultural themes exist are considered culture-controlled. However, Aboriginal tourism products in Australia have diversified and are no longer limited to cultural tourism products, but include a range of mainstream tourist activities and service provision such as spas, eco-lodges and restaurants (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010), which can meet a range of tourists' motivational needs. These products are represented within the Diversified Aboriginal quadrant.

ABORIGINAL CONTROL

		Low degree of control	High degree of control
ABORIGINAL THEME	Present	Culture Dispossessed	Culture Controlled
	Absent	Non-Aboriginal tourism	Diversified Aboriginal

Figure 1-1 Defining Aboriginal tourism
Source: Hinch and Butler (1996, p. 10)

Finally, the Culture Dispossessed quadrant represents tourism enterprises where there are low levels of control by Aboriginal people, however their culture is central to the tourism enterprise developed. Discussions relating to these types of enterprises are concerned with cultural exploitation and Aboriginal intellectual property rights (Hinch & Butler 1996). Although copyright laws have been utilised within Australia to protect Aboriginal art, there are difficulties in applying the same

laws to protect cultural heritage (Mackay 2010). Therefore, cultural heritage can be used by non-Aboriginals within tourism enterprises. Lack of cultural knowledge in the design of a statue commissioned by a non-Aboriginal art gallery owner in Katoomba NSW, highlights how this can cause offence to Aboriginal peoples (Mackay 2010). The statue misuses an image of a wandjina, sacred to Kimberley-based Aboriginal groups (Mackay 2010). This statue provides an example of how lack of cultural knowledge can lead to the development of tourism experiences which do not meet the principles of cultural tourism (Boyd 2002).

Competitive advantage: 'the relative advantage an organisation has over its competitors' (Dann & Dann 2007, p. 115)

Positioning: a strategic and tactical decision, ultimately controlled by how the consumer perceives the organisation (Dann & Dann 2007)

Positioning strategy: decisions taken by an organisation to change a consumer's perception (Dann & Dann 2007)

Relative competitive advantage is used in product differentiation to provide a superior product offered to competitors. Relative competitive advantage falls along a continuum from tangible, based on physical aspects of the product which are easy to copy, to a conceptual advantage which is harder to emulate and reflects consumers' mental associations with the product. The relative conceptual advantage is created when the, 'organisation's brand, image, reputation, positioning strategy and integrated marketing communications create a social message that is attached to the organisation's value offering and that is valued by the customer' (Dann & Dann 2007, p. 236).

Target segmentation is a method that enables the sub-grouping of a potential market to define consumer needs and wants (Kotler et al. 2010). The four bases for segmentation: demographic; geographic; psychographic; and behavioural identified by Kotler (1980) are frequently used by tourism enterprises to segment their market (Tkaczynski & Rundle-Thiele 2011; Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele & Beaumont 2009)

Tourism attractions: various types of products or services offered to tourists to satisfy their needs during their holiday, for example attractions, infrastructure and hospitality (Buhalis 2000).

Tourism stakeholders: individuals or groups who are affected by, or can affect, the tourism business within a market (Buhalis 2000; Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele & Beaumont 2009)

1.9 Conclusion and outline of the thesis

This chapter has provided an introduction to the theoretical background to the study with some key issues being identified to justify the research. The research problem was defined, alongside research questions, objectives and hypotheses. The methodology was briefly introduced, followed by an overview of the key findings of the research. Finally, functional definitions were provided.

Chapter 2 presents the final literature review which was used as a data source within the realism paradigm. This chapter presents the theories underpinning the development of the conceptual framework, identifying gaps in the literature, and developing research questions. Hypotheses are also developed to test a preliminary theoretical framework.

Chapter 3 justifies and presents the research methodology applied. Ontological and epistemological considerations are discussed, alongside the use of deductive and inductive theory. The research design is discussed with a focus on instrument development, sampling considerations and procedures for data analysis for each data collection method used.

Chapter 4 reports the results of recalibrated International Visitor survey data which were used to develop a profile for remote international tourists.

Chapter 5 presents the qualitative findings from ten interviews undertaken using the convergent interview process. These findings are used to assess the suitability of the preliminary framework developed in Chapter 3, and are used to develop a survey instrument.

Chapter 6 reports the results of an empirical analysis of data collected from international tourists at the South Australian Museum.

Chapter 7 forms the final discussion chapter for the thesis. Within this chapter, the findings from Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 are converged to answer the research questions and objectives. A conceptual framework for consumer-based brand equity in an Aboriginal tourism context is developed. The chapter concludes with theoretical and methodological contributions, with consideration given to the practical implications. Additionally, avenues for future research are discussed. Finally, the limitations for each data source are identified.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Following on from the introductory chapter which outlined the research problem and structure of the thesis, this chapter considers a range of literature from the fields of marketing and tourism. The chapter begins by defining brands and brand equity and presents the conceptual frameworks of Keller (1993) and Aaker (1991). The review then discusses model development for consumer-based brand equity with a focus on tourism contexts. The review considers processes used within the standard dimensions of awareness, image, quality, value and loyalty, in addition to identifying additional measures which may be appropriate for an Aboriginal tourism brand.

A discussion regarding the significance of destination image follows, with consideration given to the destination choice process of international tourists. This is followed by an overview of destination image which defines the concept. The final section draws together research from destination choice, consumer-based brand equity, and Aboriginal tourism which highlight the importance of individual tourist characteristics in influencing perceptions and attitudes. A summary concludes the chapter identifying some 'gaps' in the literature. Five research questions are presented with objectives and hypotheses. Finally, the preliminary conceptual framework is presented.

2.2 Defining brands and brand equity

2.2.1 Defining brands

Brands are used to label a product and provide meaning to potential consumers (Keller 1998a). Whilst brands were traditionally associated with products and services, they have increasingly become associated with people, places and ideas

(Keller 1998a). Defining brands has been problematic in academic research, as explanations either consider the value of the brand to the organisation or the consumer (Wood 2000). The American Marketing Association define a brand as a: 'name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or combination of them intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competition'(Kotler & Gertner 2002, p. 249). This definition focuses on the benefit to the organisation which can result in lower costs (Keller 1993), increased sales, price premiums, and customer loyalty (Aaker, D 1991, 1996a). Within the tourism field, the success of branding strategies is often measured by increases in numbers of visitors, expenditure levels and length of stay (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011).

Alternative definitions of brands consider the benefits to the consumer which may be tangible or intangible. Brands benefit consumers by reducing perceived risk or by individuals using them to project their self-image to others (Keller 1998a). To further enhance the understanding of brands, Wood (2000, p. 666) developed a brand definition that considered the added value of a brand to both the organisation and consumer: 'A brand is a mechanism for achieving competitive advantage for firms, through differentiation (purpose). The attributes that differentiate a brand provide the customer with satisfaction and benefits for which they are willing to pay (mechanism).'

Tourism Australia is responsible for the overall marketing of Australia to both international and domestic tourists. As part of their marketing strategy they are responsible for the country's destination brand, which is similar to a corporate or organisational brand, whilst destinations within the country are considered product

brands (Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009). Aboriginal tourism has been used to differentiate brand Australia, with images used to develop a national identity for the international market (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003a; Pomering & White 2011). However, Aboriginal tourism has also developed into an industry sector, offering a wide range of experiences and other tourism services such as accommodation (TourismAustralia 2014). Tourism Australia supports these enterprises through the Export Ready program and provision of marketing support including a website (TourismAustralia 2014).

Recent research has identified that barriers to participation in Aboriginal tourism include time, cost, distance, transport, lack of awareness and availability (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). To overcome a lack of awareness of Aboriginal products in Australia (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), the development of a national brand logo has been recommended (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). Similarly, a report commissioned by WAITOC, suggested that an accreditation scheme could increase awareness of 'culturally appropriate Aboriginal tourism experiences', in addition to developing a marketing/branding strategy alongside the accreditation to, 'instil confidence in the broader tourism industry' (Fransen 2012, p. 24). 70% of Aboriginal operators and 100% of wholesalers involved in the research were of the opinion that an Aboriginal accreditation module attached to an existing accreditation program would assist in developing the profile of the sector and assist in promotional strategies (Fransen 2012).

Whilst a logo is used to enable identification and recognition of a brand to occur, for benefits to arise from this tourists must attach distinctive associations to

the logo (Govers 2013). Although logos can contribute to raising awareness - particularly if utilised by a range of stakeholders- in order to be effective a clear brand identity is required and an understanding of the desired brand equity established before logo development occurs (Govers 2013). Govers (2013), argues that logos may not always be effective in the case of destination branding, due to a destination brand representing a diverse range of products and services. Similarly, this argument may be applied to Aboriginal tourism which represents a diverse range of products and services (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010).

However, place branding has been compared to corporate branding (Govers 2013; Therkelsen & Halkier 2008). Comparable to destinations and corporate organisations, Aboriginal tourism as a concept is also complex, having numerous stakeholders and a diversity of products and services (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2005). Umbrella branding has been utilised in both place and corporate marketing strategies and occurs when one generic brand name is applied across a range of products and/or markets (Keller 1993; Therkelsen & Halkier 2008). Whilst this does not remove the individual stakeholders' ability to develop their own brand strategies, the 'umbrella' benefits consumers by reducing the risk associated with an unknown organisation, enabling assessments of perceived quality and value to be made. Stakeholders may also benefit from these types of strategies though increased awareness in the international tourist market without associated increased costs. Nonetheless, advantages gained from a national strategy may only be achieved if the perceived interests and objectives of stakeholders can be incorporated in a generic identity (Therkelsen & Halkier 2008). To develop this, a brand strategy needs to engage all stakeholders, developing a sense of belonging and shared purpose, which may act as a barrier to entry in the market (Govers 2013).

Whilst the discussion considers branding from a national perspective, this does not remove the importance of branding from an individual operator point of view. However, regardless of whether brand management is occurring from a national or independent operator perspective, consideration to international tourists' current perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal Tourism in Australia is required. Aboriginal Tourism is not a new product and, as a result, international tourists may have a number of perceptions or attitudes towards the industry. Research which considers international tourists' current perception of Aboriginal tourism will provide decision-makers with information required to compare the desired brand identity of their organisation against the current brand image and develop branding strategies to increase their market share.

2.2.2 Defining brand equity

Similar to brands, a number of definitions for brand equity have been generated, which has resulted in a number of, 'methodologies for measuring the construct' (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010, p. 5). However, a general consensus amongst researchers considers that brand equity is an intangible asset which occurs as a result of previous marketing investment, increasing the value of the product to consumers (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010; Keller 1993). It is considered that this increased value results in consumers developing loyalty to the brand combined with a willingness to pay a higher premium for the product with which it is associated (Lassar, Mittal & Sharma 1995).

Two perspectives on brand equity exist: firm-based or consumer-based (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Firm-based brand equity focuses on the financial value brand equity generates for an organisation, whilst consumer-based

brand equity focuses on market perceptions (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Firm-based brand equity considers how the brand increases the firms' value for, 'accounting, merger or acquisition or divestiture purposes' (Keller 1993, p. 1). On the other hand, the consumer-focused view of brand equity considers the value of the brand to the consumer, with buyers drawn to brands which they perceive offer them the best value (Aaker, D 1991; Keller 1993). Consequently, measures focus on consumer perceptions and attitudes to a brand (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Understanding the influence of these dimensions on a brand can enhance strategic decisions relating to target markets, branding, positioning and the marketing mix (Keller 1993)

2.3 Consumer-based brand equity: Conceptual frameworks

Concepts of consumer-based brand equity have mainly been drawn from cognitive psychology and information economics (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Information economics considers that organisations use brands to send signals to consumers reducing risk, information search costs, and creating favourable perceptions (Erdem & Swait 1998). However, for consumer-based brand equity, the dominant stream of research has been cognitive psychology, such as the conceptual models developed by Aaker and Keller (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010).

2.3.1 Consumer-based brand equity conceptual framework: Keller

Keller (1993) developed a conceptual framework for consumer-based brand equity which considered the knowledge consumers have of a brand and the implications of this knowledge on marketing strategies. Within this framework, consumer-based brand equity is defined as: 'the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand' (Keller 1993, p. 8).

Brand knowledge is central to creating positive consumer-based brand equity and, in particular, the favourability, strength and uniqueness of the brand. A brand has positive consumer-based brand equity if a consumer reacts more favourably to an element of the marketing mix than when it is assigned to an unknown brand. As remote Aboriginal operators do not function in isolation, competing against other attractions in the tourism market, with the attributes of size, location, setting and entertainment all influencing their popularity (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004), the framework suggests a strong brand may result in international tourists selecting the Aboriginal products over alternative unknown suppliers.

Marketing activity impacts on brand knowledge reflected in changes to traditional outcome measures such as sales (Keller 1993). Brand knowledge was conceptualised, 'as consisting of a brand node in memory to which a variety of associations are linked' (Keller 1993, p. 3). The conceptual model utilised associative network memory models which considers that information is stored within nodes which are connected by links. Nodes can activate other nodes when external information is stored or internal information is retrieved. However, the links between nodes vary in strength, impacting on the spread of activation and the knowledge recalled. The totality of information stored within these nodes relating to a brand is termed brand knowledge which consists of awareness of the brand and the associations stored in consumer memory (Figure 2-1).
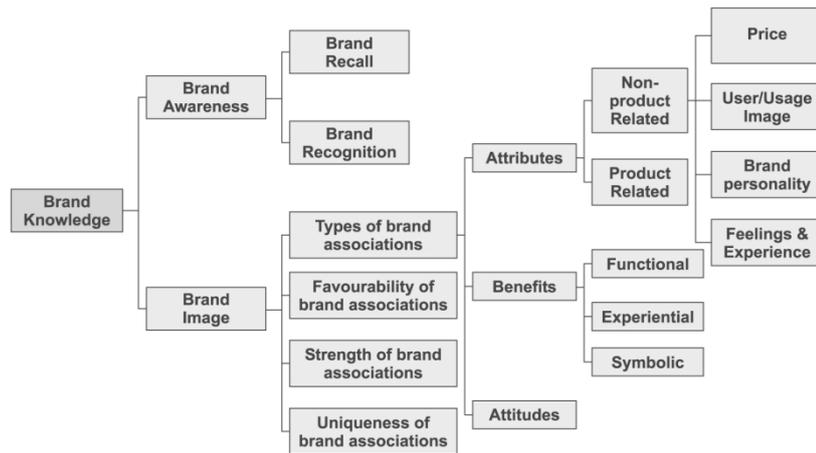
Figure 2-1 Dimensions of brand knowledge (Keller 1993, p. 7)

The first component of brand knowledge, brand awareness, reflects the ability of a consumer to recognise or recall a brand. Raising brand awareness is considered important for a number of reasons. Firstly, brand awareness positively impacts on the consumer decision-making process by increasing the likelihood of a product being included in the consideration set (Keller 1993). The consideration set is the initial group of products a consumer will assess during the buying process. Additionally, Keller (1993) suggests that brand awareness can influence decisions related to the consideration set, even if there are no associations. Utilising the elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo 1986), Keller (1993) considers this may occur when the purchase is low involvement or when consumers do not know anything else about the brands offered. Lack of knowledge of products is likely to occur in international travel due to lack of exposure to marketing materials. Lastly, brand awareness influences the formation and strength of brand associations. The model suggests that the nature of the initial brand node created will affect the types of information that can become attached to the brand in memory (Keller 1993). The importance of brand awareness in creating brand value implies that research into Aboriginal tourism brand awareness may benefit from understanding how that

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awareness is created and whether this impacts on brand associations' perceived quality, value or loyalty.

The type of brand awareness needed differs between brands, with brand recognition relating to the consumers' ability to recognise the brand, when given it as a cue. Whilst this form of awareness -where consumers are exposed to a brand, for example within a store- is considered sufficient (Keller 1993), it may also be applicable for Aboriginal tourism products, when international tourists are selecting from a range of promotional materials, such as brochures, which have been provided to them. Alternatively, brand recall refers to the ability of the consumer to remember the brand from memory (Keller 1993). For Aboriginal tourism products, brand recall may be considered an important measure, as this reflects the ability of a tourist to remember the brand when given a product category such as experiences to undertake when holidaying in Australia, for example.

The second component of brand knowledge, brand image, is defined as the: 'perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory' (Keller 1993, p. 3). Brand associations are the information nodes linked to the brand node and contain the brand's meaning to a consumer. Brand associations can be categorised as attributes, benefits and attitudes. Attributes are the descriptive features of a service or product and are classified as product-related or non-product related attributes (Keller 1993). Product-related attributes vary between product categories and are the essential elements needed for a product or service to perform. Non-product related attributes may relate to price, packaging, user imagery and usage imagery.

Three types of benefits are considered by Keller (1993). Functional benefits normally correlate to the product attributes and reflect the personal value that consumers gain from utilising a product or service. Experiential benefits also relate to the product attributes, but relate to what it feels like to use a product or service, meeting consumer needs such as sensory pleasure, variety and cognitive stimulation. Within some tourism consumer-based brand equity models, these product-related benefits have been separated from the brand image dimensions and are considered under a brand value dimension (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). On the other hand, symbolic benefits are more closely connected to non-product related attributes, relating to needs for personal expression or social approval and are often contained within the brand image dimension (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Lassar, Mittal & Sharma 1995).

Brand attitudes often relate to consumer behaviour like brand choice for example, as they reflect the consumers' overall evaluation of a brand (Keller 1993). Brand attitudes may relate to the quality of the brand in relation to product attributes or functional benefits. Alternatively, they may relate to beliefs concerning non-tangible aspects and may be used to reflect an individual's self-identity. Whilst a number of models to measure brand attitudes have been developed, consideration is needed as to how they apply to the individual brand (Keller 1993). Within tourism brand equity research, attitude measures are often separated from image and included within the quality dimension (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010).

When assessing the brand associations, consideration as to the favourability, strength and uniqueness is required as these determine the strength of the brand equity. Favourability of brand associations is reflected in consumers believing that a

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brand will satisfy their needs (Keller 1993). However, not all associations will be valued in a purchase, and remote Aboriginal operators may benefit from identifying the associations which increased perceived value. The strength of brand associations is dependent upon how the information enters the consumers' memory and how it is maintained or stored (Keller 1993). Contemplation of how salient the associations are may be used to determine the strength of the brand associations.

The final consideration to brand associations is with regard to the uniqueness of those brand associations. These unique associations may be connected with product or non-product related attributes or any one of the benefits associated with them. These unique associations may be used within marketing strategies to imply the brand is superior. When considering a product, consumers may have a number of generic associations which are not related to a brand (Keller 1993). As Aboriginal tour operators compete in the tourism market against other non-aboriginal operators, when developing brand equity, consideration to the development of a unique association is required.

2.3.2 Consumer-based brand equity conceptual framework: Aaker

Aaker's (1991) conceptual model examined five dimensions of brand equity which could directly and positively or negatively influence the value that a consumer gained from a brand (Figure 2-2). Ten measures were identified within these dimensions, although they may not be applicable to all products and markets: brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, brand loyalty and other proprietary assets (Aaker, D 1991, 1996b). The conceptual framework was used to develop measures for brands across product categories or markets (Aaker, D 1996a, 1996b). These measures may assist in developing a national Aboriginal tourism brand

incorporating a range of products and services which are offered to a range of international markets.

Figure 2-2 Brand equity dimensions adapted from Aaker (1991)
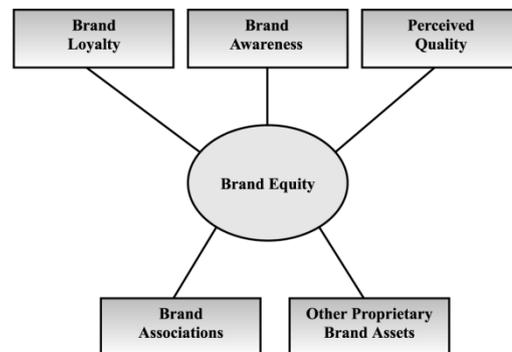
Brand loyalty is a core dimension of brand equity and can act as a barrier to entry for competitors (Aaker, D 1991, 1996b). Two loyalty measures were identified: customer satisfaction or price premium. Customer satisfaction measures consider repurchase intentions or willingness to recommend. Alternatively, price premiums presume that loyal consumers will be willing to pay a higher price for a brand compared to similar product offerings by other brands (Aaker, D 1996b). Price may not always be a valid measure of brand equity, and within some product markets other measures are more relevant when buying decisions are made (Aaker, D 1996b).

Brand awareness reflects the salience of the brand in a consumer's mind (Aaker, D 1996b). Aaker (1996) considered differing levels of brand awareness to exist, from recognising or recalling a brand, to being the first brand recalled: Top of Mind. Other types of brand awareness are brand dominance: the only brand recalled; brand knowledge: where the consumer knows what the brand represents; and brand opinion. Aaker (1996) postulated that for new or niche products brand recognition

may be a more important measure, whereas existing products may find recall measures a more appropriate measure of brand equity.

Brand associations may be constructed around the brand as a product, as a person or as an organisation (Aaker, D 1996b). When considering the brand as a product, associations may relate to the functional benefit a consumer receives and, accordingly, measures may relate to value for money or benefits received. When assessing constructs to be used within models, researchers are required to consider if a difference between value and quality exists (Aaker, D 1996b). Similarly, whilst a brand may be deemed to have a personality this may not apply to all products, particularly if they are positioned according to functional benefits (Aaker, D 1996b).

Additionally, perceived quality is an attribute that can be applicable across product classes and associated with price premiums, price elasticises and brand usage (Aaker, D 1996b). Quality can refer to measures such as reliability and service provision but can also refer to quality cues such as uniforms (Aaker, D 2004). Aaker (1996b) highlights that perceived quality involves consumers considering competitors as a reference. Finally, patents, trademarks and channel relationships are all elements of other proprietary assets. Within a tourism context this could apply to the brand logos, names and relationships to travel intermediaries such as travel agents.

2.4 Development of models for consumer-based brand equity

Consumer-based brand equity research within tourism has been undertaken to consider how consumers assess brands, with a number of measurement models developed (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). However, limited applications of consumer-based brand equity have occurred in tourism research (Pike et al. 2010),

with the majority of research undertaken into destination brand equity (see Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Pike et al. 2010). Additional tourism research has considered consumer-based brand equity in the areas of hotels (Kimpakorn & Tocquer 2010), wine tourism (Gómez & Molina 2011), conferences (Lee & Back 2008), culinary tourism (Horng et al. 2012), cultural tourism (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010), casino tourism (see Tsai, Cheung & Lo 2010; Wong 2013) and airlines (Chen & Tseng 2010).

Whilst Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993), amongst others, developed conceptual models of consumer-based brand equity, precise scales for its measurement were not developed (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). As brand equity is a multi-dimensional concept, single measures cannot be used (Keller 1993). Two categories for methods of measurement have been developed: direct or indirect (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010; Keller 1993). Direct methods of measurement commonly rely on complex statistical models which Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2010) consider have limited managerial value, as they do not identify the sources of brand value. Alternatively, indirect methods of measurement focus on individual dimensions, which can be used by managers for strategic decision-making (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Indirect approaches measure brand equity through its dimensions or via an outcome variable such as price premium (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010).

When using dimensions to measure overall brand equity, disparity between dimensions to be applied occur between academics, research fields and products, and also third party consultants can be found (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010). Within tourism research, the dimensions used commonly reflect Aakers' (1991)

conceptual model, with the dimensions of awareness, image, quality and loyalty utilised. However, alternative models have included additional dimensions such as functional value (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Gómez & Molina 2011), and personal values (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). The addition of dimensions is supportive of Keller (1993) and Aaker's (1996) conceptualisation that measures within models should be appropriate for the product or service being studied.

Indeed Boo et al., (2009) found that the standard brand equity model applied to products may not be appropriate for destination branding. Through the development of a destination brand equity model, they found a new dimension evolved, brand experience, which combined both image and quality. Whilst brand experience directly affected brand value, it had no direct effect on brand loyalty (Figure 2-3). Similarly, brand awareness only directly affected brand experience (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). Therefore, it has been proposed that brand value has a mediating effect on brand loyalty and the subsequent decision to visit the destination (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009).
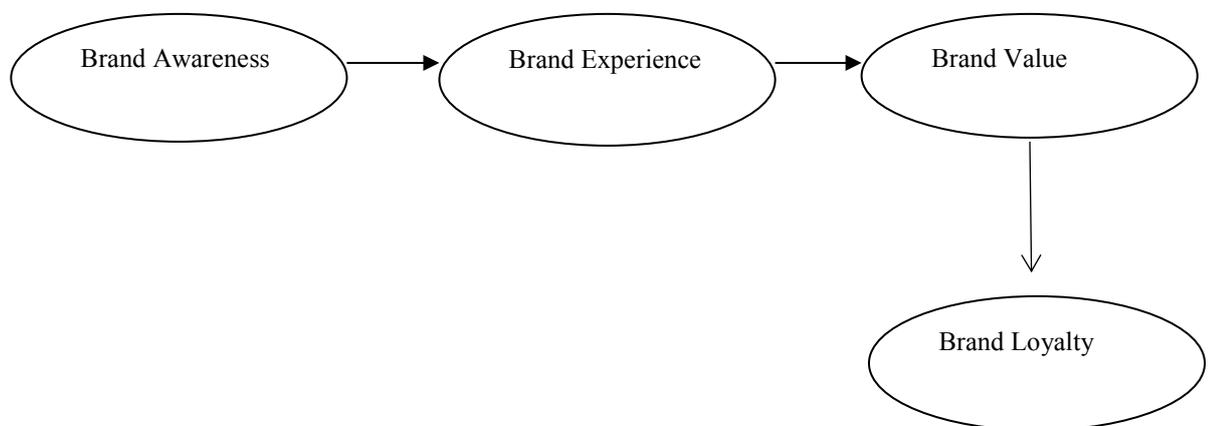
Figure 2-3 Destination consumer-based brand equity model: Adapted from Boo et al., (2009, p. 225)

Boo et al.'s (2009) study focused on destination brand equity, developing and testing a model for two separate destinations. Whilst the model was supported in both destinations, the authors recommended that destination specific measures should be considered (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). Whilst multiple items were used to measure each dimension, with pre-tests included to test the validity of the scales, the findings are limited to gambling destinations and, as a result, cannot be generalised (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). Furthermore, the development of measures was restricted to a literature review and the opinions of academics. Churchill (1979) recommends the use of a number of techniques to develop measures including experience surveys undertaken with a judgement sample of stakeholders who can provide insight into the phenomenon. As academics are closely associated with the writings of academic literature, measurement development may have been enhanced by including additional stakeholders such as tourists, casino or other hospitality employees.

Finally, data in the casino study was collected using a panel, with a pre-test question used to filter responses to those who had visited one destination (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). The response rate was 5.1%, with 90% of the surveys accurately completed (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). The sample was skewed towards Caucasian females (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). The use of a panel restricts the sample to members of a survey company, with self-selection occurring. This may result in bias with participants already being interested in the destination brand (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009).

Whilst Boo et al., (2009), research highlighted the importance of considering new dimensions and measures, it highlighted the complexity of generalising

consumer-based brand equity research. Furthermore the methodology applied did not enable the development of understanding relating to how past experience influenced responses and, therefore, may not be considered holistic in nature. To overcome this limitation, Keller (1993) considered that direct and indirect approaches to measuring consumer-based brand equity are complementary. Whilst the indirect approach identifies what aspects of brand knowledge generate a response, the direct approach can determine the nature of the response. Indirect approaches may utilise qualitative methods to measure the characteristics of brand associations, although these methods may not adequately ascertain the favourability or the strength of association (Keller 1993). Direct approaches may utilise experiments, for example the 'blind' test to ascertain the effects of brand knowledge on consumer decisions.

Limited research has considered the brand equity of cultural attractions and museums (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Early research introduced the concept in relation to museums (Caldwell 2000), with later work identifying that brand associations had not progressed in museums in the same way as with other popular brands which required marketeers to develop a clearer brand identity (Caldwell & Coshall 2002). Utilising empirical research in other tourism fields, a brand equity model for organisations focusing on art and culture was developed which included: brand loyalty, brand image, perceived quality and brand values (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Using an indirect approach, overall brand equity was measured through willingness to pay (price premium), intention to participate in the next event or to seek further information relating to it (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010, p. 501). Although measurement techniques considered previous research in other fields, ad hoc measures were also utilised to adopt the measures to the specific study (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Within the

development of measures, no other techniques were identified which may impact on the reliability or validity of findings (Churchill Jr 1979).

Camarero et al., (2010), research identified the importance of considering both consumer-based brand equity for a cultural experience between targets markets. The survey differentiated between internal (local) tourists and external (non-resident) tourists. Differing drivers of value were considered for both internal and external customers, with image being more important to external cultural tourists (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Brand values had a greater influence on brand equity for internal visitors, with internal visitors considering the exhibition cultural and religious values mirrored their own (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). However, no difference was identified in the other dimensions of loyalty, perceived quality and perceived value, with frequent visitors demonstrating a commitment to being involved in similar events regardless of where they were from (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Within the sample, internal tourists who resided in the city were removed as their motivation to visit the exhibition differed significantly from other visitors. However, no further consideration was provided within the paper as to how this motivation may have impacted on individual dimensions or overall perceived brand equity. This may be of managerial interest to the museum as local residents may constitute a significant market of visitors.

2.5 Selecting consumer-based brand equity dimensions and measures in the context of Aboriginal tourism

Whilst the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity within tourism originate from traditional conceptual models (eg. Aaker, D 1991; Keller 1993), the measures used have been adapted to the field of study. Following a review of literature, Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2010) identify a number of

recommendations for researchers who are seeking to measure brand equity. Firstly, they recommend that due to the multi-faceted nature of brand equity a set of measures is required which is associated with the brand vision. Secondly, research should consider how the brand contributes to the overall product experience. Thirdly, the brand category is important with dimensions and measures of brand equity not directly transferable across industries. Additionally, measures should also incorporate perceptions and motivations of consumers modelled against important behaviours such as willingness to recommend. Finally, as brands are continuously evolving, functional, emotional and experiential features may also be included. Based on these recommendations, the following sub-sections consider dimensions and measures of brand equity used within tourism research, with consideration given to their application in an Aboriginal tourism context.

2.5.1 Brand awareness

Brand awareness refers to a consumer's ability to recall a brand unaided or to recognise it when provided with marketing materials (Keller 1993; Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Tourism research has included brand awareness as a brand equity dimension, focusing on recognition measures such as destination name (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011), or recall measures relating to product categories or characteristics (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009, p. 223). Awareness directly influences overall brand equity (Horng et al. 2012; Kim, H & Kim 2005; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Pike et al. 2010), or individual dimensions such as brand experience (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009), perceived quality (Bertsch & Ostermann 2011), and value perceptions (Oh 2000). Furthermore, research identified a connection between brand awareness of culinary tourism and preference for a destination in which to participate (Horng et al. 2012).

The influence of brand awareness on brand equity appears to differ between markets and products (Aaker, D 1996b). Research into destination brand equity identified that whilst brand awareness of a destination directly influenced brand experience, the influence on brand loyalty was moderated by brand value (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009). Similarly, a study into mid-priced hotel brand equity identified that brand awareness influenced overall brand equity via the perceived value dimension (Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008). However, tourists are not a homogenous group, with the brand awareness dimension having greater statistical significance for first time visitors to a destination than it has for repeat visitors (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). Indeed, for some target segments, although brand awareness is required for inclusion within the consideration set, it does not directly influence overall brand equity (Bailey & Ball 2006; Kayaman & Arasli 2007). Therefore, when developing a consumer-based brand equity model in an Aboriginal tourism context, brand awareness as a dimension may be included and the effects on the overall brand equity measured.

Whilst brand awareness may be an appropriate dimension for a consumer-based brand equity model in an Aboriginal tourism context, consideration to measures is required (Aaker, D 1996b). Measures have been used in tourism research to assess tourists' ability to recall a destination or tourism product unaided, with the first brand named commonly considered "Top of Mind"(Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Pike & Mason 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). A recent gap analysis study was undertaken into the demand for Aboriginal tourism products in Australia, which identified that contrary to claims of high levels of international tourists' interest, only 19% of respondents had top of the mind awareness for the Aboriginal tourism product, with only 2% intending to participate (Ruhanen,

Whitford & McLennan 2013b). Although the study did not apply the consumer-based brand equity framework, reasons for not participating related to other brand equity dimensions such as brand image: it was not prestigious, brand quality: there were safety concerns; and brand value: time available or cost (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). This suggests that other dimensions of brand equity may be influencing the intention to participate.

However, previous consumer-based brand equity research has identified that the influence may differ between target segments (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). The gap analysis surveys do not differentiate between first or repeat visitors, or whether awareness was created before or after arrival in Australia. As these factors may influence the depth and breadth of brand awareness (Keller 1993), they should be considered in future research.

Brand awareness directly impacts on the information search undertaken and potential inclusion in the consideration set (Kotler et al. 2010), with lack of awareness resulting in a product being excluded from the early stages of the choice process (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). Previous research into Aboriginal tourism suggests there is a lack of awareness of the range of products available to tourists (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). Whilst these studies consider a lack of brand awareness results from limited promotion both before and during their holiday, they do not consider how individuals who have brand awareness gained it. Brand awareness is not created purely from marketing activities (Keller, 1993), and international tourists will use internal and external sources of information when developing a consideration set (Kotler et al. 2010). Internal information searches enable

international tourists to consider existing knowledge from previous experience or knowledge gained from previous exposure to external sources such as marketing, media or word of mouth. External searches may include marketing material such as product brochures or websites, third party organisations such as Tourism Australia or travel journals or guides, or interpersonal sources such as friends or family. Developing an understanding of how brand awareness was created, and its subsequent impact on brand dimensions and overall brand equity may be useful in developing targeted promotional strategies.

Further research has highlighted that brand awareness may not necessarily increase brand equity and inclusion within choice sets. Gartner and Ruzzier (2011), highlight that although some destinations such as Afghanistan have dominant awareness in consumers' minds, they would not be considered by many as a holiday destination. As a result, the brand awareness must be of a positive nature for it to positively improve brand equity (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011).

Similarly, Pike and Mason (2011), suggest consideration of brand salience is also required. The strength of awareness in a target market falls along a continuum (Aaker, D 1996b), with four levels of awareness identified in research: dominant, top of mind, familiarity and knowledge (Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Brand salience considers the likelihood of a brand being included in a consideration set, with awareness needing to be 'top of the mind' for it to be considered (Pike & Mason 2011). Pike and Mason (2011), consider that current consumer-based brand equity research using structural equation modelling considers a brand in isolation, identifying levels of brand recall rather than whether the brand is included in choice sets. Using the attributes of each construct as performance indicators, researchers

were able to measure market perceptions against the brand identity (Pike & Mason 2011).

Utilising measures for brand salience within consumer-based brand equity models may benefit operators, as international tourists need to be aware of when and where a brand can satisfy their needs (Keller 2001). Brand salience can be measured by identifying the depth and breadth of brand awareness, with depth referring to how easily customers can recall or recognize the brand, and breadth considering the range of products that a tourist associates with the brand (Keller 2001). Whilst previous studies have identified that low levels of product awareness exist (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), they do not identify which categories of products international tourists are aware of. As Aboriginal tourism products have diversified, offering experiences extending beyond traditional cultural tours (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010), measures which increase understanding of international tourists' brand awareness across a product range may be considered. Identifying if disparities exist between product types may be beneficial for both individual operators and international marketing campaigns.

Aaker (1996) noted that measures should be selected that are suitable for the products or markets being investigated. Brand awareness does not necessarily require consumers to recall a brand name, as consumers used other cues such as packaging or location (Macdonald & Sharp 1996). Macdonald and Sharp (1996) highlight that three different choice situations influence the type of brand awareness required (Lynch, J & Srull 1982). Stimulus-based situations provide all the materials needed to make a decision; hence, recognition is all that is required (Macdonald & Sharp

1996). Memory-based situations require consumers to recall all the information, and mixed-based provides some information and requires other information to be recalled from memory.

Whilst recall measures assess 'top of mind' awareness, additional measures such as recognition may be appropriate in the tourism market where tourists are exposed to marketing materials during their planning stage (Keller 1993). Additionally, Aaker (1996) considered that recognition measures may be appropriate for new or niche product markets. Recognition measures have been used in tourism research investigating destination brands measuring the strength of awareness of destination names and characteristics (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). However, as the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism may be considered to occur in a mixed based environment, it may be beneficial for the model to utilise both recall and recognition measures.

2.5.2 Brand image

A brand image is the perception a consumer has in relation to a product, institution, brand, business or person and is constructed from the associations a consumer holds in their memory (Keller 1993). Brand images provide brand meaning to potential consumers (Keller 2001), and are used to influence tourists' decision-making behaviour (Tasci & Gartner 2007). Whilst quality and image dimensions have been combined within some destination equity models (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009), this may not be relevant to all tourist markets (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). Within cultural tourism research, brand image has been identified as the main dimension in brand equity, separate to perceived quality (Camarero, Garrido &

Vicente 2010; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). As a consequence, brand image and brand quality will be considered in this literature review as two separate dimensions.

Keller (2001) divides brand image into two categories: brand performance and brand meaning. Brand performance relates to the tangible attributes that consumers associate with the product and how the product meets their needs (Keller 2001). Within tourism consumer-based brand equity research, measures used within surveys commonly include attractions, people, facilities and environmental issues such as nature or the weather (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Pike et al. 2010). Within cultural tourism, research positive image, reputation and difference of exhibitions are also included (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010).

Understanding the associations that international tourists have in relation to Aboriginal tourism may be beneficial in developing promotional strategies. A recent study into international tourists' demand for Aboriginal tourism products in Australia identified that only 2% of participants listed Aboriginal tourism experiences within their top five preferences (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). However, activities with higher levels of preference included sightseeing, adventure, Uluru, or visiting the outback which could also be provided by Aboriginal operators. Therefore, to develop a strong brand identity, future research needs to identify the current associations of international tourists. Depending on the findings, operators may use the knowledge to create promotional strategies that inform, remind or reinforce tourists' perceptions (Kotler et al. 2010).

In addition to brand associations linked to the attributes of a product or service, brand meaning relates to the intangible aspects of brand image which Keller (2001), separates into four categories. User profiles relate to the type of person who may use

the brand which may be based on descriptive demographic features or more abstract psychological features (Keller 2001). These profiles can be used within promotional materials to reflect general users of a brand. A second set of associations is connected to the usage of the brand, for example, where to use the brand or type of activity (Keller 2001). Additionally, brand image associations may be connected to the brand history. However, associations may be generated from sources of brand awareness not directly connected to the Aboriginal tourism brand (Keller 1993). Whilst Aboriginal people are used within Australia's brand image to create a national identity, the images used are often stereotypical and reflective of a historical past (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003a; Pomering & White 2011). This may directly impact on the brand image of Aboriginal tourism products, such as museum exhibitions, with international tourists perceiving the product in a historical context rather than offering contemporary products such as spas or accommodation.

Finally, brand associations may relate to the personality of the brand (Keller 2001) which is defined as: 'the set of human characteristics associated with a brand' (Aaker, J 1997, p. 347). Research into brand image has identified five dimensions of brand personality: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness (Aaker, J 1997). Self-congruity theory proposes that when the symbolic characteristics of the brand reinforce and validate an individual's self-perception, the preference for the brand will be higher (Swann, Stein-Seroussi & Giesler 1992). The trait-centred perspective of self-identity considers an individual's self-concept is constructed from a number of characteristics, such as our bodies; our values and character; our competence and success; our social roles; our personality characteristics and our possessions (Mittal 2006). It is considered that individuals

construct their self-image (Sirgy 1982), and may use a brand to express themselves or show an 'ideal self' (Malhotra 1988).

Within consumer-based brand equity brand image, measures have been used which reflect self-congruity measures (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013). Sirgy and Su's (2000), multidimensional framework encompassed four areas of self-concept: actual, ideal, social and ideal social. Actual self-image refers to how individuals actually perceive themselves; ideal is how they would like to be perceived; social is how they think others perceive them; whilst ideal social refers to how they would like others to perceive them. Each aspect of the framework has a corresponding congruity; that is, actual self-image is realised in a brand through actual self-congruity; ideal self-image through ideal self-congruity; actual social-image through actual social-congruity; and ideal social-image through ideal social-congruity (Sirgy & Su 2000). Sirgy and Su (2000), proposed that self-congruity influences functional congruity, although the influence is moderated by the tourists' prior experience, knowledge, involvement and time (Sirgy & Su 2000). Functional congruity influences travel intentions and is based on consumers' evaluation of the costs and benefits of a transaction, with purchases made when benefits outweigh costs (Hung & Petrick 2011).

Whilst the majority of self-congruity research has been undertaken in products, the findings from it within tourism contexts have been inconclusive (Boksberger et al. 2011). Self-congruity research was found to influence preference for a location (Beerli, Meneses & Gil 2007) and intention to recommend or return to a destination (Usakli & Baloglu 2011). Alternatively, research into destination choice in Australia found that high levels of self-congruity did not necessarily result in intention to visit

(Murphy, Moscardo & Benckendorff 2007). Additionally, Boksberger et al. (2011) found a decrease in levels of self-congruity, the greater the frequency of travel. Whilst Sirgy and Su (2000) consider this to be a connected to functional congruity, Boksberger et al., (2011), suggest this may occur as tourists who organise one annual holiday rather than a number of shorter holidays, seek greater self-congruity in the destination choice. Alternatively, as functional congruity requires greater cognitive effort (Sirgy & Su 2000), individuals with greater travel experience are more likely to evaluate destination attributes when making destination choices (Sirgy et al. 1991), whilst novices are more likely to use simplistic cues such as visitor images (Sujan 1985).

Self-congruity research seeks to match a dimension of the consumers' self-concept with the product-user image, with actual and ideal self-congruities the most commonly used measures in tourism context (Usakli & Baloglu 2011). However, self-congruity research has not been undertaken within an Aboriginal tourism context, and the findings from destination research cannot be generalised to all fields of tourism research. Therefore, future consumer-based brand equity research in an Aboriginal tourism field may benefit from including this measure.

Within consumer-based brand equity research into cultural tourism, personal values have also been identified as influencing brand equity (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). In relation to buying behaviour, personal values are considered independent of situations, act to motivate individuals, and serve as standards or criteria to be met in decision-making (Schwartz 2011). Personal values influence assessments of destination images (Woodside & Lysonski 1989), travel motivations, activity participation, and perceived travel risks (Mehmetoglu et al. 2010). Whilst

Camarero et al. (2010) included personal values as a separate dimension (as it forms part of an individual's self-identity) (Mittal 2006), it may be considered an element of self-congruity and as such is included as a measure within the brand image dimension.

2.5.3 Brand quality

Brand quality is subjective (Konecnik & Gartner 2007), and may be considered part of the image dimension (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Pike 2002). The Quality dimension has been used separate to Brand Image, with studies identifying a positive relationship between Quality and Image (Liu, Liu & Lin 2013). However, Quality perceptions have not been found to directly influence Brand Loyalty (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013). Quality has been identified as a significant dimension to both the repeat and new visitor markets, having the same significance as the image dimension (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). Increased travel experience changes tourists' quality evaluations, with previous experience with similar products used to make quality assessments prior to purchase (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011).

A number of quality measures have been utilised in tourism choice research including areas such as environment and safety (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011), quality of experiences (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Lassar, Mittal & Sharma 1995), and employees attitudes and physical facilities (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008). Perceived quality issues in relation to Australian Aboriginal tourism have been identified as safety/comfort concerns, language barriers and poor perceptions of Aboriginal communities, for example related to

alcohol issues (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). Although these issues have been identified, research has not considered how they impact on overall brand equity.

When considering quality measures to be used within Aboriginal tourism contexts, attention needs to be given to associations which may be unique to the brand (Keller 1993). Quality measures need to reflect drivers in the market and be applicable across product categories (Aaker, D 1996b). Authenticity has been utilised as a quality measure in tourism research (Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003), with perceived authenticity influencing behavioural intentions (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011), including intention to participate in Australian Aboriginal tourism experiences (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a).

Authenticity has also been identified as a potential consumer driver (Yeoman, Brass & McMahon-Beattie 2007). It is suggested that as luxury goods have become more 'mainstream', consumers are looking to experiences to meet their self-esteem and self-actualisation needs, seeking 'real' experiences rather than those manufactured in theme parks (Yeoman, Brass & McMahon-Beattie 2007). Beverland and Farrelly (2010) consider that consumers seek authenticity in a range of products and brands to satisfy different three goals associated with self-authentication. The first goal is to feel in control of their surroundings and 'life in general', with individuals seeking control in their consumer choices (Beverland & Farrelly 2010). Within their study, Beverland and Farrelly (2010) identified that some brands were only deemed authentic after personal experience of the benefit was encountered, due to the functional claims only able to be assessed after personal use. This could have implications for tourism experiences, with tourists seeking new experiences in new destinations to satisfy the need for novelty (Pearce & Lee 2005).

The second goal was termed 'feeling connected' and was related to individuals' connection with others within a community, place or culture and how this relates to self-identity (Beverland & Farrelly 2010). It may be considered that understanding the importance of authenticity in Aboriginal tourism experiences in relation to relationships, will also inform knowledge of social congruity. Furthermore, when developing brand auras, the relationship of the experience to the place is considered a key attribute (Alexander 2009; Beverland 2006). Therefore, developing a greater understanding of how tourists perceive authenticity of Aboriginal tourism in relation to the destination it is located in, can assist in the planning and development of cultural attractions (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Sedmak & Mihalič 2008).

Finally, Beverland and Farrelly (2010) identified a third goal termed 'feeling virtuous'. This goal represented individual's purchasing brands or products they believed were consistent with their values. Yeoman et al. (2007) consider that there is a growing market trend for products which are perceived to be ethical, and it may be considered that authentic Aboriginal tourism experiences may form part of this market. Understanding how authentic Aboriginal tourism experiences assist in tourists achieving this third goal, may inform brand image decisions.

Alternative studies have been undertaken into authenticity, with a number of definitions emerging within cultural tourism contexts (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011). Authenticity is often associated with terms such as 'original' as opposed to staged (MacCannell 1973), genuine, real or the truth (Beverland & Farrelly 2010), symbolic (Culler 1981), and sincere (Beverland 2006). However, cultural tourists have been considered to interpret authenticity in different ways depending on the activity

undertaken (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011), which suggests that generating a generic definition may pose problems. Whilst the majority of tourists seek an authentic experience, many do not know how to find it (McIntosh 2004), with assessments of the level of authenticity at an Aboriginal attraction measured against stereotypical images seen prior to the visit (Yang & Wall 2009). As Aboriginal peoples have been used within Australian tourism branding strategies (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003a; Pomering & White 2011), this may have negative impacts on perceptions of authenticity.

Furthermore, the depth of experience gained, and time spent at an Aboriginal attraction, is often controlled by tour guides or tour operators, minimising direct contact and providing 'staged' experiences (Yang & Wall 2009). Yet this staged authenticity in Aboriginal tourism, was still perceived by tourists to be authentic, and resulted in satisfaction with the experience (Cohen 1988; Yang & Wall 2009). However, the depth of both experience and motivation of individual tourists, influences the breadth of attributes needed for tourists to perceive the experience as authentic (Cohen 1988; Kolar & Zabkar 2010).

Ruhanen et al.'s (2013) research into Australian Aboriginal tourism highlighted some of the conflicting perspectives of authenticity between tourists and operators. International tourists' concerns relating to authenticity were connected with the commercialisation of product (genuine, real or the truth), how to assess authenticity (original opposed to staged), and the benefits to communities. Alternatively, Australian Aboriginal operators consider personal engagement, culturally appropriate stories, contemporary culture, and nature to be key elements of authenticity (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). Whilst considered an important part of the

product, the perceived level of authenticity differed between respondents, with some operators acknowledging that a target segment of tourists was content with a staged product (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). With regards to the ownership some respondents considered 100% Aboriginal ownership to be vital for authenticity, yet although another respondent commented that tourists are only concerned with having an Aboriginal guide (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). In summary, it can be considered that authenticity is important in the choice processes of international tourists, but how it influences the perceived quality of the Aboriginal tourism brand and overall brand equity has yet to be examined.

2.5.4 Brand value

Whilst perceived value is excluded from a number of consumer-based brand equity frameworks (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Kayaman & Arasli 2007), or included within brand image dimensions (Kim, H, Kim & An 2003), some researchers have included this as a separate dimension (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013). A number of earlier studies (Cretu & Brodie 2007; Kim, K et al. 2008; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013) have identified that perceived Value mediated the relationship between the other brand dimensions and brand loyalty.

Understanding the dimension of value is important to marketeers for a number of reasons (Gallarza, M, Gil-Saura & Holbrook 2011). Firstly, brand value connects the transactional value, that is, the price of a product with other cognitive and affective influences on consumer behaviour (Gallarza, M, Gil-Saura & Holbrook 2011). Furthermore, empirical research has recognised the connection between

perceived value, quality and overall satisfaction (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Gallarza, M & Gil Saura 2006). Additionally, understanding value can assist in understanding both pre-purchase and post-purchase behaviour, for example, intention to re-purchase or willingness to recommend to others. Developing an understanding of perceived value, can also assist in marketing strategies which lead to product differentiation (Gallarza, M, Gil-Saura & Holbrook 2011), an important aspect of developing brand equity (Aaker, D 1996b; Keller 1993).

Perceived value has been considered in the consumers' overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the perceptions of what is received and what is given (Zeithaml 1988). Within consumer-based brand equity research, a number of measures have been used to assess value (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008). Some researchers have considered brand value in monetary terms, considering relationships such as those between price and quality (Stevens 1992). Research suggests that price has a negative effect on tourist satisfaction, with price increases leading to satisfaction decreases (Campo & Yague 2008). However, price has been found to influence pre-purchase, rather than post-purchase decision-making, with loyalty occurring as a result of evaluating the experience undertaken (Campo & Yague 2008).

Alternatively, research suggests the motivation to participate in cultural activities moderates the negative effect of price (Nicolau 2010). Nicolau (2010) identified five different cultural-interested tourist segments with different price sensitivities. The segment groups were differentiated on demographics of age, travel party, accommodation and expenditure, with findings suggesting that the segment which was least price sensitive was older, stayed in hotels and was less likely to have

children in their travel party. Therefore, it may be considered that developing an understanding of perceived value in relation to Aboriginal tourism activities may be beneficial to marketing activities relating to the marketing mix.

Other research has highlighted the need for value within service contexts to be considered from a multi-dimension perspective (Gallarza, M, Gil-Saura & Holbrook 2011; Gallarza, M & Gil 2008; Williams, P & Soutar 2009). Table 2-1 identifies a number of research studies undertaken with the different measures of value.

Table 2-1 A selection of typologies of value

Authors	Conceptual or empirical proposal	Values
Monroe and Chapman (1987)	Conceptual	1) Acquisition value; 2) Transaction value
Holbrook and Corfman (1985)	Conceptual	1) Hedonic value; 2) Utilitarian value
Zeithaml (1988)	Empirical (focus groups of juice consumers)	1) Value is low price; 2) Value is whatever I want in for the price I paid; 4) Value is what I get for all that I give
Sheth et al. (1991)	Conceptual	l1) Functional value; 2) Social value; 3) Emotional value; 4) Epistemic value; 5) Conditional value
Nilson (1992)	Conceptual (managerial approach)	1) Tangibles values; 2) Intangibles values
Lovelock (1996)	Conceptual	1) Pre-use value; 2) Post-use value
Babin et al. (1994	Empirical	1) Hedonic value; 2) Utilitarian value
Kotler et al. (1995)	Conceptual	1) Expected value; 2) Received value
Zeithaml and Bitner (1996)	Conceptual (for services)	1) Benefits (quality, satisfaction and specific benefits) 2) Costs (money, time and effort)
Woodruff (1997)	Conceptual (managerial approach)	1) Desired Value; 2) Received value
de Ruyter et al. (1997)	Conceptual	1) Emotional or intrinsic value; 2) Functional or extrinsic value; 3) Logical or value for money
Oliver (1999)	Conceptual	1) Consumption value; 2) Extended value
Holbrook (1999)	Conceptual	1) Efficiency; 2) Excellence; 3) Play 4) Aesthetics; 5) Status; 6) Esteem; 7) Ethics; 8) Spirituality
Parasuraman and Grewal (2000)	Conceptual	1) Acquisition value; 2) Transaction value; 3) Value ''in-use'' 4) Redemption value
Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	Empirical (durable goods) based on Sheth et al. (1991)	) Functional (price/value for money); 2) Functional (performance/quality); · 3) Emotional value; 4) Social value
Mathwick et al.(2002)	Empirical (electronic purchases)	1) Active values (efficiency; economic value and enjoyment); 2) Reactive values (visual attraction; entertainment value and service excellence)
Petrick (2002, 2003)	Empirical (leisure services	1) Non-monetary costs; 2) Monetary price; 3) Emotional response; 4) Quality; 5) Reputation

Source: Gallarza and Gil (2008, p. 7)

Due to the operationalization problems which occurred when using the Holbrook dimensional framework within a tourism study, Williams and Soutar (2009) developed a new framework in an adventure tourism context (Figure 2-4). The research used the perceived value scale called PERVAL, developed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001). The PERVAL scale, based on the conceptual work of Sheth (1991), included four dimensions of quality, price, social and emotional value and

was empirically tested in a service environment (Sweeney & Soutar 2001). The findings showed that perceived value was better explained by a multi-dimensional perspective then a single 'value for money' item (Sweeney & Soutar 2001). Within the adventure tourism model, value for money had a significant influence on satisfaction and future behavioural intentions (Williams, P & Soutar 2009).
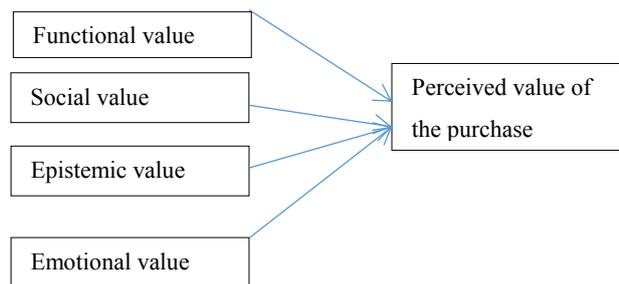
Figure 2-4 Dimensions of value (adapted from Williams and Soutar, 2009)

Whilst functional value is commonly associated with price (Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991; Williams, P & Soutar 2009), the PERVAL model also included a second functional dimension which included aspects such as quality, reliability and durability. However, within consumer-based brand equity research these constructs are included in the brand image or quality dimension (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Therefore, it is considered that these measures should not be included within the functional value construct. As an alternative functional measure, Mogilner and Aaker (2010) suggest consumers view time and money differently with the way an individual chooses to 'spend their time' used to create value. Growth in inbound travel reflects social changes in the acceptance of how time is spent (FrÈndberg & Vilhelmson 2003; Richards 1998). Time has been used as a dimension within tourism research, measuring the time spent in planning, travelling and the opportunity costs, and has been found to directly influence

perceived value (Gallarza, M & Gil Saura 2006). It is considered a resource, with consumers' perceptions of the value of time varying between contexts (Leclerc, Schmitt & Dube 1995). As time spent cannot be regained (Leclerc, Schmitt & Dube 1995), the ways in which tourists choose to spend their time on experiences influences their self-identity and therefore buying decisions (Sirgy & Su 2000). Furthermore, holiday patterns are often time-constrained (Richards 1998), and constraints such as distance and time involved, often prevent tourists travelling to regional areas within Australia (Carson & Harwood 2007). Therefore, utilising time as a measure within functional value may enhance understanding of Aboriginal tourism brand equity.

Social value is the utility individuals gain from their association with one or more social groups (Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991; Williams, P & Soutar 2009). Within a tourism context, this may involve personal interactions with tourists or employees such as tour guides (Williams, P & Soutar 2009), which is relevant to many Aboriginal tourism activities available in Australia. Additionally, tour guides within museums may be volunteers (Holmes & Edwards 2008; Orr 2006), and understanding how they add value to the experience and potentially influence experiential loyalty has yet to be investigated (Holmes et al. 2006). However, analysis of TripAdvisor reviews for the South Australian Museum identified that international reviewers placed greater emphasis on perceptions of quality and value relating to personal services such as tours and tour guides (Ashwell 2013), suggesting that understanding their influence on the choice process may be beneficial. As with functional value, some of the measures used in earlier studies such as using tourism experiences to enhance social prestige are included within the brand image dimension. As the third dimension, Emotional value considers the

ability of a tourism experience to arouse emotions (Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991). Emotional value has been found to positively influence satisfaction and future behavioural intentions (Williams, P & Soutar 2009). Within Aboriginal tourism, Emotional value may relate to aspects such as enjoyment or fun.

Finally, Epistemic value was a new construct included by Williams and Soutar (2009), and refers to the value created when a product, 'arouses curiosity, provides novelty and/or satisfies a desire for new knowledge' (Williams, P & Soutar 2009, p. 417). Epistemic value is considered an important measure for adventure tourism as novelty and seeking new knowledge are considered motivators to travel. Similarly, this may apply within Aboriginal tourism contexts. Novelty value had a significant influence on satisfaction and future behavioural intentions (Kim, J, Ritchie & McCormick 2010; Tung & Ritchie 2011; Williams, P & Soutar 2009). Epistemic value has been considered to overcome perceived functional costs if activities are considered, 'once in a lifetime' activities (Im et al. 2012; Tung & Ritchie 2011). This may occur when tourists visit dream destinations (Gao & Zhang 2009), or when international tourists have access to local culture which can be used to create memorable experiences (Kim, J, Ritchie & Tung 2010).

2.5.5 Brand loyalty

Loyalty within consumer research is defined as a deep commitment to re-buy a preferred service/product consistently in the future, despite situational influences and marketing efforts (Oliver 1999). Oliver's (1977), loyalty framework is commonly applied within consumer marketing, and identifies a number of stages of the development of brand loyalty. The first stage of loyalty was cognitive loyalty which is based on brand attributes and is shallow in nature (Oliver 1999). However, if

satisfaction is gained on a number of occasions, it is considered to become affective although brand switching may occur. Cognitive loyalty is a deeper loyalty and whilst the consumer may be predisposed to buy the brand, this still reflects their motivation as purchase may not occur (Oliver 1977). Finally, Oliver's (1977), framework saw the final stage as action loyalty which may result in a consumer overcoming constraints in the buying process to ensure consumption is possible. However, loyalty within tourism is complex (Niininen 2004) due to tourists' motivation to seek novelty (Pearce & Lee 2005), and the infrequency of purchase (Pearce & Kang 2009). As a result, this traditional conceptualisation of brand loyalty may not be applicable with tourism activity research.

Whilst Oliver's (1977, 1999) loyalty perspective may not be appropriate in an Aboriginal tourism concept, loyalty as a consumer-based brand equity dimension has been used in consumer-based brand equity research in tourism fields (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Ruzzier 2011; Kayaman & Arasli 2007; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). Loyalty within tourism research is commonly measured by behavioural or attitudinal loyalty, although composite measures can be applied (Oppermann 2000). A lack of clarity of definitions of loyalty exists within the literature (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Im et al. 2012), which may lead to conflicting results (Churchill Jr 1979). Although Boo et al. (2009) discuss the lack of clarity within their literature review and conclude that they apply both measures within the survey, the researchers do not distinguish which measures in their survey are for behavioural or attitudinal loyalty.

Behavioural loyalty has been used in previous consumer-based brand equity research, with the measures of repeat purchases and willingness to recommend to

others also used (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Pike et al. 2010). Camarero et al. (2010) measured behavioural brand loyalty based on the number of previous exhibitions visited. The results highlighted that brand loyalty had a significant influence on brand equity regardless of visitor origin (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Alternatively, attitudinal loyalty refers to a consumer's strong internal disposition to a brand (Gounaris & Stathakopoulos 2004), which Aaker (1991) considered added value to a firm, ultimately leading to behavioural loyalty. Attitudinal loyalty reflects choices based on attributes and associated benefits and how they are perceived by the tourist (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011; Im et al. 2012). Attitudinal loyalty measures are more complex to apply in surveys than behavioural measures, although they can be measured by intention to visit (Oppermann 2000).

An additional construct of loyalty which may be considered in consumer-based brand equity models is Experiential loyalty (McKercher & Guillet 2011). McKercher and Guillet (2011) included the Transferred loyalty concept as a measure within their destination loyalty research. The concept argues that tourists retain loyalty to preferred holiday styles, such as lakes, cruises or cities, or experiences such as spas or golf, but transfer this loyalty to new environments, satisfying the need to seek novelty whilst on holiday (Pearce & Kang 2009). The destination research identified that loyalty to activities occurred regardless of the destination, with half of all trips exhibiting the repetition of specialist activities undertaken on previous holidays (McKercher & Guillet 2011).

The Transferred Loyalty concept utilises the Consumer Involvement Theory which holds that when exposed to stimuli, motivation and the corresponding predisposition to act changes (Pearce & Kang 2009). Involvement can be gained in

the information search stage of the decision-making process or via direct experience, including previous participation in activities (Pearce & Kang 2009). High levels of involvement have been found to positively influence the information search in the earlier stages of consideration set development (Carneiro & Crompton 2010).

To further enhance the Transferred Loyalty model, the Specialisation theory may be included which states that direct experience re-shapes tourists' activities and participation, and is useful in understanding tourists who seek deeper tourism experiences whilst on holiday (Pearce & Kang 2009). When considering travel career patterns, the motivation to learn about other cultures is common to tourists at all stages, but the depth of experience required increases as experience grows (Pearce & Lee 2005). Within Aboriginal tourism studies, previous involvement has been found to influence both the depth of experience sought and intention to participate in further activities (Lynch, M et al. 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1999).

Brand equity research has previously considered the influence of involvement on destination brand equity and subsequent choice (Kim, S et al. 2009). Findings suggesting that tourist involvement had a positive influence on destination brand equity which, in turn, influenced satisfaction and intention to revisit and willingness to spend money (Kim, S et al. 2009). Within cultural tourism consumer-based brand equity, brand loyalty was measured on the number of previous exhibitions visited (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). Although the exhibitions were located in different destinations within one country, the loyalty may be considered behavioural reflecting repeat purchase. Experiential loyalty within Aboriginal tourism would occur if an international tourist participated in activities which involved learning about new cultures in different countries. However, it may be considered that if

tourists transfer loyalty from one Aboriginal experience to a new experience (Pearce and Kang, 2009), they may also transfer the perception that the product is authentic. Finally, it may be concluded that understanding the influence of prior involvement in Aboriginal tourism overseas and its impact on brand equity may enhance understanding of international tourists' perceptions and attitudes to activity selection.

2.6 Consumer-based brand equity and tourist characteristics

Within consumer-based brand equity research in tourism contexts, findings suggest that tourist characteristics may influence perceptions of the brand dimensions and overall brand equity. Previous studies have identified that the influence of brand awareness on brand equity may differ between target segments (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). Alternatively, behavioural characteristics such as the frequency of trips have been found to influence perceived value, with greater travel experience linked to perception of better value (Gallarza, M & Gil Saura 2006; Pearce & Lee 2005). Additionally, the dimensions of image and awareness are more important to tourists visiting a destination for the first time (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011). Furthermore, socio-demographics such as age and gender impact on the overall brand equity (Gallarza, M & Gil 2008). Earlier studies have concluded that to build brand equity, an understanding of which dimensions influence target markets is needed (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Horng et al. 2012).

However, results from consumer-based brand equity research are not conclusive, with no consistency in the measures applied, and tourists simply being considered as a homogenous group. Future research should contemplate the personal characteristics of tourists (Horng et al. 2012); therefore, when developing a

conceptual model within an Australian Aboriginal context, consideration to tourist characteristics may be beneficial to identify their effect on brand dimensions and overall brand equity.

2.7 Consumer-based brand equity and destination choice

Whilst section 5 examined dimensions and measures, for the development of a model in an Aboriginal tourism context, it cannot be ignored that tourism is a complex process of production and consumption which depends upon a destination (Saraniemi & Kylänen 2011). As a result, research which takes into account the consumer-based brand equity for a tourism experience, needs to include the destination in which it is located. Although limited consumer-based brand equity research has been undertaken into tourism experiences, the research has identified correlations between the brand equity of an attraction and destination image. Camarero et al. (2010) suggest that the consumer-based brand equity of an attraction impacts on the destination brand equity influencing destination choice. Additionally, empirical research found the brand equity of culinary tourism positively influenced destination choice (Horng et al. 2012).

Alternatively, research has identified that destination origin image influences wine tourism brand equity, increasing the desire to visit the location a wine is produced (Gómez & Molina 2011). However, the research was only undertaken from a supply-side perspective, with a comparative study focusing on the demand side to be undertaken (Gómez & Molina 2011). The findings also suggested that the image of a destination, for example, accommodation, restaurants and environmental factors can positively or negatively impact on wine tourism brand equity (Gómez & Molina 2011). These findings are supported in another tourism concept with the perception

of destination quality and brand loyalty having a positive relationship with culinary tourism brand equity (Horng et al. 2012).

2.7.1 Destination choices in Australia

These initial findings highlight the importance of considering the destination when researching the brand equity of tourism experiences. Therefore, increasing understanding of how the destination is perceived by international tourists and how it influences decision-making behaviour in relation to participating in Aboriginal tourism activities will be useful in branding decisions (Quintal, Lee & Soutar 2010). When pondering destination choices in Australia, it is assumed that general interest tourists select the location first, while tourists with interests in specific areas such as culture travel to gain experiences with the destination being a secondary consideration (Brotherton & Himmetoglu 1997). However Carson and Harwood (2007) suggest the majority of travel to Australia is mixed interest with activity/interest and location being equal in importance. From this demand perspective, Aboriginal operators in remote areas may be competing against those in urban areas.

Australia is a diverse country with a wide range of climates and environments. As highlighted in Figure 2-5, the majority of Australia is categorised as very remote or remote, with 70% of Australia classified as desert (Carson & Harwood 2007). Within Australia, destination choices can incorporate either single or multiple-destinations (Oppermann 1995), with the majority of inbound tourists visiting two or more destinations within one vacation (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012). Multiple-destination holidays benefit destinations which lack a large mass of attractions, as they offer international tourists a number of benefits (Tideswell & Faulkner 1999).

Visiting multiple destinations can assist in meeting multiple motivational needs, in addition to reducing the risk of dissatisfaction associated with travel (Tideswell & Faulkner 1999). Furthermore, including multiple destinations for long haul tourists may have both financial and time savings (Tideswell & Faulkner 1999).

Figure 2-5 Accessibility Remoteness Index Australia 2011

Whilst previous research has identified drivers which influence international tourists' dispersal from the four main gateways of Brisbane, Sydney, Perth and Melbourne, it does not define the area dispersed to (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012). Indeed, the findings highlight that for some segments, dispersal is concentrated in specific areas such as the Gold Coast, which already has high levels of international visitors. However, remote areas have limited transport networks which can impact on market access. This is measured in terms of travel time, effort or financial costs

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(McKercher 1998). The Market Access Theory suggests that destinations which share similar attributes but have stronger market access will have a competitive advantage over those with weaker market access (McKercher 1998). Additionally, research has highlighted differences in transportation modes between segments with international tourists more heavily reliant on air travel (Prideaux 2000). Therefore, to assist remote operators in developing marketing strategies, further understanding of which drivers influence the decision to travel to remote destinations is required.

2.7.2 Destination choice process

Destination choice can be considered as a selection of one destination from a set of alternatives (Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009). Whilst some early research saw destination choice as a single-stage rational analytic decision (Haider 1990; Morley 1994), alternative models propose that destination choice follows a hierarchical structure (Crompton & Um 1992; Nicolau & Más 2008; Um & Crompton 1990). The choice set concept is a hierarchical structure model which has been utilised in tourism studies (Crompton & Um 1992; Decrop 2010; Hong, S-k et al. 2006). The model developed by Um and Crompton (1990) is considered the most methodologically and empirically sound (Sirakaya & Woodside 2005). This model follows three stages in a funnelling decision process from (1) composition of awareness set, (2) evoked set, and (3) final destination selection (Um & Crompton 1990).

Whilst Um and Crompton (1992) acknowledged choice sets were evaluated against constraints, Decrop's (2010) research identified this was a separate stage in the funnelling process (Figure 2-6). Similar to other research, Decrop (2010) found the choice sets at each stage of the process contained 0-4 destinations, with the mean

average being 2. Following the initial decision to take a vacation, consumers formulate an awareness set which includes the initial destinations from the whole market to be considered (Decrop 2010). In the second dimension, destinations within the awareness set are evaluated and separated into three further choice sets: evoked, surrogate and exclusion (Decrop 2010). The evoked set contains the preferred choices which are evaluated against constraints in the third dimension. If no constraints are experienced destinations move into the available set. However, destinations whose constraints are situational inhibitors such as time, money or travel party may move into the unavailable set, but may be considered a viable destination in the future. However, when evaluated against some structural constraints such as occupation or personal health, destinations may move into the dream set, where destinations will not be considered again (Decrop 2010).
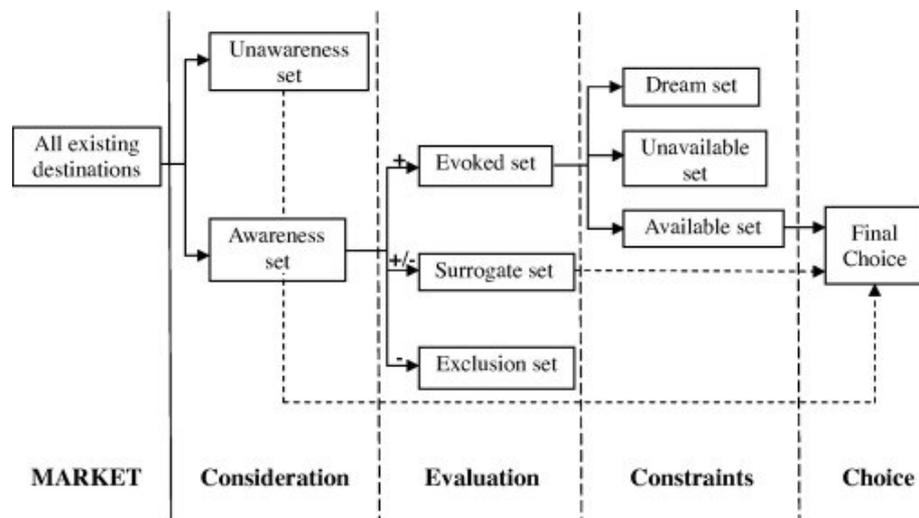
Figure 2-6 Formation of Destination Choice Set
Source: Decrop (2010, p. 112)

The decision process is seen to be constraints-opportunities driven with selection also occurring directly from the awareness set to final choice, highlighting that 'evaluation is not always necessary for choice to occur' (Decrop 2010, p. 112). Decrop (2010) suggested that destinations within the choice sets vary over the time

of decision-making, with 'increasing realism' influencing decisions made. Findings suggest that vacation choice is an ongoing process with tourists simultaneously considering different trips, talking about potential destinations, and collecting information (Decrop 2010). Decrop (2010) argues that current research focuses on why tourists limit and simplify their choice sets rather than how they form them which may be useful when developing marketing strategies.

Destination choices are influenced by push and pull factors in addition to a range of constraints. Motivation has been widely researched in tourism as it reflects individuals' needs and wants (Crompton 1979b; Decrop 2010; Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009; Um & Crompton 1992). Crompton (1979) identified that the value and benefits of a holiday were not always related to a destination's attributes, but were related to social or psychological motives of escape, self-exploration, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-enhancement and social interaction. However, some motives were concerned with destination attributes, with two primary cultural motives of novelty and education being identified (Crompton 1979b). These act as push factors with education motives including the belief that individuals need to see iconic attractions whilst on holiday. Within Australia this may influence the decision to visit Uluru in remote Australia. Additional education motives include learning about the local area and participating in opportunities for learning that result in personal growth (Crompton 1979b) .

Activities can also act as pull factors to a destination, with research suggesting that they are the links between motivation and destination choice (Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009). Cultural tourism includes a diverse range of cultural attractions including Aboriginal attractions (Kim, H, Cheng & O'Leary 2007; Kutzner & Wright 2010;

Lynch, M et al. 2010). Research indicates that the primary motivation for the majority of cultural tourists to travel to a destination is not to undertake cultural experiences (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004). However, studies also identify groups of cultural tourists whose primary motivation is to attend cultural or Aboriginal attractions (Kutzner & Wright 2010; Lynch, M et al. 2011; McKercher 2002). However, determining the market size of these groups has been problematic with overestimation of demand cited as a common reason for remote Aboriginal enterprise failure (Frost 2003)

The boundaries between specialist markets and mass tourism remain blurred (Krider et al. 2010). Therefore, additional pull factors such as recreational facilities and beaches, personal safety and destination image, are also important to inbound tourists and can be utilised to explain final destination choice (Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009). Research suggests that destinations are linked in trip planning to enable greater activity participation (Hwang & Fesenmaier 2003) to simplify the choice process and overcome time constraints (Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Lew & McKercher 2006). As a consequence, research which identifies activities influencing the decision to include a remote destination within a multiple-destination holiday may be beneficial to developing marketing strategies.

When considering including a remote Australian destination in their holiday, a number of issues may impact on tourists' decision-making including market access and logistical issues such as access to banking and health services (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011). Buultjens et al. (2011) highlight potential travellers may have false preconceptions concerning inferior accommodation, restaurants, climate, safety and comfort. Travelling with children has also been identified as reducing the

amount of distance travelled in a holiday (Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009). Climatic extremes can also act as a constraint in the choice process (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011).

Whilst remoteness poses potential problems, for some niche markets it can be utilised as a point of difference (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011). Perceived authenticity can also be linked to the relationship between the attraction and the place in which it is located (Beverland 2006), and forms part of the brand quality dimension. Research also suggests that the impact of market access is influenced by time available, travel party structure, and varies between repeat and renewal visitors (McKercher 1998). In addition, for some tourists, the journey to a destination is considered as an element of the whole holiday experience (McKercher 1998), which suggests that time spent on the journey can add value to the brand. Future consumer-based brand equity research in an Aboriginal tourism context may determine if positive brand equity reduces the negative impact of market access for remote Aboriginal operators.

2.7.3   Destination image and destination choice

Destinations may be seen to be created by marketing strategies with no clearly defined boundaries (Gao & Zhang 2009). Destination images are the perceptions tourists have of a place and are a 'sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions' that a person holds (Crompton 1979a, p. 18). Studies have identified that brand images are used to influence tourists' decision-making behaviour (Tasci & Gartner 2007) by reducing tourists' perceived risks (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011). As a result, destination images are utilised to influence the perception that a destination has fewer constraints than its competitors and subsequently influences the choice process (Hong, S et al.

2006). However, research has identified that different tourist segments perceive the same destination differently based on their beliefs relating to it (Gao, Zhang & Decosta 2012). Additionally, research considering dream destinations have identified that they have some material attributes which may be based on unique cultural or natural resources, although they highlight that the perception of these attributes are influenced by tourists' emotions (Gao & Zhang 2009).

Gunn's (1972) image formation taxonomy describes destination image formation as falling along a continuum from organic to induced to complex (Krider et al. 2010, p. 788). At the organic end of the continuum an individual's image formation occurs as a result of non-tourist information, whilst induced images are formed as a result of formal marketing efforts. Complex images are created following a visit to a destination (Krider et al. 2010). Tasci and Gartner's (2007) model separated the factors influencing image formation into supply and demand side. The supply-side factors include marketing strategy and promotion, or mass media. Alternatively, the demand side comprises of personal characteristics such as psychographics, culture and prior experiences with all three factors potentially influencing destination image and consumer behaviour. Additionally, tourists have been found to have different perceptions of a destination based on knowledge and imagination (Gao, Zhang & Decosta 2012; Nuryanti 1996).

Remote destinations within Australia are commonly marketed as the Outback. Whilst tourists indicate high levels of interest in visiting Outback Australia, visitor numbers continue to decline (Carson & Taylor 2009). Analysis of regional marketing materials identified that the Outback was sold as one destination with no clear differentiation between regions or States (Carson & Taylor 2009). Analysis suggests

the marketing strategies are mainly aspirational, with potential visitors unable to identify activities in which they can participate (Carson & Taylor 2009). When assessed against constraints of time and value, this may prevent tourists selecting these destinations (Decrop 2010). Furthermore, it is suggested that product innovation in outback areas is limited, with experiences marketed in similar ways, again reducing product differentiation (Carson & Taylor 2009). Therefore, it may be concluded that developing a deeper understanding of how Aboriginal tourism experiences within a destination are perceived by tourists, will contribute to the development of consistent brand images for both the enterprise and the destination.

2.7.4 Destination image and tourist characteristics

Research has identified that individual tourist characteristics interact with a destination image resulting in a preference (Krider et al. 2010). Destination images are moderated by individual tourists' personal characteristics such as age, gender and family life cycle stage (Krider et al. 2010). Krider et al. (2010) remarked that developing a greater understanding of how different groups of international tourists' characteristics relate to destination images, may assist in the development of marketing strategies for specific destinations. Tourist characteristics selected as variables should not be related to destination attributes, but can include socio-demographics and personality characteristics (Krider et al. 2010).

When considering dispersal, variables were identified as having a significant impact on the probability to disperse, including transportation methods, nationality, number of activities undertaken, length of stay and travel group composition (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2010, 2012). Whilst these characteristics can be included when developing a consumer-based brand equity model, as the context of this study is

Aboriginal tourism within remote Australia, consideration to the attributes for inclusion is required. Studies have identified differences in target segments based on age, gender, socio-economic status and nationality.

Socio-demographics have been identified in alternative tourism research as impacting on destination choice (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2010, 2012; Lew & McKercher 2006; McKercher 1998) or selection of activities (Chang 2006; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002). Age can be considered particularly significant, with the baby boomers considered to be in a strong positon to influence tourism demand (Chang 2006; Glover & Prideaux 2009; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000). Studies into participation in Aboriginal tourism activities have identified that age may impact on destination choice. Individuals seeking deeper experiences, including host community contact, are younger and willing to travel further (Chang 2006; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000). Alternatively, a previous study into the impact of market access on tourists in Australia, found the influence was less significant for tourists who were older as budget was less of a constraint for them (McKercher 1998). Likewise, Glover and Prideaux (2009) identified that baby boomers seek the same products as when they were young, although the features they desire change to reflect their current life cycle stage. Therefore, future research about Aboriginal tourism in remote Australia may benefit from considering the influence of age.

Gender has also been identified in Aboriginal tourism studies as influencing demand, although the findings are inconclusive. Whilst some studies indicate more females then males participate in Aboriginal tourism activities (Lynch, M et al. 2010;

Ryan & Huyton 2002), Wright and Kutzner (2010) found that males and females were evenly distributed. However, an alternative study identified that gender may influence the types of activities participated in and the levels of novelty sought (Chang 2006). Socio-economic status may also act as a predictor for the type of cultural attraction participated in (Kim, H, Cheng & O'Leary 2007). It is suggested that participation in cultural attractions depends upon a level of 'cultural capital' (Richards 1996). Cultural capital is an individual's knowledge and familiarity with a specific cultural activity, and is gained through participation which is assumed to increase as a result of socio-economic status (Richards 1996). However, research found that visitor participation at Local Festivals and Fairs was not related to income or education which could indicate that they have become, 'popularized across a wide spectrum of social classes' (Kim, H, Cheng & O'Leary 2007). This may suggest that as tourists gain greater exposure to cultural activities, socio-economic status may have less significance in their choice of cultural experience. However, this conclusion may not reflect the complex nature of cultural capital, which is a contested term with negative connotations.

Nationality has been identified as influencing destination choice with differences identified between segments in regards to motivation to travel, pre-travel planning, information sources used and the length of stay (Kim, S & Prideaux 2005). Tourist nationality appears to influence participation in Aboriginal tourism, with the largest group of international tourists who participated in Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia in 2010 arriving from the UK, followed by the US (Figure 2-7). Since 2006, the number of tourists participating in Aboriginal tourism from these regions has been declining, but some markets such as China and France show strong average annual growth, 9.4% and 5.4% per annum respectively (TRA 2011b).

Similar research findings outside of Australia show the largest markets originate from the US and Europe, predominantly Germany, UK and France (Kutzner & Wright 2010; McKercher 2002).
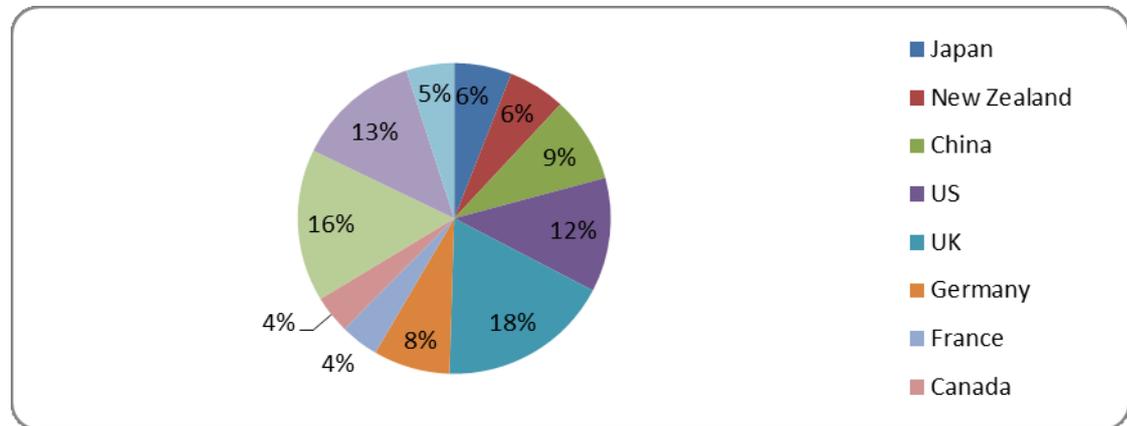
Figure 2-7 International Aboriginal tourism visitors by country of residence (TRA 2011)

Krider et al. (2010) also noted that tourists' personality characteristics can interact with destination images. Motivation has been widely researched in tourism as it reflects individuals' needs and wants (Gee, Choy & Makens 1984) and can be linked to activities and destination choice (Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009; Moscardo et al. 1996). Whereas consumer behaviour literature indicates that customers prefer to purchase brands with which they have had previous satisfactory experiences (Engel, Kollat & Roger 1973), in relation to holidays, new destinations are selected to satisfy the motivation to seek novelty (Crompton 1979b). Education motives included the belief that individuals need to see iconic attractions whilst on holiday, in addition to learning about the local area, and to participate in opportunities for learning that result in a more 'rounded individual' (Crompton 1979b).

Research indicates that the primary motivation for the majority of tourists to travel to a destination, is not to undertake cultural experiences (McKercher 2002;

McKercher & Du Cros 2003; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Richards 2002; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), with the majority of tourists considered not culturally motivated but culturally attracted to Aboriginal tourism experiences (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011). Generally, tourists are considered pleasure seekers not anthropologists (McIntosh 2004; McKercher 2002), who seek shallow, easy to consume experiences (Ho & McKercher 2004; McIntosh 2004; McKercher 2002). However, studies also identify groups of cultural tourists whose primary motivation is to attend cultural (McKercher 2002; McKercher& Du Cros 2003; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros, 2004; Poria, Reichel & Biran 2006; Richards 1996, 2002) and Aboriginal attractions (Kutzner & Wright 2010; Lynch, M et al. 2011; Ryan & Huyton 2002).

It is suggested that cultural tourists participate in similar activities regardless of the destination (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004), perhaps as a result of behavioural loyalty (Pearce & Kang 2009), as an extension of the activities in which they participate in their 'everyday lives' (Barbieri & Mahoney 2010; Kim, H, Cheng & O'Leary 2007), to reinforce their identity or to expand their knowledge (Poria, Reichel & Biran 2006; Prentice & Andersen 2007). Additionally, it is considered that many tourists simply participate in a, 'must see tourist attraction' (Poria, Reichel & Biran 2006). The travel career concept argued that tourists have stages which are identifiable within their holiday participation, similar to their career at work (Pearce & Lee 2005). Stages are influenced by previous travel experience, life stage or constraints. Travel experience did not appear to influence tourists' motivators of escape/relaxation, novelty and relationship, although the motivators of nature and host site involvement were more important to tourists with higher levels of travel experience (Filep & Greenacre 2007; Pearce & Lee 2005). Additional research has

also indicated that higher levels of foreign travel experience influences activities sought (Kim, H, Cheng & O'Leary 2007). When developing a profile of inbound Aboriginal tourists, who travel to remote Australia, it was noted that consideration to behavioural loyalty and previous travel experience may enhance the understanding of this segment.

Additionally, previous research has identified that tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism can be segmented based on depth of experience sought and level of motivation to participate (Kutzner & Wright 2010; McKercher 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). McKerchers' (2002) classification of the cultural tourists model (Figure 2-8), identifies five different types of cultural tourists, categorised according to their depth of motivation to participate in cultural activities at the destination, and the type of experience they seek. The horizontal axis utilises a low to high continuum to represent the level of influence that cultural tourism had on the decision to visit the destination. The vertical axis represents the depth of experience sought ranging from shallow experiences, such as taking photographs, through to deeper experiences, such as learning experiences within museums. Box size within the matrix does not represent the size of the segment groups, but rather is indicative of where they fall across the axis. Few demographic differences were identified between the cultural tourist types, although 'purposeful' and 'sightseeing' cultural tourists were more likely to be first time visitors and travelling as part of a tour group (McKercher 2002). Supportive of earlier research (McKercher & Chow 2001), inbound tourists to Hong Kong from countries with greater cultural differences, such as America, Australia and the United Kingdom, were more likely to be 'purposeful' and 'sightseeing' cultural tourists (McKercher 2002).

When considering differences in behaviour, 82% of the respondents in McKerchers' study stated their experiences were mainly sightseeing opportunities (McKercher 2002). Whilst all cultural tourist groups had high levels of motivation to visit iconic cultural tourist attractions, 'purposeful' cultural tourists participated in more learning experiences such as visiting museums. Additionally, the 'purposeful' cultural tourists visited lesser known temples and heritage sites, and participated in local cultural activities such as visiting markets (McKercher 2002). Inbound tourists within the 'sightseeing' cultural tourist groups participated in a wide range of activities, rather than participating in any single activity in depth, and travelled widely in the region (McKercher 2002). Whilst 'incidental' and 'casual' cultural tourists participated only in convenience based attractions, 'casual' cultural tourists were more likely to travel throughout the region to participate in iconic attractions. Finally, the 'serendipitous' cultural tourist was the smallest group of tourists. Whilst participation in cultural activities had no influence on destination choice, as with 'purposeful' cultural tourists, they engaged in deeper experiences (McKercher 2002).
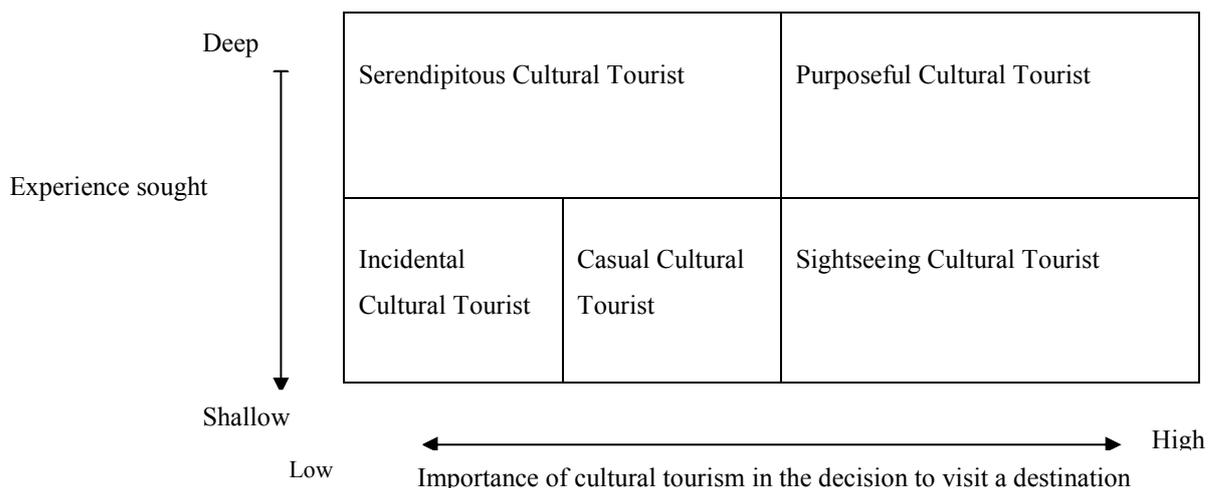
Figure 2-8 McKercher (2002) classification of cultural tourists

McKercher's classification of cultural tourists has been applied to data collected on inbound Aboriginal tourists to Australia (Tremblay & Pitterle 2008).

Similar to McKercher's (2002) findings, nearly half of the inbound visitors were 'incidental' or 'casual' cultural tourists, with Aboriginal culture having no influence on destination choice (Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). The 'purposeful' group within both surveys, pursued activities with a greater focus on learning and host community contact with 'sightseeing' and 'purposeful' cultural tourists willing to travel further to undertake these Aboriginal tourism activities (Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). Length of stay appeared to influence cultural tourist types with 'serendipitous' and 'purposeful' tourists staying the longest and allocating the largest percentage of time to Aboriginal experiences during their trip (Tremblay and Pitterle, 2008). Whilst the purposeful and serendipitous cultural tourist groups were larger in the Australian sample, Tremblay and Pitterle (2008), adapted data from the Indigenous Tourism Survey (1999) to apply these categorisations. This survey was included within the International Visitor Survey, an exit survey which is undertaken to identify international visitor characteristics and travel behaviour within Australia. The data did not apply random sampling as it aimed to develop a deeper understanding of a number of geographical target segments planned and actual participation in Aboriginal tourism. This sampling method could potentially have influenced the representation of purposeful and serendipitous cultural tourist groups, and it is therefore suggested that further data are required to test McKercher's (2002) model on inbound Aboriginal tourists to Australia.

Whilst the majority of tourists' participation in Aboriginal tourism occurred as a result of visiting generic attractions in key locations, it appears a small minority of visitors in mainstream markets have a 'predisposition' to participate (Ryan & Huyton 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). However, inbound tourists limited prior knowledge of Australian Aboriginal culture, may impact on remote destinations being able to

utilise this as a differentiator (Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). Additionally, Ryan and Hutton (2002) highlight that competition from urban Aboriginal operators in cities such as Melbourne or Sydney may impact on demand in remote areas. This would suggest that improving inbound tourists' knowledge of Aboriginal tourism through effective promotional strategies is required. As these findings were based on data from 1999, it is therefore apparent that these findings need re-examining utilising current data.

Alternatively, Lynch et al. (2010) utilised McKercher's classification when profiling tourists to Mi'kmaw in Canada, with respondents' stating which tourist classification they most closely identified with. 58.7% identified with the purposeful cultural tourist classification, 18.4% with the sightseeing tourist classification, 13.8% with the serendipitous classification, and 4.6% as casual and incidental tourists. These findings have similarities to Tremblay and Pitterle's (2008) study, but conflict with McKercher's (2002) study, where the highest proportion of tourists identified as sightseeing cultural tourists. However, these surveys were undertaken in different destinations, in different continents, with clear distinctions in the size, landscape, and attractions offered. Whilst research has been undertaken to quantify McKercher's classification, these findings suggest differences exist between destinations. As a result, future research into Aboriginal tourism in remote Australia may benefit from examining the potential relationships between depth of motivation and destination choice.

As highlighted in Tremblay and Pitterle's (2008) study, participation in Aboriginal tourism is one of a number of activities undertaken throughout a holiday. The identification of activities in which inbound tourists participate, can enhance

development opportunities with 'Dual track' segments identified in Canada that seek both outdoors and heritage activities, and have previous Aboriginal tourism experience (BearingPoint 2003; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Kutzner, Wright & Stark 2009). Dual track segments group tourists according to two overall interests such as culture and nature (Kutzner & Wright 2010; Kutzner, Wright & Stark 2009). When considering the range of activities in which tourists may participate, segmentation research into destination choice has also highlighted that activities may be considered the link between motivation and destination selection (Moscardo et al. 1996; Um & Crompton 1990). Vacation activity selection was found to vary dependent upon motivational needs with three cluster groups identified (Moscardo et al. 1996). The self-development group was more likely to have participated in activities such as meeting locals, undertaking short guided excursions, visiting rural areas and visiting museums or archaeological sites (Moscardo et al. 1996). The escape-relaxation group engaged in activities such as swimming, sunbathing and visiting entertainment places, whilst the social group attended more sporting events and played sports such as golf or tennis (Moscardo et al. 1996). These findings suggest that a profile of inbound tourists who travel to remote Australia would benefit from understanding the activities participated in throughout the holiday. This will enable Aboriginal tour operators to identify new business opportunities or develop links with other tour operators who can satisfy tourists' motivational needs.

2.8 Summary of discussion

The literature review has identified that whilst Aboriginal tourism is used within the national Australia brand, a clearly defined national Aboriginal tourism brand does not exist. Using consumer-based brand equity as a framework, the literature review has identified that although branding research has been undertaken

in the tourism field, it is generally applied to destination brands. Although research using the framework has begun to be undertaken in other tourism fields, research into tourist experiences is limited.

The literature also highlights the importance of considering the destination when examining consumer-based brand equity. Research suggests that an activity's brand equity influences destination brand equity and vice versa. Developing an understanding of this will be beneficial, as Aboriginal tourism is available in both urban and remote destinations. Furthermore, the literature from consumer-based brand equity, destination image, and Aboriginal tourism identifies that individual personal characteristics of tourists may also impact on choice. Whilst dispersal of international visitors' research has been undertaken, it does not differentiate between urban and remote destinations. As market access impacts on destination choice behaviour, it is considered that this will result in differences in characteristics that increase the probability to include a remote destination. This will then enable the characteristics to be included with brand equity research in Aboriginal tourism.

Finally, when developing a methodology for undertaking research of the consumer-based brand equity of Aboriginal tourism, a number of issues need to be considered. Complexities in measuring dimensions of brand equity have been highlighted, with consideration required to the context of the study (Aaker, D 1996a). Direct and indirect measures can be used, although Keller (1993) suggests that it is beneficial to use both, combining both qualitative and quantitative methods. With regards to the statistical analysis, although structural equation modelling is commonly used to analyse tourism research into consumer-based brand equity, Pike

and Mason (2011) consider this may prevent researchers from identifying market perceptions.

2.9 Emerging themes, research questions and objectives

To answer the research problem, How do international tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia influence their decision to participate, and willingness to travel to a remote destination? a review of the literature has been undertaken. Gaps in the literature have been identified relating to perceptions of Aboriginal tourism and the destination in which it is located. Table 2-2 considers a number of emerging themes and questions from the literature.

Table 2-2 Emerging themes and questions

Theme	Questions
Consumer-based brand equity of Aboriginal tourism	How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism? How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity?
Destination choice	How do individual characteristics of international tourists influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia? Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to participate in a remote destination? How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?

2.9.1 Research questions, propositions and objectives

Five research questions were developed from the gaps in the literature. Propositions were developed based on the literature review to guide the research, alongside research objectives.

2.9.2 **Research question 1:**

How do individual characteristics of international tourists influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia?

2.9.2.1 Research objectives:

a) Identify the characteristics of international tourists' which increase the probability of including a remote destination during their holiday in Australia

b) Consider how these characteristics may be used to segment the target market.

2.9.2.2 Research proposition:

Whilst the literature review identified that a number of push and pull factors influenced destination choice (Crompton & Um 1992), the following propositions were developed to guide this study.

1) Socio-demographic variables will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

2) Motivation to travel will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

3) Time available will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

4) Destination familiarity will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

5) External factors will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

2.9.2.3   Hypotheses for Research Question 1

Destination choice is influenced by the attributes of a location including infrastructure and activities available. Whilst distance is not a determining factor of destination choice, it combines with other factors such as time, motivation to travel, cost and income, and family situations (Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009; McKercher 1998; McKercher, Chan & Lam 2008). When selecting variables for inclusion in the research, Krider et al. (2010) highlight the importance of selecting tourist characteristic variables which are not related to destination attribute including socio-demographics and personality traits. From the review of literature undertaken the following hypotheses were developed.

a) Hypotheses for proposition 1: Socio-demographics

Destination images are moderated by the individual tourist's personal characteristics, such as age, gender and family life cycle stage, resulting in a preference to visit a destination (Krider et al. 2010). A previous study into the impact of market access on tourists in Australia found the influence was less significant for tourists who were older as budget was less of a constraint for them (McKercher 1998). Therefore the first prediction of this study considered that increasing age would have a positive influence on the decision to travel to a remote destination.

H1: Older tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

The likelihood of international tourists dispersing within Australia increased with travel party size as a result of heterogeneity of preferences (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012). However, Koo et al.'s (2012) research only considered dispersal from the four major gateways into Australia: Sydney, Melbourne, Perth and Brisbane, and did not consider the area tourists dispersed to. Remote destinations may have fewer activities

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available, and as a result may not meet the diverse range of motivational needs within larger travel parties. Additionally, travelling with children has been identified as reducing the amount of distance travelled in a holiday (Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009) and therefore may act as a constraint in the decision process. Therefore, it is predicted that travelling as a group may act as a constraint, thus reducing the probability to travel to a remote area.

H2: Adult couples will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Research into Aboriginal tourism has been inconclusive with regards to the mediating effect of gender (Chang 2006; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Lynch, M et al. 2011; Ryan & Huyton 2002). This study predicts that gender will not influence destination choice.

H3: Gender will not influence the probability of international tourists to travel to destinations within remote Australia

b) Hypotheses for proposition 2: Motivation to travel

Motivation has been widely researched in tourism as it reflects individuals' needs and wants (Crompton 1979b; Crompton & Um 1992; Decrop 2010; Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009; McKercher & Du Cros 2003; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Moscardo et al. 1996; Moscardo & Pearce 1986, 1999). Motivation is seen to be a push factor with reasons of escape, self-exploration, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-enhancement, social interaction, novelty and education identified (Crompton 1979b). Crompton (1979) observed that whilst the majority of these push factors were not associated with destination attributes, motivation factors of novelty and education were.

Activities can be considered the link between motivation and destination choice (Hsu, Tsai & Wu 2009; Moscardo et al. 1996). Within the International Visitor survey, Tourism Australia classifies activities undertaken during a holiday into six categories: Outdoor, Aboriginal, Social, Local, Arts & Heritage and Active outdoors, all of which may be linked to motivation to travel. Two of the categories include activities which are more commonly associated with remote destinations: Outdoor activities and Aboriginal activities. Activities included within the outdoor category are: Visiting the Outback, bushwalking or rainforest walks, visiting a National Park, visiting a Botanic or public garden, visiting a Beach, visiting Farms, and whale and dolphin watching. The Aboriginal category includes the following activities: visiting an Aboriginal site or community, Aboriginal arts, crafts and cultural displays, and watching an Aboriginal performance. This study predicts that increased motivation to participate in activities will overcome constraints related to market access.

H4: International tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations
H5: International tourists who participate in outdoor activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Long-haul tourists are more likely to seek variety than short-haul tourists and seek longer duration and multi-destination breaks (McKercher & Guillet 2011).Within Australia, destination choices can incorporate either single or multiple-destinations (Oppermann 2000) with the majority of inbound tourists visiting two or more destinations within one vacation (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2010, 2012). Research suggests destinations are linked to trip planning to enable greater activity participation (Hwang & Fesenmaier 2003), to simplify the choice process, and

overcome time constraints (Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Lew & McKercher 2006). Therefore, it was predicted that an increase in the number of stopovers may reflect increased motivation to participate in a number of activities and would increase the probability to travel to remote destinations.

H6: An increase in the number of stopovers will increase the propensity of international tourists to visit remote destinations

  c) Hypotheses for proposition 3: Time available

Time availability influences choice of destination when planning a multi-destination trip. Length of stay can be used as a measure of time available to international tourists with Koo et al. (2012) finding that length of stay and dispersal are related. As Australia is geographically large and with constraints such as limited transport options impacting on market access, it was predicted the length of stay will impact on the decision to include a remote destination within the travel itinerary.

H7: Increased length of stay will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Packaged tours relate to holidays that include packaged services such as airfares, accommodation, meals and tours. Package tours benefit travellers as they enable them to tailor trips to meet their personal requirements and gain greater value from the holiday (Jin, He & Song 2012). Packaged tours may be pre-determined by travel companies, with tourists having limited choice in their selection of services such as accommodation, activities and transport. However, personal packaged tours reflect the pre-booking of two or more services before arrival in a country, with online service providers such as Expedia offering discounts to encourage tourists to select this option. -Koo et al. (2012) found that the use of packaged tours increased

the likelihood of dispersal and it is considered that pre-booking two or more services prior to arrival will increase the probability of a tourist to travel to a remote destination, as it enables international tourists to maximise the use of the time available.

H8: International tourists who utilise packaged tours will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

   d) Hypotheses for proposition 4: Destination familiarity

Previous research has identified that first time visitors to a country have a greater propensity to disperse (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012; Oppermann 1997; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). Koo et al. (2012) found a statistically significant relationship between first time visitors to Australia and their propensity to disperse, however the effect was small. This study predicted that first time visitors to Australia will have a greater propensity to visit a remote destination.

H9: First time visitors to Australia will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

International tourists can research destinations and book aspects of their holiday such as transport and tours before arrival. It was predicted that the use of the Internet to book aspects of their holiday would increase tourists' awareness of remote destinations increasing the probability of them travelling there.

H10: International tourists who use the Internet to book an aspect of their holiday will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

   e) Hypotheses for proposition 5: External factors

Cross sectional research can omit to identify the influence of external factors which may change over time. The tourism industry has been impacted by the financial crisis and economic downturn which occurred in 2007 (Hall 2010). The financial crisis impacted heavily on Australia's key target markets of the UK and the USA. These markets also have a greater propensity to participate in Aboriginal tourism (TRA 2011b) and to disperse from the main tourist areas (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). As travel to remote Australia is associated with greater travel costs, this study predicted that the decision to travel to remote Australia would decline from 2008 onwards.

H11: International tourists will show a reduced propensity to visit remote destinations post 2008

Climatic extremes can also act as a constraint in the choice process (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011). From January to March, market access issues occur in tropical areas of Australia during the wet season, whilst remote areas in South Australia and Central Australia are impacted by extremely high temperatures. Therefore, the study also considered that the probability to travel to remote Australia would differ between quarters.

H12: International tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations during April to September.

2.9.3 Research question 2:

How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism?

2.9.3.1 Research objectives:

a) Identify measures of international tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia

b) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities.

2.9.4 **Research question 3:**

Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to travel to participate in a remote destination?

Research objectives

c) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination.

d) Explain how the brand equity dimensions of Aboriginal tourism impact on intention to participate in an urban or remote destination

2.9.4.1 Research proposition for research questions 2 and 3:

Previous studies have clearly shown that relationships between the proposed dimensions of awareness, image, quality, value and loyalty exist (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Gartner & Ruzzier 2011; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008; Konecnik & Gartner 2007). Similarly, research suggests that tourism experiences brand equity influences destination choice (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gómez & Molina 2011). Therefore, the following propositions guided this research question:

a) There is a positive and significant relationship among the proposed dimensions of consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal Tourism context

b) Australian Aboriginal tourism consumer-based brand equity will influence destination choice

2.9.4.2 Hypotheses for research questions 2 and 3

H1: Aboriginal tourism brand salience amongst international tourists is low

H3: International tourists will associate a limited number of attributes with Aboriginal tourism activities

H4: There is a positive and significant relationship among the proposed dimensions of consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal Tourism context

H5: Brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H6: Brand image of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H7: Perceived quality of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H8: Perceived authenticity of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H9: Perceived value of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate in Aboriginal tourism

H12: Aboriginal tourism brand equity increases the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination

2.9.5 Research question 4

How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity?

2.9.5.1 Research objectives

a) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities.

2.9.5.2 Hypotheses

H2: Aboriginal tourism brand salience will vary amongst target segments

H10: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists' intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday

H11: International tourists' characteristics will mediate the influence of brand equity dimensions on overall brand equity

2.9.6 Research question 5

How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?

2.9.6.1 Research objectives

b) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination.

c) Explain how tourist characteristics impact on intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism in an urban or remote destination

2.9.6.2 Hypotheses for research question 5

H13: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination

2.9.6.3 Summary

Section 3.9 has identified research questions, objectives and hypotheses. Research questions and objectives have been summarised in Table 2-3, whilst the hypotheses for Research Question 1 are shown in Table 2-4 and for Research Questions 2-5 in Table 2-5.

Table 2-3 Summary of research questions and objectives

Research question	Objective
1: How do individual characteristics of international tourists influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia?	c) Identify the characteristics of international tourists' which increase the probability of including a remote destination during their holiday in Australia d) Consider how these characteristics may be used to segment the target market.
2. How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism? **3: Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to travel to participate in a remote destination?**	a) Identify measures of international tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia b) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. c) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination. d) Explain how the brand equity dimensions of Aboriginal tourism impact on intention to participate in an urban or remote destination
4: How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity? **5: How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?**	a) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. b) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination. c) Explain how tourist characteristics impact on intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism in an urban or remote destination

Table 2-4 Summary of propositions and hypotheses for Research Question 1

Proposition	Hypothesis
Socio-demographic variables will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H1: Older tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations H2: Adult couples will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations H3: Gender will not influence the probability of international tourists to travel to destinations within remote Australia
Motivation to travel will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H4: International tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations H5: International tourists who participate in outdoor activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations H6: An increase in the number of stopovers will increase the propensity of international tourists to visit remote destinations
Time available will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H7: Increased length of stay will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations H8: International tourists who utilise travel packages will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations
Destination familiarity will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H9: First time visitors to Australia will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations H10: International tourists who use the Internet to book an aspect of their holiday will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations
External factors will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H11: International tourists will show a reduced propensity to visit remote destinations post 2008 H12: International tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations during April to September

Table 2-5 Summary of hypotheses for Research Questions 2-5

H1: Aboriginal tourism brand salience amongst international tourists is low
H2: Aboriginal tourism brand salience will vary amongst target segments
H3: International tourists will associate a limited number of attributes with Aboriginal tourism activities
H4: There is a positive and significant relationship among the proposed dimensions of consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal Tourism context
H5: Brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate
H6: Brand image of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate
H7: Perceived quality of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate
H8: Perceived authenticity of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate
H9: Perceived value of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate in Aboriginal tourism
H10: International tourists' characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists to intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday
H11: International tourists' characteristics will mediate the influence of brand equity dimensions on overall brand equity
H12: Aboriginal tourism brand equity increases the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination
H13: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination

2.9.7 **Preliminary conceptual framework**

Following the development of research questions and hypotheses, the preliminary conceptual framework was developed to guide the exploratory case study design.

Hypothesis

Ho: The independent variables do not influence the dependant variables

H1: The independent variables do appear to influence the dependant variables
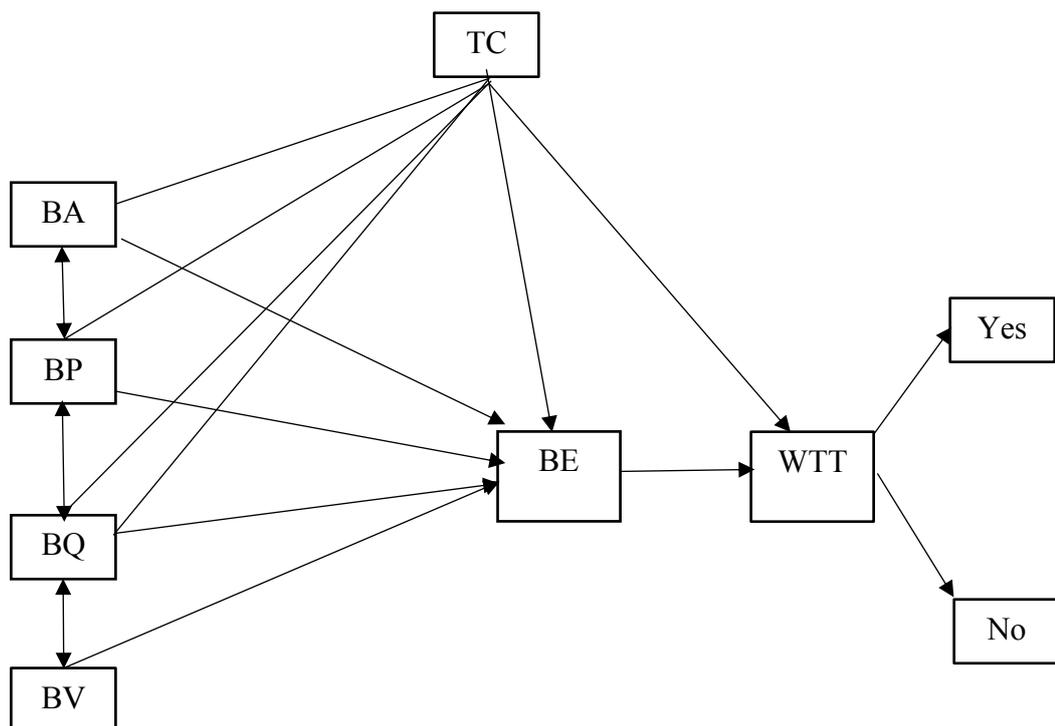
BA: Brand awareness BI: Brand Personality   BQ: Brand quality BV: Brand value
TC: Tourist characteristics   BE: Brand Equity   WTT: Willing to travel to a remote destination

Figure 2-9 Proposed model for factors influencing the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination

2.10 **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed a selection of literature from the fields of marketing and tourism. The discussion has identified a number of gaps in the literature with emerging themes and research questions. The literature has been used to develop five research questions with propositions developed to guide the subsequent research. The

proposed theoretical model is derived from the literature and the propositions which

direct the research. The findings from the literature review were used in Phase 1 of

the mixed method methodology which is explained in the following chapter.

Chapter 3: Research paradigm, context and method

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has discussed a range of literature from the fields of marketing and tourism and identified a number of gaps in the literature. This chapter discusses the development of a research methodology to answer the research questions developed. The chapter begins by contemplating theoretical considerations applied in the research design including epistemological and ontological concerns. Justification of the exploratory case study design is provided, with a discussion relating to the selection of a unit of analysis. A mixed method methodology is discussed with rationales and framework developed. A detailed discussion for each phase within the sequential hybrid exploratory design then follows, considering data sources, sample and methods of analysis.

3.2 Research design: theoretical considerations

Business research does not exist in isolation from other social science research, and it is therefore considered important to understand how the link between theory and research has been developed. Gibbons et al. (1994) suggest that research falls into one of two modes (see Table 3-1), with mode 2 research intended to exist alongside mode 1 research (Bryman & Bell 2011).

Table 3-1 Categories of research

Mode 1 knowledge production	Mode 2 knowledge production
Traditional, university-based model primarily driven by an academic agenda. Builds on existing knowledge in a linear process with applied knowledge occurring when theoretical insights are translated into practice. The academic community is considered the most important audience resulting in limited emphasis placed on practical dissemination of knowledge.	Knowledge production is more closely related to the context, and as a result the findings are not easily replicated and generalised. Production of findings is not restricted to academic institutions but involves policy-makers and practitioners. Research focuses on a shared problem. Knowledge is disseminated quickly utilising a range of channels and findings are exploited for practical advantage.

Source: Adapted from Gibbons et al. (1994) in Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 6)

These two separate modes of knowledge production raise a number of questions in relation to the aims and purpose of the research either to contribute to academic knowledge or to be applied practically (Bryman & Bell 2011). Tranfield and Starkley (1998), suggest that management and business research are more suited to mode 2 knowledge production (Bryman & Bell 2011), arguing that the researcher must ensure that for their work to 'retain value and purpose', it must be associated with practitioners' current concerns (Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 5).

The primary purpose of this research is to contribute to the aims of improving the social and economic well-being of Aboriginal people who reside in remote Australia. It has been suggested that tourism provides Aboriginal people with the opportunity to improve their economic situation with increased economic well-being associated with increasing social and health benefits (Chen & Tseng 2010; Jackson 2009). The knowledge generated from this research relates directly to the problem of reversing the trend of declining participation in Aboriginal tourism activities and diminishing numbers of visitors to remote destinations in Australia. The dissemination of knowledge is not restricted to the academic community as occurs in mode 1, with knowledge distribution occurring via traditional academic sources such

as academic journals and conference papers, but also in the form of project briefs and presentations to operators.

3.2.1 Ontological and epistemological considerations

Consideration when developing a research strategy was given to the question of 'what should be regarded as acceptable knowledge' (Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 15). A research paradigm is an overall conceptual framework consisting of three elements -ontology, epistemology and methodologies- which guide a researcher's work (Sobh & Perry 2006).

Table 3-2 Four scientific paradigms

Paradigm				
Element	Positivism	Constructivism	Critical theory	Realism
Ontology	Reality is real and apprehensible	Multiple local and specific 'constructed' realities.	'Virtual' reality shaped by social, economic, ethnic, political, cultural, and gender values, crystallised over time	Reality is 'real' but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible and so triangulation from many sources is required to try to know it
Epistemology	Findings true – researcher is objective by viewing reality through a 'one-way mirror'	Created findings – researcher is a 'passionate participant' within the world being investigated	Value mediated findings – researcher is a 'transformative Intellectual' who changes the social world within which participants live	Findings probably true – researcher is value-aware and needs to triangulate any perceptions he or she is collecting
Common methodologies	Mostly concerns with testing of theory. Mainly quantitative methods such as: survey, experiments, and verification of hypotheses	In-depth, unstructured interviews, participant observation, action research, and grounded theory research	Action research and participant observation	Mainly qualitative methods such as case studies and convergent interviews

Source: Sobh and Perry (2006, p. 1195)

Sobh and Perry (2006, p. 1195) define, 'ontology' as 'reality' and 'epistemology' as the relationship between that reality and the researcher. They

consider that realism research is the most appropriate paradigm for marketing research. Positivism, the most commonly applied paradigm in business research (Sobh & Perry 2006), considers that the social world can be studied following the same principles as the natural sciences, with the role of research being to test theories (Bryman & Bell 2011). However, Sobh and Perry (2006) argue that positivism has a number of criticisms in relation to marketing research including: the inability of researchers to replicate results (Hubbard & Armstrong 1994); replication studies undertaken by the same researchers remove the value-free assumption of positivism (Hubbard & Vetter 1996); and a wide range of statistical values identified within replication studies which raise questions relating to the generalizability of findings (Szymanski & Henard 2001). Furthermore, reference is made to a number of studies which identify that business people considered academic research following this paradigm to be irrelevant (Sobh & Perry 2006).

As this research is guided by mode 2 knowledge production (Bryman & Bell 2011), an alternative to positivism is considered. Sobh and Perry (2006) consider that constructivism/critical theory is also inadequate in enabling marketing managers to create a 'picture' of the external market place where transactions occur. As this approach considers the individual perspectives of the world, difficulties arise in comparing individual views which prevent the development of methods to manage customer perceptions (Sobh & Perry 2006).

As a consequence of these inadequacies, Sobh and Perry (2006) argue that realism is the most appropriate paradigm for marketing research. Within a marketing context, a realism researcher acknowledges that the 'real' decisions are made in the external business environment which they aim to 'discover'. Acknowledging that

differences exist between the 'real' world view and their own perspective of it, realists attempt to construct a number of views relative to the time and place (Riege 2003). Realists consider that as underlying structures result in patterns of experiences, the patterns may not always occur and, as a result, causal impacts are not fixed (Sobh & Perry 2006). Consequently when testing theory within a realism paradigm, a negative result does not disprove a theory, but effects further investigation and a search for a deeper reality to enquire why this outcome was found (Sobh & Perry 2006).

3.2.2 Deductive and inductive theory

Whilst grand theories operate in more general and abstract levels, middle range theories allow researchers to draw inferences from them (Bryman & Bell 2011). Bryman and Bell (2011) consider that middle-range theory was mainly used to guide empirical enquiry (Merton 1967). Deductive theory is compatible with the concept of middle-range theory and enables researchers to use current theory to develop hypotheses which guide data collection (Bryman & Bell 2011). Following analysis of these findings, hypotheses are confirmed or rejected resulting in a revision of theory (Bryman & Bell 2011). Deductive research is a highly structured approach, commonly associated with using scientific principles, analysing large quantities of data (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008), and is associated with the positivist paradigm (Perry 1998).

Alternatively the inductive approach emphasises a closer understanding of the research context with a greater flexibility to enable changes to the research to occur as it progresses (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008). Inductive theory is useful in developing an understanding of the meanings that individuals associate with events

and is often related to qualitative data (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008). Whilst deductive research tests theory, inductive research is considered to collate data to develop theories (Bryman & Bell 2011), and is associated with constructivism and critical theory (Perry 1998).

However, Bryman and Bell (2011) highlight the difficulties of separating the two theories, with qualitative research not always generating theory, and some deductive research evolving into a more inductive approach to develop a deeper understanding of human behaviour. It is recommended that deductive or inductive strategies are viewed as: 'tendencies rather than hard and fast distinctions' (Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 14). Perry cites Richards (1993, p. 40) who suggests that, 'it is impossible to go theory-free into any study', resulting in difficulties which arise when attempting to separate the processes of induction and deduction (Perry 1998, p. 788). The benefits of combining both inductive and deductive approaches may be seen through the use of prior theory to assist in research design and data analysis, with inductive approaches enabling the development 'of new and useful theory' (Perry 1998, p. 789). Finally, within marketing research, 'the inclusion of both deductive and inductive logic allows for a more holistic view of a given marketing problem rather than a strictly positivistic or interpretivist slant to the data' (Harrison & Reilly 2011, p. 22).

3.3 Research Design: methodology

3.3.1 Justification of the case study research design

To answer the research questions a number of research designs were considered with the case study being selected as the most appropriate. Case study research design operates from within the realism paradigm, supporting the

inductive/deductive approach (Perry 1998). Unlike grounded theory approaches, case studies within this paradigm can be used to build theories incorporating prior theory (Perry 1998). Therefore, utilising a case study research design enables the researcher to utilise previous theory related to consumer-based brand equity from other marketing and tourism contexts in order to develop theory within an Aboriginal tourism context.

Table 3-3 Relevant situations for different research strategies

Strategy	Form of research question	Requires control of behavioural events?	Focuses on contemporary events?
Experiment	how, why?	Yes	Yes
Survey	who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes
Archival analysis	who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes/No
History	how, why?	No	No
Case study	how, why?	No	Yes

Source: COSMOS Corporation in Yin (2003, p. 5)

In addition to considering the philosophical paradigm, the recommendations of Yin (2003) as shown in Table 3-3, were considered. The form of research question can be used to guide the choice of strategy, as these can define the exploratory, descriptive or explanatory purpose of the research (Yin 2003). As the study is investigating consumer-based brand equity theory in a new context, the research is classified as exploratory research. This type of research is distinct from explanatory research, as it aims to clarify understanding of a problem and identify what may be currently occurring in a specific situation rather than establish causal relationships between variables (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008). The research questions supporting the exploratory design pose 'how' questions which Yin (1993) considers appropriate for all research design options. More specifically, the research questions within this research are 'how do' which are reflective of research problems addressed in theses (Perry 1998, p. 787). These forms of questions are more

descriptive than prescriptive and are more suited within the realism paradigm of case study designs (Perry 1998, p. 787).

Within the realism paradigm, researchers believe an external reality exists, acknowledging that this reality is complex and restricted by the researchers' mental capacity, requiring triangulation of data to enhance the validity of the findings (Perry 1998). Sobh and Perry (2006, p. 1201) argue that, 'quantitative results from a positivist method like a survey are unlikely to provide understanding of this deeper reality and therefore should not be a major part of any realism research project'.

Case studies may be utilised to overcome the problems related to surveys (Yin 2003), as a case study investigates events within its real life context, enabling the collection of data from multiple sources (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008). Aboriginal tourism experiences do not operate in isolation, with their success or failures influenced by other stakeholders, including competitors, tourists and government agencies. A case study provides the researcher with the opportunity to develop theoretical propositions which can be assessed using multiple sources of evidence employing both quantitative and qualitative sources and supporting the ability of researchers to triangulate findings.

Although the purpose of case study research is not to generalize findings to other cases or a general population (Bryman & Bell 2011), the external validity of case study designs was considered. Lee, Collier and Cullen (2007) consider this lack of external validity results in exploratory case studies becoming a, 'poor relation to positivistic, quantitative research', and commonly occurring as a study prior to a wide-scale survey (cited in Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 62). Alternative perspectives argue that researchers can utilise exploratory case studies to generate theory from the

findings (Bryman & Bell 2011; Yin 1984), or to refine or refute existing theories (Jack & Kholeif 2007 cited in Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 63). As an exploratory study, this research applied the consumer-based brand equity framework within an Aboriginal tourism context for the first time. To increase the external validity of the single case study design, prior theory was applied (Andrade 2009; Riege 2003; Tellis 1997; Yin 2003, 2014).

3.3.2 Context of the case study

Before deciding on a unit of analysis, the location of the case study was decided. Table 3-4 identifies the contexts of a number of previous studies undertaken into Aboriginal tourism within Australia. The majority of studies were conducted in the Northern Territory or Queensland. Therefore, to contribute to this gap within the literature, South Australia was selected as the context of the study.

South Australia is the fourth largest state and territory in Australia and covers a land mass of 983,482 square kilometres. According to the 2011 census, 1,596,572 people resided in South Australia; that is, 7% of the total population of Australia. Of the total population in South Australia, 30,430, 1.9%, identified as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, compared to a national average of 2.5% (ABS 2011). The average household size in the state was 2.4, compared to 3 for individuals who identify as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. Within the state, the median household income was $1,044 per week, although this was reduced to $842 for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, reflective of the economic position of a large proportion of this particular cohort residing across Australia (ABS 2011).

Table 3-4 Sample of previous research in an Aboriginal tourism context

Author/date	Location of study	Methodology	Supply or demand side
Buultjens, Gale and White (2010)	All states	Mixed	Supply
Zeppel and Muloin (2008)	All states	Interviews	Supply
Dyer, Aberdeen and Schuler (2003)	Northern Queensland	Case study	Supply
Hughes (1991)	Northern Queensland	Survey	Demand
Moscardo and Pearce (1999)	Northern Queensland	Survey	Demand
Zander, Austin and Garnett (2013)	Northern Queensland	Survey	Supply
Altman (1989)	Northern Territory	Case Study	Supply
Fuller, Buultjens and Cummings (2005)	Northern Territory	Case Study	Supply
Ryan and Huyton (1999)	Northern Territory	Survey	Demand
Ryan and Huyton (2000)	Northern Territory	Survey	Demand
Ryan and Huyton (2002)	Northern Territory	Survey	Demand
Scherrer, Smith and Dowling (2011)	Northern Territory	Case Study	Supply
Scherrer, Smith, Randall and Dowling (2011)	Northern Territory	Case Study	Supply
Higgins-Desbiolles (2006)	South Australia	Case study	Supply
Whitford, Ruhanen and McLennon (2013)	Supply side surveys: Queensland, Northern Territory, NSW, Victoria	Mixed methods: Gap analysis	Supply/Demand
Strickland, Munro and Moore (2013)	Western Australia	Case Study	Supply
Smith, P Scherrer, R Dowling (2009)	Western Australia/Northern Territory	Survey	Supply

3.3.2.1 *Defining remoteness within the context of the case study*

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) devised a remoteness structure based on five classes: Major Cities of Australia (MC); Inner Regional Australia (IR); Outer Regional Australia (OR); Remote Australia (R); Very Remote Australia (VR). The remoteness structure is based on ARIA+ which is widely used in Australia and is

recognised as, 'a consistent measure of geographic remoteness' (UniversityofAdelaide 2012). ARIA+ is a geographic measure of remoteness based on road distance from a populated area to a service centre (UniversityofAdelaide 2012). Service centres are areas with populations greater than 1000 people, with five categories of service centres created based on population size which, it is assumed, influences the provision of services available (UniversityofAdelaide 2012). ARIA+ scores consider only geographical access to a range of goods, services and opportunities for social interaction and does not consider market accessibility, 'which can be influenced by many factors such as socio-economic status' (UniversityofAdelaide 2012).

The ABS uses average ARIA+ scores to determine how a location is classified in terms of remoteness based on Census Collection Districts (CDs). Research on destinations is often defined based on postcodes or Statistical Local Areas (SLA). Within this research, postcodes or SLAs are converted using The Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC) Remoteness Area Correspondences (2006), provided by the ABS. This ensures consistency in measuring remoteness throughout the research. Whilst this enables easy classification of a population area, when selecting regions for inclusion in the case study, problems of defining an area may occur as a number of Census Collection Districts are located within a region, resulting in the mix of remoteness categories.

Table 3-5 highlights the regions within South Australia as defined by the South Australian Tourism Commission (SATC). Column 2 reflects the classification of each region based on the ARIA+, and identifies the percentage of the population residing within each classification. Whilst some regions can be classified as remote,

such as the Eyre Peninsula, others such as the Flinders Ranges and Outback are a mix of both Outer regional and remote classifications. Additionally, column 3 shows the percentage of the population in each region who identify as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. Compared to a state average of 1.9%, a higher percentage of residents in the Eyre Peninsula, Flinders Ranges and Outback, Murray River and Yorke Peninsula identified as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. It can be seen that the areas with higher percentages of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders also have higher proportions of their population living in remote or very remote areas.

Table 3-5 Regions of South Australia with Remoteness Classification

SATC region classification	Proportion population Remoteness: 2006 census	% of population identifying as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander: 2011 census
Adelaide City	MC 100%	1.2%
Adelaide Hills	MC 53% IR 47%	0.4%
Barossa	IR 100%	0.5%
Clare Valley	IR 28% OR 72%	1%
Eyre Peninsula	R 80.2% VR 19.8%	2%
Fleurieu Peninsula	IR 100%	Combined with KI 1.4%
Kangaroo Island	R 100%	Combined with Fleurieu 1.4%
Flinders Ranges & Outback	OR 84.7% R 6.5% VR 8.8%	Outback 13% Flinders 8%
Limestone Coast	IR 38% OR 60% R 2%	1.4%
Murray River	IR 38% OR 59% R 3%	2%
Yorke Peninsula	OR 62% R 38%	2.5%

Coding: MC: Major City; IR: Inner Regional; OR: Outer Regional; R: Remote; VR: Very Remote (ARIA+). Source: Planning in South Australia: Government of South Australia (2011) Census 2011

3.3.2.2 *International visitors to South Australia*

During the year ended 30th September 2013, there were 5,889,197 visitors to Australia; that is an increase of 5% on the previous year (TRA 2013b). 51% of

international visitors visited New South Wales; 35% visited Queensland; and 33% visited Victoria (TRA 2013b). Whilst only 6%, 362,000, of international tourists visited South Australia, this is still a slightly higher number than those who visit the Northern Territory (4%) (TRA 2013b). In 2013, international visitors contributed $2.8 billion to the annual $5 billion tourism industry in South Australia (SATC 2013). Furthermore, airport data suggests that South Australia has the potential to increase its market share of international tourists. For the year ending December 2013, Adelaide Airport, along with Perth, Darwin and Melbourne airports reported stronger growth in international capacity during the final quarter than did the other airports (TRA 2014). Additionally, new airlines entered the Adelaide market in 2013, including AirAsia and Emirates, with direct international flights available from approximately 100 international locations (SATC 2013).

International tourists stay in South Australia on average 24.7 nights compared to 3.7 nights for domestic tourists (SATC 2013). The increased nights stayed in the state is further reflected within regions, with international tourists visiting remote destinations such as the Flinders Ranges and Outback, staying 6.3 nights compared to 4.1 nights for domestic tourists (SATC 2013). However, only 7% of the international visitors went to these remote locations, indicating that research within South Australia which considers dispersal of international tourists, will be beneficial.

3.3.2.3 Unit of analysis

Further consideration was given to the case study design, in relation to using a single case or multiple cases. Multiple case designs using replication logic (Yin 2003), may be considered to provide more evidence, which results in more robust results (Herriott & Firestone 1983). This logic suggests that each case, within a

multiple case study design, predicts similar results or contrasting results for predictable reasons (Yin 2003). However, Yin (2003), highlights that single case studies are appropriate when a case is the representative or typical case.

The unit of analysis refers to the entity which the researcher wants to consider within the research, and a number of factors were considered in selecting an appropriate site for this research. As a subset of cultural tourism, Aboriginal tourism provides tourists with an opportunity to participate in attractions, 'where Aboriginal people are directly involved in the provision of an attraction either through the control and/or by having their culture serve as the essence of the attraction' (Hinch & Butler 1996, p. 9). Initial research was undertaken to identify the Aboriginal tourism experiences available within South Australia. Table 3-6 presents the findings and categorises activities based on location and classification of Aboriginal tourism activity offered according to Hinch and Butlers' (1996) classification.

Although the research problem was concerned with declining numbers for participation in Aboriginal tourism in remote destinations, an urban location was selected, providing an opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of factors which may, or may not, influence the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism in an urban or remote context. Adelaide city was selected as an appropriate context, having the greatest density of tourism attractions and facilities within South Australia.

Similar to alternative Aboriginal tourism studies (Lynch, M et al. 2011; Ryan & Huyton 2000), to enable the research to contribute solutions to the research problem of declining participation trends, it was considered important to collect data from a wider target market. Whilst previous studies had undertaken surveys at Tourist Information centres, the case study research design was being implemented

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to investigate events within a real life context and enable the collection of data from multiple sources (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008). As the findings may be used to undertake market development or penetration strategies (Kotler et al. 2010), it was considered appropriate to select a unit of analysis, with a propensity to attract tourists with an interest in participating in cultural activities during their holiday. Considering the cultural tourist sites available in the Adelaide city centre, the South Australian Museum was selected as an appropriate representative case.

The South Australian Museum has the largest collection of Australian ethnographic material in the world consisting of approximately 35,000 items (SouthAustralianMuseum 2013). Whilst a museum may be considered to be culturally dispossessed (Hinch & Butler 1996), the Australian Aboriginal Cultural Gallery (AACG) was developed in 2000, following, 'consultations with key people in a number of Aboriginal communities' to display many of these items (P. Jones, personal communication, March 20, 2013). It was conceptualised that the exhibition would be a 'starting point' for international tourists where knowledge gained from the exhibition would generate interest in other Aboriginal tourism experiences throughout Australia (P. Jones, personal communication, March 20, 2013).

In the year 2012-2013, the South Australian museum reported 784306 visitors. Whilst a visit to a museum is not the primary motivation for the majority of tourists who visit a destination (McKercher 2002), museums have been identified as the most popular attraction for cultural tourists (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004). Tourists who visit museums are defined as cultural tourists based on their consumption of a, 'destination's tangible and intangible cultural heritage assets' (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004, p. 30). However, tourists who visit a museum are not a homogenous

mass, but heterogeneous markets with different characteristics and needs (Hughes 2002). As the South Australian museum has a number of permanent exhibitions, including the Australian Aboriginal Cultural Gallery (AACG), and is conveniently located and offers free entry and free guided tours, in addition to other facilities such as a café and shop, it was considered appropriate to assume that visiting tourists may have a number of motivations to visit the museum and this would provide a wider range of perceptions of cultural tourists towards Aboriginal tourism activities.

Table 3-6 Potential regions for inclusion within the research

Location	Aboriginal experiences available	Definition of Aboriginal tourism Hinch and Butler (1996)	% of population identifying as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander: 2011
Adelaide City	Tandanya National Aboriginal Cultural Institute	Culture Controlled	1.2%
	The Warriparinga Wetlands and Living Kaurna Cultural Centre	Culture Controlled	
	South Australian Museum	Culture Dispossessed	
	Art Gallery of South Australia	Culture Dispossessed	
Adelaide Hills	Ancient Earth Indigenous Art & Imbala Jarjum	Culture Controlled	0.4%
Barossa	None identified	N/A	0.5%
Clare Valley	Aboriginal Cultural Tours- Adjahdura Land	Culture Controlled	1%
Eyre Peninsula	Kuju Aboriginal Arts	Culture Controlled	2%
	Ceduna Arts and Culture Centre	Culture Controlled	
Fleurieu Peninsula	Camp Coorong	Culture Controlled	Combined with KI 1.4%
Kangaroo Island	None identified	N/A	Combined with Fleurieu 1.4%
Flinders Ranges & Outback	Wadlata Outback Centre	Culture Dispossessed	Outback 13% Flinders 8%
	Wilpena Pound	Diversified	
	Nepabunna community	Aboriginal Culture Controlled/ Diversifed	
	Arkaroo Rock	Culture Dispossessed	
	Arabunna Tour	Culture Controlled	
	Iga Warta	Culture Controlled/ Diversified	
Limestone Coast	None identified	N/A	1.4%
Murray River	Ngaut Ngaut Aboriginal Site	Culture Controlled	2%
Yorke Peninsula	Aboriginal Cultural Tours - Adjahdura Land	Culture Controlled	2.5%

3.3.2.4   Access and ethics approval

As the selected unit of analysis, a meeting was arranged with the SA Museum Marketing Manager. Following this meeting, approval was sought from the Board for the museum to participate in the research. Research approval was gained with permission granted to undertake observations, interviews with museum employees and surveys with international visitors.

3.3.3   **Data collection methodology**

With a single case study design selected, the researcher gave consideration to data collection methodology. Although case studies are commonly associated with qualitative data collection methodologies (Perry 1998), Yin (2009) considers that an advantage of this research design is the opportunity for researchers to collect qualitative and quantitative data. The procedure to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data within one study is commonly termed mixed methods (Creswell 2013; Harrison & Reilly 2011), although other terms have been used including integrating quantitative and qualitative methods, and mixed methodology (Bryman & Bell 2011). Mixed methods research has become the most popular term for mixing qualitative and quantitative data in a single study (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner 2007), and is the label used in this study.

This research approach is relatively new in business research, originating around the late 1980s in diverse fields such as management and education (Creswell 2013). Although the marketing discipline encourages mixed methods designs because of their rigorous approach (Woodruff 2003), applications of this research design in published applications are rare (Hanson & Grimmer 2007; Harrison & Reilly 2011). Harrison and Reilly (2011) cite Hunt (1994) who states that a historical

precedence in undertaking quantitative research in marketing exists, which may influence researchers' approaches to research design (Hunt 1994). However, Table 3-7 highlights sixteen rationales for using a mixed method design (Bryman 2006), which were considered when selecting the most appropriate design to answer the research problem.

Table 3-7 Rationale for mixed methods research and design types

Rationale	Description	Design Type
Triangulation	Quantitative and qualitative combined to triangulate findings to be mutually corroborated	Concurrent
Offset	Combining strands offsets their weaknesses to draw the strengths of both	Concurrent
Completeness	Bringing together a more comprehensive account if both quantitative and qualitative research is employed	Exploratory, explanatory or concurrent
Process	Quantitative provides an account of structures in social life but qualitative provides sense of process	Exploratory or explanatory
Different research questions	Quantitative and qualitative each answers different research questions	Concurrent
Explanation	One is used to help explain findings generated by the other	Explanatory
Unexpected results	When one strand generates surprising results that can be understood by employing the other	Explanatory or embedded
Instrument development	Qualitative is employed to develop questionnaire and scale items	Exploratory
Sampling	One approach is used to facilitate the sampling of respondents or cases	Exploratory or explanatory
Credibility	Employing both approaches enhances the integrity of the findings	Exploratory, explanatory or concurrent
Context	Qualitative providing contextual understanding coupled with either generalisable, externally valid findings or broad relationships among variables uncovered through a survey	Exploratory or explanatory
Illustration	Qualitative to illustrate quantitative findings (putting 'meat on the bones' of 'dry' quantitative findings)	Explanatory
Utility	Among articles with an applied focus, the combining of two approaches will be more useful to practitioners and others.	Exploratory, explanatory, concurrent or embedded
Confirm and discover	This entails using qualitative data to generate hypotheses and using quantitative research to test them within a single project	Exploratory
Diversity of view	Combining researchers and participants perspectives through quantitative and qualitative research, respectively, and uncovering relationships between variables through quantitative research while also revealing meanings among research participants through qualitative research	Concurrent or embedded

Adapted from Bryman (2006) Source: Harrison and Reilly (2011)

Within their analysis of mixed method research undertaken in the marketing field, Harrison and Reilly (2011) examine not only the rationales for selecting a

mixed methods approach, but also the design types used: exploratory, explanatory, embedded, concurrent and hybrid. Table 3-8 provides the major mixed methods design types that were considered when developing the research design for the case study. Information for each design type is provided alongside their corresponding timing, weighting and method of mixing data collected. The final column shows the notations or labels which reflect the research procedures (Creswell 2013). The notations reflect the work of Morse (1991), with capitalisation used to highlight emphasis or priority to a method (Creswell 2013). Symbols are also used with → indicating a sequential form of data collection, →← representing a flow of activities that can go both ways, and + indicating a convergent or merging of data collection (Creswell 2013).

Table 3-8 Major mixed methods design types

Design type	Variants	Timing	Weighting	Mixing	Notation
Concurrent	Convergence	Concurrent; quantitative and qualitative at the same time	Usually equal	Merging the data during the interpretation or analysis	QUAN+QUAL
Embedded	Embedded experimental Embedded correlation *Embedded methodology*	Concurrent or sequential	Unequal	Embed one type of data within a larger design using the other type of data	QUAN(qual) or QUAL(quan)
Explanatory	Follow up explanations	Sequential: quantitative followed by a qualitative	Usually quantitative	Connect the data between the two phases	QUAN→qual
Exploratory	Instrument development Taxonomy	Sequential: qualitative followed by a quantitative	Usually qualitative	Connect the data between the two phases	QUAL→quan

Adapted from Cresswell and Piano Clark (2007) Source: Harrison and Reilly (2011)

Following a review of the mixed methods design options, a sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design was selected to support the exploratory case study. Hybrid designs are less common in published research but combine different designs

to achieve objectives (Harrison & Reilly 2011). Hybrid mixed methods designs may use qualitative or quantitative data in any combination, but build on each other to achieve a research objective (Creswell 2013).

The sequential design had three separate phases of data collection and analysis. In addition to the suitability of this research design when undertaking research using a realism paradigm (Sobh & Perry 2006), three further rationales supported the selection (Bryman 2006), Firstly, the use of multiple sources of evidence within case studies, enables the researcher to answer a range of questions (Bryman 2006). Additionally, using both qualitative and quantitative methods allows the researcher to select the most appropriate data source to answer questions (Bryman & Bell 2011). Secondly, this design was selected as it permitted an instrument to be developed (Bryman 2006). As transferring measures to new fields of research potentially increases bias with the measures being 'out of context' (Pike & Page 2014, p. 216), Phase 2 of the study was used to develop a questionnaire and scale items. Based on the paradigm developed by Churchill (1979), interviews were to assist in the development of a questionnaire which was used in Phase 3.

Lastly, this research design was selected, as combining qualitative and quantitative methods can produce a more comprehensive account (Creswell 2013). This is supportive of the mode of knowledge production selected for the research (Table 3-1, column 2) producing, 'more complete knowledge to inform practice and policy' (Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 7). Within the realism paradigm, this completeness is considered to occur as a result of the triangulation of a number of perceptions (Sobh & Perry 2006), improving the construct validity of the case study (Yin 2003, 2014).

Phase 1
Research Question 1

- Literature review
- Development of Research Questions, hypotheses and preliminary theoretical framework
- Quantitative Data collection:International Visitor Survey data
- Quantitative analysis: Logistic Regression

Phase 2

- Qualitative Data collection and analysis: Convergent interviews with South Australian Museum stakeholders
- Phase 1 and 2 findings interpreted and used to develop hypotheses for Phase 3
- Development of a survey instrument for Phase 3

Phase 3
Research Questions 2-5

- Pilot of survey instrument
- Quantitative Data collection: survey on International tourists
- Quantitave Data analysis: bivariate and multivariate analysis
- Intergration and interpretation of findings from all phases to answer Research Questions 2-5
- Development of a final preliminary consumer-based brand equity framework for future research

Figure 3-1 Sequential hybrid exploratory design implemented within the case study

3.4 Sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design: Phase 1

Phase 1 was used as an exploratory stage to identify findings which would inform Phase 2. Two methods were used to generate findings: a literature review and the development and implementation of the first data collection method.

3.4.1   Phase 1 data collection method 1: Literature review

In contrast to grounded theory researchers, realism researchers' consider there is an external reality which other people have usually investigated (Sobh & Perry 2006). The perceptions found within these prior studies provide, 'windows' onto the reality and therefore should be considered before realism data collection begins (Perry, Riege & Brown 1999, p. 18). Sobh and Perry (2006, p. 1201) consider that this supports Miles and Huberman's (1994, p. 17) advice that:

> a preliminary conceptual framework about the underlying structures and mechanisms should be developed from the literature and/or from people with experience of the phenomenon, before entering the field to collect data.

Therefore, in Phase 1of the study, a literature review was undertaken with research questions and objectives (Table 3-9), preliminary hypotheses, and a preliminary theoretical framework developed. Within realism research prior theory is considered additional evidence, which can be used to clarify the external reality through triangulation (Perry 1998; Sobh & Perry 2006). Therefore, the findings from each stage of data collection were compared to existing literature to further understand the results. As a result, the literature review chapter (Chapter 2) provides a robust and current discussion reflective of the overall case study findings.

Table 3-9 Research question and Objectives for Phase 1

Research question	Research Objective
1: How do individual characteristics of international tourists influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia?	a) Identify the characteristics of international tourists which increase the probability of including a remote destination during their holiday in Australia b) Consider how these characteristics may be used to segment the target market.
2. How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism? 3: Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to travel to participate in a remote destination?	e) Identify measures of International tourists perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia f) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. g) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination. h) Explain how the brand equity dimensions of Aboriginal tourism impact on intention to participate in an urban or remote destination.
4: How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity? 5: How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?	d) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. e) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination. Explain how tourist characteristics impact on intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism in an urban or remote destination.

3.4.2 Phase 1 data collection method 2: Analysis of international visitor survey data

Following the initial literature review, it was identified that a current profile of international tourists who include a remote destination within their holiday to Australia had not been developed. It was considered necessary to understand the background of remote tourists prior to undertaking Phases 2 and 3 of the study. A weakness of the convergent interviewing techniques applied in Phase 2 occurs if interviewers have insufficient knowledge of the research area (Riege & Nair 2004), and the inclusion of an additional data collection method aimed to overcome this. Additionally, the characteristics of remote international tourists were needed for the Phase 3 survey on international tourists.

As a substantial amount of research into destination choice has previously been undertaken, it was considered appropriate to develop a number of hypotheses to test in a deductive, quantitative study. The literature review in Chapter 2 identified that a number of push and pull factors influenced destination choice (Crompton & Um 1992), and these were used to develop five propositions. Table 3-10 shows the propositions and corresponding hypotheses.

Table 3-10 Propositions and hypotheses to identify the characteristics of remote tourists in Australia

Proposition	Hypothesis	Previous research	Research objective
Proposition: Socio-demographic variables will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H1: Older tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Carneiro and Crompton, 2010; Pike, 2010; Hong, 2006; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008; Nicolau and Mas, 2004	1. Identify socio-demographic factors influencing the decision to travel to remote destinations.
	H2: Adult couples will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Carneiro and Crompton, 2010; Pike, 2010; Hong, 2006; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008; Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang and O'Leary, 1996; Metin, 2002	
	H3: Gender will not influence the probability of international tourists to travel to destinations within remote Australia	Carneiro and Crompton, 2010; Pike, 2010; Hong, 2006; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008; Nicolau and Mas, 2004	
Proposition: Motivation to travel will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H4: International tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Lin, Morais, Kerstetter and Hou 2007; Pike, 2010; Hsu, Tsai and Wu, 2009; Hong, 2006; Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang and O'Leary, 1996	2.Identify behavioural factors influencing the decision to travel to remote destinations
	H5: International tourists who participate in outdoor activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Lin, Morais, Kerstetter and Hou 2007; Pike, 2010; Hsu, Tsai and Wu, 2009; Hong, 2006; Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang and O'Leary, 1996	
	H6: An increase in the number of stopovers will increase the propensity of international tourists to visit remote destinations	Koo et al., 2011	
Proposition: Time available will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H7: Increased length of stay will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Jin, He, & Song, 2012; Koo et al., 2012	2.Identify behavioural factors influencing the decision to travel to remote destinations
	H8: International tourists who utilise travel packages will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Koo et al., (2012)	

Proposition: Destination familiarity will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H9: First time visitors to Australia will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	Krider, Arguello, Campbell and Mora, 2010; Havitz and Dimanche, 1999; Carneiro and Crompton, 2010	2.Identify behavioural factors influencing the decision to travel to remote destinations
	H10: International tourists who use the internet to book an aspect of their holiday will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations		
Proposition: External factors will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination	H11: International tourists will show a reduced propensity to visit remote destinations post 2008		2.Identify behavioural factors influencing the decision to travel to remote destinations
	H12: International tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations during April to September		

3.4.2.1   *Justification for using International Visitor Survey data*

Similar to previous research into Aboriginal tourism (Laesser & Crouch 2006; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008) and destination choice (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012; Wu, Zhang & Fujiwara 2011), data from the International Visitor survey was utilised. Yin (2003) remarked that documentation is relevant to most case studies and is beneficial as a data source due to its ability to be accessed repeatedly (Yin 2003). Additionally, it is an unobtrusive source, as it was not created for the case study but has a broad coverage of variables and extensive time periods (Yin 2003). A number of weaknesses exist when using documentation as a source of data including difficulties in retrieving relevant evidence, and/or access being denied, unknown bias of authors of the documents, and bias if insufficient documentation is collected (Yin 2003). Within this study, access was not a concern as Tourism Australia provided the data source, although the potential bias of survey developers and interviewers could not be identified.

The survey provides a large amount of data relating to international tourists' behaviour within Australia, with over 70 questions used supported by 'show cards'.

International tourists aged 15 years and over who visit Australia for a period of less than 12 months are included within the research. The international visitor survey data are collected daily using a stratified sampling method, from the departure lounges of the eight major international airports, with sample sizes achieved by surveying various flights and visitors. The sample sizes for each country are calculated at a 95% confidence level. Data have been collected since 1999, with n=20,000 international tourists until 2004, and n= 40,000 from 2005 onwards. The survey interviews outbound tourists who are categorised based on the purpose of visit as follows: Holiday, Business, Visiting friends or relatives, Education/ Employment.

3.4.2.2 Sample used

Although the case study focused on South Australia, as the majority of international tourists to Australia visit multiple destinations, it was considered appropriate to use data from all areas of Australia. This would enable Aboriginal operators within South Australia to gain a greater understanding of the travel behaviours of international tourists, not just within their own state.

The sample used within this research was collected from 2008-2010. Respondents whose primary purpose of the visit to Australia was a 'Holiday' were used within the analysis. Therefore, all respondents whose primary purpose of visit to Australia was Education, Business or Visiting Friends and Family were excluded. This decision was taken to restrict the potential influence of third parties in choice factors, for example destination, accommodation or attractions visited. Whilst the data could have been restricted to include only international tourists who had participated in Aboriginal tourism activities, the survey restricts the Aboriginal tourism activities into three narrow sections: Seeing Aboriginal art or craft or cultural

display; visiting an Aboriginal site or community; or observing an Aboriginal performance. It was therefore considered that this may exclude tourists who had participated in other Aboriginal tourism activities or services offered such as accommodation providers or activities such as bushwalking. Therefore, rather than restrict the sample to international tourists who had only participated in Aboriginal activities, the whole sample was used n= 49568.

3.4.2.3   Recalibration of data

As the research question sought to identify characteristics of international tourists who included a remote destination within their holiday itinerary, recalibration of the data was required. Within each state, tourism regions have been formed through the aggregation of Statistical Local Areas (SLAs), and are defined by state and territory marketing needs and research. To improve the validity and generalizability of this research and its compatibility with other research, these regions were used. However before analysis could be undertaken the data needed to be recalibrated to identify international tourists who had visited remote areas of Australia. Within the survey each destination visited by an international tourist is recorded as a Statistical Local Area (SLA) code. Within this research SLA codes were converted using The Australian Standard Geographical Classification: Remoteness Area Correspondences (2006), provided by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). The remoteness structure used within this coding method is based on ARIA+, which is widely used in Australian research. ARIA+ is a geographic measure of remoteness based on road distance from a populated area to a service centre (UniversityofAdelaide 2012). Service centres are classified as areas with populations greater than 1000 people. Within this coding method, it is assumed population size of an area influences the provision of services available

(UniversityofAdelaide 2012). ARIA+ scores consider only geographical access to a range of goods and services and opportunities for social interaction; it does not consider market accessibility which can be influenced by many factors such as socio-economic status.

Each SLA code was recoded as one of five classes: Major Cities of Australia (MC); Inner Regional Australia, (IR); Outer Regional Australia (OR); Remote Australia (R); Very Remote Australia (VR). The exit survey records each stopover participants have made, with a stopover being classified as staying at least one night in a destination and the number of stopovers varying from 1 to 89. As the purpose of the analysis was to identify factors influencing destination choice from a remote or urban perspective, further recalibration was required to enable identification of tourists who had travelled to remote destinations. Data were aggregated to form a binary variable: Remote (1) or Urban (0), with tourists who had visited at least one stopover coded R or VR, re-coded 1 (Remote). Tourists who had not included one of these destinations in a stopover, that is, they had only visited destinations coded MC, IR or OR, were re-coded 0 (Urban).

3.4.2.4 *Dependent variable*

As this study aimed to identify factors which may increase the probability of international tourists to travel to remote destinations, the dependent variable was classified as Remote (1) or Urban (0).

3.4.2.5 *Independent variables*

Independent variables were selected from the data to closely match the factors identified in the literature review as potentially influencing destination choice. Of the 53 independent variables, 43 were activities undertaken during their holiday. Table

3-11 lists the factors, the variables allocated from the data set, the variable type and coding.

Table 3-11 Independent variables used within the Logistic Regression Model

Factor	Variables	Variable type	Coding
Socio-demographics	Age	Categorical	Age group category 1-12
	Gender	Binary	0= male 1= female
	Travel party	Categorical	1: unaccompanied, 2: couple, 3: family, 4: friends 5: business
Motivation to travel	43 separate activities	Binary	0: not participated or 1: participated
	Number of stopovers	Continuous	1-89
	Backpackers	Binary	0 or 1
Time frame	Nights in Australia	Continuous	1-365
	Arrived on travel package	Binary	0 or 1
Destination familiarity	Number of previous visits	Continuous	0-500
	Internet used for bookings	Binary	0: not used or 1: used
Time scale	Year	Continuous	2008,2009,2010
	Quarter	Categorical	1: Jan-Mar,2: Apr-June,3: July-Sept,4: Oct-Dec

3.4.2.6   *Method of analysis*

Logistic Regression Analysis was run using IBM SPSS 19. Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$. Logistic Regression Analysis is used to predict a discrete outcome from a set of variables and emphasizes the probability of a particular outcome for each case (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). Few restrictions apply to logistic regression analysis, although the outcome variable needs to be discrete (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). Whilst the findings confirm the probability of a characteristic of an international tourist to visit a remote destination, it does not imply that any of the variables included cause a tourist to visit a remote destination (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013).

3.5 Sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design: Phase 2

Phase 2 had two clear aims. Firstly, it sought to gather data to contribute towards the research questions, but it was also used to develop a questionnaire and measurement items for Phase 3.

6.2.1 Development of an instrument

As with previous studies (eg. Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007; Ruzzier & Gartner, 2007), the procedures established by Churchill (1979) were applied. Firstly, Churchill (1979), recommends defining domains based on a review of current literature. The review was undertaken and the domains used within the conceptual framework developed based on previous studies (see Table 3-12). Churchill (1979, p. 67) highlights that widely varying definitions of constructs can impair the ability of researchers, 'to compare and accumulate findings'. Therefore, to enhance the validity of the study and, in line with the realism paradigm (Perry, Riege & Brown 1999), clear definitions for each domain were selected from the literature and are presented in Table 3-12.

To develop measures to test the domain, items were generated from literature searches, experience surveys and insight-stimulating examples (Churchill Jr 1979). An initial review of the literature identified a number of items used within previous studies in tourism or marketing contexts. Additional measures were identified from the first analysis which identified the characteristics of international tourists who visited a remote destination during their holiday in Australia. This analysis was considered an insight-stimulating example, with findings relating to activities cross referenced to the Tourism Australia Industry website (Australia 2013), to identify experiences currently offered by Aboriginal operators.

Table 3-12 Defining the domains within the conceptual framework

Domain	Definition	Source
Brand awareness	Brand salience can be measured by identifying the depth and breadth of brand awareness, with depth referring to how easily customers can recall or recognize the brand and breadth considering the range of products that a tourist associates with the brand	(Keller, 2001)
Brand image	Brand image is constructed from two separate dimensions, brand performance and brand meaning	(Keller, 2001)
Brand performance	Brand performance relates to the tangible attributes that consumers associate with the product and how the product meets their needs. These attributes include attractions, people, facilities, in addition to cultural measures of quality and authenticity.	(Keller 2001) (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011)
Brand meaning	Brand associations may relate to the personality of the brand which is defined as 'the set of human characteristics associated with a brand'	(Aaker, J 1997, p. 347).
Brand value	Perceived value within service contexts was better explained by a multi-dimensional perspective then a single 'value for money' item and within this study relates to the dimensions of functional, emotional, epistemic and social value	(Sweeney & Soutar 2001)
Brand loyalty	Behavioural loyalty reflects willingness to recommend to others used Experiential loyalty reflects loyalty experiences which is transferred to new environments, satisfying the need to seek novelty whilst on holiday	(!!! INVALID CITATION !!!) (McKercher & Guillet 2011; Pearce & Kang 2009)
Brand equity	Brand equity is measured by attitudinal loyalty intention to visit	(Oppermann 2000)

As transferring measures to new fields of research potentially increases bias with the measures being 'out of context' (Pike & Page 2014, p. 216), Churchill (1979), recommends the use of experience surveys. Experience surveys are, 'not a probability sample but a judgement sample of persons who can offer some ideas and insights into the phenomena' (Churchill Jr 1979, p. 67). The interviews were undertaken with respondents who had regular interaction with cultural tourists and

with varying degrees of interest in Aboriginal tourism. Using the convergent interviewing technique, the researcher cross referenced item measures identified within the literature, and similarly when identifying potential measures within the interviews, was able to seek suitable measures used in previous studies.

3.5.1   Convergent interview approach

The convergent interview approach was selected for this study as it is suitable for exploratory, inductive research and supports the realism paradigm (Sobh & Perry 2006), allowing previous literature to be incorporated within the data analysis (Perry & Jensen 2001). Convergent interviewing was developed in the 1980s and is described as, 'a way of collecting qualitative information about people's attitudes and beliefs through the use of interviews' (Dick 1990, p. 2). Rao and Perry's (2003), definition adds to this by describing it as an: 'in-depth interviewing technique with a structured data analysis process' (p. 237). Table 3-13 highlights the differences between in-depth interviews, convergent interviews, and focus groups (Rao & Perry 2003). Compared to the other methods, the main advantage of convergent interviews is to narrow down the research focus to identify themes (Dick 1990; Rao & Perry 2003), which is considered appropriate when developing an instrument. Additional benefits of convergent interviewing include the efficient mechanism for analysing data after each interview and the use of the method to identify when sufficient data have been collected (Rao & Perry 2003).

Table 3-13 Differences between in-depth interviews, convergent interviews, and focus groups

Characteristics	In-depth interviews	Convergent interviews	Focus groups
Main objective	To obtain rich and detailed information	Narrow down research focus	Group interaction
Level of prior theory	Low	Low	To obtain insights into various ideas
Process	Flexible-unstructured to structured	Structured process with continuous refinement	Flexible-unstructured to structured
Content	Unstructured to structured	Unstructured	Unstructured
Strengths	Replication	Progressive	Synergistic effect in a group setting
Weaknesses	Results may be biased and are not for theory testing	Potential interviewers bias, requirement of interviewers knowledge and not sufficient on its own	Conforming effects of a group setting

Source: Adapted from Rao and Perry (2003)

Like most qualitative methods limitations of convergent interviews exist. Interviewer bias can occur (Dick 1990; Yin 2003), with interviewers requiring prior knowledge of the research problem to apply this technique (Riege & Nair 2004, p. 76). To reduce potential bias which may arise from poorly constructed questions (Yin 2003), the initial questions were developed and reviewed by two academics in the field to check construct validity. Following feedback, the questions were forwarded to the Yunggorendi First Nations Centre for Higher Education and Research at Flinders University for further comment, before the ethics committee granted approval for their use. Construct validity was also measured through the Manager of the Tour Guides and the Manager of the Security team at the museum pre-viewing the questions prior to the interviews and advising where the language or wording was considered ambiguous. Following the recommendations of the managers, two questions relating to defining Aboriginal tourism and the connection between the Australian brand and South Australian brand were removed.

As bias may occur through the application of prior knowledge which leads the interviewer's questions (Williams, W & Lewis 2005), the interviews were recorded and were professionally transcribed, *ad verbatim* with the transcripts being reviewed prior to analysis to identify any potential leading questions. Finally, the results of convergent interviewing cannot be generalised (Woodward, 1996, in Rao & Perry 2003). However, this was not a concern within this study as the findings were to be used to inform survey design and were further interpreted alongside the survey findings. Additionally, interviewers need to be aware that participants' responses may be biased or inaccurate due to the inability to recall events accurately or their perception of what the interviewer 'wants to hear' (Yin 2003, p. 86).

3.5.1.1   *Implementation of the convergent interviewing process*

A benefit of using convergent interviewing within a study is that procedures for designing, conducting and analysing have been developed (Perry & Jensen 2001). Analysis occurs after each interview enabling the researcher to refine future interview questions, converging issues arising in the topic area (Perry & Jensen 2001). Table 3-14 summarises the process, with the following section discussing how this was applied in the study.

Table 3-14 Convergent interviewing process

1. The research topic is identified
2. Key themes for interviews are identified by: (a) Reference to the literature   (b) Reference to key informants — the clients or the research team
3. Interviewees are identified — normally experts in the area of research
4. Interview takes place
5. Key issues are identified
6. Interview schedule is amended in light of interview findings
7. Interviews are concluded when convergent themes are identified

Source: Nair and Riege (1995) in Rao and Perry (2003, p. 237).

a) Identify key themes for interviews:

Following the process used by Rao and Perry (2003), prior to the first interview the researcher reviewed the parent literature in both marketing and tourism fields and developed some preliminary propositions. These related to the identification of the consumer-based brand equity dimensions used within previous studies, alongside developing an understanding of characteristics of tourists which influence both activity and destination choice. As a result of the limited literature on their research area, Rao and Perry (2003) formulated their initial theoretical framework after conducting the first two interviews. However, there was sufficient literature in the field of consumer-based brand equity to develop the preliminary theoretical model before commencing the interviews. As interviews were conducted, new insights were identified in the analysis which were assessed against existing literature, with these themes further investigated in the remaining interviews. As previously stated, interview questions were also reviewed by academic staff and external stakeholders to increase validity and appropriateness in the context of the study.

b) Interviewees are identified

The interviews were identifying issues relating to the dimensions of brand equity from a demand side perspective and, as a result, were not investigating issues related to developing a brand from an Aboriginal operator perspective. Based on the recommendation of Churchill (1979, p. 67), a judgement sample was selected from individuals who interacted with international tourists and could provide, 'ideas and insights into the phenomenon'. The SA Museum had been selected as a unit of analysis as it attracted cultural tourists and the decision was taken to undertake interviews with stakeholders associated with the museum.

Snowball sampling was applied which is deemed appropriate in qualitative marketing research, when considering a small, specialised population (Rao and Perry, 2003, p. 242). Furthermore, this method is suitable when there is no clear sampling frame (Bryman & Bell 2011). Whilst snowball sampling can cause difficulties in relation to generalisation of findings (Bryman & Bell 2011), the interviews were to be used to generate a survey for Phase 3 and triangulate findings in the concluding chapter. For this reason, the snowball sampling method was considered appropriate.

An important aspect of using this sampling method is to identify the first 'snowball' that needs to be an expert and able to direct the researcher to others familiar with the field (Rao & Perry 2003). Additionally, when using a purposeful sample, Bryman and Bell (2012) consider selecting participants based on key characteristics. Therefore, it was decided that interview participants needed to interact with international tourists as part of their role. The first interview was held with the Marketing Manager of the museum who recommended four groups of participants based on the criteria (Table 3-15).

Table 3-15 Participants selected through snowball sampling

Initial contact	Recommended participants	Participated
Marketing Manager	SATC	✓
	Tour guides	✓
	Senior Researcher	✓
	Security Team Manager	✓
	Tandanya	X
Economic Development Manager (SATC)	Tourism Manager Wadlata Centre	X
	Aboriginal Operator	X
Tour Guide 1	Tour Guide 2	✓
	Tour Guide 3	✓
	Tour Guide 4	✓
Security Manager	Security team member	✓
	Security team member	✓

In total, ten participants were involved in this study and their characteristics are shown in Table 3-16. However, it may be noted that although some participants declined to be formally interviewed as they perceived they lacked sufficient knowledge or had insufficient time available, they still participated in the overall research, through taking part in informal interviews which provided a general background to some of the research issues. As a result, their responses were recorded in a field diary.

Different sample sizes have been considered optimal within marketing research, with stability occurring after five interviews (Woodward, 1996, in Rao & Perry 2003), six interviews (Riege & Nair 2004), and ten interviews (Rao & Perry 2003). Theoretical saturation was used to determine the sample size. Although more commonly associated with grounded theory, it was considered that the sample size was sufficient when no new themes were being generated and the stakeholder criteria were met.

Table 3-16 Characteristics of participants

Participant	Organisation	Gender	Type of role	Level of contact with tourists
Marketing Manager	SA Museum	Male	Full time	Low
Senior Researcher	SA Museum	Male	Full time	Low
Economic Development Manager	South Australian Tourism Commission	Male	Full time	Medium
Tour Guide 1	SA Museum	Male	Volunteer	High
Tour Guide 2	SA Museum	Female	Volunteer	High
Tour Guide 3	SA Museum	Female	Volunteer	High
Tour Guide 4	SA Museum	Female	Volunteer	High
Security Team Manager	Wilson Security Team	Female	Full time	High
Security Team Member	Wilson Security Team	Female	Full time	High
Security Team Member	Wilson Security Team	Female	Full time	High

c) Interview takes place

Rao and Perry (2003), discussed the planning and management issues relating to convergent interviewing which they based on the work of Dick (1990) and Carson et al., (2001). The stages they identified for undertaking the interviews provided a framework for this study (Rao & Perry 2003, p. 242).

Step 1: Contacting the respondent.

Initial contact was made with the first participants by letter inviting them to take part in the research (Appendix 1). Following the first interview, a letter was sent to potential participants (Appendix 2). For participants who responded via email to confirm they agreed to take part, a telephone call was made to arrange a time and venue.

Step 2: Time and setting

Interviewees were advised that the interviews would last approximately 60 minutes. All interviews were conducted face-to- face in the respondents' place of work. Nine of these took place in the SA Museum, Adelaide, and one in Port Augusta. Confirmation of the agreed time and location of the interview was mailed to participants, with an outline of potential questions, the information sheet (Appendix 3) and consent form (Appendix 4). The time and place of the interviews was re-confirmed by email with participants 48 hours before the agreed time.

Step 3: Establishing rapport and neutrality

Prior to beginning the interview, the researcher introduced herself and provided a brief overview of the purpose of the research. Participants were asked if there were any questions they wished to omit. None of the participants requested questions to be omitted. Consent forms were signed and permission to tape the interview granted. Participants were also asked to describe their job role.

Step 4: Opening question

The opening question selected for the interviews was framed as a broad starting point, which enabled the interviewer to lead to further probe questions (Rao & Perry 2003). The opening question for the nine participants at the museum was: 'From your experience how would you describe international tourists who visit the Australian Aboriginal Cultures Gallery at the South Australian Museum?' For the tenth participant it was simply: 'From your experience how would you describe international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism'. These questions were considered not to pressurise participants allowing them to share their own experiences (Rao & Perry 2003).

Step 5: Probe questions

Probing questions were used following the opening question. Table 3-17 identifies the initial questions which were sent to participants. As interviews were undertaken and analysed, additional probing questions were identified as new themes and issues arose.

Table 3-17 Example of initial interview questions

Theme	Examples of interview questions
1: How can international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences be defined?	1. From your experience how would you describe international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism? 2. From your experience can you give me a profile of the international tourists who visit the Australian Aboriginal Cultures Gallery? For example, this description could include their ages, nationality and the people they are visiting with. 3. From your experience how would you describe international tourists who visit the Australian Aboriginal Cultures Gallery at the South Australian Museum?
2: What are the levels of awareness of international tourists of Aboriginal tourism experiences?	1. Do you think international tourists are aware of the types of Aboriginal tourism experiences available to them when they come here on holiday? 2. How aware of Aboriginal culture do you think international tourists are when they visit Australia?
3 What associations do international tourists hold about Aboriginal tourism experiences?	1. A brand is a name or symbol that people associate with a product. Do you think that Aboriginal tourism experiences are associated with the Australian and the South Australian tourism brand? Why do you think that? 2. What images do you think should be used in promoting Aboriginal tourism and why? 3. Are there any features that you think international tourists associate with Aboriginal tourism? 4. Do you find that certain sections of the Australian Aboriginal Cultural Gallery are of greater interest to tourists? Why do you think they are of greater interest? 5. Are there any questions that tourists commonly ask you?
4: How do international tourists assess the quality of Aboriginal tourism experiences?	1. How would you define/describe Aboriginal tourism? 2. How do you think international tourists measure the quality of the Aboriginal tourism experience? What measures of quality do you think are important? 3. What do you think makes an Aboriginal tourism experience authentic? Do you think this is important to international tourists?
5: How do international tourists measure the value gained from Aboriginal tourism experiences?	1. How do you think international tourists assess the value they gain from Aboriginal tourism experiences?
6: How does loyalty impact on the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences?	1. Would you consider that being involved in Aboriginal tourism experiences in other countries influences tourists' choice to participate in similar experiences when they visit Australia? 2. Do international tourists who visit the gallery express an interest in further participation Aboriginal tourism activities?
7 How does the destination impact	1. Do you think that the destination an Aboriginal tourism

on the decision to participate in remote Aboriginal tourism experiences?	experience is located in is important to international tourists? Why do you think that?
	2. What perceptions of remote Australia do you think international tourists hold, and how do you think they get these perceptions?
	3. What difficulties, if any, do you think international tourists have when looking to participate in Aboriginal tourism in remote Australia?

Step 6: Inviting a summary

When it became apparent that little more information might be gained from the interviews the participants were asked: 'Are there any additional aspects relating to tourists and Aboriginal tourism that you think are important?' This enabled the participants to reflect on the interview and highlight any areas which may not have been covered.

Step 7: Concluding the interview

To conclude the interview the researcher thanked the participants for their time and advised that a copy of the transcription would be forwarded to them to check their accuracy.

3.5.1.2   *Interview data analysis*

To analyse the interviews a table based on the work of Carson et al., (2001) was used to identify key issues which were used in alternative studies. A matrix was developed for analysis based on the work of Angell et al., (2008), who re-modelled the table format to provide identified attributes listed vertically and respondents horizontally, with a cross used to indicate agreement. The final column lists the total number of respondents who identified the responses.

Each interview was professionally transcribed, and following participants' approval, was analysed using NVivo. The transcripts were manually coded creating

parent nodes for the interview questions as they each related to specific dimensions within the theoretical framework. Within each parent node, child nodes were created as specific topics arose. The respondents' answers were also listed in the matrix to assist in analysis. For the second and subsequent interviews, the same process was followed. Where respondents agree, this is reflected in the table with an X. Answers provided in previous interviews were used as probe questions to seek agreement or disagreement. At each stage of the process the researcher returned to the literature to further understand new responses.

3.5.2 Constructing the survey

The final survey tool consisted of four pages (Appendix 5) with a mix of open and closed questions. To prevent respondent fatigue, a variety of question structures were used included a tick all that apply and a seven point Likert item, from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). Open questions were also used to further understand participants' responses.

Table 3-18 Dimensions within study with corresponding survey questions

Domain	Question number
Brand awareness:	
Depth	13
Breadth	16
Source	15
Brand image: performance	17
	Likert items 2,7,9-15
Brand image: user profile	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,14
Brand image: self-congruity	Likert items 4-6
Brand value	Likert items 16-24
Brand loyalty: attitudinal	19
Brand loyalty: behavioural	Likert item 25
Brand loyalty: experiential	12

Whilst previous studies have used recall measures to assess brand salience (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), the interviews identified that although

international tourists may have awareness of Aboriginal culture, they had limited awareness of product classes available. Therefore brand salience was measured using two separate questions to measure the depth and breadth of awareness. Furthermore, question 13 separated the depth awareness into: ' before I began to plan my holiday' as a recall or top of mind measure, with two further recognition measures included which considered awareness gained before and after arrival. Using the product classifications on the Tourism Australia website, breadth of awareness was tested in Q.16.

Brand performance measures considered the attributes of the brand with question 17 providing a, 'tick all that apply' option to respondents. Associations within this question were selected from the International Visitor survey, the National Visitor survey and previous research (see Ryan & Huyton 2002). Furthermore, the data analysis in Chapter 4 identified seven activities, in addition to two Aboriginal activities, that increased the probability of international tourists travelling to a remote destination. To ensure Aboriginal operators currently supplied the remaining activities, the Tourism Australia Indigenous Tourism Champions program trade website was examined. Whilst other operators exist outside of the Tourism Champions program, it is considered that these suppliers were more likely to be actively promoted to international tourists either directly or via third party channels. To be eligible for inclusion within this program Aboriginal operators are nominated for inclusion in the program by their State Tourism Organisation. Following this nomination, they must apply and meet criteria for membership. Evidence of suppliers for products to be included within the survey was found with examples shown in Table -19. Other outdoor activities are a category within the International Visitor survey. To identify potential 'other outdoor activities', a review of the operators'

products was undertaken. A number of activities were identified for inclusion within the survey: kayaking; camel riding, Four Wheel Driving, Quad biking and Nature.

Table 3-19 Identification of product measures for inclusion within brand associations

Product	Supplier	State
National parks	Worn Gundidj	Victoria
Guided tours	Aboriginal Cultural Tours	South Australia
Outback	Ayers Rock Resort	Northern Territory
Whale watching, Snorkelling and Fishing	Kooljaman at Cape Leveque	Western Australia
Kayaking	Ingan Tours	Queensland
Camel riding	Kimberley Wild Expeditions	Western Australia
Four Wheel Driving	Gagudju Dreaming	Northern Territory
Quad biking	Sand Dune Adventures	New South Wales
Nature	Lords Safaris	Northern Territory

Additional activities represented in products available were also included in the list: basket weaving; rock art; bush tucker; dreamtime/storylines; cultural/theme parks; nature; bush walking; welcome to country. Finally, a previous study investigating the expectations of tourists to the Northern Territory identified that 77% of people felt it was important to meet Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. The most enjoyed experience was visiting a museum/cultural gallery (TRA 2008), and these associations were included within the survey.

Sources for Likert items are shown in Table 3-20. These items were used to develop scales for self-congruity, quality, image and value, with further discussion relating to scale development in Chapter 6 and, as with previous studies, were slightly modified to meet the context of the study (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011). Overall brand equity was measured by the attitudinal item of intention to participate (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011; Im et al. 2012), which was a single measure item, question 19. This question format provided options

for respondents to expand on their answer, and to provide qualitative data which may expand understanding of the initial response: yes, no, don't know.

Previous studies have highlighted that measurement weaknesses exist when using forced answer Likert scales, resulting in potential bias in the data (Pike et al. 2010; Ryan & Garland 1999). To overcome this, it is suggested that a 'Don't Know' option is provided (Pike 2007; Ryan & Garland 1999), and this has been applied in tourism research (Pike 2009; Pike et al. 2010). Provision of this option removes uninformed responses (Pike 2009) commonly associated with the use of midpoints on the Likert scale to denote lack of knowledge (Pike et al. 2010; Ryan & Garland 1999).

Ryan and Garland (1999) propose that non-random patterns of responses may provide information for tourism researchers. Within a comparative study of consumer-based brand equity for two destinations, Pike (2009) found that for one destination every performance item attracted a 'don't know' non response rate of more than 30%. Pike (2009) highlighted that understanding the level of 'don't know' responses highlights to marketeers the gaps in brand knowledge which exist within a target segment and can be useful in developing promotional strategies.

An alternative perspective exists on the inclusion of a 'don't know' option, with respondents selecting the option to reflect their lack of confidence, rather than lack of knowledge, or agreeing to the survey as they wish to comply with the researchers' request (Dolnicar 2013). However, Dolnicar (2013) concludes that as data may be contaminated whether a 'don't know' option is included or not, researchers need to consider whether respondents will be genuinely unable to answer questions. As the survey was undertaken in the museum, with respondents who may

not have knowledge or experience of Aboriginal tourism activities, a 'don't know'

option was included.

Table 3-20 Likert items used within the survey with their original sources

Domain	Likert item	Source
Awareness	When I think about Australia, Aboriginal people come to mind	(Pike 2009)
Quality	The Aboriginal activities available in Australia are quite different to activities available overseas	(Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010)
Quality	Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday	(Konecnik & Gartner 2007)
Self-congruity	Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am	(Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010)
Self-congruity	My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences	(Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Sweeney & Soutar 2001)
Self-congruity	I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents	(Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010)
Quality	Aboriginal activities in Australia are of good quality	(Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009)
Authenticity	Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic	(Yang & Wall 2009)
Authenticity	Aboriginal activities in Australia are a reproduction of the past	(Chhabra 2010; Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Taylor 2001)
Authenticity	Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person	(Chhabra 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1986; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011)
Authenticity	Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia	(Beverland 2006; Moscardo & Pearce 1986; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011)
Authenticity	Aboriginal activities in Australia represent local ways of life	(Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011)
Authenticity	Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in Australian cities	(Beverland 2006; Moscardo & Pearce 1986; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011)
Authenticity	Engaging in Aboriginal activities makes an experience authentic	(Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011)
Authenticity	Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic	(Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Wang 1999)
Value	Aboriginal activities are good value for money	(Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Pike et al. 2010; Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009; Zeithaml 1988)
Value	Participating in Aboriginal activities is a	(Gallarza, M & Gil Saura 2006;

	good way to spend my time on holiday	Mogilner & Aaker 2008)
Value	Aboriginal activities are enjoyable	(Kim, S et al. 2009; Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991; Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009)
Value	Aboriginal activities are exciting	(Kim, J & Ritchie 2014; Kim, J, Ritchie & McCormick 2010; Pearce & Lee 2005; Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991; Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009)
Value	Tour guides increase my understanding of Aboriginal culture	Williams and Soutar, 2009 Sheth et al., 1991
Value	Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to meet new people	Pearce and Lee, 2005
Value	Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to learn new knowledge	Pearce and Lee, 2005
Value	Aboriginal activities provide novelty	Williams and Soutar, 2009, Pearce and Lee, 2005
Value	Aboriginal activities offer once-in-a lifetime experiences	(Kim, J & Ritchie 2014; Kim, J, Ritchie & McCormick 2010; Tung & Ritchie 2011)
Loyalty	I would recommend Aboriginal tourism activities within Australia to friends/family	(Gartner & Ruzzier 2011; Pike et al. 2010)

Within tourism, destinations are often categorised by their image, with image being subjective and perceptions varying between individual tourists (Gallarza, MG, Saura & García 2002). Whilst the previous survey questions aimed to develop a brand equity model for Aboriginal tourism, question 20 focused on willingness to participate in Aboriginal tourism in a particular destination, asking: 'During this holiday would you travel to this destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities?'. The image shown below was included within the survey, however an A5 colour photograph was also provided.

Source: Kindly provided by the South Australian Tourist Commission

Gunn's (1972) image formation taxonomy describes destination image formation as falling along a continuum from 'organic' to 'induced' to 'complex'. Those images at the organic end of the continuum are a result of non-tourist information, whilst induced images are formed as a result of formal marketing efforts (cited in Krider et al. 2010). Tourists are able to make judgements relating to destination images regardless of whether they have obtained additional information or visited that destination, and are able to make judgements based on previous knowledge stored in memory (Krider et al. 2010). Krider et al., (2010) considered that image perception prior to visitation is more relevant when discussing destination preference and choice, as it removes any more complex images which may occur after visitation.

Based on the recommendations of Krider et al., (2010), an image was selected with no additional information provided. The image was carefully selected from a number of options provided by the South Australian Tourist Commission, and that chosen was located in the Flinders Ranges. The image presents a 4WD vehicle driving on a graded road (no bitumen), and is reflective of the type of road and scenery international tourists would be exposed to if participating in Aboriginal activities in the northern Flinders Ranges, such as in the Nepabunna community. The image provided provides no additional visual clues to the types of accommodation, activities, or other facilities available in the area. This was reflective of Carson and Taylor (2009) research which identified that images commonly used within Outback marketing were mainly aspirational, with no clear identification of activities available, and no clear differentiation between destinations. Additionally, individual tourist characteristics have been found to interact with destination images, influencing the choice process (Krider et al. 2010). Therefore, the selection of an image with limited detail enabled the researcher to identify if characteristics influenced the decision to participate in aboriginal tourism activities within remote Australia. As a dependant variable, the question was a stated choice: yes or no. However, a number of tick all that apply options were also included, alongside an 'other' option to gain a deeper understanding of reasons for choice selection.

3.6 Sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design: Phase 3

This final phase of the research objective was to collect survey data from international tourists.

3.6.1 Sampling frame

Surveys were undertaken in the entrance lobby of the South Australian Museum, near to the entrance of the Aboriginal Cultural Gallery. Probability sampling was used. To remove or minimise potential bias caused by visiting the gallery, tourists were approached after they had entered the museum and prior to them entering the gallery.

Data were collected over a two month period, December 2013 and January 2014. 34% of the sample was collected in December. The museum was open between 10-5pm and the researcher restricted collection times to a maximum of two hour blocks within these times, to prevent interviewer fatigue which may increase bias. The survey respondents were restricted to those who spoke English. However, of the 154 people who were approached, only three declined because of language barriers and two declined due to time restrictions (98% response rate). All participants were aged over 18.

Prior to undertaking the survey, it was reviewed by two academics and two stakeholders in the museum to check construct validity. An Aboriginal operator also reviewed the survey and approved it. Following feedback, the questions were forwarded to the Yunggorendi First Nations Centre for Higher Education and Research at Flinders University for further comment, before the ethics committee granted approval for the survey use. A pilot sample of 10 surveys were undertaken to test the wording and time required to complete the survey. The surveys took 15 minutes to complete. As they were to be completed by tourists, this was considered too long, therefore, the numbers of questions were reduced. A further pilot study was

undertaken in the SA Museum with 20 surveys completed, each of which took less than 10 minutes to complete, and there was no confusion over the wording.

3.6.2 Data analysis

Data were analysed in three stages. Firstly, descriptive statistics analysis was conducted to examine the overall sample profile. The second stage of analysis tested the validity of the constructs based on the recommendations of Churchill (1979). Firstly, for each of the proposed dimensions, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to assess the dimensionality of the data using principal axis factoring (PAF) with Varimax rotation. Prior to undertaking the PAF for each dimension, a number of assumptions were tested. A sample size of 100 subjects is considered acceptable with five subjects per variable required for factor analysis (Coakes & Ong 2011). The correlation matrix was examined to ensure items correlated with a number of other items at 0.3 or above (Coakes & Ong 2011). Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was applied (Kaiser 1974)(Table 21). As a final condition prior to undertaking PAF, the Bartletts Test of Sphericity was used to ensure it reached statistical significance (Coakes & Ong 2011).

Table 3-21 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy

Threshold	Grading
In the .90s	Marvellous
In the .80s	Meritorious
In the .70s	Middling
In the .60s	Mediocre
In the .50s	Miserable
Below .50	Unacceptable

Source: Kaiser (1974)

For each PAF, a number of methods were applied to determine how many factors to be retained. The Guttman-Kaiser rule was applied retaining factors with an eigenvalue larger than 1 and the Scree plot examined (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013).

Consistent with other tourism brand equity research studies (eg. Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007; Ruzzier & Gartner, 2007), to further test the scales' reliability, analysis was undertaken using Cronbach alpha (Churchill Jr 1979) with Nunnally (1978) 0.7 threshold applied (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). As with alternative tourism research, mean ratings for each group were then calculated to create the scales (Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil 2007).

Missing data occur commonly in market research, reports of which may be up to 50% (Craig & McCann 1978). Listwise deletion is a common method used with missing data which is assumed to be completely missing at random, and is appropriate when using logistic regression models (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). Whilst it was acknowledged that a disadvantage of this method was a reduced sample size, as the research was based on the principles of a realism approach, with no positivist experiments or cause-and-effect paths being required to solve the research problem (Perry 1998 p. 787), it was considered appropriate.

3.7 Integrating the findings

Triangulation of findings is required within the realism paradigm to validate the results (Perry 1998; Perry, Riege & Brown 1999; Sobh & Perry 2006). Additionally, this contributed to the construct validity of the design (Andrade 2009; Yin 1981, 2014). Yin (1981, p. 5) highlights that: 'many case studies begin with the naive assumption that anything might be relevant, so one ought to observe and code

everything.' Based on Yin (1981), field diary notes were recorded throughout the study as was information relating to observations and reflections on interviews. However, these field notes, whilst available for review, were not recorded as evidence, but were used to guide the research design as it progressed. A database of evidence collected was created at the end of each findings chapter, increasing the reliability of the research as other researchers are able to directly access the data used within the case study (Yin 2014).

3.8 **Ethical considerations**

Ethics approval was sought from the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee. Whilst developing the methodology, the ethical research guidelines of Flinders University, Ninti One and The Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies were incorporated. AIATSIS (2012) recommends that research involving Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders follows 14 principles grouped under the broad categories of: 'rights, respect and recognition; negotiation, consultation, agreement and mutual understanding; participation, collaboration and partnership; benefits, outcomes and giving back; managing research: use, storage and access; and reporting and compliance'. The research design incorporates these principles including consulting Aboriginal people in developing the research aims and providing opportunities for participants to review the research before publication. Permission was granted on 21st August 2012, Project reference 5607.

3.9 **Conclusion**

This chapter has provided an overview of the methodology applied. Theoretical considerations related to the research design have been discussed, with the implications of the paradigm highlighted in relation to the research design. Data collection methods were identified for each stage for the exploratory sequential hybrid mixed method design alongside the data analysis methods used. The following chapter reports the findings and discussion to answer the first research question, using recalibrated International Visitor survey data.

Chapter 4: Profiling remote international tourists

4.1 Introduction

Following the literature review which was undertaken as the first data analysis method in Phase 1, this chapter presents the findings from the second data collection method applied. Recalibrated International Visitor Survey data were used to identify socio-demographic and behavioural variables which increased the likelihood of international tourists visiting a remote destination within Australia. Based on the literature five propositions were developed. This chapter begins by presenting the findings from the descriptive and bivariate analysis, structured on the propositions developed in Chapter 3. The chapter then presents the findings from the multivariate analysis method which are used to answer the hypotheses.

A discussion is then undertaken which draws together the findings to answer Research Question 1. Reflective of the objectives of this research question, these findings are used to develop a profile of remote international tourists. Furthermore, consideration is given as to how these factors may impact on the customer-based brand equity of an Aboriginal tourism enterprise. The chapter concludes with identification of theoretical implications, including three profiles of international tourists who may have a higher propensity to visit a remote destination in Australia. Practical implications are also discussed before the final section which identifies future research questions both inside and outside the scope of this study.

4.1.1 Descriptive data

This section provides an overview of the sample of international tourists used, n= 49568. International visitors who included at least one remote or very remote

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stopover were classified as Remote Tourists, whilst those who did not were classified as Urban Tourists. All international tourists within the sample had at least one stopover in an urban destination, but only 16.7% of the sample travelled to remote destinations, n=8327.

Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 4-1. The data represent the total sample separated into urban and remote tourists. Whilst there are no significant gender differences, 53% of the sample are within the 20-34 year old age group. The largest proportion of international tourists to Australia was travelling alone, although compared to the other travel party groups a higher percentage of adult couples travelled to remote destinations. Family groups rarely travelled remotely and Business Associates travelled hardly at all.

The mean for the number of previous visits was 2.28, with 57.1% of the sample visiting Australia for the first time and 16.7% having one previous visit. Overall, 44464 respondents, representing 75% of the sample had five or fewer previous visits. When considering the number of nights tourists stayed in Australia, the mean is 31.2%, with 80.3% of the sample staying in Australia for 31 days or less, and 43.6% staying seven nights or less. The number of stopovers that international tourists made varied from 0 to 89, with over 50% including at least two stopovers in their holiday.

Table 4-1 Socio-demographics of the sample

Variable	Total tourists	Total urban tourists	Total remote tourists
Gender	48.2%	83.4%	16.6%
Male	51.8%	83%	17%
Female			
Age			
15-19	5.30%	84.02%	16.0%
20-24	19.20%	80.5%	19.5%
25-29	21.20%	81.7%	18.3%
30-34	12.60%	83.5%	16.5%
35-39	7.40%	86.1%	13.9%
40-44	5.60%	86.7%	13.3%
45-49	5.30%	87.4%	12.6%
50-54	5.80%	86.7%	13.3%
55-59	5.60%	86.2%	13.8%
60-64	5.70%	82.1%	17.9%
65-69	3.70%	78.2%	21.8%
70-74	1.80%	83.1%	16.9%
75-79	0.60%	86.5%	13.5%
80 or more	0.20%	82.4%	17.6%
Travel party			
Unaccompanied travellers	39.4%	82.4%	17.6%
Adult couples	31.5%	80.4%	19.6%
Family groups	13.1%	90.2%	9.8%
Friends & relatives	14.6%	83.9%	16.1%
Business associates	1.4%	97%	3%

Proposition 1: Socio-demographic variables will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

4.1.1.1 Age

The age distribution of respondents, which is separated into urban or remote tourists, is highlighted in Figure 4-1 and represents the total sample. The graph highlights that the distribution curves follow similar patterns. More than half of the international tourists' sample, 58.3%, are aged between 15-34 years of age. A higher percentage of remote international tourists were in this age category, 62.9% of the sample, compared to urban tourists at 57.4%. Whilst no significant differences between remote and urban tourists were found in the age categories 15-19 and 30-34, 45.4% of remote international tourists were aged between 20 and 29 compared to 39.4% of urban tourists. However, between the ages of 30-60 less significant differences in the percentage of tourists in urban or remote categories were identified, with slightly higher numbers being urban tourists. Conversely, between the ages of 60-69 years of age, this situation is reversed with 10.9% of remote international tourists being in this age category compared to 9.4% of the total sample and 9.1% of urban tourists.
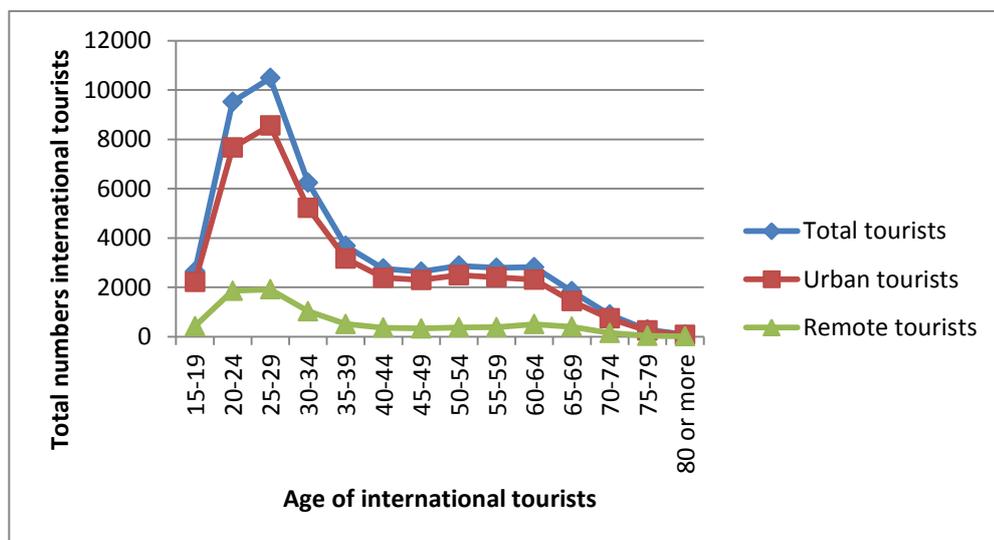
Figure 4-1 Age distribution of international tourists

These findings suggest A Spearman's rho was computed to examine the relationship between age and destination choice. There was a very weak negative correlation between the two variables, r = -0.032, n=49568, p=<0.001, suggesting that age may have a relationship with destination choice.

4.1.1.2 Gender

Gender was considered as an independent variable with 17% percentage of female tourists sampled travelling to remote areas compared to 16.6% of males. Within the remote international tourist segment, females had a higher representation, 52.3%, compared to 47.7% males. No statistically significant relationship between gender and destination choice was identified.

4.1.1.3 Travel party

Travel party composition is separated into the following categories within the International Visitor survey: Adult couple; Family group which comprises parent(s) and Child (ren); Friends and/or relatives travelling together; and Business associates travelling together with or without spouse. Figure 4-2 shows the frequencies of remote international tourists to Australia with tourists within this segment most likely to be travelling alone or as part of an adult couple. Whilst family groups represent 13.1% of all international tourists within the sample, they only represent 7.6% of travellers to remote areas suggesting that international tourists travelling with a parent or children are less likely to travel to remote areas of Australia. There are no significant differences between urban or remote tourists within the friends/family category.
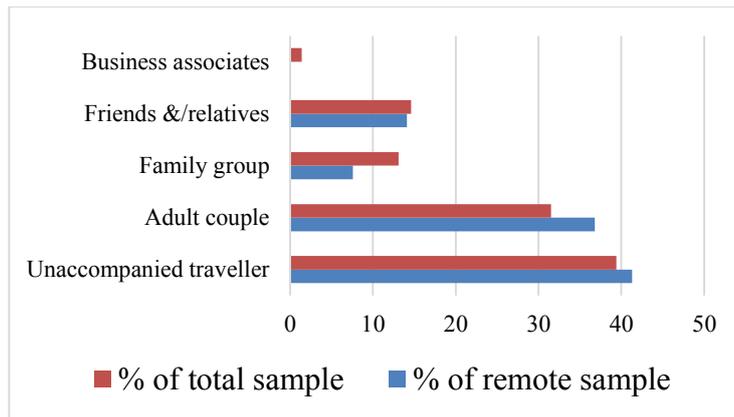
Figure 4-2 Travel party composition of remote international tourists

The Cramer's V results suggest a very weak correlation between travel party composition and destination, r =0.092, n=49568, p<00.1, with a significant relationship found between the two variables, Pearson's Chi square value = 422.727, df =4, p <0.001. These findings suggest that a relationship between travel party type and destination choice may exist.

4.1.1.4 Age and gender composition of remote international tourists

As a very weak correlation between age and destination had been identified, the two variables of age and gender were considered within the remote sample. Figure 4-3 separates the total number of tourists to remote Australia by age and gender. More females in the 15-29 age group travel to remote Australia than males, whilst more males in the 35-39 and 60-80+ age group travel to remote areas. Between the ages of 30-60, smaller differences in gender are identified. However, these percentages are reflective of the higher percentages in these categories in the total sample.
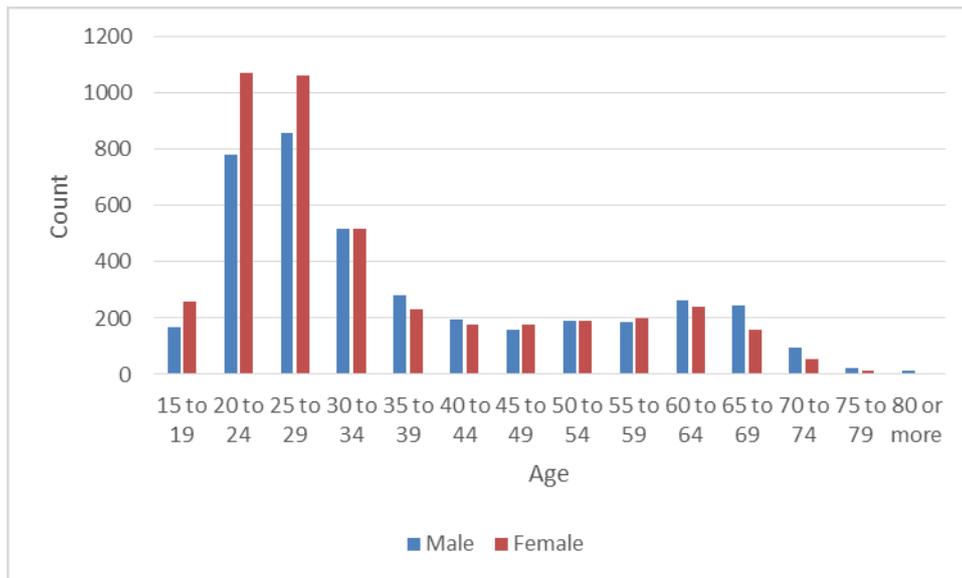
Figure 4-3 Age and gender of remote international tourists

The Cramer V result suggests there is a very weak correlation between the variables of age and gender in the remote international tourist segment, r =0.118, n=8327, p<0.001. The Pearson's Chi-square results revealed there was a significant relationship Chi square = 116.185, df= 13, p = <0.001. This suggests a relationship exists between age, gender and destination choice, with females under 30 more likely to include a remote destination than males, although this trend reverses with increased age.

4.1.1.5 Age and travel party composition of remote international tourists

With age and travel party identifying weak correlations, further consideration was given to the relationship between these two variables with the remote international tourist sample. Figure 4-4 highlights how travel party composition varies between age groups. Unaccompanied travellers represent the highest number of remote international tourists in the 15-29 year age group. Travelling with friends/relatives is the second travel party composition for 15-24 years, before

becoming the third travel party type. Adult couples are the dominant travel party type after the age of 30. Between the ages of 40-54, adult couples represent 45.3% of the remote international tourists, with unaccompanied travellers' representing 23.8% of this age group and family groups representing 20.9% becoming the third most common travel party type.
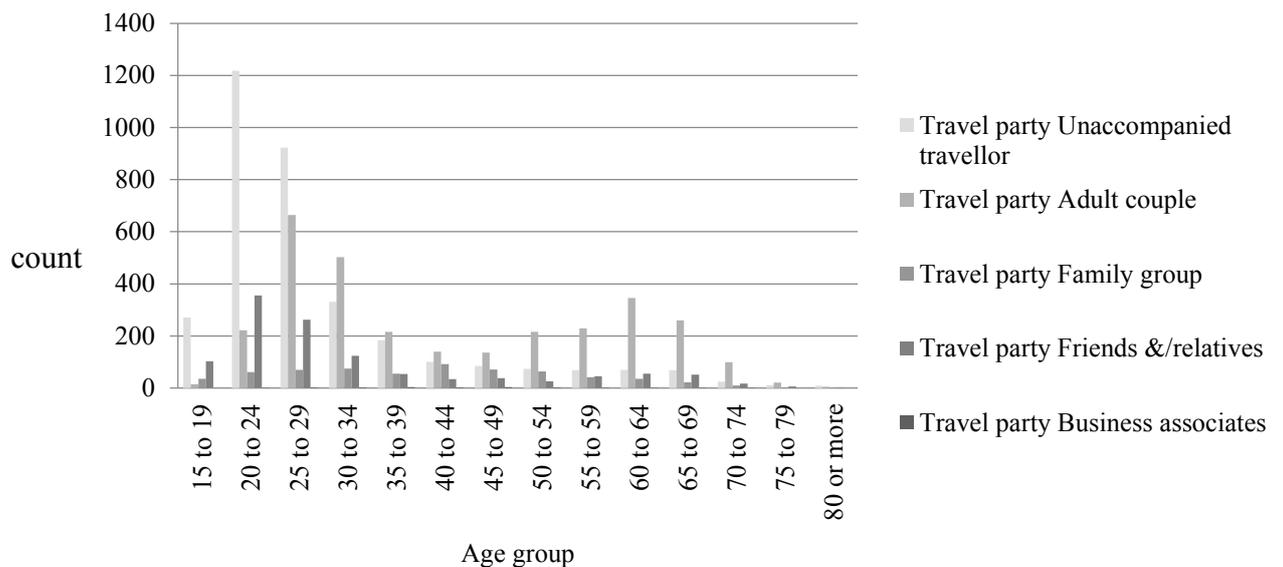
Figure 4-4 Travel party and age composition of remote international tourists

The Cramer V results indicated that there was a weak significant relationship between travel party composition and age, r =0.246, n=8327, p<0.001, Pearson's Chi square value = 2014.842, df= 52 p = <0.001. These findings suggest that under the age of 30, tourist who visit a remote destination are more likely to be travelling alone, with tourists over 30 tending to be travelling with their partner.

4.1.1.6 *Gender and travel party composition of remote tourists*

Gender and travel party composition within remote tourists are considered with findings shown in Figure 4-5. Unaccompanied travellers have higher representation in the 15-29 age groups, and within this age range 56.4% of travellers are female.

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Similarly, females are also more likely to travel with friends than males within the sample, 16.6% compared to 11.3% of males. Conversely, men have a higher representation in the adult couple category, which appears to be a spurious result. Finally, there are no significant differences between genders among international tourists in the unaccompanied or family group categories.
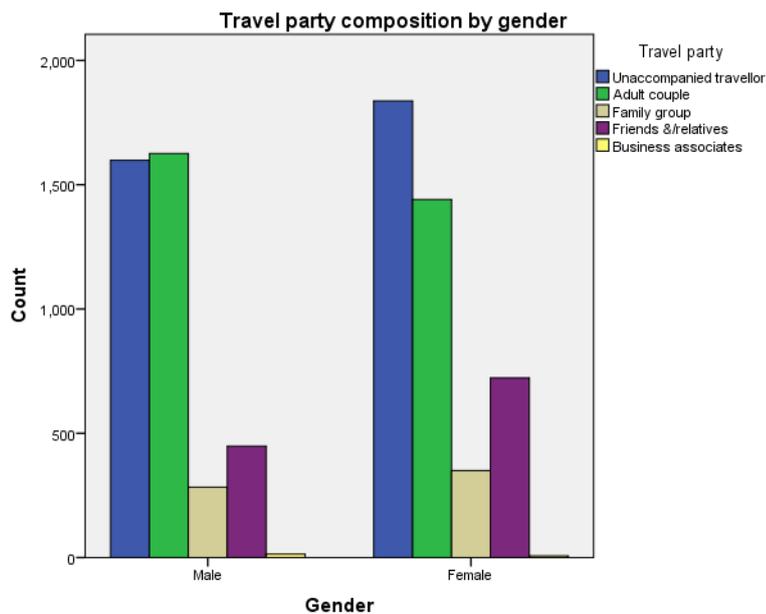
Figure 4-5 Gender and travel party composition of remote tourists

The Cramer V results suggest a very weak correlation between travel party composition and gender, r =0.100, n=8327, p<0.001. The results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables, Pearson's Chi square value =83.805, df =4, p < 0.001.These findings propose a relationship may exist between gender and the travel party of remote tourists with female having a higher representation, although the relationships are weak.

4.1.2 **Proposition 2: Motivation to travel will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination**

4.1.2.1 *Motivation to travel*

Forty three activity items are included in the questionnaire including three general items: other outdoor activities, other activities and none of these. Respondents provided all the activities they had participated in throughout their holiday, but the researcher is unable to identify where they undertook the activity.

Descriptive frequencies were computed to identify participation in activities both in the whole sample and within urban or remote tourist categories. The top 20 activities are listed in Table 4-2. The yellow code indicates an activity common to all three groups. 16 out of 20 activities are in this category although they are not all ranked in the same order. Three activities are highlighted blue, which identifies that they are in the total international tourists and urban tourist top 20 only. Activities which are highlighted orange are only present in the remote tourist's top 20 activities. Activities which are highlighted green are represented only in the total international sample and remote international tourists' top 20, whilst red indicates the activity is present only in the urban tourists' top 20.

Table 4-2 Top 20 activities of urban and remote international tourists to Australia

	Participation of activity in all groups top 20
(yellow)	Participation of activity in all groups top 20
(orange)	Participation of activity in remote tourists top 20
(green)	Participation of activity in all international tourists and remote tourists groups top 20
(blue)	Participation of activity in all international tourists and urban tourists groups top 20
(red)	Participation of activity in urban tourists groups top 20

Top 20 activities total respondent's	%	Top 20 activities remote tourists		Top 20 activities urban tourists	
Eat out	88.2	Eat out	91.60%	Eat out	87.50%
Shopping	81.8	Sightseeing	89.50%	Shopping	81.40%
Sightseeing	80.3	National/state park	89.50%	Sightseeing	78.40%
Beach	72.9	Shopping	83.80%	Beach	70.80%
National/state park	59.5	Beach	83.70%	National/state park	53.50%
Wildlife park, zoo, aquarium	53.5	Bushwalking or rainforest walks	69.40%	Wildlife park, zoo, aquarium	50.80%
Visit markets	51.2	Wildlife park, zoo, aquarium	67.10%	Visit markets	48.60%
Pubs, clubs, discos	44.6	Guided tour or excursion	65.10%	Pubs, clubs, discos	41%
Botanic/public gardens	43.6	Visit markets	64.20%	Botanic/public gardens	39.90%
Charter boat, cruise, ferry	40.5	Pubs, clubs, discos	62.40%	Charter boat, cruise, ferry	36.20%
Historic buildings	37.4	Botanic/public gardens	62.10%	Historic buildings	33.60%
Bushwalking or rainforest walks	35.5	Charter boat, cruise, ferry	61.70%	Museum/art galleries	30.80%
Guided tour or excursion	34.9	Outback	59.70%	Guided tour or excursion	28.80%
Museum/art galleries	34.6	Historic buildings	56.40%	Bushwalking or rainforest walks	28.70%
Snorkelling	24.2	Snorkelling	53.60%	Casino	21.90%
Casino	21.7	Museum/art galleries	53.50%	Amusements, theme parks	20.20%
Attend movies/cinema	20.2	Aboriginal art or craft and cultural display	48.60%	Snorkelling	18.30%
Tourist trains	19.7	Aboriginal site or community	41.30%	Attend movies/cinema	17.90%
Amusements, theme parks	19.6	Attend movies/cinema	31.10%	Tourist trains	17.80%
Aboriginal art or craft and cultural display	16.1	Other outdoor activities	30.50%	Wineries	14%

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The top five activities in all three groups are the same with eat out being the first in all groups, with sightseeing, visit a national park/state park, shopping and beach appearing in different rank order. Similarities in the top 10 also occur, although remote international tourists have participation in bushwalking or rainforest walks, ranked 6th, and guided tours and excursions ranked 8th, in their top 10, compared to the other two groups who have charter boat, cruise, ferry and visit botanic/public gardens.

The three activities which appeared only in the remote international tourists' group top 20 were the Outback, with 59.7% of remote international tourists participating in it, visiting an Aboriginal site or community, 41.3% and other outdoor activities, 30.5%. It can also be noted that the urban count is higher in all activities in the survey except for the Outback and visit an Aboriginal site or community. However, these activities are associated with remote Australia and urban tourists may have difficulties in participating in these activities due to travel time.

Consideration was given to participation in Aboriginal tourism activities within the Remote and Urban tourist segments. Visiting an Aboriginal art, craft or cultural display was the most popular activity, with 16.1% of tourists participating during their holiday. Within the segments 48.6% of remote tourists participated compared to 9.5% of urban tourists. Likewise, Remote tourists were more likely to visit an Aboriginal site or community, 41.3%, compared to 3.1% of Urban tourists. Whilst a significantly higher percentage of Remote tourists had participated in the other two

Aboriginal activities, this was not reflected in watching an Aboriginal performance, with 66% of participants being Urban tourists.

To test the potential relationship between activities and destination choice a Pearson's Chi-square test was conducted, with a Phi value calculated to analyse the degree of the relationships. Appendix 6 shows results for all activities. Whilst the majority of activities had statistically significant relationships with destination choice, playing golf and other activities had no statistically significant relationship. Visiting the Outback and an Aboriginal site and/or community both had moderate correlation between the activity and destination. As previously highlighted these are both in remote tourists' top 20 activities, and are both activities associated with remote Australia.

Six activities had weak correlations between the activity and destination: Aboriginal art, craft and cultural displays, bushwalking or rainforest walks, snorkelling, guided tour or excursions, national park and other outdoor activities. Four of these activities were in both urban and remote tourists' top 20 activities, although differences in the percentage of tourists participating were found. Visiting a national or state park were popular activities for both urban and remote tourists, with 53.5% of urban tourists participating compared to 89.5% of remote tourists. When considering participation in 'bush walking or rainforest walks', 35.5% of all international tourists participated. This activity was ranked 6th for remote tourists with 69.4% participating, and 14th for urban tourists with 28.7% participating. Snorkelling shared similar ranking positions, 12th for urban tourists and 15th for remote tourists, with 53.6% of remote tourists participating compared to 18.6% of

urban tourists. Finally, 65.1% of remote tourists participated in a guided tour compared to 28.8% of urban tourists.

The Phi values which indicated very weak relationships ranged from 0.194 to-0.034. The activities of amusements/theme parks and casinos had negative weak correlations suggesting urban tourists were more likely to participate in these activities.

4.1.2.2 Number of stopovers

Table 4-3 shows the frequencies of the sample in relation to the number of stopovers. Nearly 60% of international tourists to Australia have more than one stopover. Nevertheless remote international tourists have a much higher mean average of stopovers, 11.2 compared to the mean average of 4.14 stopovers. Travel party appears to impact on the number of stopovers, with approximately half of family groups (57%) having five or fewer stopovers, adult couples (56%) eight or fewer and unaccompanied travellers (57%) 12 or fewer. The mean average for stopovers is five for unaccompanied travellers, four for adult couples or friends/relatives and two for family groups or travelling with Business associates. Reflective of the increased stopovers in the remote international tourist segment, the mean average of stopovers increases to 13 for unaccompanied travellers, 10 for adult couples or 11 friends/relatives and seven for family groups or three for travelling with Business associates.

Table 4-3 Number of stopover locations and stopovers

Number of stopover locations	% tourist	% urban tourist	% remote tourist
1	40.4%	99.8%	0.2%

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2	16.4%	91.3%	8.7%
3	11.8%	87.2%	12.8%
4	5.7%	81.1%	18.9%
5	4.2%	73.8%	26.2%
6	2.9%	66.5%	33.5%
7	2.5%	60.3%	39.7%
8	2.2%	57.3%	42.7%
9	2.0%	51.1%	48.9%
10	1.7%	50.6%	49.4%

4.1.3 Proposition 3: Time available will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

4.1.3.1 Length of stay

80.3% of the sample stayed in Australia for 31 days or less. Whilst the mean average for the number of nights is 31.2, for tourists who visit a remote destination the mean average increases to 58.8 nights. Mean average for length of stay differs between travel party groups with unaccompanied travellers 53 nights, Friends/Family 25 nights, Adult couples 16 nights, Family groups 11 nights and business associates six nights. As a higher number of young travellers are in the first two travel parties, these increased lengths of stay may represent a higher number of backpackers, whose travel patterns are associated with greater flexibility and increased lengths of stay.

4.1.3.2 Travel packages

A third of the sample had pre-booked two or more elements of their holiday prior to arrival in Australia. Within the remote sample, 33.7%, of international tourists packaged two or more elements of their holiday prior to arrival. Remote international tourists travelling for business were most likely to have arrived on a travel package, 82%. However, this may be a result of external factors for example their organisation may have planned the trip. Adult couples, 52.2% and Family groups, 52.4%, were more likely to have booked two or more elements of their holiday, then travelling with friends 33.9% or unaccompanied 13.4%.

Table 4-4 identifies which elements of the holiday remote international tourists' package. Not surprisingly, all tourists who arrived on a travel package had pre-booked their international flights, with a 24.3% of remote tourists, pre-booking all of their accommodation. A quarter of remote international tourists also pre-booked internal flights, with 17.4% organising ground transport. Organised tours were also included in travel packages with 20.2% of remote international tourists booking these before arrival and sightseeing tours were pre-booked by 17.7% of remote international tourists.

Table 4-4 Items included in travel packages

Items included in the package	% of total remote tourists who arrived pre-booked two or more elements of their holiday
International airfares	33.7
Internal airfares	25.8
Organised tours	20.2
Most accommodation	2.6
Some accommodation	5
All accommodation	24.3
Ground transport	17.4
Most meals	5.4
Some meals	13.6
Recreation/entertainment	6.3
Sightseeing tours	17.7

4.1.4 Proposition 4: Destination familiarity will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

4.1.4.1 First time visitors

The mean for the number of previous visits was 2.28, with 57.1% of the sample visiting Australia for the first time and 16.7% having one previous visit. Whilst 20% of first time visitors to Australia included a remote destination within their itinerary, as the number of previous visits increases this percentage declines. A Pearson r correlation was computed to assess the relationship between previous visits and destination choice. There was a negative correlation between the two variables, $r=-0.073$, $n= 49568$, $p= <0.001$. Overall this represents a very weak correlation between

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the two variables, although the relationship suggests that destination loyalty to Australia has a positive impact on urban rather than remote destinations.

4.1.4.2   Internet use

Consideration was given to the use of the Internet to book aspects of international tourists' holiday. Within the data n=49568, 3142 cases were incomplete reducing the sample to n=46426. Overall, 79% of remote tourists used the Internet to book at least one element of their holiday, with no statistical significance between genders. Internet usage was consistently over 80% amongst all age groups until aged 55-59 where a gradual decline in use occurred. However, usage was still over 50% until age 74 where it fell to 40%. Likewise, usage was consistent across all groups, and did not vary between activities undertaken or number of stopovers.

Table 4-5 highlights the use of the Internet by remote international tourists, with 82.2% making a booking online and nearly 50% using the Internet to plan itineraries. A higher proportion of remote international tourists use the Internet to find information on transportation methods, then booking online. For example, 22.3% of remote tourists use the Internet to find details of internal flights, but only 14.6% book online and 38.5% look for information with only 24.7% booking online. A limited number of remote international tourists, 9.4%, book organised tours online, with even less, 2.4%, booking entertainment activities or events.

Table 4-5 Internet use by remote international tourists.

Use	% of remote tourists
Make bookings	82.2
Decide if you want to visit	12.4
Find out more about Australia following the decision to visit	51.2
To plan itinerary	49.9
To find a travel agent	10.8

To find out about events/activities	31.1
Internet booking- entertainment activities or events	2.4
To find air fares/schedules for travel to Australia	34.1
Internet booking- International airfare	27
To find air fares/schedules for travel within Australia	22.3
Internet booking- domestic airfare	14.6
Plan other transport options within Australia	23.5
Internet booking- bus or train	3.8
Internet booking- Australian travel package	2.4
Find accommodation	38.5
Internet booking- accommodation	24.7
Organise visa and travel insurance	100
Internet booking- organised tour	9.4
Internet booking- vehicle rental	9.6
Internet booking- sporting events	0.07

4.2 Findings from the multivariate analysis

Following the descriptive and bivariate analyses, a logistic regression model was run to test the twelve hypotheses developed in Chapter 3. This section presents the findings of the analyses and concludes with a summary of the results (Table 4-8)

4.2.1 Logistic regression analysis

A Logistic regression model was run using IBM SPSS 19. Statistical significance was defined as $p<0.05$. The dependent variables were remote (1) and urban (0). The overall significance was tested using the Model Chi-Square 21718.541, df=72, $p<0.000$. The coefficient of Cox and Snell's R^2 and Nagelkerke's R^2 was 0.374 and 0.622, respectively. The estimated model's percentage of correct assignment was 91.4%. Whilst 52 independent variables were statistically significant, of these 25 positively influenced the decision to travel to a remote destination. The statistically significant variables are: age categories, travel party composition, number of nights within Australia, number of stopovers, travellers utilising travel packages and other activities (Table 4-6).

Table 4-6 Independent variables which increase the probability of international tourists travelling to a remote destination

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
			Statistically significant Variables			
Age: 25-29	.387	.061	39.759	1	.000	1.472
Age: 30-34	.482	.072	44.286	1	.000	1.619
Age:35-39	.528	.088	35.900	1	.000	1.696
Age:40-44	.403	.101	15.893	1	.000	1.497
Age:45-49	.446	.103	18.641	1	.000	1.563
Age:50-54	.305	.100	9.386	1	.002	1.357
Age:55-59	.283	.100	8.029	1	.005	1.327
Age:60-64	.264	.097	7.336	1	.007	1.302
Age:65-69	.574	.108	28.142	1	.000	1.776
Age:70-74	.444	.151	8.678	1	.003	1.560
Adult couples	.129	.052	6.078	1	.014	1.138
Number stopovers	.270	.006	2300.705	1	.000	1.310
Nights in Australia	.002	.000	14.774	1	.000	1.002
2009	.140	.045	9.650	1	.002	1.151
quarter(3)	.154	.051	9.068	1	.003	1.166
National park	.752	.051	213.457	1	.000	2.121
Whale, dolphin watching	.317	.052	37.056	1	.000	1.372
Outback	2.151	.046	2156.758	1	.000	8.593
Go fishing	.286	.077	13.704	1	.000	1.331
Aboriginal art or craft	.848	.049	298.079	1	.000	2.336
Aboriginal site or community	1.688	.056	923.993	1	.000	5.411
Guided tour or excursion	.366	.042	76.014	1	.000	1.442
Snorkelling)	.357	.047	57.087	1	.000	1.429
Other outdoor activities	.197	.051	14.824	1	.000	1.218
Travel package	.610	.048	160.008	1	.000	1.840

4.2.2 Proposition 1: Socio-demographic variables will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

H1: Older tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

The base category for the age variable was age 20-24. Overall age was statistically significant, although travellers within the age bands 15-19, 75-79 and 80+ findings were not statistically significant. Compared to the base category all other age groups were more likely to travel to remote areas. However, there were differences in the degree to which age influences travellers to go to a remote destination. Travellers aged 30-49 and 65-74 are over 50% more likely to travel to a remote destination than the 20-24 age groups. This probability declines between the ages of 50-64, with international tourists approximately 30% more likely to go remote than the base category. The findings suggest that older international tourists are more likely to travel to remote Australia and Hypothesis 1 is supported.

H2: Adult couples will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

As an independent variable, travel party was statistically significant. However, this result was not consistent across all travel parties. With unaccompanied travellers used as the base category, travelling as a Family or with Friends had no significant influence on the decision to travel to a remote or urban destination. Adult couples were statistically significant and compared to unaccompanied travellers are 38% more likely to go to a remote destination. The result for tourists travelling with business associates was also statistically significant, although they are 61% less likely to go to a remote destination and must be considered a very small, time-constrained, part of the potential market. These results support Hypothesis 2's

prediction that adult couples were more likely than other travel party groups to travel to remote Australia.

H3: Gender will not influence the probability of international tourists to travel to destinations within remote Australia

Three variables for socio-demographic factors were included, with gender the only variable that was not statistically significant. Therefore, the prediction that gender would not influence destination choice was confirmed and Hypothesis 3 supported.

4.2.3 Proposition 2: Motivation to travel will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

H4: International tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

H5: International tourists who participate in outdoor activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Of the 43 activities included as independent variables within the logistic regression model, eight activities were not statistically significant and nine were found to increase the probability of travelling to a remote destination. Not surprisingly, international tourists who visit the Outback are over seven times more likely to visit a remote destination, with those who visit an Aboriginal site or community, and four times more likely to visit a remote location. International tourists who see Aboriginal art or craft or cultural displays are 133% more likely to visit a remote destination. Participation in fishing increases the likelihood by 33%,

visiting a national/state park by 112%, snorkelling by 43%, participation in other outdoor activities by 22% and whale/dolphin watching by 37%. Finally those who participated in a guided tour or excursion were 44% more likely to visit a remote destination.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 considered that motivation to participate in activity categories would increase the likelihood to travel to a remote destination. However, when considering Aboriginal tourism activities, those who participate in observing an Aboriginal Performance are 39% less likely to visit a remote destination. Therefore, as all three activities included in Tourism Australia's Aboriginal category do not increase the probability to travel to a remote destination, Hypothesis 4 cannot be fully supported.

Of the seven activities included as independent variables which are classified by Tourism Australia as Outdoor Activities, bushwalking/rainforest and visiting farms were not statistically significant. Whilst three activities increased the probability that international tourists will visit a remote destination, visiting a national park, visiting the outback, and whale/dolphin watching, visiting the beach or botanic/public gardens decreased the probability by 12% or 34% respectively. Therefore, as only three activities within the Outdoor Activity group increase the probability to travel to remote destinations, Hypothesis 5 cannot be fully supported.

H6: An increase in the number of stopovers will increase the propensity of international tourists to visit remote destinations

Stopovers may reflect motivation to participate in a number of activities. With regard to the number of stopovers, as a result of the addition of one extra stopover the probability to travel to remote destination increases by 31%. Therefore Hypothesis 6 is supported.

4.2.4 Proposition 3: Time available will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

H7: Increased length of stay will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Results for the independent variable length of stay was statistically significant, suggesting that increasing the number of nights stayed by one increases the likelihood of going to a remote destination by 0.0002%. Although Hypothesis 7 is supported, these findings have limited practical significance. However, when considering the findings of Hypothesis 6 alongside those of Hypothesis 7, they may suggest that marketing strategies which focus on increasing the number of stopovers, rather than length of stay, will provide an increase in visitors to remote destinations. Furthermore, as the length of stay during a holiday may be influenced by other external factors such as work commitments, increasing stopovers may also be a more realistic option for tourists visiting Australia.

H8: International tourists who utilise travel packages will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

The independent variable travel package was also statistically significant, increasing the probability of an international tourist visiting a remote destination by 84%. Therefore Hypothesis 8 is supported. This suggests that marketing strategies

that increase the opportunity for tourists to pre-package services such as accommodation, tours and transport prior to arrival will increase the likelihood of a remote destination being included within international tourists' itinerary.

4.2.5 Proposition 4: Destination familiarity will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

H9: First time visitors to Australia will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Whilst the number of previous visits is statistically significant, an increase in the number of previous visits decreases the likelihood of an international tourist visiting a remote destination by 2%. Hypothesis 9 is supported.

H10: International tourists who use the Internet to book an aspect of their holiday will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations

Whilst descriptive statistics showed that 76% of respondents used the Internet to book at least one aspect of their holiday, when included within the regression model, use of the Internet was not statistically significant and Hypothesis 10 was not supported. However, given the rapid advances in mobile technology, and its increasing use by tourists during their holiday, this finding may change in the short term.

4.2.6 Proposition 5: External factors will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination

H11: International tourists will show a reduced propensity to visit remote destinations post 2008

Both the year of data collection and quarters were used as independent variables. Using 2008 as the base category, the results for year of travel were statistically significant. However, whilst the results for 2009 were statistically significant with tourists 15% more likely to travel to remote Australia than in 2008, the results for 2010 were not statistically significant. Hypothesis 11 could not be supported.

H12: International tourists will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations during April to September

As an independent variable within the logistic regression model the base quarter selected was quarter 1. Results were only statistically significant in quarter 4, October through to December, with tourists 16% more likely to go remote than in quarter 1. Therefore, the prediction that International tourists will be more likely to travel to remote destinations during April to September could not be supported.

Table 4-7 Results of hypotheses

H1: Older tourists are more likely to travel to destinations within remote Australia	**Supported**
H2: Adult couples are more likely to travel to remote Australia	**Supported**
H3: Gender will not increase the probability of international tourists to travel to destinations within remote Australia	**Supported**
H4: International tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	**Partially supported**
H5: International tourists who participate in outdoor activities will have an increased propensity to visit remote destinations	**Partially supported**
	Supported
H6: An increase in the number of stopovers will positively influence the decision to visit a remote destination	**Supported**
H7: Increased length of stay will positively influence international tourists' decision to visit remote Australia	**Supported**
H8: International tourists who utilise travel packages will be more	

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likely to visit remote destinations	**Supported**
H9: First time visitors to Australia are more likely to visit a remote destination	**Not supported**
H10: International tourists who use the Internet to book an aspect of their holiday are more likely to visit a remote destination	**Not supported**
H11: International tourists will show a reduced propensity to visit remote destinations post 2008	**Not supported**
H12: International tourists will be more likely to travel to remote destinations during April to September	

4.3 Discussion of findings

The purpose of this study was to contribute findings to answer research question 1, 'How do individual characteristics of international tourist influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia?' Two objectives were established to answer this question. Firstly, the objective was to identify the characteristics of international tourists which increase the probability of including a remote destination during their holiday in Australia. Following this, consideration to how these characteristics may be used to segment the target market was required. The following discussion considers the findings from both the descriptive analysis and logistic regression model, and develops profiles of potential target segments for remote Australia. The discussion also considers the findings in relation to the dimensions of customer-based brand equity models and concludes with recommendations for future research.

Kotler et al. (2010) considered that for effective segmentation of markets to occur, their size and profiles need to be clearly defined to enable strategic marketing decisions to be made. Tourists are commonly segmented based upon their participation in an activity (McKercher 2002), with tourists who take part in one Aboriginal tourism experience in Australia classified as Aboriginal tourists (TRA

2011a). However, this study found that not considering the destination in which an Aboriginal enterprise is located may lead to inaccurate decisions being made with regard to target markets. Findings suggest that participation in Aboriginal tourism activities can positively or negatively influence the decision to travel to a remote destination. Whilst seeing Aboriginal art, craft or cultural activities or visiting an Aboriginal site or community increases the probability of international tourists visiting a remote destination, watching Aboriginal performances does not. These findings highlight that segmenting international tourists based on participation in any Aboriginal activity may produce inaccuracies in the forecast level of demand for remote operators which is cited as a common reason for cultural enterprise failure (Frost 2003). Furthermore, the descriptive analysis highlighted that less than half of remote tourists participated in the two Aboriginal tourism experiences which increased the probability of including a remote destination (Table 4-8), suggesting that additional factors other than simply motivation to travel, influence the choice processes of international tourists to Australia.

Table 4-8 Participation in Aboriginal tourism activities

Activity	Participation within total sample	Participation within urban sample	Participation within remote sample
Art, craft and cultural activity	16.1%	9.5%	48.6%
Visit Aboriginal site or community	9.6%	3.1%	41.3%
Aboriginal performance	6%	4.8%	12.2%

Tremblay and Pitterle (2008) considered that for the majority of international tourists to Australia, participation in Aboriginal experiences is opportunity driven.

This suggests that remote tour operators may benefit from deriving target segments based on other socio-demographic and behavioural factors. The first proposition considered that socio-demographic variables would impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination. Three hypotheses were developed with the findings for age and travel party statistically significant. Travel party was considered an appropriate method to develop profiles, due to the potential ability to measure the size of the markets (Kotler et al. 2010) via Tourism Australia International visitor survey data. Furthermore, the logistic regression model identified travel party as statistically significant in the decision to travel to a remote destination.

Whilst five travel party groups are classified within the International Visitor survey, only two were selected to develop profiles. The descriptive analysis identified that unaccompanied travellers have the highest representation within both the total sample and the remote tourist segment. Therefore, this group was identified as the first target segment profile. However, within the logistic regression model, adult couples were 38% more likely to travel to a remote destination than unaccompanied travellers. Therefore, adult couples were selected for the second target segment profile. As an independent variable within the logistic regression model, travelling with friends was not statistically significant. Furthermore, within the remote tourist segment, the frequency of visitors within this travel party composition was consistently third or fourth. Therefore, this travel party composition was not selected for profiling. Future research may seek to identify which segment has the greatest spending and utilise this within the decisions relating to target segmentation.

Family groups were also less likely to travel to a remote destination than the other travel party compositions. Additionally, when included as an independent variable the findings were not statistically significant. However, frequency analysis of travel party groups and repeat visits to Australia identified that there was a decline in the number of visitors to remote destinations in all travel groups except Family groups. Although the representation of family groups within second and subsequent visits remains small, future research may seek to investigate why this occurs and consider if strategies can be developed to increase families who visit Australia for the first and subsequent times to include a remote destination. Regardless of these findings, family groups were not identified as a potential target segment.

Similar to research undertaken in overseas Aboriginal tourism research (Kutzner & Wright 2010), the results of the regression model demonstrate that gender was not statistically significant. However, females have a higher frequency representation within the unaccompanied traveller (53.5% female: 46.5% male), whilst males have a higher representation within adult couples (47% female: 53% male). Whilst the differences are fairly small, remote operators may consider this when developing strategies relating to products and promotional materials.

Age was statistically significant as an independent variable, with a weak relationship found between age and travel party composition within the remote tourist segment. Remote international tourists over the age of 30 were more likely to be travelling as part of an adult couple. The findings identified that compared to 20-24 year olds international tourists aged over 30 are more likely to include a remote destination within their holiday itinerary. International tourists aged 30-49 are over

50% more likely to include a remote destination, with those aged 35-39 years of age, 70% more likely. Conversely, a decline in the likelihood to include a remote destination is seen between the ages of 50-64, although they are still over 30% more likely to include a remote destination. As a greater number of remote tourists aged 40-54 are travelling in family groups, this reduced likelihood may reflect that children act as a constraint on the destination choice process (Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009; Nicolau 2010). Similarly, the findings may support previous research into destination choice which identified that budget was less of a constraint for older tourists travelling to remote destinations (McKercher 1998; Nicolau 2010).

However, after age 65, until recently commonly the retirement age in many countries, the likelihood to include a remote destination increases by 78%, but this likelihood is reduced after age 70 to 56%. As age has been identified as impacting on selection of activities (Chang 2006; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002), it may be beneficial for remote operators to further separate Adult couples into two groups separated by age. Therefore, further consideration was given when developing profiles to consider three separate profiles: Adult Couples, aged 30-49; Retirees age 65-74; in addition to unaccompanied travellers.

Unaccompanied travellers in the remote tourist segment had the highest representation in the 15-29 age groups. Compared to the base category of international tourists aged 20-24, tourists aged 15-19 were not statistically significant. Whilst Tourism Australia incorporates this age group within their survey, future research may consider the likelihood of international tourists under the age of

16, perhaps even 18, travelling unaccompanied. Conversely, travellers aged 25-29 were 47% more likely to travel to remote destinations. Whilst this increase may represent a reduced level of constraints, for example, budget, the data cannot be used to identify these reasons. Therefore, future research may consider why there is a significant increase in the likelihood to travel to remote destinations after the age of 25. As current data does not enable further analysis to identify reasons for the increased propensity, it was considered appropriate to include international visitors in the age range 20-29 within the unaccompanied travellers' profile.

The second proposition considered that motivation to travel may impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination with number of stopovers (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012), and activities (Moscardo et al. 1996) used as independent variables. The logistic regression findings suggest that increasing the number of stopovers by one positively influences the decision to include a remote destination by 31%. When considering international visitors who include a remote destination, the mean number of stopovers increases from 4.14 to 11.2. The findings suggest that whilst international tourists are willing to include a number of destinations within their holiday, a higher number of stopovers increases the likelihood of a remote destination being included. Differences exist between travel parties, with all travel groups which exclude children, except business associates, having a higher number of stopovers, which suggests that children may act as a constraint (Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009; Nicolau 2010). When considering travel party groups in the remote tourist segment, unaccompanied travellers' mean number of stopovers is above average at 13, whilst adult couples is slightly below at 10.

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The lower mean average of 4.14 for the total sample may reflect international tourists only visiting major cities. Whilst these findings are statistically significant, it must be noted that only a small percentage of the sample, 16.7%, actually includes a remote destination. Therefore consideration needs to be given to developing strategies that not only increase the number of stopovers but also include at least one remote destination within them.

An increased number of stopovers may reflect increased motivation to participate in a range of activities (Hwang & Fesenmaier 2003). Whilst the hypotheses for activities were not supported, this occurred as not all activities within the Tourism Australia category positively influenced the decision to travel to a remote destination. These findings highlight that segmenting groups based only on a category of activities may be ineffective. In addition to the two Aboriginal activities, seven other activities within the logistic regression model were found to be statistically significant increasing the likelihood of an international tourist to travel to a remote destination. These activities were participating in a guided tour or excursion, whale/dolphin watching, other outdoor activities, snorkelling, visiting a national/state park, fishing, and visiting the Outback. Whilst these activities are often associated with remote destinations, they are also available outside of remote areas. For example, not all tourists who participated in the Outback as an activity had travelled to a remote destination. This occurs as the term Outback is used by all Australian states to describe a range of areas from desert to the tropics (Carson & Taylor 2009). A number of day tours available from cities such as Sydney, for example the Blue Mountains, visit outback areas (Carson & Taylor 2009). As perceived authenticity can be linked to the relationship between the attraction and the

place in which it is located (Beverland 2006), future research in customer-based brand equity may consider this in relation to Aboriginal tourism enterprises in remote Australia. Consideration to brand associations between place and experience is suggested in addition to the perceived impact on quality, value and loyalty.

However, for the purpose of this discussion, consideration will simply be given to the activities identified as increasing the likelihood of international tourists travelling to a remote destination. Figure 4-6 illustrates participation in the activities that increase the probability of international tourists visiting remote destinations. The data consider only remote tourists and reflect on the percentages of tourists falling within the unaccompanied traveller or adult couple segments only. The graph highlights that with the exception of visiting national parks, unaccompanied travellers are more likely to participate in the activities although the differences are minimal.
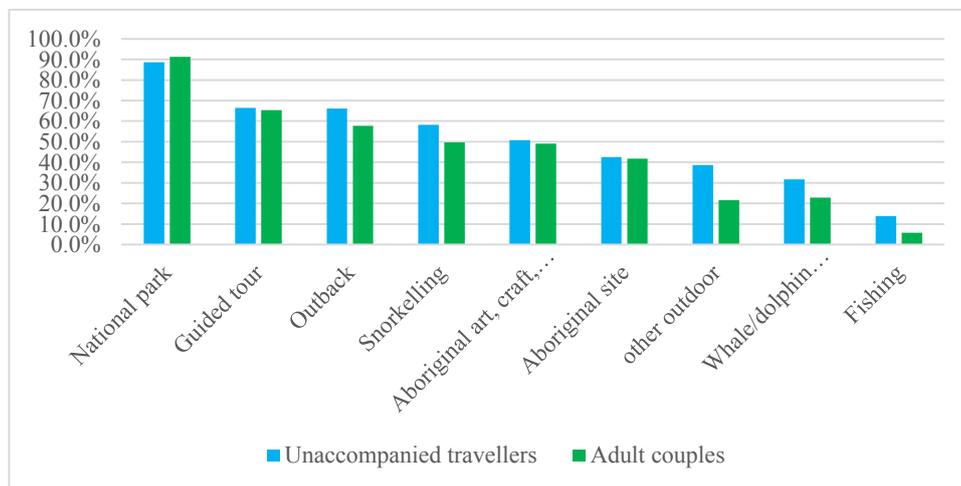
Figure 4-6 Travel party participation in activities which increase the likelihood of international visitors travelling to a remote destination

As identified earlier, age has been identified as impacting on the preference for activities (Chang 2006; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Kutzner, Wright & Stark 2009; Lynch, M et al. 2011; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000). Table 4-9 presents data relating to the influence of age on participation in activities which increase the probability of visiting a remote destination within the remote tourist segment. Visiting national parks was the most popular activity in all age groups in the remote tourist segment, with no clear differences in participation rates. Whilst guided tours were the second most popular activity, greater levels of participation occurred in the 20-29 year category and in that of the 65-74 range. As guided tours remove the need for international tourists to decide which sites to visit when time is limited and provide a safe way to visit a new destination (Zillinger, Jonasson & Adolfsson 2012), the findings may reflect that international visitors aged 30-49 may prefer to travel independently. However, it must be noted that over half of the international tourists in these age groups participated in a guided tour.

Table 4-9 Participation of remote tourists separated by profile age groups

Activity	Age 20-29	Activity	Age 30-49	Activity	Age 65-74
National parks	90.0%	National parks	89.8%	National parks	87.2%
Guided tour	68.1%	Guided tour	60.2%	Guided tour	65.7%
Snorkelling	65.6%	Outback	57.3%	Outback	56.4%
Outback	61.6%	Snorkelling	45.9%	Aboriginal art/craft	50.7%
Aboriginal art/craft	50.0%	Aboriginal art/craft	45.2%	Aboriginal site	38.7%
Aboriginal site	42.8%	Aboriginal site	39.0%	Snorkelling	25.0%
Other outdoor activities	40.3%	Whale watching	25.7%	Whale watching	11.9%
Whale watching	31.8%	Other outdoor activities	22.8%	Other outdoor activities	9.0%
Fishing	12.5%	Fishing	7.5%	Fishing	4.3%

Reflective of alternative research into Aboriginal tourism overseas (Lynch, M-F et al. 2011), the model identified that older tourists sought activities which

involved less physical activity. Older tourists were less likely to participate in snorkelling, whale watching, fishing and other outdoor activities. This was particularly reflected in the percentage of respondents participating in other outdoor activities, decreasing from 40.3% in the 20-29 age groups to 9% in the 65-74 category. Similarly, whilst remote tourists aged 65-74 were most likely to participate in Aboriginal art, craft or cultural galleries, they were least likely to visit an Aboriginal site or community. This suggests that when developing products, the potential impact of age on the ability to undertake activities is required. For example, cultural tours which incorporate physical activities such as walking or hiking may need to consider issues relating to the level of activity, levels of accessibility and aspects related to comfort such as rest periods provided throughout the activity. Developing a number of different tours to accommodate these different ages and activity levels may increase the size of the potential target market, resulting in greater sustainability and profit for the enterprise.
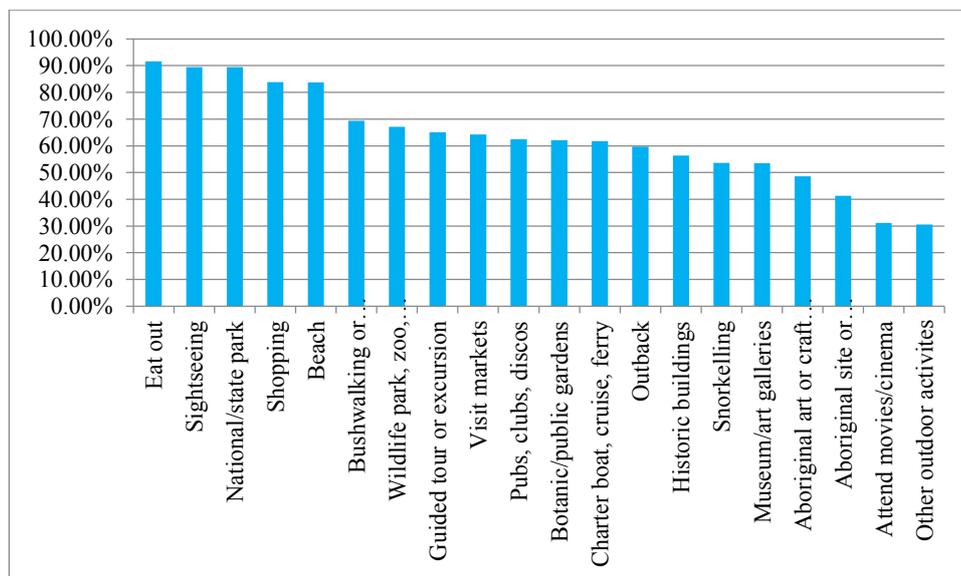
Figure 4-7 Top 20 activities for remote international tourists

Brand awareness is the first dimension of brand knowledge and is concerned with the ability of an international tourist to recall the brand when considering a product category (Keller, 1993). Seven of the activities which increased the likelihood of travelling to a remote destination were also identified in the remote tourist segments Top 20 activities (Figure 4-7). Only whale/dolphin watching and fishing did not fall in the top 20 activities. Whilst these activities may be currently offered by remote Aboriginal operators, future research may investigate if international tourists are aware of this. Furthermore, for development strategies in relation to these products to be successful, future research needs to consider if the brand image of Aboriginal tourism is associated with these activities. Additionally, as these products are also offered by non-Aboriginal operators, consideration to how Aboriginal operators may differentiate the products to create a competitive advantage may be beneficial (Ryan & Huyton 2002). Future research may assess whether international tourists perceive an increase in the value gained by undertaking these activities with an Aboriginal operator compared to non-Aboriginal operators.

The third proposition considered that the time available will impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination. Length of stay (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2012), and packaged tours (Jin, He & Song 2012) were used as measures of time. A weak correlation was found between destination and length of stay with remote tourists staying 58.8 nights compared to 31.2 nights for the whole sample. Unaccompanied travellers within the remote tourist segment have the longest mean average lengths of stay, 96 nights, compared to adult couples, 29 nights. Similarly, within the logistic regression model, the result was statistically significant, although increasing the

number of nights stayed by one night increases the likelihood of going to a remote destination by .0002%, having limited practical significance.

The travel package variable considered international tourists who had packaged two or more of the elements of their holiday before arrival. A third of the whole sample and the remote tourist segment arrived on a travel package, and the logistic regression found that these tourists were 84% more likely to travel to a remote destination. Table 4-5 identified the elements that remote tourists included within their travel packages. The findings suggest that around a quarter of remote tourists pre-book internal airfares and all of their accommodation, a fifth pre-booked organised tours, and 17.7% sightseeing tours.

However, cross tabulating travel party and travel packages identified differences between groups with unaccompanied travellers, 13.4%, least likely to arrive on a travel package. 52% of adult couples pre-booked two or more elements indicating that unaccompanied travellers have greater flexibility in making decisions relating to their holidays after arrival. Indeed, the need to pre-package elements of the holiday may also reflect that adult couples within the remote tourist segment have shorter lengths of stay, 29 nights compared to 96 nights for unaccompanied travellers, yet still have a mean average of 10 stopovers. This suggests that developing marketing strategies for the two segments may be beneficial. Whilst strategies to increase brand awareness are required prior to arrival, opportunities to

pre-book are needed to maximise the market share of adult couples. Similarly, information relating to transportation and accommodation may be provided to reduce perceived constraints. However, as unaccompanied travellers are less likely to pre-book, promotional strategies within Australia need to build on the awareness campaigns and provide opportunities to book within Australia. Further research may consider sources of information used to enhance promotional strategies.

The fourth proposition considered the impact of destination familiarity on the decision to travel to a remote destination, with number of visits to Australia (Oppermann 1997) and Internet use used as independent variables. First time visitors to Australia had an increased likelihood of including a remote destination. Indeed destination loyalty to Australia appears to have a negative impact on the decision to include a remote destination. Overall 57.1% of the sample were visiting Australia for the first time, with the mean for the number of previous visits at 2.28. However, within the remote tourist segment, a greater proportion, 68%, were visiting for the first time, with the mean average for previous visits only 1.01. As the mean average falls within the remote segment, this suggests that brand awareness of remote destinations may increase as a result of the first visit. However, once a visit has been made to a remote destination, international tourists do not have a propensity to return. Future research may consider if visiting Australia increases the brand equity of remote destinations.

Travel party did not appear to significantly impact on the findings, although there is some suggestion that a higher proportion of family groups who have previously visited between 1-3 times have a higher likelihood of including a remote

destination. As previous research identified that activities are the link between motivation and destination choice (Moscardo et al. 1996), it may be considered that first time visitors travel to remote destinations to satisfy a particular motivator, for example visiting Uluru. However, once they have been there is no other motivation to return. Since 43% of the sample are repeat visitors to Australia, further research could focus on potential demand in repeat markets. Research could consider a number of issues such as why destination loyalty negatively impacts on the decision to include a remote destination and the potential to grow the family group market share. Findings from research could be utilised to develop brand equity strategies for repeat visitors.

The Internet enables international tourists to become familiar with Australia prior to arrival. Whilst 76.4% of the sample used the Internet to book one aspect of their holiday, only 31.5% of international tourists used the Internet to book two or more elements of their holiday. However, use of the Internet to book aspects of a holiday had no statistical significance on the decision to travel to a remote destination. The number of remote tourists who used the Internet was slightly higher at 79%, although this does not reflect a significant growth in usage.

However, the high levels of usage show the importance of the Internet when planning a holiday, and further consideration was given to differences in usage based on other socio-demographic and behavioural factors. Internet usage was considered both in searching for information and making bookings. Gender was found to have no statistical significance on Internet use. As may be expected Internet usage was consistently over 80% until age 55 were a gradual decline in use occurred. However,

usage was still over 50% until age 74 where it fell to 40%. Likewise, usage was consistent across all travel groups, and did not vary between activities undertaken or number of stopovers.

Table 4-5 highlights the use of the Internet by remote international tourists, with 82.2% making a booking online. Nearly 50% use the Internet to plan itineraries highlighting the importance of having an online presence. Whilst it appears the Internet is used to investigate transportation methods, not all international tourists book these aspects online suggesting they prefer to use other intermediaries such as travel agents. For example, 22.3% of remote tourists use the Internet to find details of internal flights, but only 14.6% book online and 38.5% look for information with only 24.7% booking online. Similarly, 31.1% find out about events/activities only 2.4% booking these online. Future research may consider the booking options available to international tourists when booking remote tourism activities and tourist preferences. Furthermore, consideration of how, or if, the Internet increases brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism enterprises may be favourable in developing marketing strategies.

The final proposition considered the influence of external factors relating to year and quarter of travel. It was suggested that the Global Financial Crisis would negatively impact on the decision to travel to a remote destination. However, the findings for 2009 were statistically significant with international tourists 15% more likely to travel to a remote destination. However, the results for 2010 were not statistically significant. This suggests that other factors may be influencing the decision to travel to a remote destination, for example, the advertising campaign

linked to the international film *Australia* occurred in 2008. Additionally, future research may wish to consider how budget acts as a constraint, for example, how it impacts at different stages of the decision process.

4.4 Summary of findings

This section provides a summary of findings from this phase of the study. Overall the findings highlight that only 16% of international tourists include a remote destination, suggesting strategies may need to be developed to increase the market share.

4.4.1 Theoretical implications

1) Overall, the findings from this exploratory study support earlier research (Lynch, M et al. 2011; McKercher 2002; McKercher & Du Cros 2003; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008) highlighting that segmenting tourists based on participation in one activity may produce inaccurate levels of demand. The findings identify that defining target segments based upon participation in any Aboriginal activity may be insufficient for Remote Aboriginal enterprises. International tourists who participate in visiting an Aboriginal community or art, craft or cultural gallery have an increased propensity of travelling to a remote destination; participating in observing an Aboriginal dance performance increases the likelihood that the tourist will be classified as an urban tourist.

2) Utilising International Visitor Survey, recalibrated to identify remote and urban stopovers, the study was able to consider profiles of tourists who visit remote destinations. Table 4-8 summarises three profiles based on travel party composition.

Figure 4-8 Summary of some key aspects of profiles for target segments to remote Australia

	Unaccompanied travellers	Adult Couple	Retirees
Dominant Gender	Both	Both	Both
Age profile	20-29	30-49	65-74
Stopovers	13	10	10
Ranked activities that increase the probability of travelling to a remote destination: highest to lowest participation rates	National parks Guided tour Snorkelling Outback Aboriginal art/craft Aboriginal site Other outdoor activities Whale Fishing	National parks Guided tour Outback Snorkelling Aboriginal art/craft Aboriginal site Whale Other outdoor activities Fishing	National parks Guided tour Outback Aboriginal art/craft Aboriginal site Snorkelling Whale Other outdoor activities Fishing
Length of stay(nights)	96	29	29
Travel packages	Limited use	Higher levels of use	Higher levels of use
Number of previous visits	First time visitors	First time visitors	First time visitors
Internet usage	High levels for information searches/lower levels for booking	High levels for information searches/lower levels for booking	High levels for information searches/lower levels for booking

4.4.2 **Practical implications**

1) Tremblay and Pitterle (2008) suggested that participation in Aboriginal tourism was opportunity driven, with these findings providing opportunities for remote operators to target segments whose primary motivation to travel to remote destinations may not be cultural. Furthermore, developing these mainstream products with a cultural element may enable remote Aboriginal operators to develop a competitive advantage (Ryan & Huyton, 2002).

2) Differences between the identified target segments exist in relation to age, number of stopovers and trip pre-planning behaviour. An increased number of stopovers positively influences the probability an international tourist will visit a remote destination, with unaccompanied travellers having a higher number of stopovers compared to adult couples. However, consideration of methods to influence the number of stopovers is required, with activities considered a potential connection between motivation to travel and destination choice (Moscardo et al. 1996). Nine activities were identified that increased the probability of international tourists to travel to a remote destination.

Age impacted on participation rates of these identified activities, with older participants having less preference for activities including physical exertion. Conversely, unaccompanied travellers and retirees had a slightly higher propensity to participate in guided tours. This suggests remote Aboriginal operators may benefit from developing activities which target specific age groups.

3) Low levels of awareness have been cited as impacting on participation (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). The profiles identified in Table 4-8 based on travel party composition, highlight the need for separate promotional and distribution strategies. Whilst unaccompanied tourists may be targeted when they arrive in Australia, enterprises targeting adult couples need to consider increasing brand awareness prior to arrival, with opportunities to pre-book accommodation, transport and activities required.

4) As an alternative method of increasing brand awareness, strengthening links between remote Aboriginal tour operators and urban tourism stakeholders should not be under-estimated. The results highlight that all tourists visit at least one urban destination during their visit to Australia, and remote operators may consider how they could target these tourists before or after arrival to influence their destination choice decisions. One method may be to target tourists at urban experiences which increases the probability of tourists of visiting remote destinations. The research identifies that other activities are included in the remote tourists' top 20, which may assist remote Aboriginal operators in decisions relating to relationship building with urban enterprises. An example of this would be to develop relationships with Aboriginal art, craft or cultural displays available in urban areas such as museums or art galleries. Alternatively, the findings highlight the more general activities in which remote tourists participate during their holiday, with venues such as shopping outlets potential places for promotional strategies to increase brand awareness.

5) As adult couples and retirees had a greater preference for arriving on travel packages, further consideration to developing strategies that increase brand awareness of opportunities to package Aboriginal tourism activities with other aspects of their holiday may assist in converting interest into bookings. Similarly, remote Aboriginal operators may benefit from considering how to convert the large number of visitors within the unaccompanied segment who visit Australia without pre-booking tours. The Internet is commonly cited as a method to increase brand awareness with usage similar across all profiles. However, high levels of use for information searches and lower levels for booking were identified. These findings

highlight the importance of maintaining relationships with third party intermediaries who may be used by international tourists to book excursions.

4.4.3 Directions for future research

4.4.3.1 Directions for future research within this study

Table 4-9 identifies a number of themes which will be further investigated in the following chapters. The themes are categorised based on brand equity dimensions used in previous studies. As this study did not directly investigate these dimensions, the next stage of research will consider the suitability of these dimensions in an Aboriginal tourism context.

Figure 4-9 Emerging themes and research questions

Emerging themes	Research questions
Brand awareness	What tourism product categories are international tourists aware are offered by Aboriginal operators?
	Does the Internet increase brand awareness of remote Aboriginal tourism enterprises?
Brand associations	What product categories do international tourists associate with Aboriginal tourism?
	Do international tourists associate remote destinations with Aboriginal tourism?
Brand quality	How does the location of an Aboriginal tourism enterprise impact on the perceived authenticity of the experience?
	How does the perceived authenticity of an Aboriginal tourism experience impact on perceived quality?
Brand value	How does the perceived authenticity of an Aboriginal tourism experience impact on perceived value?
	Do international tourists perceive an increase in the value of undertaking Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination?
Brand loyalty	How do prior visits to Australia impact on the brand equity of Aboriginal tourism enterprises in a remote destination?

4.4.3.2 Directions for future research outside the context of this study

1) Future research may consider alternative methods of profiling remote international tourist groups. Potential opportunities exist to group tourists based on

participation in Aboriginal tourism activities or to undertake cluster analysis to segment based on activities as a whole.

2) With regards to the categorisation of activities, the study identified that the descriptions may be considered too broad to provide information for strategic decision-making. For example, activities such as the 'Visit the Outback' or 'Visit National Parks or State Parks' are general in their description and do not describe the activities tourists undertake there, for example, hiking, guided tours, bird spotting. Developing a further understanding of the activities in which international tourists participate, could enable a more accurate profile of tourist segments to be developed which may enable remote Aboriginal operators to make more effective marketing decisions.

3) Whilst the data collected are separated into quarters, other than identifying entry patterns into Australia, the findings suggest this method of categorisation has limited benefit to strategic decision-making. As remote Australia is diverse in relation to landscapes, levels of accessibility, and climatic influences, future research may consider if these findings differ between geographic locations. This would require the data to be recalibrated to remote regions, for example tropical areas, to identify the impact of seasons.

4) Future research may seek to further understand how international tourists use the Internet in relation to their information searches, with consideration as to how these findings may be used to increase the propensity to book experiences online.

5) Finally, future research may consider why repeat visitors to Australia have a reduced propensity to include a remote destination.

4.5 **Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the findings from the analysis of recalibrated International Visitor Survey data which were used to identify tourist characteristics and increased the likelihood of an international tourist including a remote destination. The findings were presented using descriptive, bivariate and multivariate analyses of recalibrated International Visitor survey data. The discussion compared the findings to answer Research Question 1 and developed three profiles of potential target segments for remote Australia. The theoretical and practical implications of this analysis and discussion were identified. The chapter concluded with directions for future research. Limitations to the study will be considered in Chapter 7. The following chapter presents the findings from Phase 2 of the research design.

Chapter 5: Results of the convergent interviews

5.1 Introduction

Following the previous chapter which presented the findings from recalibrated International Visitor Survey data and answered Research Question 1, this chapter presents the findings and analysis from Phase 2 of the research project. The purpose of this stage was to gain an understanding of consumer-based brand equity in an Aboriginal tourism context. The chapter presents the findings using the seven themed initial questions as a heading. A summary of these questions is shown below in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1 Interview questions for Phase 2 of the research project

Interview question 1	How can international tourists who travel to remote Australia and participate in Aboriginal tourism be defined?
Interview question 2	What are the levels of awareness of international tourists of Aboriginal tourism experiences? How is awareness created?
Interview question 3	What associations do international tourists hold about Aboriginal tourism experiences?
Interview question 4	How do international tourists assess the quality of Aboriginal tourism experiences?
Interview question 5	How do international tourists measure the value gained from Aboriginal tourism experiences?
Interview question 6	How does loyalty impact on the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences?
Interview question 7	How does the destination impact on the decision to participate in remote Aboriginal tourism experiences?

Supportive of the realism paradigm which provided the overall framework for this study, the analysis of the interviews was ongoing, using the convergent interview process, and this is reflected in the discussion which considers the findings alongside some literature. However, a more detailed discussion is undertaken in the final chapter. This chapter concludes with some emerging themes and questions which are summarised in Table 5-2.

5.2 Defining international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences

Previous research into Aboriginal tourism has sought to identify tourists based on a range of geographic, socio-demographic and psychographic factors (eg. Kutzner & Wright 2010; Kutzner, Wright & Stark 2009; Lynch, M et al. 2010, 2011; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002). Therefore, the opening questions in each interview sought to identify ways in which international tourists who participate in the Aboriginal experiences could be defined. When answering the question, only one respondent defined the group based on education, income and levels of awareness of issues other than tourist aspects of Aboriginal peoples (Interview 2). Whilst this method of segmentation is common in academic and business research, Interview 8 and the tour guides, who have more direct levels of interaction with international tourists, were able to define them more clearly based on geographic, demographic and psychographic variables.

Geographic segmentation of tourists was the first theme identified, with the general consensus amongst respondents considering international tourists had higher levels of interest in Aboriginal tourism experiences than domestic tourists. In 2011, the largest source countries of international tourists who participated in Aboriginal tourism activities were the United Kingdom (18%) and the United States (12%) (TRA 2011a). However, key markets also included China (9%) and Germany (8%), with the key markets showing the strongest growth from Asia (TRA 2011a). This was reflected in geographic visitor segments to museums with an interest in Aboriginal culture, with international tourists predominantly from a European, Canadian or North American background and the highest number of European

visitors from Germany, United Kingdom and France (Interview 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, SEC). Dutch visitors are also identified as a high visitor group (SEC, Interview 4).

Tour guides also highlighted that Asian tourists participated on the tour, with Interview 4 underlining that many of the Asian tourists are studying in Adelaide, and have less prior knowledge of Aboriginal culture before visiting the museums. Nationality appeared to impact on participation in the tour with interviews noting that Asian tourists, tended to be more 'passive' observing rather than asking questions (Interview 3,4,5,SEC). For many international tourists whilst there is interest to learn more about Aboriginal culture, language was considered to be a barrier (Interview 3,4,5,SEC).

Socio-demographic variables of age and travel party were used to describe tourists who were interested in Aboriginal cultural experiences. The respondents differentiated travel party groups based on the length of stay and fluidity of travel, with backpackers categorised as single young travellers who may travel alone or in groups (Interview 1, 3, 4, 6, SEC). The dominant travel groups identified in the interviews who attended the AACG were couples in their mid-twenties to mid-thirties or those who are semi-retired or retired (Interview 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, SEC). The dominant travel party who participated in tours travelled as part of a couple or alone with fewer families attending (Interview 3,5,6,SEC).

Whilst motivation to participate was not a direct question, respondents referred to this when defining the segment. The majority of respondents considered that tourists had heard of the ACCG before attending.

'And pretty much all of them either have an interest in the Aboriginal gallery or specifically ask me "Are we going to do the Aboriginal Gallery?"' (Interview 3).

Age also appeared to influence the motivation to participate (Interview 3, 4, 5). For example, Interview 4 differentiates between the older Europeans who are purposefully attending the tour due to prior knowledge gained (*'they've heard about our history and because they've heard how Australia's treated their Indigenous'*) compared to other groups, such as Asian students, who hear the tour announced and decide to join. Additionally, younger tourists were considered to be travelling to gain experience before they move onto the next stage of their life (Interview 3, 4, 5, SEC).

Nationality may impact on depth of motivation and the depth of experience gained:

'And they both come with different types of aspects of what they're looking for. I think the Japanese, or the Asians and those ethnic backgrounds tend to come in to see. Because I think they're already aware that their language issue – so they don't really, they kind of just stand there and listen. You don't get that much of a feedback from them. Whereas with the Europeans, they tend to have already done a little bit of research and they've got questions' (Interview 4).

However, Interview 3 considered that personal motivation may not be impacted so much by nationality or age, but by personal interest, with some tourists having a deep interest in indigenous countries around the world. Finally, it was observed that Americans and Canadians appear to have a deeper understanding of

International Aboriginal culture, based on their own personal experiences within their countries (Interview 3, 5, 6, SEC).

5.3 What are the levels of awareness of international tourists of Aboriginal tourism experiences?

Brand awareness enables international tourists to recall Aboriginal tourism when a product category is considered, increasing the likelihood of the product being included within the consideration set (Keller 1993; Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Previous studies into demand for Aboriginal tourism within Australia have used measures based on recall or recognition, identifying that low levels of awareness of Aboriginal activities exist (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). However, in this study a more complex picture of brand awareness emerged. Whilst levels of recall or recognition may exist within international tourist groups, the product categories they are connected to are limited.

The majority, eight out of ten, of respondents believed that when people contemplate Australia as a destination they are aware of Aboriginal peoples. However, a general consensus amongst respondents was that whilst international tourists are aware of Aboriginal culture, as a concept they do not understand what it means:

'I think there's an awareness that they need to see it. I don't know that there's really an awareness of what it is, exactly. I think you know they've come to Australia; they need to do the Aboriginal culture…..I think they are interested to know more, and I think they don't know what they need to know' (Interview 5).

The complexity of brand awareness relating to Aboriginal tourism was further discussed with respondents considering that there was limited awareness of contemporary Aboriginal culture. The interviews identified that international tourists commonly perceived the brand from a historical or traditional perspective (Interview 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, SEC).

'Some of them do the ones that are aware that some of the groups still exist and some of the languages and traditional ways of life are still there, some of them who are aware of that, they know that it's a living culture. Some others are surprised to know that they still exist, they – a lot, some do think, maybe a lot of them do think they disappeared a long time ago' (Interview 3).

Other international tourists were considered to have brand awareness that was associated with stereotypical images but may not be related to actual products that are available (Interview 3, 6, SEC).

'They've seen pictures of an aboriginal standing on one leg with a spear, that they throw, and a lot of them think, they're still living that lifestyle' (Interview 6).

When reflecting on the reasons international tourists may perceive brand awareness from a historical rather than a contemporary context, respondents highlighted the transition to urban areas, possibly reflecting that international tourists lack an understanding of contemporary Aboriginal culture.

'They now know that the Aborigines have kind of grown out of their natural heritage and they live in suburbia. So it, to them the culture has died because they've become urbanized' (Interview 4).

High levels of brand awareness connected to historical products may increase the overall consumer based brand equity of Aboriginal cultural galleries and

museums. However, Aboriginal operators who offer diverse products such as tours in National Parks or accommodation (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010), may find that their brand is not recalled when international tourists consider these product categories. Whilst Aboriginal products may be associated with historical contexts, future research may seek to understand how a more contemporary perspective of Aboriginal tourism can be developed.

This lack of knowledge relating to Aboriginal culture was further highlighted with a tour guide commenting that international tourists are more likely to ask questions relating to population numbers and areas of residency. The guide considered that lack of brand awareness was reflected by international tourists asking if they could visit a specific area to see Aboriginal people:

'It's almost like, I don't know, this is going to sounds terrible-It's like a zoo. So there's a fixed place that somehow is magically cordoned off and there's Aborigines there' (Interview 3).

This comment may reflect international tourists' lack of brand awareness of products available, with a perception that Aboriginal cultural experiences will be provided in a 'staged environment'. Awareness of staged environments may be influenced by overseas experiences:

'because you see over in America they've got all those reservations that they go to. They don't get that sort of information here because we don't' (Interview 4).

This suggests that brand awareness of products available may be influenced by Aboriginal experiences participated in overseas. Aaker (1996) considered measures for brand awareness may differ between products and markets. To include

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Aboriginal tourism in their information search, international tourists need to understand what the brand stands for (Aaker, D 1991, 1996b). Phase 1 of the study identified a number of activities which increased the likelihood of international tourists travelling to a remote destination. These present potential opportunities for product or market development strategies, and are already reflected in the diversified product range offered within the Aboriginal tourism sector (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010). However, the interviews suggest that international tourists may be unsure of this, linking activities to specific experiences based on history, tradition or staged events rather than contemporary Aboriginal culture. Therefore, these findings would suggest that when identifying brands to fit within a range of product categories, for example, outdoor activities such as fishing, Aboriginal tourism may not be recalled as a brand linked to the activity. These initial findings suggest that brand salience of international tourists is low, particularly, in relation to the breadth of awareness.

Keller (1993) identified the importance of understanding how the brand awareness node is developed, as this may influence the associations connected to it. Overall, the sources of awareness appeared to impact on overall brand equity measured by intention to participate. However, the impact could be positive or negative depending upon the source used and associations created. Initial sources of brand awareness were seen to be as a result of tourism marketing activities such as websites and social media, Google and YouTube (Interview 1, 2). Another traditional source of increasing brand awareness was discussed in interviews with respondents highlighting the use of 'word of mouth' publicity (Interview 1, 6). An example was provided of a Swedish couple who visited the AACG and told the guide:

'Well, we've heard it's the best one, for Aboriginal artefacts' (Interview 6).

Confirming previous research findings which identified the promotion role undertaken by volunteers in the tourism industry (Smith & Holmes 2012), museum staff, paid and volunteers, were another source of word of mouth communication, with respondents reflecting that international tourists often asked them where they could participate in other Aboriginal activities (SEC, interview 3, 4, 5). Additionally, this supports previous research which identified that volunteers' have the ability to influence the behaviour of tourists (Hendricks, Ramthun & Chavez 2001).

The ability of volunteer tour guides to influence tourist behaviour has a significant impact on the South Australian museums objective of increasing awareness and participation in Aboriginal tourism activities throughout Australia. Whilst earlier research into visitor centres identified the importance of volunteers being knowledgeable as important to the centres success (Smith & Holmes 2012), it became apparent during the interviews, that the volunteers lacked awareness of Aboriginal tourism products and services available outside of Adelaide. These findings suggest that whilst word of mouth communication is used as a promotional tool within the museum, the actual benefits of using volunteer tour guides in this context is reduced by restricted by their lack of knowledge.

To overcome this, providing training opportunities to museum staff may increase both the tourist experience and demand for remote Aboriginal tourism products, in addition to strengthening the relationship between the museum and its volunteers, aiding retention and improving the overall customer experience (Holmes & Edwards 2008). Furthermore, these findings offer a new opportunity for remote

operators to increase awareness of their enterprises through the development of relationships with urban tourism stakeholders. However, as highlighted within this case study, alternative research into visitor centres (Smith & Holmes 2012), and museums (Holmes & Edwards 2008), the front of house roles are commonly undertaken by volunteers. To support this form of business development, consideration to those who decide on the training offered to volunteers is needed (Holmes et al. 2006).

Supportive of alternative research that considers volunteering to be an extension for leisure activities (Holmes et al. 2010), the interviews highlighted how tour guides go beyond their operational roles (Smith & Holmes 2009). Interviewees discussed how they undertook research into Aboriginal culture in their own time, to extend their knowledge and provide a more meaningful experience to the tourists (Interview 3, 4, 5, 6, SEC). Nonetheless, this use of their own time may be considered a hidden cost which may result in a disagreeable obligation for the volunteer (Holmes et al. 2010). As a result, volunteers may expand their knowledge in areas of which they are interested, and may not consider researching Aboriginal tourism opportunities available, To overcome this, remote enterprises may provide opportunities for urban stakeholders to visit them, resulting in an increased awareness and knowledge, which may have a positive impact on the increased word of mouth communications to both domestic and international tourists.

Alternative sources of promotion included the news media, however, it was considered that these news reports generally increased awareness of negative social issues (Interview 1, Interview 4), resulting in international tourists generalising the

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reports to all Aboriginal communities creating a barrier to participation (Interview 1, Ruhanen et al., 2013). Additionally, political awareness appeared to have been gained by some international tourists through the 'Sorry Statement' issued by Prime Minister Rudd. However, it was considered that this apology reinforced brand awareness relating to the history of Aboriginal people (Interview 4).

Respondents considered the state and Australian Tourism brands did not necessarily increase brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism, as they did not accurately represent both the image of Australia and Aboriginal tourism experiences available (Interview 1, 2, 4, SEC). Respondents considered that Tourism Australia has difficulties in determining how to brand Aboriginal tourism properly (Interview 1, SEC), which may impact on Aboriginal operators' ability to develop a clear brand identity (Interview 1). In general, respondents thought that brand awareness of Australia amongst international tourists was still associated with kangaroos and koalas (Interview 1, 2, 3, 4, SEC). It was also considered that the Australian brand awareness focused on larger enterprises such as Uluru and this perhaps did not allow tourists to consider the variety of experiences offered (Interview 1, SEC).

Other sources of brand awareness for Aboriginal tourism included international airport shops which often sell Australian memorabilia with Aboriginal themes, such as art or boomerangs (Interview 3). It was also considered that the SA Museum increased brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism experiences (Interview 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) both as a direct result of international tourists visiting the museum or by seeing the exhibits when they are loaned to other museums (Interview 2, 7). Television

documentaries also increased awareness of the South Australian Museum leading one tourist to declare:

'If ever I get to Australia, that's the first place I want to go' (Interview 6).

These findings highlight that brand awareness relating to Aboriginal culture may be created from a variety of sources. Understanding the source of brand awareness is important when developing marketing strategies as the content and structure of the memory will influence the effectiveness of branding strategies (Keller, 1993). Further research could investigate the diverse sources that have increased brand awareness amongst international tourists and how these sources impact on the associations connected with the node. Additionally, future research may consider how employees within one tourism organisation may influence the decision of international tourists to participate in alternative Aboriginal tourism activities. Additionally, marketing strategies need to consider how to overcome negative associations which may be attached to brand awareness nodes created by news media sources, which may exclude Aboriginal tourism from the information search or consideration set. Furthermore, research may consider how negative brand awareness impacts on perceived quality and value of Aboriginal tourism experiences.

5.4 What associations do international tourists hold about Aboriginal tourism experiences?

Respondents were asked to identify any associations that international tourists made in relation to Aboriginal tourism. For the majority of international tourists, Aboriginal tourism is associated with art or artefacts (Interview 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, SEC). The majority of respondents considered the boomerang to have the highest level of

association with Aboriginal people although other artefacts such as spears, shields, the didgeridoo and the medicine man were also important. These artefacts or images are commonly used in promotional material either for Australia or Aboriginal tourism, and it may be considered that brand awareness through promotional tourist materials has created these associations. However, when discussing the questions which international tourists asked the tour guides, the topics identified related to social aspects of Aboriginal culture such as marriage, body paint markings, laws, bush medicine, food and clothing. Whilst this study cannot identify whether international tourists had these associations before visiting the museum, future research could consider this.

Inaccurate associations relating to artefacts were also highlighted during the interviews. These included the assumption that all Aboriginal peoples use boomerangs or didgeridoos (Interview 3, 4, 5, 6, SEC), or that Aboriginal art is simply dots and squiggles (Interview 3). This lack of knowledge may lead to tourists disregarding the product from the consideration set. Furthermore, inaccurate images may lead to dissatisfaction with the experience. For example, the didgeridoo is not associated with all Aboriginal peoples within Australia. Therefore, this instrument will not be included in all Aboriginal experiences, for example, by the Adnymathaha people in the Flinders Ranges. For international tourists who are expecting this when undertaking Aboriginal tourism experiences, this may result in poor perceptions of quality and reduced willingness to recommend the experience to others.

Whilst brand awareness was considered to be connected to a historical context, a lack of knowledge relating to Aboriginal peoples' history was also discussed.

Examples provided by tour guides related to a lack of awareness of their nomadic existence (Interview 4, 6) and origins (Interview 5). An example was provided by a guide who was showing a tour party the Tindale Map which defines the boundaries of Aboriginal Australia. An international tourist tried to identify the origin of Aboriginal people based on their clan name:

'And one lady said to me from a European country, "Oh, so is the Kaurna [pronounced Ghana], are they from Africa, from Ghana?"' (Interview 5).

Furthermore, it was considered that international tourists often consider Aboriginal peoples to be one culture, and are unaware of the important connections that they have with their traditional lands. This was considered to be particularly reflected in tourists from some European countries who may have limited experience of indigenous people in their home nations (Interview, 3, 4, 5, 6, SEC). Lack of brand knowledge relating to the different Aboriginal cultures within international tourist segments may result in a perception that there will be no differentiation between cultural products offered in different locations within Australia, resulting in tourists undertaking only one activity or participating only in urban locations.

Perhaps as a consequence of this lack of knowledge, respondents also identified that the majority of tourists do not understand the significance of sacred areas or the requirements for permits to visit certain areas (Interview 3, SEC). This may result in international visitors attempting to visit these areas and being unable to gain access, impacting negatively on their holiday experience. Additionally, they may not understand how they can visit these areas and this lack of knowledge may remove Aboriginal tourism activities in remote areas from the consideration set.

Seeking historical evidence that matched what they had seen overseas was also a common theme, with a respondent commenting that regardless of nationality, tourists have:

'a twisted idea of the culture' (Interview 4).

It became apparent that many international tourists were seeking evidence of Aboriginal culture using associations they had seen overseas, such as inventions, buildings, clothes, jewellery or other artefacts (Interview 4, 6, 7). Furthermore, nationality impacted on these associations, with North Americans and Canadians linking their associations to what they had learnt in their own countries about their own native Indians or Aboriginal peoples, whilst Europeans made connections to the Romans or Greeks (Interview 3, 4, 7). This may result in tourists seeking attributes within Aboriginal tourism experiences which do not exist.

'(they) trudge through all the ruins, civilisation and different continents and then come to Australia – and what are they looking for?' (Interview 7).

Similarly, respondents identified that for many international tourists they may see an inconsistency between their expectations of an Aboriginal tourism experience and the contemporary experiences they may undertake:

'I don't know, whether they're looking for Aboriginal culture, as it is now, I suspect, very few people are actually looking for contemporary Aboriginal experience. They do know that the Aboriginal people were here for a very long time and they're probably looking for evidence of that' (Interview 7.

This theme was endorsed by other respondents who considered that for many international tourists they still associate Aboriginal people with the traditional

pictures they have seen (Interview 6), and would expect to see them living in traditional ways if they were to travel to remote destinations (Interview 3, 5, 4,6). However, nationality again played a role in these associations:

'To them, to the Europeans I guess the cultures come across as being much more exotic, whereas the Americans and Canadians don't talk of them in that sense' (Interview 3).

However, respondents also considered that for many tourists the Aboriginal culture is no longer perceived to exist (Interview 3, 4, SEC), with international tourists being surprised to find that remote Aboriginal communities exist (Interview 3, SEC).

When people travel, they bring with them previous experiences, motivations, preconceptions and attitudes gained in previous holidays (Stylianou-Lambert 2011). Additionally, experiential loyalty to activities may also exist (McKercher & Guillet 2011; Pearce & Kang 2009) resulting in international tourists seeking similar activities in new destinations. These preliminary findings suggest that the associations international tourists hold in relation to Aboriginal tourism may be incorrect or incomplete, and they substitute associations gained overseas to overcome their lack of knowledge. Using previous experiences may also impact on the information search, with tourists seeking information relating to associations that do not exist within Aboriginal tourism in Australia. This results in no products being found. Consequently, future research may consider how previous experiences positively or negatively impact on participation in Aboriginal tourism activities in

Australia. Additionally, greater consideration to the associations international tourists have may benefit decisions relating to positioning strategies.

5.5 How do international tourists assess the quality of Aboriginal tourism experiences?

International tourists measure quality by comparing their perception of the type of experience they are going to have compared to what is delivered (Interview 1, Aaker, 1991). However, previous consumer based brand equity research has identified that brand image precedes perceived quality (Gallarza, M & Gil Saura 2006; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011). International tourists appear to lack brand knowledge relating to associations with Aboriginal tourism, with overseas experiences used to complete gaps (Interview 4, 6). As previous experience with similar products are used to make quality assessments prior to purchase (Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011), this may impact on tourists' perceptions of the quality of the experience.

A number of measures of quality were identified within the interviews which supported earlier studies such as environment and safety (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011), quality of experiences (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Lassar, Mittal & Sharma 1995), and employees' attitudes and physical facilities (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Kim, W, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008). Tangible assets such as artefacts and rock art were considered to add to the perceived quality of the experience (Interview 1, 3, SEC). The size of the AACG surpasses international tourists' expectations, with the range of artefacts assisting them to understand the 'richness' of the Aboriginal

culture (Interview 3). Facilities that support the artefacts on display such as videos and static pictures are preferred by tourists to reading information (SEC, Interview 3, Interview 5), as it helps them to 'conceptualise what they are seeing' (Interview 5). Age impacted on preference for resources with younger tourists reading all the information and using interactive technology (SEC, Interview 3). However, it was highlighted that occasionally the noise from different videos playing simultaneously can impact on the experience that tourists receive (Interview 5).

Rather than focusing on simply tangible assets, a respondent noted that international tourist assessments consider:

'explanations, authenticity and I think it's the person putting on the show' (Interview 4).

Reflective of alternative research (Smith & Holmes 2012), tour guides enhance the quality of the experience by increasing international tourists' knowledge and understanding (Interview 2, 3, 4, 5, 6). However, this study highlighted the importance that other front of house staff have in providing a quality experience to visitors. As tours are only available once a day, international tourists are reliant on other staff within the museum to enhance the quality of their learning experience. When defining their roles the security team considers talking to visitors and providing information, relating to the museum and other destination experiences, to be an important part of their informal role. The team is so committed to this informal role that they improve their own knowledge in their spare time, share information with each other, or ask tour guides

'So we know next time if we don't know it at the time' (SEC).

As this security team is comprised of external contractors to the museum, their behaviour to some extent is reflective of the volunteers who also expand their knowledge in their own time. During discussions they all exhibited an interest in history and culture outside of their working lives. In fact, two of the three security team members interviewed had also volunteered as tour guides in the museum. Whilst research has identified the need to consider how volunteers go beyond their operational duties (Smith & Holmes 2009), future research may consider how contracted employees in tourism enterprises go beyond their operational roles, and may undertake some of the roles of volunteers. Furthermore, as identified within section 5.3, extending training opportunities to other stakeholders not directly employed by the museum would also be beneficial.

Whilst the security team considered they were undertaking a different, less formal role to the tour guides, they acknowledged that international tourists were often surprised at their depth of knowledge. They considered they increased the quality of the service received by tourists as personal interaction may remove barriers for visitors who have difficulty reading information (SEC). Additionally, language barriers also decreased with one guard interacting with tourists in French, Italian or Spanish (SEC). As the museum does not provide any written or tape recorded guides, these additional services may indeed enhance the quality of the experience. International tourists also use the team to gain information relating to their future plans, seeking advice on issues such as the weather, clothing or experiences to undertake when visiting remote destinations (SEC), which may be considered services provided by visitor information centres (Smith & Holmes 2012).

Whilst these findings are specific to the museum, they also highlight sources of information that international tourists need when considering travelling to a remote destination. Previous research has identified lack of knowledge relating to experiences available (Carson & Taylor 2009), combined with perception of time and value gained (Decrop 2010) act as a constraint. Additionally, Buultjens et al. (2011) identified other constraints such as perceptions relating to extreme weather, and logistical and safety issues which may be increased due to language barriers. As a result, Aboriginal operators may benefit from providing information on these issues within their promotional material to prevent them acting as constraints within the decision making process.

The authenticity of Aboriginal experiences was considered, with three subthemes identified: artefacts, tour guides and the experience itself. Tangible assets add to the authenticity of the experience with tourists asking if the artefacts exhibited within the museum were *'real'* (Interview 3, SEC). Touching and using artefacts also enhance learning and perceived authenticity of the experience (Interview 4, 5). An Aboriginal tour guide was considered to increase the authenticity of the experience (Interview1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7), bringing the experience 'to life' or making 'it more real' (Interview 2). Respondents believed that international, rather than domestic, tourists may expect Aboriginal tour guides (Interview 1, 2, 3, 4, 7) with the expectation increasing if tourists had travelled to remote destinations (Interview 1, 4). However, respondents highlighted that having an Aboriginal person as a guide may not increase the authenticity of the knowledge provided, with Aboriginal people employed to provide AACG tours still required to learn the knowledge of the other Aboriginal groups (Interview 2, 6). Employees considered the quality of the tour

experience could be improved by receiving training from Aboriginal people (SEC, Interview 1, 3, 4, 5, 6). One guide justified this belief by explaining:

'It's important that we get the right story across to our tourists. And it's important that we leave those tourists with that I want to know more' (Interview 6).

However, another respondent considered that non-aboriginal tour guides may find:

'it's a very tricky business, to relay an impressionable culture and respect for people in that culture at the same time' (Interview 7).

Authenticity of the experience may be important with some international tourists perceiving Aboriginal culture as 'unique' (Interview 5) or 'exotic' (Interview 3). Alternatively, respondents also highlighted that many international tourists do not expect to see these stereotypical images:

'I don't think they really expect to go out in the bush and see somebody running around, hunting kangaroos anymore' (Interview 6).

However, the complexity of these images was highlighted in a story of a Dutch tourist who had been to Alice Springs and was complaining about an Aboriginal performance she had been to: *'They didn't even look like they were traditional. So that upset her'.* The tourist had attempted to define if they were authentic based on their size and their perceived westernised behaviour (Interview 4). When asked how the experience could be more authentic the respondent replied: *'with traditional foods being served and perhaps make the dances look a little bit more traditional'.* This type of staged authenticity was reflected in earlier discussion of brand awareness.

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However, half of the respondents provided examples of authentic experiences based on actual engagement in activities:

'being able to see that basket weaving. So, to me that makes it authentic, when you can see them doing what they did. Then –participating brings it back to the modern age, but you're learning the skills that they have' (Interview 4).

Previous research has identified that 'not being authentic' acts as a barrier to participation in Aboriginal tourism (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). Aboriginal operators consider authenticity to be found by interacting with Aboriginal people, telling culturally appropriate stories or engaging with nature (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). Whilst the majority of tourists seek an authentic experience, many do not know how to find it (McIntosh 2004), with assessments of the level of authenticity at an Aboriginal attraction measured against stereotypical images seen prior to the visit (Yang & Wall 2009). This study has identified that measures for authenticity from an international tourist's perspective may be measured by the artefacts, engagement with an Aboriginal person, perceived accuracy of knowledge/stories told, staged traditional experiences or engagement in activities. However, future studies may also consider how stereotypical images of Aboriginal peoples used in marketing materials (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003a; Pomering & White 2011) may impact on the perceived authenticity.

5.6 How do international tourists measure the value gained from Aboriginal tourism experiences?

A multi-dimensional scale adapted from Williams and Soutars' (2009) framework was used to analyse the responses to the questions relating to how international tourists assess value. As the museum and tours are normally free, this

question was open to enable respondents to answer in relation to the museum or any Aboriginal tourism experience. The majority of respondents referred to epistemic or social value, particularly if they were referring to their roles. However functional and emotional values were also considered. As these findings were from the perspective of the stakeholder, future studies need to compare these to the results of international tourists to highlight the similarities or differences.

Understanding international tourists' perception of functional value is important as it reflects their willingness to pay. Functional value is commonly associated with the, 'the consumers' overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the perceptions of what is received and what is given' (Zeithaml 1988, p. 14). This functional value was highlighted by respondents with consideration given to international tourists who, 'want the best for the least money' (Interview 7).

An insight into the relationship of functional value with other dimensions of brand equity was identified. Generally, respondents perceived tourists will gain greater utility from an authentic experience, reflecting the perception of Aboriginal operators in earlier research (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). However, an example was provided relating to the museum employing Aboriginal tour guides to provide a more 'authentic' experience. Whilst entry to the museum and tours are normally free, the tours with the Aboriginal guides had an associated fee. However, this initiative did not work with one respondent considering it failed:

'because people wouldn't pay to go in. Because this has always been a free gallery here and I think they got their backs up' (Interview 6).

Whilst this example suggests that tourists may not understand the associated benefits of having an Aboriginal tour guide, as with previous studies (Im et al. 2012; Tung & Ritchie 2011), another respondent reflected that for some international tourists if they perceive the activity to be, 'a once in a lifetime experience' because it is 'so rich and genuine and unique' then the actual monetary cost is not as important (Interview 2) This may occur when international tourists visit dream destinations (Gao & Zhang 2009) where memorable experiences can be created by international tourists when they access to local culture (Kim, J, Ritchie & Tung 2010).

Whilst these once in a lifetime experiences, are considered epistemic value, other themes relating to increasing curiosity, providing novelty or satisfying a tourist's desire for new knowledge were identified. The majority of responses linked to this dimension related to increasing knowledge, although this could reflect the objectives of the museum. As the museum also has a Biodiversity gallery which focuses on the diverse Australian landscapes, examples were provided of increasing tourists' knowledge of remote areas in addition to Aboriginal culture. As one guide explained:

'because they came to Australia and they want to know about Australia and want to know about the Australian Aborigines' (Interview 3).

Increased levels of curiosity were identified with respondents remarking that after visiting the AACG, international tourists sought other experiences to undertake (SEC, Interview 3, 5, 6). Aboriginal culture was also identified as providing novelty (Interview 3, 5), with one respondent commenting:

'I think they're looking for uniqueness, really because to most people it's all new,

pretty much' (Interview 5).

Europeans in particular are seeking the 'exotic' (Interview 3) with international tourists seeking out experiences that provide them with something unique that they can 'take away' (Interview 1).

As the third measure, emotional value relates to how tourists feel when they have undertaken the experience. Measures here relate to words such as enjoyment, excitement and interest. As these interviews were undertaken with stakeholders from the supply side, few comments related to this. Generally tour guides considered that after the tours, participants expressed they had enjoyed the tour through their thanks. When discussing the thanks they received respondents referred to how the participants reflected on the enjoyment they had had using words such as 'good' or 'wonderful' or 'interesting' (Interview 3, 4, 5, 6). However, Interview 3 noted that tourists who attend the tour and make nice comments could be 'just being polite'. In an attempt to measure genuine levels of interest and enjoyment, this respondent considered it may be measured based on if the participants remained on the whole tour or dropped off (Interview 3). This was an interesting perspective on trying to measure enjoyment levels, as the tour is free and therefore there is no functional cost associated with not continuing the tour.

Social interactions may add value to the tourist experience (Williams and Soutar, 2011). Whilst volunteer studies have identified that they are used to provide knowledge to tourists (Orr 2006; Smith & Holmes 2012), interviewees whose role involved direct contact with tourists considered that they added value, separate to simply increasing knowledge, as they enabled individuals to make connections to

their existing knowledge (SEC, Interview 3, 4, 5, 6). Examples provided included those relating to instruments and jewellery to show similarities between tourists and Aborigines (SEC), expanding understanding of Aboriginal dot art (Interview 5), and uses for spears (Interview 6). As previously discussed, it became apparent during the interviews that the associations international tourists had in relation to Aboriginal tourism may be limited, incorrect or incomplete, and they substitute associations gained overseas to overcome their lack of knowledge. In addition to assisting tourists to make connections between existing and new knowledge, interviewees considered that their role was valuable in aiding understanding of the culture, for example:

'I thought it was all just squiggles, and now you've told me it's a story' (Interview 5).

'Even, like they've seen a dot painting but they've just seen it, they don't know it, you know, in any way, and the medicine man, they're just seeing that but they don't know anything about it, so that it's all new and they like to know about it and they feel they've learnt – they feel they've got an understanding' (Interview 5).

These findings support earlier research into volunteers which identified that interacting with tourists may reinforce their self-identity (Orr 2006). Furthermore, social value benefits tourists by increasing their understanding, which may increase their interest or motivation to participate in further Aboriginal tourism activities, benefiting remote operators. In addition it may assist in removing stereotypical images gained from prior marketing material (Higgins-Desbiolles 2003a; Pomering & White 2011).

However, as the tours of the Aboriginal gallery do not cover all the display cabinets, a respondent noted how within tours tourists often stop to look at a display

which they find interesting. Respondents commented that within the tours, couples commonly separate with one staying within the tour whilst the other person takes a more independent tour around the gallery (Interview 3, 6). This may reflect the different types of social value tourists desire, with some gaining greater value from social interaction with tour guides, whilst others prefer to increase knowledge and understanding by reading and observing the exhibits alone. Whilst the museum tours enable tourists to create their value in different ways simultaneously, not all experiences offer this. However, as decisions made relating to holiday activities involve meeting the needs of all party members, future research may consider how this decision-making is undertaken. This may be particularly valuable to remote operators who may consider what facilities are needed to satisfy the range of motivations and needs.

An interesting aspect of social value was the utility gained via social interaction. This was particularly reflected in the interviews with the security team, who perhaps have more time for general interactions than tour guides who are operating scheduled tours. The team discussed how the tourists tell stories relating to their families and their travel experiences. The interview also identified the depth of the personal relationships developed in this tourism context, with tourists sending postcards or small gifts to the team. Additionally, both tour guides and the security team discussed how international tourists asked them for further information on activities to undertake or issues relating to destinations they planned to visit such as the climate (SEC, Interview 3, 4, 5, 6). Tourists also returned to the museum to provide feedback to the security team on how much they enjoyed recommended experiences (SEC).

Whilst the use of a multi-dimensional scale was effective in developing an understanding of perceived value, within the interviews it became apparent how the different dimensions within the scale are connected and influence the overall utility gained. For example, functional value related to cost may not be considered as important if the experience is considered, 'a once in a lifetime experience' (Interview 1). This would suggest that utility needs to be gained from other measures such as emotional, epistemic or social dimensions. Future research may develop an understanding of the importance of these measures for international tourists and consider methods of communicating effectively how the features create value.

5.7 How does loyalty impact on the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences?

Within the research three measures of loyalty were used, with attitudinal loyalty measured by intention to participate considered the outcome of consumer-based brand equity. As this study examined brand equity from stakeholder perspective, measures of attitudinal and behavioural loyalty could not be directly assessed. However, within the interviews experiential loyalty was considered, and the findings suggest it can impact directly on both attitudinal and behavioural loyalty.

Experiential loyalty refers to tourists undertaking similar activities in new destinations (McKercher & Guillet 2011; Pearce & Kang 2009), and examples of this were found within the interviews. The majority of tour guides and security staff reported that following tours within the museum, they were often asked for information relating to other available Aboriginal experiences (Interview 3, 4, 5, SEC), supporting the museum's objective to provide a 'starting point' for

international tourists to learn about Aboriginal culture (Interview 6, 7). The respondents considered that the AACG tour increased interest, knowledge and understanding which may increase the desire to visit a remote destination to participate in an Aboriginal tourism activity (Interview 3, 4, 7). Whilst the research identifies the ability of an urban Aboriginal tourism experience to create desire to participate in further activities, it became apparent that the stakeholders had limited knowledge relating to experiences available outside of Adelaide.

A complexity of Aboriginal tourism is that the cultures represented within each country are unique and it could be considered that experiential loyalty would not impact on the decision to participate in an activity within Australia. However, the interviews suggested that some tourists have previous experience with Aboriginal tourism overseas (Interview 1, 2, 3, 4, 6) which may increase awareness and interest in Australian Aboriginal activities (Interview 1, 2, 3). As previously discussed, differences existed in cultural knowledge between nationalities (Interview 3, 4, 5, 6, SEC), suggesting experiential loyalty may be more closely related to a general cultural motivation to participate.

However, Aboriginal tourism is considered a subset of cultural tourism (Hinch & Butler 1996). Whilst the findings cannot identify if previous cultural experiences increased the motivation to include the activities in an Australian context, they do provide some evidence that cultural experiential loyalty impacts on Australian Aboriginal tourism consumer based brand equity, influencing intention to participate. The interviews suggest that international tourists use previous experiences to complete lack of knowledge relating to Australian Aboriginal tourism activities,

which may negatively impact on perceived quality or value to be gained from an activity. Experiential loyalty has not previously been considered in the context of Australian Aboriginal tourism, and these findings may present new avenues for future research. Future research may consider how previous experiences impact, positively and negatively on the dimensions of brand equity and consider strategies which may be developed to utilise experiential loyalty to increase demand for Aboriginal tourism experiences.

5.8 How does the destination impact on the decision to participate in remote Aboriginal tourism experiences?

When considering destination choice in relation to Aboriginal tourism experiences the eight respondents who all had direct contact with international tourists highlighted how the majority of tourists pre-planned their itinerary before arriving in Australia. One tour guide considered over 70% of the tourists pre-plan their holiday, with respondents considering that younger tourists, including backpackers, are least likely to have pre-planned as they did not have time constraints. The respondents considered that the majority of tourists have already decided on the destinations they would visit and had pre-organised this before arrival. When considering destination choice, a respondent noted:

'if you're talking international or even domestic, they'll do the research before they come. So they'll map it out and know where they want to go' (Interview 1).

Adelaide was considered to be a transit city for many tourists who were travelling to Kangaroo Island (Interview 3), with a visit to the museum an additional activity included in their itinerary after arrival (Interview 3, 5). Perhaps as a

consequence of this, respondents also highlighted that after the tour of the AACG, tourists who sought other experiences did not have time available to travel to remote areas. These findings suggest that increased brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism experiences, particularly for remote areas, is needed overseas to ensure they are included within consumer choice processes prior to arrival.

A theme relating to destination brand awareness arose during some interviews although this was not a direct question. Uluru was the most commonly identified remote destination that international tourists were planning to visit, with tourists perceiving it as a 'bucket list' item (Interview 5, 6, 7, SEC). However, international tourists were not always aware of the Aboriginal connection and were considering climbing the rock (Interview 5). Coober Pedy was also identified along with Alice Springs (Interview 5, 6, 7, SEC). However, it was considered that the majority of visitors to Coober Pedy were going for the opal mining, with the prominent tourists being Dutch or German (SEC).

With regards to remote destinations, a number of negative associations were highlighted. It became apparent that whilst international tourists may be aware that remote destinations exist, they have limited associations. International tourists perceived remote Australia to be a desert where no plant or animal life exists (Interview 3, 5, SEC). Respondents noted that they were often asked questions relating to safety and medical facilities, in addition to questions relating to the environment such as temperature. Interview 1 considered that poor media relating to remote destinations roads, accessibility and other aspects of infrastructure also impacted negatively on the associations tourist made with remote destinations:

'people are very wary, same thing, they don't know what's out there so there's no promotion of there's – same thing, what are the roads like? Is there toilets out there? All that sort of stuff that's, especially if you're talking the domestic market. So that sort of – so they'd rather just stick on that particular line that's got no fear attached to it, fear of the unknown' (Interview 1).

Another example was provided of how media can create brand awareness with negative associations were also highlighted. An example was given as to how films such as *Wolf creek* can create brand awareness of remote areas. However, a respondent commented:

'I think a lot of people have seen Wolf creek unfortunately, so a lot of people are saying "Am I going to get killed out there"' (SEC).

Similarly amongst tourism stakeholders, examples of weak brand associations were identified which impacted negatively on the quality of the experience gained by international tourists. Interview 1 related a personal story of a young female English tourist who he had met who had hired a car at Adelaide airport and had driven up to the Flinders Ranges. Unfortunately the car was not a 4X4 which resulted in the tourist being unable to travel to the destination they had selected. Another example was provided in Interview 5 which highlighted that international tourists were often planning trips to remote destinations in summer months, seemingly unaware of the temperatures in these areas or the risk of bush fires. The respondent commented: 'and I thought the travel agent must have told them' (Interview 5), which may possibly reflect the fact that travel agents overseas are not aware of these issues. Another consideration is the growth in travellers using online facilities to book holidays, so they are unable to get advice from a specialist. As lack of knowledge

relating to the brand can impact on brand equity through decreased value received, remote Aboriginal operators may consider this within the development of their brand identity.

Another example was provided where the use of 'word of mouth' communication between tourists relating to road accessibility was impacting negatively on remote areas were access were via graded roads (these are roads without a bitumen surface). International tourists had arrived at one location in the Flinders Ranges and were advised not to travel to certain areas, 'because the roads were really bad' (Interview 1). However, the respondent had arrived via these roads and had found them to be okay. The respondent considered that this could occurred as people may be unaware that road access can change.

Perception of time to travel to a destination was also raised. As with other studies (Carson & Harwood 2007) (Lyons, Mayor & Tol 2009), distance was considered to act as a constraint in the decision to undertake experiences in remote areas, with the time taken to travel the distance further impacting on the decision-making process (Interview 1). Lack of awareness of tourism experiences available on route to a destination also impacted on the perceived utility of travelling there (Interview 1). Interview 3 highlighted that the perception of difference also varied between nationalities, with Americans and Canadians more able to understand the, 'concept of distance' within the Australian context than European visitors:

'I think their perception of distance certainly influences maybe the way they plan their tours or their trips and what they think they can and can't do' (Interview 3).

The decline in the international market was not a direct question but developed as a theme. Interview 1 noted that whilst international tourists had been a strong market in remote Australia this had declined in recent times as a result of the strong Australian dollar and the 'uncertainty overseas'. Australia was thought to be an expensive destination (Interview 4, SEC), although the impact on the decision to travel to remote destinations appeared to influence European and North American tourists, rather than Asians markets (Interview 4). With regards to undertaking Aboriginal tourism experiences in remote destinations, a respondent believed that international tourists would participate:

'if it was promoted correctly and the pricing was right. Because a lot of people do mention Australia's too expensive' (Interview 4).

It became apparent that concerns relating to costs of holidays in Australia had grown over the past five years, possibly an effect of the Global Financial Crisis, with the majority of comments from American or European tourists (Interview 1, 4, SEC). Overall it was considered that this had a negative impact on tourists' perception of the value gained from activities.

The findings from this research question within the interviews highlight the importance of the destination in the decision to participate in activities. Remote Aboriginal operators may need to consider the destination in which they are located when devising strategies to increase consumer-based brand equity. Negative levels of brand awareness and brand associations may negatively impact on perceived brand quality and value resulting in decreased desire to participate in the experiences offered.

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5.9 **Summary of discussion**

The findings from this study provided some insights into consumer-based brand equity within an Aboriginal tourism context, and a summary is provided in Table 5.2. Overall, the findings provide support for the preliminary framework developed in the literature review, which included the brand dimensions of image, quality, authenticity and value. Similar to previous research (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008{Ruhanen, 2013 #9), brand salience amongst international tourists is considered to be low. However, this study suggests that general awareness of Aboriginal culture is high, with the low brand salience connected to product categories. Therefore, the final study undertaken on international tourists will further investigate this.

Supportive of the findings in Phase 1, trip preplanning was considered to be high amongst international visitors, with decisions relating to destinations generally made prior to arrival. The final study will consider the stage awareness of Aboriginal tourism was gained, and its impact on overall brand equity. This will also be considered in relation to willingness to travel to a remote destination.

Brand associations also appear too limited, and this will be further investigated in the final study. Authenticity was highlighted as impacting on intention to participate with tangible aspects such as the artefacts considered important. Additionally, intangible measures such as engagement in activities, or tours provided by an Aboriginal person were also considered to increase authenticity. The final study will consider if authenticity impacts on intention to participate, and willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities.

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Perceived value was discussed, with Australia considered an expensive destination. Remote destinations are also associated with increased costs, both in monetary terms and travel time (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011). However, the study suggests other dimensions of value, such as epistemic value, are also important to international tourists. As a result, cost may not be the only measure of utility, and the final study will further investigate this. Experiential loyalty was also discussed within the interviews, with the findings suggesting it may impact on the dimensions of brand equity in an Australian context. As this has not been previously considered, this exploratory study will further investigate the potential impact it may have.

The findings also provided support for the inclusion of tourist characteristics as potentially mediating the effects of these dimensions on brand equity. Tourist motivation to participate appears to be mediated by factors such as travel party composition, nationality and age. Furthermore, the findings suggest that tourist characteristics may also mediate the willingness of tourists to include a remote destination in the holiday itinerary.

5.10 Conclusion

This chapter has considered the findings from the second stage of the research. The discussion used the preliminary consumer-based brand equity framework developed in the literature review. The findings are summarised in Table 5-3, and provide some insights into consumer-based brand equity in Aboriginal tourism within Australia. However, these findings are from a supply side perspective and as a result, continuing research issues were identified with research questions developed (Table 5-2). Limitations of the study and contributions to academic and management

literature will be considered in Chapter 7. The following chapter presents the findings from the survey of international tourists, n=148, at the SA Museum. The findings are discussed alongside the hypotheses developed in Chapter 3: Literature review.

Table 5-2 Emerging themes and research questions

Emerging themes	Research questions
Brand awareness	How aware are international tourists of Aboriginal culture in Australia?
	How aware are international tourists of Aboriginal people providing tourism activities in Australia?
	What product categories are international tourists aware of that Aboriginal people provide?
	How is awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities gained?
	How do previous experiences overseas increase awareness in Australia?
Brand associations	What associations do international tourists have of Aboriginal tourism activities?
	Do international tourists associate remote destinations with Aboriginal tourism?
	How do previous experiences overseas influence associations of Aboriginal tourism in Australia?
Brand quality	Does the quality dimension have a relationship with other dimensions of brand equity and intention to participate?
	Do international tourists perceive Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia to be of good quality?
Brand Authenticity	How does the location of an Aboriginal tourism enterprise impact on the perceived authenticity of the experience?
	Does the Authenticity dimension have a relationship with other dimensions of brand equity and intention to participate?
	Does engagement with Aboriginal people increase perceived authenticity?
Brand value	Does the Value dimension have a relationship with other dimensions of brand equity and intention to participate?
	Do international tourists perceive Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia to be good value?
	How do international tourists gain value from participating in Aboriginal tourism activities?
	Do international tourists perceive an increase in the value of undertaking Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination?
Brand loyalty	How does experiential loyalty influence brand equity of Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia?
Tourist characteristics	Do tourist characteristics mediate the influence of brand dimensions on overall brand equity?
	Do tourist characteristics mediate the influence of brand equity on willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism?

Table 5-3 Summary of findings

Research question	Summary of findings
RQ1: How can inbound tourists who travel to remote Australia and participate in Aboriginal tourism be defined?	Tour participants predominantly European, Canadian or North American. Europeans commonly German, English, French or Dutch Travel party: couples or travelling alone Age: mid-twenties to mid-thirties or those who are semi-retired or retired Motivated to learn about Aboriginal culture although nationality/language may impact on type of experience sought
RQ2: What are the levels of awareness of international tourists of Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Levels of recall or recognition may exist within international tourist groups, but the product categories they are connected to are limited. International tourists are aware of Aboriginal culture as a concept but they do not understand what it means. Limited awareness of contemporary Aboriginal culture, perceived from a historical or traditional perspective associated with stereotypical images, but may not be related to actual products that are available. Awareness of staged environments may be influenced by overseas experiences: Awareness generated via range sources may positively or negatively impact on brand equity Australian Tourism brand and state brands do not necessarily increase brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism
RQ3 What associations do international tourists hold about Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Hold associations used in promotional material: art, Medicine man, artefacts such as boomerang, spears, shields, didgeridoo Inaccurate associations relating to artefacts Lack of knowledge relating to Aboriginal peoples' history and culture resulting in no differentiation between cultural products offered in different locations Tourists do not understand the significance of sacred areas or the requirements for permits to visit certain areas Seeking historical/cultural evidence that matched overseas experiences such as inventions, buildings, clothes, jewellery Inconsistency between their expectations of an Aboriginal tourism experience and the contemporary experiences they may undertake Associate Aboriginal people with the traditional/stereotypical pictures they have seen
RQ4: How do international tourists assess the quality of Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Tangible assets such as artefacts and rock art Facilities that support the artefacts on display such as videos and static pictures which 'conceptualise what they are seeing' Tour guides enhance the quality of the experience by increasing international tourists' knowledge and understanding Authenticity from an international tourist's perspective may be measured by the artefacts, engagement with an Aboriginal person, perceived accuracy of knowledge/stories told, staged traditional experiences or engagement in activities.

RQ5: How do international tourists measure the value gained from Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Functional value: GFC impacted negatively on perception of functional value. Emotional value: Enjoyment expressed through 'thanks' with tours described as 'good' or 'wonderful' or 'interesting' Social value: Tour guides add value, separate to simply the provision of knowledge, by enabling individuals to make connections to their existing knowledge Social interaction also adds value Experiential value: Increased levels of curiosity were identified with respondents identifying that after visiting the AACG international tourists sought other experiences Aboriginal culture also identified as providing novelty perceived as 'exotic' or unique
RQ6: How does loyalty impact on the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Experiential loyalty can impact on consumer based brand equity dimensions of brand awareness, brand image, brand quality and brand value
RQ7 How does the destination impact on the decision to participate in remote Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Majority of tourists pre-planned their itinerary, resulting in the need to increase brand awareness prior to arrival Some remote destinations are 'bucket list' items Negative associations exist relating to safety and medical facilities, temperatures, accessibility and other aspects of infrastructure Lack of knowledge of urban stakeholders eg car hire companies, travel agents may negatively impact on tourists experiences Time and distance act as constraints, although they vary between nationalities

Interview question	Summary of findings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
How can international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences be defined?	Geographically	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
	Travel party	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
	Age	X		X	X	X	X		X
	Varying depths of motivation		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Tourist characteristics may impact on depth motivation			X	X	X	X		X
What are the levels of awareness of international tourists of Aboriginal tourism experiences?	International tourists are aware of Aboriginal culture within Australia	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
	Limited breadth of awareness measured by awareness of product categories	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Limited awareness of contemporary Aboriginal culture, perceived from a historical or traditional perspective	X		X	X		X	X	X
	Awareness associated with stereotypical images, but may not be related to actual products that are available.	X		X	X		X	X	X
	Sources of brand awareness may positively or negatively impact on brand equity	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	National and state brands do not necessarily increase brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism product range	X	X	X	X			X	X
What associations do international tourists hold about Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Art or artefacts	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
	Inaccurate associations relating to artefacts for example all Aboriginal people play the didgeridoo			X	X	X	X		X
	Lack of knowledge relating to Aboriginal peoples' history and culture resulting in no differentiation between cultural products offered in different locations			X	X	X	X		X
	Seeking historical/cultural evidence that matched overseas experiences			X	X		X	X	
	Inconsistency between their expectations of an Aboriginal tourism experience and the contemporary experiences they may undertake		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Associate Aboriginal people with the traditional/stereotypical pictures they have seen			X	X	X	X	X	X
	Associations influenced by experiences overseas eg Europeans seek ruins/ buildings			X	X		X	X	X
How do international tourists assess the quality of Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Compare their perception of the type of experience they are going what is delivered								
	Use overseas experience to fill gaps of perceived quality				X		x		
	Tangible assets such as artefacts and rock art add to perceived quality	X	X	X					X
	Facilities that support the artefacts on display	X		X		X		X	X
	Tour guides enhance the quality of the experience by increasing international tourists' knowledge and understanding		X	X	X	X	X		X
	Authenticity	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
How do international tourists measure the value gained from Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Functional value	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Emotional value			X	X	X	X		X
	Epistemic value	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Social value			X	X	X	X		X

How does loyalty impact on the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Evidence of experiential loyalty from museum to other Australian Aboriginal tourism activities			X	X	X	X	X	X
	Participation overseas may influence decision Australian Aboriginal tourism brand equity	X	X	X	X		X		X
How does the destination impact on the decision to participate in remote Aboriginal tourism experiences?	Majority of tourists pre-planned their itinerary	X		X	X	X	X		X
	Some remote destination act as 'bucket list' items	X				X	X	X	X
	Negative associations exist relating environment and aspects of infrastructure	X		X		X			X
	Lack of knowledge of urban stakeholders impacts on quality of remote experiences	X					X		
	Time/distance/cost act as constraints	X		X	X				X

Chapter 6: Findings from the survey

6.1 Introduction

Following Chapter 5, which presented the findings of the interviews, this chapter reveals the findings of the survey undertaken by international tourists during their visit to the South Australian Museum in Adelaide, South Australia. The chapter begins by explaining the findings from the descriptive and bivariate analyses. The chapter then focuses on answering the first two hypotheses, with the findings from the bivariate analysis methods presented. This is followed by the results related to the attributes which international tourists associate with Aboriginal tourism. Measurement scales are then developed in this chapter, with scales for Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value tested for validity and reliability using Factor Analysis and Cronbach Alpha. These dimensions are used in the following multivariate analysis with findings presented to answer the remaining hypotheses. The chapter concludes with a summary of the hypotheses.

6.2 Descriptive data

This section provides an overview of the sample of international tourists who participated in the survey, n=148, with Table 6-1 presenting the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample. Gender was evenly distributed within the sample. The majority of participants, 52.3% were traveling with their partner. The remaining participants were travelling alone, 14.2%, with Family, 15.5%, and with Friends, 17.6%. With regards to nationality, 57% were European, 20%, American or Canadians, and 18.2% Asian. Within these categories, British (35.3%) had the highest representation within the European group, and Americans (74.2%) within the

USA/Canada group. The Asian category was fairly evenly distributed, with the highest representation from Sri Lanka and Korea (18.5% each). Overall, the highest frequencies of visitors based on nationality were the British (20.1%), Americans (15.4%), Germans (12.1%) and Dutch (8.1%).

Table 6-1 Socio-Demographic characteristics of the sample

Item		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	73	49.3
	Female	75	50.7
Age	18-29	72	48.6
	30-39	18	11.5
	40-49	9	6.1
	50-59	18	12.2
	60-69	23	15.5
	70-79	8	5.4
	80+	1	.7
Nationality	European	85	57
	USA/Canadian	31	20.9
	Asian	26	18.1
	Other	6	4
Travel party	Partner	78	52.3
	Family	23	15.5
	Friends	26	17.6
	Alone	21	14.2
First time visitor	Yes	84	56.8
	No	64	43.2

The Cramer's V results suggest a strong correlation between nationality and age, r =0.317, n= 147, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 44.413, df =2, p <0.05. International tourists aged 18-29, represented 48.3% of the sample, with the least represented age categories 40-49 (6%) and 70 + (6.1%). The remaining participants were evenly distributed in the remaining age categories. A high percentage of tourists from Europe or Asia were in the 18-29 category, 57.6% and 60.7%. However, tourists from USA/Canada were more evenly distributed, although 35.5% were in the 60-69 category.

Additionally, a significant relationship existed between nationality and travel party composition (Figure 6-1). The Cramer's V results suggest a moderate correlation between nationality and travel party, r =0.215, n= 147, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 20.474, df =9, p <0.05. Whilst a high number of tourists from Europe or USA/Canada were travelling with partners, 54.1% and 67.7% respectively, the travel party composition was more evenly distributed within the Asian sample. However, the second largest travel party composition amongst Europeans was friends, whilst within the USA/Canada segment this was travelling with family.
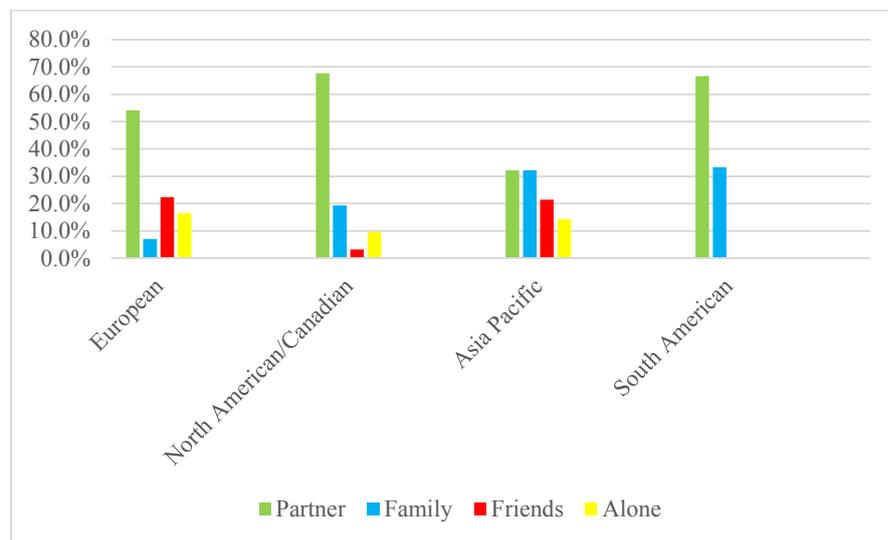
Figure 6-1 Travel party composition and nationality

The majority of participants, 56.8%, were visiting Australia for the first time. Previous visits ranged between 1 and 30, with 81.7% of repeat visitors having been less than three times. A higher percentage of European tourists were visiting for the first time, 63.5%, with the other nationality categories more evenly distributed. The number of stopovers within the trip varied between 1 and 60. Of the 148 respondents, 22 were unsure of this answer as they were travelling around Australia, with only 2

participants leaving this blank. The number of nights stayed within Australia, vary between 6 and 365. The median number of nights is 28.5.

When considering trip pre-planning, the majority of international tourists, 81.1% had decided on the destinations to visit prior to arrival. There was no significant relationship found between nationality and trip planning, although the USA/Canada sample had the highest percentage at 90.3%. Overall, only 46.5% of the sample had pre-booked all their accommodation and transport, and 43.3% some. Within nationality categories 62.1% of tourists from USA/Canada and 61.9% of the Asian sample had pre-booked all accommodation compared to only 35.6% of Europeans. Greater flexibility in tourists' choice in relation to activities was identified, with only 10.1% of respondents deciding on all of the activities they would undertake during their holiday. The majority, 75.7%, had decided on some of the activities they would undertake, whilst 10.4% had not decided on any. Whilst urban Aboriginal operators may benefit from this increased flexibility in planning, as such a high percentage of international tourists' pre-plan destinations prior to arrival, remote Aboriginal operators may benefit from targeting international tourists prior to arrival.

Table 6-2 Aspects of trip planning amongst international tourists

Item		Frequency	Percentage
Number of previous visits	1	26	43.3
	2	17	28.3
	3	6	10.0
	4	2	3.3
	5	3	5.0
	6	1	1.7
	7	1	1.7
	10	3	5.0
	30	1	1.7
Trip pre-planning			
Decided on destinations	Yes	121	81.2
	No	28	18.8
Pre book accommodation and transport	All	59	46.1
	Some	56	43.8
	None	12	9.4
	Don't know	1	.8
Activities	All	15	10.1
	Some	110	73.8
	None	15	10.1
	Don't Know	3	2.0
	No answer	6	4

Finally, the survey identified participants' depth of motivation to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their visit to Australia. The majority of participants, 57.4%, considered participation to be somewhat important, 23.6% very important and 17.5% not at all important. The Cramer's V results suggest a moderate correlation between motivation to participate and nationality, r =0.212, n= 144, p<0.05. The Pearson's Chi-square results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables, Chi square value = 12.884, df =6, p < 0.005. The distribution of responses was fairly even within each nationality with the majority considering it 'somewhat important', Europeans 59.8%, USA/Canada., 51.6% and Asian 67.9%. However a higher percentage of USA/Canada 29.1% considered it very important, compared to only 3.6% of Asian tourists.

Previous participation overseas was also considered, with 45.3% of respondents having participated in Aboriginal/cultural tourism activities in other

countries. Nearly two thirds, 62.7%, of respondents with previous experience intended to participate in Australia. The Cramer's V results suggest a moderate correlation between nationality and previous participation, r =0.239, n= 147, p<0.05. The Pearson's Chi-square results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables, Chi square value = 16.863, df =6, p < 0.005. Overall a higher percentage of respondents from USA/Canada, 71%, had previously participated, compared to a third of European or Asian tourists. However, no statistically significant relationship was identified between the variables of age, motivation or gender and previous participation.

Consideration to experiential loyalty was given in the survey with respondents asked if their previous experiences had influenced their decision to participate during this holiday. 44% agreed it had influenced their decision. For respondents who considered that previous experience had influenced their decision to participate in Australia, a further question asked how it had influenced their decision. Six response options were provided, with a 'tick all that apply' instruction, in addition to an open question for other reasons. Not surprisingly, the majority of respondents, 92%, considered that it influenced their decision as they 'Enjoyed learning about new cultures' and this may reflect cultural tourists in general. Previous enjoyment was also cited by 59% of respondents. These two responses reflect epistemic and emotional value respectively, and these findings suggest that international tourists maybe transfer the value gained from previous experiences to new experiences positively influencing the decision process.

However, using previous experiences to assess value for money or quality had the lowest responses: 3% and 19% respectively. Likewise, only 21% of respondents considered that previous participation increased awareness that Aboriginal experiences were available. These preliminary findings suggest that as international tourists are purchasing products of which they may have limited knowledge, promotional materials may focus on reminding tourists of the epistemic or emotional value they might gain from participation.

No statistically significant relationship was identified between previous participation and intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during this holiday.

Table 6-3 Reasons provided for participation in activities overseas influencing the choice process in Australia

Reasons for participation	n	%
I have previously enjoyed these activities	22	59%
Previous activities were good value for money	1	3%
Previous activities were good quality	7	19%
Enjoyed learning about new cultures	34	92%
Increased my awareness that Aboriginal experiences were available	8	21%
Self-development	8	21%

6.2.1 Use of the 'don't know' option

To reduce the number of uninformed responses, a 'don't know' option was included within the survey (Pike 2007). This enabled the researcher to clearly identify areas of brand knowledge which may be insufficient in the target market. Table 6-4 lists the frequency and percentage of 'don't know' responses for the 25 Likert scale items which were used to develop the dimensions for the regression model. The rate of usage of this option varied between 0.7% and 30% and selection

occurred regardless of the depth of brand awareness. Only one respondent used the 'don't know' option for all Likert items and they were deleted from the sample. These initial findings imply that not offering this option may have resulted in bias within the data (De Blaeij, Nunes & Van den Bergh 2007).

Table 6-4 'Don't Know' responses to Likert items

Likert item	Don't know	%
Aboriginal activities are good value for money	45	30
Aboriginal activities in Australia are good quality	42	28
Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic	34	23
Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic	34	23
Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia	32	22
Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday	31	21
Aboriginal activities in Australia are a reproduction of the past	29	20
Aboriginal activities in Australia represent local ways of life	27	18
Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person	25	17
Aboriginal activities are enjoyable	25	17
Aboriginal activities provide novelty	25	17
Aboriginal activities are exciting	24	16
My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences	23	16
Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in Australian cities	22	15
The Aboriginal activities available in Australia are quite different to activities available overseas	21	14
Tour guides increase my understanding of Aboriginal culture	21	14
Engaging in Aboriginal activities makes an experience authentic	18	12
I would recommend Aboriginal tourism activities within Australia to friends/family	18	12
Aboriginal activities offer once-in-a lifetime experiences	17	11
Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am	15	10
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to meet new people	15	10
I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents	11	7
Participating in Aboriginal activities is a good way to spend my time on holiday	11	7
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to learn new knowledge	10	7
When I think about Australia, Aboriginal people come to mind	1	0.7

The use of non-response options enables marketeers to develop an understanding of brand knowledge (Pike et al. 2010). Overall, these findings suggest that although brand awareness may exist, international tourists do not have sufficient brand knowledge to make assessments of value, quality and authenticity, commonly

associated with the decision-making process. The top two items with the greatest usage of the 'don't know' option related to perceptions of value for money (30%) and quality (28%). These statements have been applied in a large number of studies in both marketing and tourism fields. The third item with high usage of the 'don't know option' related to perceived authenticity.

However further analysis of the 'don't know' option highlights the importance of using multiple items to assess brand dimensions (Churchill Jr 1979). Had single measures been used to make assessments of value, quality and authenticity, particularly in a forced answer context, bias within the data may have been found. An example of this relates to Likert items used to measure value. Whilst 30% of respondents were unable to provide an opinion on whether Aboriginal tourism provided value for money, the majority of respondents were able to determine if participation was an effective way to spend their time on holiday, with only 7% selecting the 'don't know' option. Likewise, 17% of respondents could not provide an opinion relating to whether Aboriginal tourism activities would be enjoyable, exciting, or provide novelty, which were all used as value measures. These features are commonly associated with motivation to participate and reflect benefits that tourists may seek from activities. However, a much higher percentage of respondents could relate Aboriginal tourism to learning new knowledge with only 7% selecting the 'Don't know' option. This highlights how Aboriginal operators may benefit from differentiating their promotional messages depending upon the products they offer and the target segments they are targeting. Furthermore, messages may focus on communicating the benefits tourists will receive by participating in the activity.

Whilst a lack of brand knowledge was identified in relation to overall assessments of quality, this was further highlighted with 21% unable to comment on the range of activities provided by the Aboriginal tourism sector. Difficulties in responding to the authenticity of Aboriginal tourism in Australia were also identified, with 23% of respondents selecting the 'don't know' option for the statement 'Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic' and 'Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic'. Additionally, 22% selected the option when asked 'Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia'. However, a greater number could provide opinions relating to authenticity in cities, with only 15% unable to respond.

6.3 Brand salience of Aboriginal tourism amongst international tourists

The first two hypotheses considered brand salience, measured by the depth and breadth of awareness (Keller 2001).

H1: Aboriginal tourism brand salience amongst international tourists is low

H2: Aboriginal tourism brand salience will vary amongst target segments

Depth of awareness was measured using Q13 and Q18, and considered awareness of Aboriginal culture, in addition to awareness of the provision of tourism activities by Aboriginal people. Depth was further defined with recall reflecting awareness prior to planning the holiday. Breadth of awareness was measured using product categories in Q16.

6.3.1 **Depth of awareness**

Contrary to previous research which suggested low levels of awareness exist (Buultjens, Wilde & Crummy 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), 73% of the sample had awareness. However, international tourists gained awareness at different stages and these findings are presented in Figure 6-2. Whilst 55% were aware that Aboriginal tourism products were available prior to arrival, these respondents could be separated into those who had brand recall, 39%, and those who gained awareness during the planning stage, 16%. The remaining 18% became aware of the availability of Aboriginal tourism activities after they arrived in Australia.

Consideration to awareness of Aboriginal culture was also given, with 88% of respondents agreeing that when they thought about Australia, Aboriginal people came to mind. This represented a 15% increase on awareness that Aboriginal people offered tourism activities. Furthermore of the 27% of respondents who had no awareness of the provision of activities, 74% agreed they associated Aboriginal people with Australia. Interestingly, examination of the no awareness responses also identified that these respondents were able to continue making responses to questions, even when a 'don't know' option was provided. A number of respondents also commented that they were aware that Aboriginal tourism activities existed, but had no awareness that activities were provided by Aboriginal people. Overall, this lack of awareness and associated brand knowledge may impact on perceptions of authenticity.
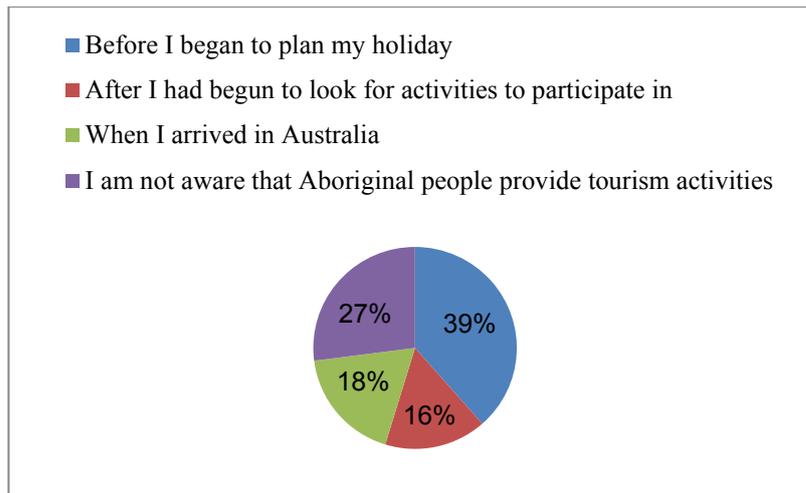
Figure 6-2 Awareness that Aboriginal people provide tourism activities amongst international tourists

An examination of tourist characteristics and the stage at which tourists gained awareness that Aboriginal people provided tourism activities was undertaken. The majority of participation in Aboriginal tourism activities is opportunity driven (Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), which can negatively impact on remote operators who may be influenced by market access issues. Within the sample, 81.2% of respondents had selected all their destinations prior to arrival, and of those, 43.3% were not aware of Aboriginal tourism before or during the planning stage. Similar numbers apply to pre-booking all or some accommodation and transport. Based on these figures, 35% of the total sample may not be able to participate in Aboriginal experience in remote Australia, unless they had planned to visit the destination for other reasons, due to lack of awareness in the planning stage.

When considering the nationalities of respondents and their awareness, a moderate relationship was identified, Cramer's V, r =0.205, n= 147, p<0.05. The Pearson's chi-square results revealed that there was a significant relationship

between the two variables, Chi square value = 18.511, df =9, p <0.005. USA/Canadian respondents had the highest levels of awareness prior to beginning to plan their holiday at 51.6%, followed by Europeans at 38.8%. Compared to the other two nationalities USA/Canadian tourists were also more likely to have gained awareness after they had begun to plan activities. Overall, 77.4% of the USA/Canadian segment had awareness prior to arrival, compared to 54.1% of Europeans and 39.3% of Asian respondents. The Asian respondents had the highest percentage in the not aware category at 39.3%.

Similarly, age had a moderate relationship, Cramer's V, r =0.299, n= 148, p<0.05. The Pearson's chi-square results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables, Chi square value = 39.661, df =18, p < 0.005. Graph X highlights differences in brand awareness between age groups. However, higher numbers of respondents were aware of Aboriginal people providing tourism activities before they began to plan their holidays in the 18-29; 40-49; and 60-69 age categories. Overall within the 18-29 category, the responses were fairly evenly distributed.
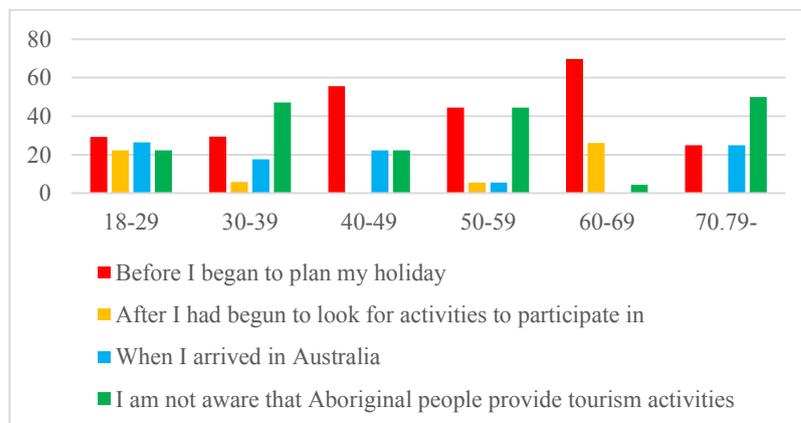
Figure 6-3 Age and brand awareness at different stages of the choice process

Finally, a moderate correlation was identified between previous participation in cultural activities overseas and the stage at which the respondents gained brand awareness. Cramer's V, $r = 0.256$, $n = 148$, $p < 0.05$. The Pearson's chi-square results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables, Chi square value = 19.437, df =6, $p < 0.005$. The findings show that previous experience overseas positively reflects an increased awareness of the provision of Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia. Overall, 68.6% of respondents who had previously participated overseas were aware that Aboriginal people in Australia offered tourist activities before they arrived in Australia, compared to only 44.3% of respondents who had not. A higher percentage of respondents with prior experience, 52.2%, had awareness prior to planning their holiday, compared to only 27.8% with none. Conversely, respondents with no previous experience overseas were more likely to have gained awareness when they arrived, 21.5% compared to 11.9%, or had no awareness of the product offering, 34.2%, compared to 19.4%. As these findings are reflective of a sample of cultural tourists, future research may seek to identify how previous participation increases awareness, and might consider how this can be used in promotional strategies.

No significance between first time or repeat visitors and stages of gaining brand awareness was identified, although as expected those who had previously experienced slightly higher awareness prior to beginning to plan their holiday, 45.3% to 33.3%, and 23.8% of first time visitors were not aware of Aboriginal tourism until arrival compared to 39.3% of repeat visitors. Similarly, there was no significant relationship identified between travel party composition, gender, motivation to participate and brand awareness.

6.3.2 **Breadth of awareness**

To further understand brand salience, breadth of awareness was considered with international tourists asked which categories of Aboriginal tourism products they were aware of. The findings are displayed in Figure 6-4, with 16% of respondents unaware of any of the product categories. Whilst, 72% of participants were aware of the product category art and craft, less than half of the respondents were aware of the other product categories. The second most frequently marked category was bush or outback tours, with 42% of respondents having awareness. Around a quarter of respondents had awareness of cultural parks (31%), day tours, (27%), festivals, (25%), and extended tours, (20%). Limited awareness of the remaining product categories were identified with only 13% aware of urban culture and less than 5% for accommodation and coastal escapes. No significant relationships were identified between nationality, first or repeat visitors, travel party, age, gender, previous participation and product class.
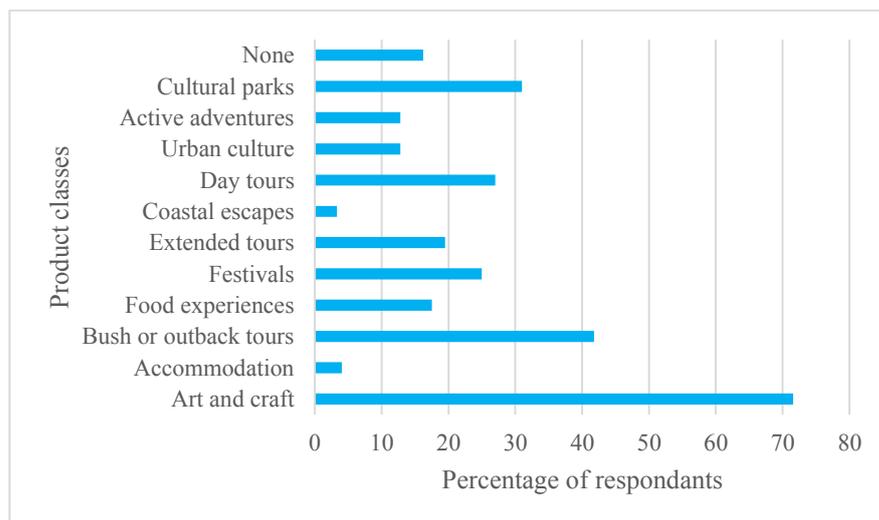
Figure 6-4 Percentage of respondents who are aware of product classes

Cross tabulations were performed for the stage that respondents gained awareness of Aboriginal people offering tourist activities and product class with results shown in Table 6-5. Findings were significant for all groups except accommodation and coastal escapes. The Cramer V shows that the relationship between the variable for brand awareness and the following categories was strong: Art and craft, Bush or outback tours, Cultural parks, Day tours, Extended tours and Active adventures. Festivals and Food experiences showed moderate relationships, whilst urban culture and awareness was considered a weak relationship.

Table 6-5 Correlations between stage awareness gained and product categories

	Cramer V			Pearson's Chi-square		
	r=	n=	p=	Chi square value	df=	p=
Art and craft	0.476	148	<0.05	33.507	3	<0.05
Bush or outback tours	0.440	148	<0.05	28.622	3	<0.05
Cultural parks	0.326	148	<0.05	15.685	3	<0.05
Day tours	0.327	148	<0.05	15.813	3	<0.05
Festivals	0.295	148	<0.05	12.906	3	<0.05
Extended tours	0.300	148	<0.05	13.2853	3	<0.05
Food experiences	0.244	148	<0.05	8.831	3	<0.05
Urban culture	0.166	148	<0.05	4.083	3	<0.05
Active adventures	0.390	148	<0.05	22.560	3	<0.05
Accommodation	.187	148	>0.05	5.191	3	>0.05
Coastal escapes	0.516	148	>0.05	2.2793	3	>0.05
None	0.560	148	<0.05	46.3923	3	<0.05

Whilst respondents who had awareness prior to planning may be considered to have a greater depth of awareness based on ability to recall without prompting, this is not reflected in the breadth of awareness of different product classes (Table 6-6). Whilst international tourists who had awareness prior to beginning to plan their holiday had a higher awareness of Cultural Parks, this was not reflected across the remaining products. Interestingly, international tourists who had gained awareness

during the planning stage generally had higher levels of awareness of product classes.

Surprisingly, 25.9% of international tourists who gained awareness after arriving had a slightly higher level of awareness for Food Experiences. However, when considering the segment who gained awareness when they arrived in Australia, it can be seen that the awareness was generally limited to Art and craft and bush/outback tours.

Table 6-6 Depth and breadth of awareness

	Before began planning holiday	After began looking for activities	When arrived in Australia	No awareness
Art and craft	86%	91.7%	74.1%	37.5%
Bush or outback tours	52.6%	66.7%	48.1%	7.5%
Cultural parks	47.4%	37.5%	14.8%	15%
Day tours	36.8%	45.8%	18.5%	7.5%
Festivals	28.1%	37.5%	14.8%	2.5%
Extended tours	28.1%	33.3%	14.8%	2.5%
Food experiences	22.8%	20.8%	25.9%	2.5%
Urban culture	15.8%	20.8%	11.1%	5%
Active adventures	8.8%	41.7%	11.1%	2.5%
None	5.3%	0%	3.7%	50%

Consideration to international tourist's characteristics and breadth of awareness was given, with no relationships identified between the variables: number of previous visits, gender and age. Limited relationships existed amongst other variables, with Bush/Outback tours the only variable to have relationships with travel party and nationality, Cramer's V, r =0.277, n= 148, p<0.05. The Pearson's Chi-square results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables, Chi square value = 11.363, df =3, p <0.005. Awareness of this activity differed between travel parties, with 61.5% of respondents travelling with friends and

46.2% of those with partners being aware, compared to only 21.7% of families and 23.8% of those travelling alone. Likewise, nationality has a moderate, significant relationship, Cramer's V, r =0.246, n= 148, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 8.900, df =3, p <0.005. 48% of European and USA/Canadian tourists had awareness of this category compared to only 21% of Asian tourists.

Similarly, motivation to participate had moderate significant relationships with Festivals and Cultural parks. Festivals results: Cramer's V, r =0.271, n= 145, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 10.634, df =2, p <0.005. Cultural parks results, Cramer's V, r =0.208, n= 145, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 6.247, df =2, p <0.005. The 'somewhat motivated category' had the greatest representation in these categories, 81% for festivals and 66.7% of cultural parks. However, 40% of respondents with high levels of motivation to participate had an awareness of cultural parks.

Finally, previous participation was considered, with significant relationships found with the art and craft category and cultural parks. A moderate relationship was identified with art and craft, Cramer's V, r =0.290, n= 148, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 12.461, df =2, p <0.005. A strong relationship was identified with cultural parks, Cramer's V, r =0.331, n= 148, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square value = 16.187, df =2, p <0.005. Previous participation positively influenced awareness, with 83.6% of respondents who had previously participated in activities overseas were aware of art and craft compared to 63.3% of those who had not, and 47.8% of respondents with previous experience aware of this category compared to only 17.7% of those without.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 considered the brand salience of Aboriginal tourism amongst international tourists. The findings show that whilst international tourists have strong aided brand recall, the breadth of awareness amongst product classes is limited resulting in overall low brand salience. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported. When considering Hypothesis 2, it can be seen that limited relationships exist between brand salience and tourist characteristics, and therefore Hypothesis 2 is only partially supported.

Finally, a number of sources of awareness were identified and are shown in Table 6.7, with Internet searches and Travel brochures the most frequent sources at 36%, followed by friends/family, 30%. In relation to internet searches, 11% gained awareness via TripAdvisor and social media. 24% cited books, with 23% citing Lonely Planet. Although 26% gained awareness from travel brochures, Travel Agents had less influence with only 13% of participants gaining awareness from this source.

Consideration was given to sources of awareness and tourist characteristics, with no meaningful significant relationships identified between travel party and motivation. Whilst statistically significant results were identified between age, gender, nationality, previous experience and some sources, the results were inconsistent and had limited practical application.

Table 6-7 Sources of awareness for Aboriginal tourism activities

Source	Frequency	%
Travel brochures	54	36
Internet search	53	36
Friends/Family	45	30
Books	35	24
Lonely planet	34	23
Travel Agent	19	13
TripAdvisor	17	11
Social media	16	11
News media	7	5
Previous visit	6	4
Previous experiences overseas	5	3
Education overseas	4	3
Don't know	4	3
Family history	1	>1
Documentary	1	>1
Movie	1	>1

Table 6-8 considers sources of awareness between nationalities. Travel brochures, Internet searches and friends/families had the highest levels of responses in all nationalities. The following differences between sources and nationalities were identified, and whilst they are not generalisable, they provide some insight into differences between respondents. Books were used by around a fifth of Europeans and USA/Canadian respondents, but only 10.7% of Asian tourists. Similarly, a higher percentage of tourists from Asia gained awareness from travel agents, 21.4% compared to only 10.6% of Europeans and 12.9% of USA/Canadians. A number of reasons for this may occur such as their increased reliance on Travel Agents as sources of information, booking agents or increased awareness generated amongst the agents by Tourism Australia targeted campaigns. Additionally, Asian respondents were more likely to have gained awareness from Social media, 21.4% compared to 9.7% of USA/Canadian and 8.2% of Europeans. Interestingly, TripAdvisor was only used by 3.6% of Asian tourists, 11.8% by Europeans and 19.4% of USA/Canadian

respondents. This may reflect levels of popularity of TripAdvisor between countries, and its predominant use of English. Future research into tourist target segments may consider which other user generated web sites are used in different countries.

Table 6-8 Sources of awareness amongst nationalities

	European	USA/Canadian	Asian	South American
Travel brochures	38.8%	41.9%	28.6%	0%
Internet search	38.8%	35.5%	28.6%	0%
Friends/Family	29.4%	35.5%	28.6%	0%
Books	24.7%	22.6%	10.7%	0%
Lonely planet	34.1%	9.7%	3.6%	33.3%
Travel Agent	10.6%	12.9%	21.4%	0%
TripAdvisor	11.8%	19.4%	3.6%	0%
Social media	8.2%	9.7%	21.4%	0%
News media	3.5%	6.5%	7.1%	0%
Previous visit	2.3%	12.9%	0%	0%
Previous experiences overseas	3.5%	6.5%	0%	0%

6.4 Brand image of Aboriginal tourism amongst international tourists

Brand image may be separated into two components: brand performance and brand meaning (Keller 2001).

6.4.1 Brand Performance

Brand performance considers the attributes associated with the brand, with Hypothesis 3 proposing that: '*International tourists will associate a limited number of attributes with Aboriginal tourism activities*'. Q17 asked respondents to tick attributes they associated with Aboriginal tourism. An open question was also included to capture any additional associations. The associations provided were a mix of activities, cultural associations and places.

Reflecting the breadth of brand awareness, 83.2% of participants associated Aboriginal tourism in Australia with art and craft. In addition to art and craft, Tourism Australia includes cultural centres, Dance/music performances and visiting a community within their International Visitor survey. Whilst 47.7% of participants selected cultural centres, this declined to 38.9% for dance/music performances and only 19.5% selected visiting a community. Visiting museums and National parks had higher levels of association than these activities (51%). Additionally, bush walking had relatively high levels of association at 45.6%. Limited associations were selected for contemporary/diversified Aboriginal tourism activities existing such as fishing (13.4%), four wheel driving (4.7%), kayaking (4%) quad biking, dolphin/whale watching (2.7%), and snorkelling (0.7%).

Whilst 83.2% associated Aboriginal tourism with art and craft, and 47.7% with cultural centres, only 14.8% of participants selected meeting Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. This may suggest international tourists perceive Aboriginal tourism activities as observable rather than interactive activities. Indeed, only 16.8% of participants associate Aboriginal tourism with guided tours.

When considering place associations, 55% associate Aboriginal tourism with the Outback, 24.2% with remote destinations and only 8.7% with cities. It is interesting to note different responses in selection for the two terms 'Outback' and 'Remote' existed, suggesting that international tourists may perceive differences to exist. However, within academic research and tourism promotional materials, these two words are used interchangeably. Future research may wish to consider the

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perceptual differences between these two words and their impact on the decision to visit these locations and participate in Aboriginal tourism activities.

Higher numbers of respondents associated Aboriginal tourism with Ancient buildings 12.8% than cities, 8.7%, with a slightly lower number 6.7%, associating it with ruins. This lack of association with cities may be further contextualised with 27.5% associating it with traditional living. This low level of association with Aboriginal tourism and cities will negatively impact on urban operators with international tourists not seeking information in the information gathering stage. Additionally, this may impact on other dimensions of brand equity such as authenticity.

Within the open question, three participants comments noted Uluru and one, the high cost of activities. Three participants commented that they were aware of the culture and history rather than the provision of activities. Two respondents noted the negative behaviour of Aboriginal people.

Table 6-9 International tourists associations with Aboriginal tourism activities

Association	Frequency	%
Art and craft	124	83.2
Boomerangs	94	63.1
Didgeridoos	88	59.1
The Outback	82	55
History	82	55
Visiting museums	76	51
National Parks	76	51
Cultural centres	71	47.7
Nature	69	46.3
Bush walking	68	45.6
Rock Art	64	43
Dance/music performances	58	38.9
Spears/shields	45	30.2
Traditional living	41	27.5
Alternative medicine	38	25.5
Remote destinations	36	24.2
Dreamtime/storylines	34	22.8
Bush Tucker	32	21.5
Visiting a community	29	19.5
Basket weaving	26	17.4
Guided tours	25	16.8
Meeting Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders	22	14.8
Cultural/theme parks	21	14.1
Fishing	20	13.4
Ancient buildings	19	12.8
Camel riding	13	8.7
Cities	13	8.7
Ruins	10	6.7
Welcome to country	10	6.7
Inventions	8	5.4
Four wheel driving	7	4.7
Kayaking	6	4
Quad biking	4	2.7
Dolphin/Whale watching	4	2.7
Economic development	4	2.7
People like me	4	2.7
None of these	3	2
Snorkelling	1	0.7

Overall, these findings support Hypothesis 3, that international tourists associate a limited number of attributes with Aboriginal tourism. However, following this descriptive analysis, exploratory factorial analysis was undertaken to enable identification of the factors hidden in the set of attributes of the image associated with Aboriginal tourism. Principal axis factoring (PAF), with Varimax rotation was conducted on the 37 items. Inspection of the anti-image correlation matrix identified that national parks, quad biking, visiting museums, camel riding, 4WD, cultural parks and economic development were not above the acceptable level of 0.5 (Coakes & Ong 2011), and were removed from further analysis. The PAF was undertaken for a second time, with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin, 0.713, middling, well above the recommended 0.5 (Kaiser 1974)and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant. All items correlated 0.3 with at least one other item, with no variables' correlation coefficients above 0.9 which can reflect singularity in the data (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). Inspection of the anti-image correlation matrix revealed that all measures of sampling adequacy were above the acceptable level of 0.5 (Coakes & Ong 2011). Therefore, it was considered that factor analysis was appropriate.

A number of methods were applied to determine the number of factors to be retained. Firstly, the recommended cut off of 0.3 was applied for loadings to be salient to the factor (Coakes & Ong 2011). The Guttman-Kaiser rule was applied retaining factors with an eigenvalue larger than 1 and the Scree plot examined. The initial extraction retained 10 factors with eigenvalues above 1, representing 63.3% of the variance. However, examination of the Scree plot suggested that fewer factors may be required, and further extraction of factors was undertaken to compare results. In total, six separate extractions were undertaken to examine structures between five

to ten factors. The final solution selected for the international tourists' perceived image of Aboriginal tourism in Australia, presents a structure consisting of 6 factors representing 47.84% of the variance. Table 6-10 provides the rotated factorial matrix.

Factor 1, labelled 'Aboriginal Culture' accounts for 18.175% of the total variability and identified Aboriginal tourism as associated with traditional artefacts such as boomerangs, didgeridoos, spears, and shields. This factor also included activities associated with Aboriginal culture such as dance/music performance, art/craft and dreamtime/storylines. A final element of this factor was the associations with the 'place' of Aboriginal tourism, with The Outback and Bush Tucker included in this factor. The combinations of these elements reflect tangible elements of the Aboriginal culture, commonly used within tourism promotional material.

Factor 2, labelled 'Outdoor Adventure', accounts for 8.43% of the total variability and includes the characteristics of kayaking, fishing, dolphin/whale watching and people like me. This second factor reflects associations with a diversified Aboriginal tourism sector, with the activities associated with being outdoors. The inclusion of 'people like me' within this factor may reflect individual self- congruity when undertaking these activities.

Factor 3, labelled 'Traditional Living', accounts for 5.986% of the total variability and includes the attributes of traditional living, basket weaving, history, and rock art. Whilst these attributes may have connotations with the past, attributes of visiting a community, alternative medicine and nature are also included within this factor, reflecting that associations may also be associated with the present.

The fourth factor, labelled 'Active learning', had attributes of Guided tours and Cultural centres which are associated with learning new knowledge. Within this factor, 'Welcome to Country' and 'Meeting Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders' were also included. This may reflect that international tourist perceive Aboriginal tourism activities involving guided tours or visiting cultural centres will also provide opportunities to engage with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders to enhance the learning experience.

Factor 5, labelled 'Ruins', accounts for 4.974% of the total variance and includes three attributes ruins, ancient buildings and remote destinations. Whilst the first two of these attributes are not commonly associated with Aboriginal tourism in Australia, they may reflect misperceptions that international tourists may hold. Understanding this is important when developing positioning strategies, as they may reflect what international tourists perceive they will participate in during an Aboriginal tourism experience.

The final factor had two attributes cities and snorkelling. The two attributes, both had low levels of awareness amongst international tourists, and therefore this factor may not be meaningful.

Table 6-10 Factorial analysis of the cognitive image of Aboriginal tourism

	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Boomerangs	.733					
Didgeridoos	.640					
Spears/shields	.584					
Bush Tucker	.491					
Dance/music performances	.478					
Dreamtime/storylines	.437					
The Outback	.408					
Art and craft	.353					
Kayaking		.637				
Fishing		.600				
People like me		.586				
Dolphin/Whale watching		.311				
Traditional living			.592			
History			.530			
Alternative medicine			.461			
Nature			.411		.339	
Rock Art			.395			
Visiting a community			.315		.304	
Basket weaving			.301			
Guided tours				.613		
Welcome to country				.424		
Cultural centres				.363		
Meeting Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders				.301		
Ruins					.639	
Ancient buildings					.466	
Remote destinations			.356		.426	
Cities				.391		.587
Snorkelling						.391
Bush walking						-.384
% of variance	18.175	8.43	5.986	5.599	4.974	4.674
% of cumulative variance	18.175	26.613	32.599	38.198	43.171	47.845

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a.   Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

6.4.2   Brand meaning

Brand meaning reflects associations which relate to the intangible aspects of brand image (Keller 2001). The literature review identified that within previous studies measures had been used which reflected brand personality and quality (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Lassar, Mittal &

Sharma 1995). Additionally, authenticity had been included within the quality dimension (Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003).

6.4.2.1 Development of scales for: Brand personality, quality and authenticity

Q18 included Likert items to develop scales for each of the proposed dimensions of personality, quality and authenticity. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to assess the dimensionality of the data (Konecnik & Gartner 2007), using principal axis factoring (PAF) with Varimax rotation. Prior to undertaking the PAF for each dimension a number of assumptions were tested. A sample size of 100 subjects is considered acceptable with five subjects per variable required for factor analysis (Coakes & Ong 2011). The correlation matrix was examined to ensure items correlated with a number of other items at 0.3 or above (Coakes & Ong 2011). Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was applied. As a final condition prior to undertaking PAF the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was considered to ensure it reached statistical significance.

Principal axis factoring with Varimax rotation was conducted, with the recommended cut off of 0.3 established for loadings to be salient to the factor (Coakes & Ong 2011).Whilst the measures had been developed based on three dimensions: brand personality, brand quality and brand authenticity, earlier consumer-based brand equity research had combined these measures into one dimension (Keller 1993). Therefore, an initial PAF was undertaken on the 14 item scale. Although the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin was 0.699, mediocre, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, two items "Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in cities" and "The Aboriginal activities available in Australia are quite different to

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activities available overseas" did not correlate above 0.3 with any other items. These items were removed and PAF undertaken for a second time.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure improved to 0.749, middling, well above the recommended 0.5 (Kaiser 1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant. All items correlated 0.3 with at least one other item, with no variables' correlation coefficients above 0.9 which can reflect singularity in the data (Field, 2005). Inspection of the anti-image correlation matrix revealed that all measures of sampling adequacy were above the acceptable level of 0.5 (Coakes & Ong 2011). Therefore, it was considered that factor analysis was appropriate.

Based on eigenvalues over 1 and the scree plot, three factors were extracted, representing 59.249% of the total variance. Factors were rotated using Varimax rotation. Examination of the scree plot supported this extraction. All variables had a loading of 0.3 or above (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). Items that load on the first factor suggest this represents Authenticity. Two authentic variables loaded on factor 1 and 2 were: 'Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic' and 'Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person'. However, the two variables were retained within the Authenticity dimension as a result of their initial inclusion as potential authenticity measures and their use in previous Aboriginal tourism research as authenticity measures (Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003; Moscardo & Pearce 1986; Pearce & Lee 2005; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Yang & Wall 2009). Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha was performed on the proposed scales with the findings identifying the Authenticity and Quality scales performed better if these two

measures remained within the Authenticity dimension. As a result, seven variables were used within the Authenticity scale.

Items that load on the second factor suggest this represents Quality with two variables included: 'Aboriginal activities in Australia are of good quality' and 'Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday' selected.

The third dimension represents brand personality with three measures: 'I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents', 'Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am', and 'My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences'.

Table 6-11 Factorial analysis of brand personality, quality and authenticity items

	Factor		
	1	2	3
Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday		.776	
Aboriginal activities in Australia are of good quality		.802	
Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am			.796
My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences			.578
I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents		.476	.554
Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic	.461	.472	
Aboriginal activities in Australia are a reproduction of the past	.562		
Engaging in Aboriginal activities makes an experience authentic	.591		
Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic	.543		
Aboriginal activities in Australia represent local ways of life	.514		
Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person	.442	.386	
Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia	.612		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 6-12 shows the reliability statistics for the three scales with Personality alpha coefficient 0.713, Quality 0.746, and Authenticity 0.772, all both above the recommended 0.7 threshold (Nunnally 1978). Item-total statistics were examined for

each proposed scale, with no improvements available to the scale based on item deletion. Mean ratings for each group were then calculated to create the scales, with three independent variables named Authenticity, Quality and Personality used within further analysis (Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil 2007).

Table 6-12 Reliability statistics for Self Congruity, Quality and Authenticity measures.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Personality	0.713	0.723	3
Quality	0.746	0.747	2
Authenticity	0.772	0.775	7

Table 6-13 provides the sample size, mean, median and standard deviation for the Likert items used within the three scales. Three Likert items were used to develop the personality scale, which had an overall median score of 4. When considering individual item results, the first two items are reflective of self-image. The respondents had a higher median score for the statement: 'I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents', with the median score for this item being 5, with a median score of 4 for, 'Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am'. However, the median score for the item reflecting social congruity, 'My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences' is 3, which is at the disagree end of the scale. Additionally, a higher proportion of respondents used the 'don't know' option for this item, 16% compared to less than 10% for the other two items. This may suggest that respondents might consider participation in Aboriginal tourism activities to reflect their self-image rather than social image.

Two measures were used to construct the quality scale following factor analysis, with a median score of 5, which is at the agreement end of the scale. The median score relating to the provision of a good range of activities was 4, reflective of the low brand salience. The median score for quality assessments was higher, at 5. However a high percentage of respondents were unable to respond to these statements, 21% and 28% respectively. Whilst, this may reflect tourists considering they cannot make assessments as they have no previous experience, a strong brand is used to enable consumers to make these judgements prior to purchase. As a result, to enhance marketing decisions, future research might consider how international tourists make assessments of activities prior to participation. These findings can then be used in relation to developing positioning strategies.

The final items and scale in Table 6-13 reflect Authenticity. A median score for the scale was 5, reflecting agreement. All items had a median score 5, except for 'Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person' which had a higher median score of 6, reflecting increased levels of agreement. Similar to the quality measures, high levels of usage of the non-response option were used on some items. However, it differed between 12% and 23%, suggesting future research could aim to develop greater understanding of perceptions of authenticity.

Table 6-13 Mean, median and standard deviation for Likert items and scales for Personality, Quality and Authenticity dimensions

Descriptive Statistics	N=	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am	133	3.65	4	1.697
My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences	125	3.29	3	1.822
I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents	137	4.97	5	1.300
Personality scale	143	4.01	4	1.387
Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday	117	4.42	4	1.226
Aboriginal activities in Australia are of good quality	106	5.02	5	1.366
Quality scale	123	4.71	5	1.197
Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic	114	5.18	5	1.371
Aboriginal activities in Australia are a reproduction of the past	119	5.02	5	1.365
Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person	123	5.38	6	1.352
Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia	116	5.03	5	1.571
Aboriginal activities in Australia represent local ways of life	121	4.75	5	1.518
Engaging in Aboriginal activities makes an experience authentic	130	4.94	5	1.482
Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic	114	4.64	5	1.191
Authenticity scale	141	4.96	5	0.961

6.4.3 Development of scale for Brand value

To establish the value scale, Principal axis factoring with Varimax rotation was conducted (Coakes & Ong 2011). It was observed that the items correlated at least 0.3 with at least one other item, with none greater than 0.9. A sample size of 148 for a 9 item scale met the cases-to-variable ratio for PAF. Measures of sampling adequacy were satisfactory, with the KMO measure 0.833, Meritorious (Kaiser 1974), and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was highly significant. The inspection of the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were also all over the acceptable level of 0.5. As a result of these findings factor analysis was considered suitable.

Based on the Guttman-Kaiser rule and examination of the scree plot only one factor was extracted, explaining 56.208% of the total variance.

Table 6-14 Factorial analysis of brand value items

	Factor
	1
Aboriginal activities are good value for money	.479
Participating in Aboriginal activities is a good way to spend my time on holiday	.769
Aboriginal activities are enjoyable	.889
Aboriginal activities are exciting	.778
Tour guides increase my understanding of Aboriginal culture	.749
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to meet new people	.682
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to learn new knowledge	.713
Aboriginal activities provide novelty	.695
Aboriginal activities offer once-in-a lifetime experiences	.615

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
a. 1 factors extracted. 4 iterations required.

Reliability analysis was undertaken on the scale using Cronbach alpha. The alpha coefficient for the scale was 0.896, above the recommended 0.7. Examination of the Item-total statistics suggested that the Cronbach alpha could be improved if the first item 'Aboriginal activities are good value for money' was deleted. However, removal would only increase the alpha coefficient 0.902.

Therefore, prior to removal, consideration was made to a number of additional issues. Firstly, a second factor analysis was undertaken. One factor was extracted based on the Guttman-Kaiser rule and examination of the scree plot, explaining 61.936% of the total variance, a 5.728% increase on the first model. Additionally, this item had a high number of 'don't know' responses within the survey. It was identified that retaining this item decreased the sample to 88, whilst removal provided a sample of 107 cases considered adequate for a regression model (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). A third consideration related to prior theory. Although value for money is commonly associated with perceived value (Zeithaml 1988) and

has been used as a single item scale, alternative research has identified that perceived value is a multi-dimensional concept (Williams, P & Soutar 2009). The items included within the survey reflected functional, social, epistemic and emotional measures (Williams, P & Soutar 2009), with time and money included as functional items (Mogilner & Aaker 2008). Only 7% of participants could not respond to the statement, 'Participating in Aboriginal activities is a good way to spend my time on holiday' compared to 30% for the 'value for money' item suggesting that the first item may be a more appropriate functional measure within this study. As many of the respondents had not yet participated in Aboriginal tourism activities, suggesting they could not make this evaluation, and to improve the validity of the scale the item, 'Aboriginal activities are good value for money' was removed. This left eight items within the scale for the Value dimension.

Average scores for the Likert items used in the final scale are shown in Table X. All items had median responses of 5 or above, showing levels of agreement, although as with earlier items none scored 7. However, assessments for value for money had a median score of 4. Likert items were selected to reflect four dimensions of value (Williams, P & Soutar 2009). The functional items related to gaining value from spending time and money (Mogilner & Aaker 2008). As previously noted 30% of respondents could not assess whether participation in Aboriginal activities reflected value for money, yet only 7% could not assess if participation was a good way to spend time on holiday, with a median score of 5.

Epistemic items considered if international tourists perceived that participation in Aboriginal activities provided opportunities to learn new knowledge, or undertake

experiences which were novel or considered 'once in a lifetime'. The average

responses were at the agreement end of the scale, with novelty score 5, and the

remaining two items 6, reflecting high levels of agreement.

Emotional value had two items, measuring enjoyment and excitement both

with a median score 5. Finally, social value had two measures with perception of

Aboriginal activities providing opportunities to meet new people median scoring 5.

The final measure had a median score of 6, and reflected the perception that tour

guides increased understanding of Aboriginal culture.

Table 6-15 Mean, median and standard deviation for Likert items and scales for the Value dimension

Descriptive results				
	N=	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
Participating in Aboriginal activities is a good way to spend my time on holiday	137	5.09	5	1.271
Aboriginal activities are enjoyable	123	5.15	5	1.261
Aboriginal activities are exciting	124	5.02	5	1.313
Tour guides increase my understanding of Aboriginal culture	127	5.76	6	1.300
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to meet new people	133	5.13	5	1.432
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to learn new knowledge	138	6.10	6	1.116
Aboriginal activities provide novelty	123	5.21	5	1.369
Aboriginal activities offer once-in-a lifetime experiences	131	5.41	6	1.498
Value		5.37	5	

6.5 Examining the relationships between the proposed dimensions of brand equity

H4: 'There is a positive and significant relationship among the proposed dimensions

of consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal Tourism context'.

To test Hypothesis 4, an initial Pearson correlation was undertaken. Awareness had no statistically significant relationship with any of the dimensions. The results identified that the dimensions of Quality, Authenticity and Value all had a statistically significant relationships with Personality. Amongst the predictor variables, Authenticity had the strongest correlation at 0.419, accounting for 17.55% of the variability of scores for Personality. The weakest correlation of a predictor variable was the value 0.375 for Quality, accounting for 14.06% of the variability of scores for Personality. However, Value score was very similar at 0.380, accounting for 14.44% of the variability of scores.

Table 6-16 Correlations between predictor variables

	Personality	Quality	Authenticity	Value	Awareness
Pearson Correlation					
Personality	1	0.375	0.419	0.380	-0.149
Quality	0.375	1	0.425	0.532	-0.148
Authenticity	0.419	0.425	1	0.707	-0.051
Value	0.380	0.532	0.707	1	-0.072
Awareness	-0.149	-0.148	-0.051	-0.72	1
Sig. (2-tailed)					
Personality	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.107
Quality	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.108
Authenticity	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.584
Value	0.107	0.108	0.584	0.438	0.438
Awareness					
N=119					

Similarly, when considering Quality, Value had the strongest correlation score at 0.532, accounting for 28.30% of the variability of the scores. Authenticity correlation score was 0.425, accounting for 18.06% of the variability of scores for Quality, with Personality the weakest correlation amongst predictor variables, 0.375, and accounting for 14.06% of the variability of scores.

Examination of the predictor variables for Authenticity identified that Value had the strongest correlation at 0.707, accounting for 49.98 % of the variability of

scores. Personality had the weakest relationship, 0.419, accounting for 17.55% of the variability of scores, whilst Quality scored 0.425, accounting for 18.06% of the variability of scores.

Finally, the strongest relationship among predictor variables and Value was Authenticity, at 0.707, accounting for 49.98 % of the variability of scores. Quality had a correlation score of 0.532, accounting for 28.30% of the variability of scores for Value. Personality had the weakest correlation, 0.380, accounting for 14.44% of the variability of scores for Value.

To further examine the relationship between the dimensions, four standard multiple regressions were performed, using the dimensions of Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value as dependant variables. Missing data were removed using list wise deletion, with a sample n=119 used within the analysis. Tables for each regression are provided displaying the correlations between the variables, the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr^2), R^2, and adjusted R^2.

The first standard multiple regression was performed between Personality as the dependant variable and Awareness, Quality, Authenticity and Value as the independent variable. R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F_{(3, 115)} = 8.729$, $p < 0.001$, with R^2 at 0.234. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.208 indicated that more than a fifth of the variability in Personality is predicted by Awareness and perceived Quality, Authenticity, Value. The regression model using Awareness, Value, Quality and Authenticity as predictors accounts for a significant amount of variability in scores for Personality. The model showed that Authenticity (β=0.280,

p=<0.05) and Quality (β=0.207, p=<0.05) were significant predicators of Personality. Value and Awareness were not significant predictors of Personality (β=0.065, p=>0.05) and (β=0.309, p=>0.05) respectively.

Combining the four independent variables contributed another 0.16 in shared variability. Altogether 23.4% (20.8% adjusted) of the variability in Personality is predicted by knowing the scores on the other independent variables. The size and direction of the relationship suggests that Personality is higher amongst those with higher perceptions of Authenticity and Quality in Aboriginal tourism within Australia. The squared semi-partial correlations indicate that of the two variables, Authenticity is more important. Examination of the median scores of the three Likert items which were used to construct the Personality scale, suggested that higher levels of self rather than social congruity were achieved from participating in Aboriginal tourism, with personal values having the highest median score. This suggests that increasing perceptions of authenticity and quality enable international tourists to use Aboriginal tourism to reflect their self-identity.

Awareness and perceived value did not contribute significantly to the regression, suggesting that these variables' relationship to Personality are mediated by the other two independent variables.

Table 6-17 Standard multiple regression of Awareness, Quality, Perceived Authenticity and Value on Personality

Variables	Personality	Awareness	Quality	Authenticity	Value	B	β	sr² unique
Awareness	-0.15					-0.309	-0.309	
Quality	0.38	-0.15				0.230	0.207	0.03
Authenticity	0.42	-0.05	0.43			0.370	0.280	0.04
Value	0.38	-0.07	0.53	0.71		0.085	0.065	
Means	4.05	1.22	4.75	5.03	5.41	R^2 =0.23		
Std. Deviation	1.29	0.414	1.16	0.98	0.99	Adjusted R^2 =0.21 R=0.48		

The second standard multiple regression findings displayed in Table 6-18 has Quality as the dependant variable and Awareness, Personality, Authenticity and Value as independent variables. R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F_{(4, 114)}$ =13.793, $p < .001$, with R^2 at 0.326. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.3 indicated that nearly a third of the variability in Quality is predicted by Awareness, Personality, Authenticity and Value. The regression model using Awareness, Personality, Value, and Authenticity as predictors accounts for a significant amount of variability in scores for Quality. The model showed that two regression coefficients differed significantly from zero, Personality (β=0.182, p=<0.05) and Value (β=0.425, p=<0.05). The confidence limit for Value (log of) was in a range of 0.242 to 0.750 and those of (log of) Personality, 0.010 to 0.318. Awareness and Authenticity were not significant predictors of Quality (β=0.09, p=>0.05) or (β=0.04, p=>0.05) respectively.

Overall, 33% (30% adjusted) of the variability in Quality is predicted by knowing the scores on the other independent variables, with 0.22 contributed by the four independent variables in combination. The size and direction of the relationship suggest that perceived quality is higher amongst those with higher perceptions of Personality and Value, although the squared semi-partial correlations indicate Value

is more important. Therefore, increasing the perceived Value gained from participating in Aboriginal tourism activities should be reflected in a similar increase in the overall perceived quality. As a high percentage of respondents were unable to make assessments of quality these findings show that promotional campaigns may benefit from focusing on the value gained from a multi-dimensional perspective. Awareness and Authenticity did not contribute significantly to the regression, suggesting that these variables' relationship to perceived quality are mediated by the other two independent variables.

Table 6-18 Standard multiple regression of Awareness, Personality, Perceived Authenticity and Value on Perceived Quality

Variables	Quality	Awareness	Personality	Authenticity	Value	B	β	sr^2 (unique)
Awareness	-0.15					-0.248	-0.09	
Personality	0.38	-0.15				0.16	0.18	0.03
Authenticity	0.43	-0.05	0.42			0.05	0.04	
Value	0.53	-0.07	0.38	0.71		0.50	0.43	0.09
Means	4.75	1.22	4.05	5.03	5.41	R^2 =0.326		
Std. Deviation	1.16	0.41	1.29	0.98	0.99	Adjusted R^2 =0.302 R=0.571		

The third standard multiple regression model was performed between the dependant variable of Authenticity and independent variables of Awareness, Personality, Quality and Value, with the results displayed in Table 6-19. R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F_{(4, 114)}$ =31.841, $p < .001$, with R^2 at 0.528. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.511 indicated that nearly half of the variability in Authenticity is predicted by Awareness, Personality, Quality and Value. Overall, the regression model using Awareness, Personality, Value, and Quality as predictors accounts for a significant amount of variability in scores for perceived Authenticity. The model showed that two regression coefficients differed significantly from zero, Personality (β=0.173, p=<0.05) and Value (β=0.266,

p=<0.05). The confidence limit for Value (log of) was in a range of 0.463 to 0.767 and those of (log of) Personality, 0.023 to 0.238. Awareness and Quality were not significant predictors of Perceived Authenticity (β=0.025, p=>0.05) or (β=0.31, p=>0.05) respectively.

The four independent variables in combination contributed another 0.24 in shared variability. Altogether, 53% (51% adjusted) of the variability in perceived authenticity was predicted by knowing the scores on the other independent variables. The size and direction of the relationship suggest that higher levels of perceived authenticity exist amongst respondents who have high scores of Personality and perceived value. The squared semi-partial correlations indicate that between these two variables, Perceived Value has a significantly higher importance than Personality.

Table 6-19 Standard multiple regression of Awareness, Personality, Perceived Quality and Value on Authenticity

Variables	Authenticity	Awareness	Personality	Quality	Value	*B*	β	sr² (unique)
Awareness	-0.05					0.058	0.025	
Personality	0.42	-0.15				0.131	0.173	0.024
Quality	0.43	-0.15	0.38			0.031	0.31	
Value	0.71	-0.07	0.38	0.53		0.627	0.627	0.266
Means	5.03	1.22	4.05	4.7	5.41	R ² =0.528		
Std. Deviation	0.98	0.41	1.29	1.16	0.99	Adjusted R ² =0.511 R=0.726		

A final standard multiple regression model was performed between the dependant variable of Value and the independent variables of awareness, Personality, Quality and Authenticity, with the results displayed in Table 6-20. R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F_{(4, 114)}$ =37.219, $p < .001$, with R² at 0.566. The adjusted R ² value of 0.511 indicated that half of the variability in Value is predicted by Awareness, Personality, Quality and Authenticity. The model showed

that two regression coefficients differed significantly from zero, Authenticity (β=0.576, p=<0.05) and Quality (β=0.273, p=<0.05). The confidence limit for Authenticity (log of) was in a range of 0.442 to 0.731 and those of (log of) Quality, 0.114 to 0.354. Personality and Awareness were not significant predictors of Authenticity (β=0.037, p=>0.05) or (β=0.003, p=>0.05) respectively.

The four independent variables in combination contributed another 0.26 in shared variability. Altogether, 57% (55% adjusted) of the variability in perceived value was predicted by knowing the scores on the other independent variables. The size and direction of the relationship suggest that increasing scores for Quality and Authenticity will result in increased perceived Value. The squared semi-partial correlations indicate that between these two variables, authenticity has a significantly higher importance than quality.

Table 6-20 Standard Multiple Regression of Awareness, Personality, Quality and Authenticity on Value

Variables	Value	Authenticity	Awareness	Personality	Quality	B	β	sr² (unique)
Authenticity	0.71					0.587	0.576	0.245
Awareness	-0.72	-0.05				0.008	0.003	
Personality	0.38	0.42	-0.15			0.028	0.037	
Quality	0.53	0.43	-0.15	0.38		0.234	0.273	0.057
Means	5.42	5.03	1.22	4.05	4.75	R^2 = 0.566		
Std. Deviation	0.99	0.98	0.41	1.29	1.16	Adjusted R^2 = 0.551 R= 0.753		

In conclusion, the regression models highlighted the differing relationships which existed between the dimensions, and these are shown in Figure 6-5. Whilst awareness has no direct relationships with any of the dimensions, Quality had relationships with Personality and Value. However, the relationship between Quality and Authenticity appear to be mediated by Personality and Value. Likewise, Personality and Value do not appear to have direct relationships with each other,

although they have relationships with Quality and Authenticity. These exploratory findings support Hypothesis 4, that relationships exist between the proposed brand equity dimensions.
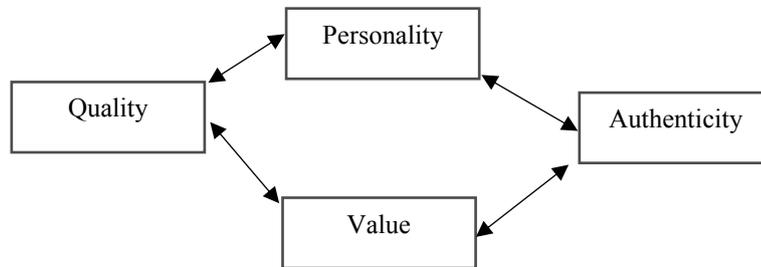
Figure 6-5 Preliminary model of relationships between brand dimensions

6.6 The relationship between brand dimensions and intention to participate

Hypotheses 5-10 all consider brand equity within the context of Aboriginal tourism in Australia. Overall, brand equity was measured by intention to participate, which was Q19 in the survey. Prior to testing the hypotheses, consideration was given to the overall responses to intention to participate. Compared to an earlier study where intention to participate was found in only 2% of respondents (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), over half of the respondents, 56.8%, intended to participate in an Aboriginal tourism activity during their holiday. However, this may reflect that the samples in this survey were considered cultural tourists who may have a higher propensity to participate.

6.6.1 Descriptive findings related to intention to participate

Relationships between tourist characteristics were examined, with the findings displayed in Table 6-21. Not surprisingly, motivation to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities was found to have a strong correlation with intention to participate.

As expected, 80% of respondents who consider participation during their holiday to be 'very important' intended to participate. Likewise, 62.9% of those who consider participation to be 'not at all important' had no intention to participate during their holiday.

A moderate relationship was identified between gender and intention to visit, with a higher proportion of females intending to participate than males, 61.3% and 52.1% respectively. Differences between travel party composition and intention to participate were also identified, with a moderate significant relationship identified. Overall, the highest percentage of intention to participate was seen in the travelling with friends group, 76.9%, followed by family groups, 65.2%, and adult couples, 53.8%. Less than half of unaccompanied travellers intended to participate.

A moderate correlation was identified between respondents who planned to travel outside of the main cities and intention to participate, with 62% of the respondents who planned to travel outside of the main cities intending to participate.

No statistically significant relationship was identified between first time and return visitors to Australia, nationality, age, nights and stopovers, trip planning and previous experience overseas.

Table 6-21 Characteristics of respondents and their intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activity during their current holiday

Independent variables	% of independent variable intending to pariticiapte			Cramer V			Pearson's Chi-square		
	Yes	No	Don't know	n=	r=	p=	Chi square value	df=	p=
Motivation to participate: Not at all important Somewhat important Very important	31.4 62.4 80	62.9 20 12	5.7 17.6 8	0.314	145	<0.05	28.649	4	<0.05
First time visitor	61.9%	21.4%	16.7%	0.195	148	>0.05	5.635	2	>0.05
Return visitor	50%	39.1%	10.9%						
Gender Male Female	52.1% 61.3%	38.4% 20%	9.6% 18.7	0.217	148	<0.05	7.000	2	<0.05
Age: 18-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60-69 70-79 80+	61.1% 41.2% 55.6% 55.6% 52.2% 75% 0%	25% 35.3% 44.4% 33.3% 34.8% 0% 100%	13.9% 23.5% 0% 11.1% 13% 25% 0%	0.194	148	>0.05	11.164	12	>0.05
Nights				0.290	145	>0.05	24.386	24	>0.05
Stopovers 1-5 6-10 11-20 20-100	49.4 72.4 80 75	35.3 13.8 0 25	15.3 13.8 20 0	0.192	127	>0.05	9.351	6	>0.05
Travelling outside of main cities?	61	23.7	15.3	0.233	148	<0.05	8.009	2	<0.05
Main cities only	40	50	10						
Travel party composition: Adult couple Family Friends Unaccompanied	53.8 65.2 76.9 33.3	33.3 21.7 7.7 47.6	12.8 13 15.4 19	0.204	148	<0.05	12.289	6	<0.05
Nationality: European USA/Canadian Asian South American	60 64.5 39.3 33.3	28.2 22.6 35.7 66.7	11.8 12.9 25 0	0.162	147	>0.05	7.727	6	>0.05
Decided on all destinations to visit prior to arrival	55.8	30	14.2	0.044	148	>0.05	0.291	2	>0.05
Pre-booked									

accommodation and transportation:									
All	45.8	42.4	11.9	0.175	127	>0.05	7.765	6	>0.05
Some	63.6	21.8	14.5						
None	66.7	16.7	16.7						
Don't know	100	0	0						
Decided on activities prior to arrival:									
All				0.081	144	>0.05	1.891	6	>0.05
Some	53.3	26.7	20						
None	58.7	29.4	11.9						
Don't know	53.3	26.7	20						
	40	40	20						
Previous experience with Aboriginal tourism activities overseas:									
Yes				0.132	148	>0.05	5.196	4	>0.05
No	62.7	28.4	9						
	51.9	30.4	17.7						

6.6.2 **Identifying factors which influence overall brand equity**

To test hypotheses 5-9, analysis of the findings were undertaken using a logistic regression model.

H5: Brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H6: Brand image of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H7: Perceived quality of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H8: Perceived authenticity of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate

H9: Perceived value of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate in Aboriginal tourism

As this study was interested in identifying factors which could be used to increase participation in Aboriginal tourism activities, the decision was made to include the 'don't know' responses within the no responses. This enabled the research to focus on identifying factors which were increasing the likelihood to participate. Additionally, analysis of the responses to the open question was undertaken and it was identified that the reasons provided were very similar to those that responded no.

6.6.2.1 *Examining the relationships between brand dimensions and overall brand equity*

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to predict intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday, with Awareness, Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value used as predictors. A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that the predictors as a set reliably distinguished between those that intended to participate and those that did not (Chi square = 26.539, p <.000, df = 7). Goodness of fit measures -2 log likelihood 133.139, Cox and Snell R^2 was 0.200, and Nagelkerke's R^2 of 0.271 indicating a relationship between prediction and grouping. Prediction success overall was 72.3% (87.5% for yes and 48.9% for no).

The Wald criterion demonstrated that only two variables, Awareness and Authenticity, made a significant contribution to prediction. Therefore H5: Brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate, and H8: Perceived authenticity of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate were supported. When considering awareness, compared to the respondents who had no awareness that

Aboriginal people offered tourism activities within Australia, only awareness gained during the planning stage of the holiday was a significant predictor (p=0.042). Authenticity was also a significant predictor (p=0.033). Value, Quality and Personality were not significant predictors, and therefore hypotheses 6, 7 and 9 could not be supported.

Exp(B) value indicates that, compared to international tourists who have no awareness of Aboriginal people offering tourism activities in Australia, those that gained awareness during the planning stage were four times more likely to participate. This suggests that gaining awareness after arriving in Australia is not sufficient to influence the intention to participate. Likewise, although respondents may have awareness prior to planning this does not influence intention to participate.

Additionally, increasing perception of authenticity on the scale by 1, increases the likelihood of intention to participate by 97%. This suggests that positioning strategies and associated promotional campaigns which focus on increasing the perceived authenticity of products offered by Aboriginal people within Australia may be beneficial.

Table 6-22 Logistic regression analysis of intention to participate as a function of awareness and image variables

Variables	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Personality	.178	.191	.877	1	.349	1.195
Quality	-.269	.224	1.442	1	.230	.764
Authenticity	.680	.319	4.538	1	.033	1.973
Value	.390	.325	1.439	1	.230	1.477
Awareness-depth			4.334	3	.228	
Awareness-before	.726	.563	1.661	1	.197	2.067
Awareness- during	1.658	.814	4.153	1	.042	5.249
Awareness-arrival	.562	.662	.721	1	.396	1.755
Constant	-5.149	1.507	11.671	1	.001	.006

6.6.2.2 Examining the relationship between tourists' characteristics and overall brand equity

To test Hypothesis 10: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists to intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday, a further logistic regression analysis was conducted. The outcome variable was intention to participate, with predictor variables of previous visits, age, gender, travel party composition, nationality, previous experience overseas, travelling outside major cities, and depth of motivation to participate.

A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, (Chi square =43.418, p <.001, df = 18). Goodness of fit measures -2 log likelihood 152.834, Cox and Snell R² was 0.260 and Nagelkerke's R² of 0.350 indicating a relationship between prediction and grouping. Overall prediction success 70.1% (79.5% for yes and 57.4% for no). The Wald criterion demonstrated that two variables made a significant contribution to the prediction. With travelling alone as a base category, the categories of travelling with family or friends were significant predictors of intention to participate (p=0.014 and p=0.015 respectively). The Exp(B) value indicates that respondents travelling with family were seven times, and those with friends over five times, more likely to intend to participate. Travelling as a member of an adult couple was not significant.

Not surprisingly, motivation to participate was statistically significant. With a base category of 'not at all important', 'somewhat important' was a statistically significant predictor, p=0.014), with this category twice as likely to intend to participate. Likewise the category which measured those who felt it was 'very

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important' to participate, was also a significant predictor (p=0.001), and represented those who were nearly fifteen times more likely to intend to participate. As only two characteristics act as predictors of intention to participate, Hypothesis 11 could be partially supported.

Table 6-23 Logistic regression analysis of intention to participate as a function of tourist characteristic variables

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Previous visit (1)	.032	.440	.005	1	.942	1.033
Age			2.693	6	.846	
Age (1)	-1.022	.671	2.316	1	.128	.360
Age (2)	.113	.953	.014	1	.906	1.119
Age (3)	.017	.712	.001	1	.980	1.018
Age (4)	-.366	.650	.318	1	.573	.693
Age (5)	-.065	1.043	.004	1	.950	.937
Age (6)	-19.483	40192.970	.000	1	1.000	.000
Gender (1)	-.266	.417	.406	1	.524	.767
Travel party			10.320	3	.016	
Travel party(1)	.439	.621	.499	1	.480	1.550
Travel party(2)	2.075	.848	5.989	1	.014	7.967
Travel party(3)	1.890	.776	5.926	1	.015	6.618
Nationality cat			8.453	3	.038	
Nationality cat (1)	2.341	1.421	2.716	1	.099	10.396
Nationality cat (2)	2.300	1.477	2.423	1	.120	9.974
Nationality cat (3)	.971	1.474	.434	1	.510	2.641
Previous (1)	.388	.463	.702	1	.402	1.473
Motivation			12.049	2	.002	
Motivation (1)	1.264	.513	6.084	1	.014	3.540
Motivation (2)	2.690	.803	11.205	1	.001	14.726
Urban only (1)	.790	.542	2.119	1	.146	2.202
Constant	-4.174	1.698	6.043	1	.014	.015

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Previous visit, Age, Gender, Travel party, nationality cat, Previous, Motivation, Urban only.

6.6.2.3 *Examining the mediating effect of tourist characteristics on overall brand equity*

A final logistic regression analysis was conducted to answer Hypothesis 11

H11: International tourists' characteristics will mediate the influence of brand equity dimensions on overall brand equity

The outcome variable remained the same, with Awareness, Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value used as the brand dimensions predictor variables. Additional predictor variables used for tourist characteristics were the same as used in test Hypothesis 10: Previous visit, Age, Gender, Travel party, nationality, previous participation, motivation, and intention to travel outside of major cities.

A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that the predictors as a set reliably distinguished between intention to participate (Chi square = 59.318, p <.000, df = 24). Goodness of fit measures -2 log likelihood 95.614, Cox and Snell R^2 was 0.400, and Nagelkerke's R^2 of 0.543 indicating a relationship between prediction and grouping. Prediction success overall was 81.9% (87.3% for yes and 73.3% for no). This model fit was higher than the models which considered brand dimensions and characteristics separately. The Wald criterion demonstrated that only two variables made a significant contribution to prediction.

When considering travel party, compared to the respondents travelling alone, the Wald results highlight all that as with the previous model, only respondents travelling as a family group (0.004) or with friends (p=0.049) were statistically significant. The Exp(B) identifies that respondents travelling with family had the highest likelihood, over forty five times more likely, and those with friends seven times more likely to intend to participate.

Similarly, motivation was statistically significant. Compared to those that considered participation not at all important, those that considered it 'somewhat important to participate' were four times more likely, while those who felt it was 'very important' were thirty times more likely to intend to participate.

All the brand dimension variables were found to be not significant predictors, supporting Hypothesis 11, that tourist characteristics mediate the influence of these brand dimensions on overall brand equity.

Overall this model's prediction of success at 81.9% was an improvement on using predictors of intention to participate based only on perceptions (72.3%) or tourist characteristics (70.1%). This suggests that brand equity models may be improved by considering the mediating effect of other factors on the brand equity dimensions. Interestingly, whilst the same predictors were found to be statistically significant in models 2 and 3, the likelihood of participation increased for each of the four categories: 2 within travel party, and 2 within motivation. Using the motivator predictors alongside the perception predictors of Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value, doubled the likelihood of intention to participate.

Table 6-24 Logistic regression analysis of intention to participate as a function of brand dimensions and tourist characteristic variables

<div align="center">Variables in the Equation</div>

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1[a]	Previous visit (1)	-.168	.600	.078	1	.780	.845
	Age			4.053	5	.542	
	Age (1)	-1.423	1.014	1.967	1	.161	.241
	Age (2)	-.427	1.501	.081	1	.776	.652
	Age (3)	.658	1.220	.291	1	.590	1.930
	Age (4)	-1.043	.930	1.258	1	.262	.352
	Age (5)	.147	1.509	.009	1	.922	1.158
	Gender (1)	.100	.580	.030	1	.863	1.105
	Travel party			8.937	3	.030	
	Travel party (1)	1.578	.918	2.952	1	.086	4.846
	Travel party (2)	3.833	1.316	8.487	1	.004	46.182
	Travel party (3)	2.113	1.071	3.892	1	.049	8.272
	Nationality cat			6.858	3	.077	
	Nationality cat (1)	4.691	2.216	4.483	1	.034	108.958
	Nationality cat (2)	3.021	2.177	1.925	1	.165	20.510
	Nationality cat (3)	3.029	2.047	2.188	1	.139	20.667
	Previous (1)	.294	.619	.225	1	.635	1.341
	Motivation			9.331	2	.009	
	Motivation (1)	1.700	.673	6.385	1	.012	5.476
	Motivation (2)	3.462	1.337	6.703	1	.010	31.875
	Urban only (1)	1.213	.848	2.045	1	.153	3.362
	Awareness depth			3.307	3	.347	
	Awareness depth (1)	.380	1.003	.144	1	.704	1.463
	Awareness depth (2)	1.765	1.340	1.733	1	.188	5.839
	Awareness depth (3)	-.238	1.057	.051	1	.822	.789
	Personality	.350	.269	1.693	1	.193	1.420
	Quality	-.370	.340	1.184	1	.277	.691
	Authenticity	.637	.383	2.768	1	.096	1.890
	Value	.599	.449	1.780	1	.182	1.820
	Constant	-13.957	3.814	13.390	1	.000	.000

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Previous visit, Age, Gender, Travel party, nationality cat, Previous, Motivation, Urban only, Awareness depth, SELF CONGRUITY, QUALITY,IMAGE_1, AUTHENTICITY, VALUE_1.
(Churchill Jr 1979).

6.6.2.4 Responses to the open question regarding intention to participate

Respondents were asked to provide reasons for their intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday. 74 of the 84 respondents provided a response to this question. The responses were categorised (Table 6-25) with some respondents combining two or more reasons into their statement such as: 'learn about

the culture, have a unique experience, learn about the "real" Australia'. Not surprisingly, as the survey was undertaken within a museum, 19% of the respondents included Aboriginal tourism activities as it was part of the museum's exhibition. Of these, two made direct reference to attending the AACG due to friends' recommendations.

Table 6-25 Responses to the open question: 'why do you intend to participate?'

Reasons for participation	n	%
Museum exhibition	14	19%
Part of a tour	3	4%
Increase cultural knowledge	29	39%
Increase cultural knowledge-specifically Aboriginal	19	26%
Increase cultural knowledge-general	10	14%
Learn about lifestyle (Aboriginal)	6	8%
Learn about history	11	15%
History-specifically Aboriginal	4	5%
History-general Australia	7	9%
New experiences	13	18%
Part of Australia	15	20%

Collectively, the majority of respondents, 62%, made reference to intention to participate due to a motivation to increase knowledge related to culture, lifestyle or history. However, to utilise these findings, a deeper understanding of why is required to ensure promotional and positioning strategies are correctly targeted. Therefore, to further examine intentions to participate, the following findings are separated into categories of motivations to learn about culture, lifestyle, history or experiences, which are all classified as epistemic value. An additional category was identified connected to Australia's brand.

As expected, the highest category for motivation to participate was to learn or understand more about the culture and 39% of respondents provided this reason. Within this category, two separate themes were identified. Firstly, 26% of

respondents' comments related directly to learning about Australian Aboriginal culture, for example: 'main reason travelled here to learn about aboriginal tribes, learn culture/history'. However, the majority of these comments made general statements such as: 'learn more about the culture', with only two directly relating to aspects of culture they were interested in, both art. Alternatively, 15% of respondents identified an interest in learning about a country's culture, for example: 'learning about country's culture a major part of our reason to travel'.

Although lifestyle and culture are strongly connected, they are also separate concepts, and therefore the two themes were separated, with 8% of respondents making direct reference to learning about Aboriginal lifestyles. Two made direct reference to the desire to increase understanding of contemporary Aboriginal culture One respondent identified a key aspect of interest as: 'interested in how aboriginal people eat native plants'.

History was another identified theme, with 15% of respondents providing this as a reason for participation. As with culture, these statements could be separated into an Aboriginal context, 5%: 'gain an understanding of the history of aboriginal people' and Australian context, 9% 'interested in Australian history'.

Intention to participate was also related to the motivation to undertake new experiences by 18% of respondents. Respondents used words to describe how they perceived the experience such as new, unique, curiosity, and fun, to explain why they would undertake the experience, for example: 'It'll be a good experience in my life'.

The final theme related to the importance of undertaking an Aboriginal tourism activity when visiting Australia, and was used by 20% of respondents. These statements were separate from simply stating cultural or historical contexts, and more closely reflected the associations international tourists had with Australia as a brand. Statements such as: 'Aboriginal culture is an integral part of Australia' or 'the Aboriginal way of life is definitely part of Australia' may reflect how international tourists perceive Aboriginal culture 'fits' within the Australian brand. Indeed one respondent commented they intended to participate as it was the, 'identity of Australia'. Similarly, some respondents connected Aboriginal tourism with Uluru with a respondent commenting this was a 'symbol of Australia'.

6.6.2.5   Responses to the open question regarding reasons for not participating

Of the 64 respondents who were not intending to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday, 47 responded to the open question. Responses are categorised and are presented in Table 6-26 with examples. The responses were distributed with time, 23%, having the highest response level. Holidays are generally time constrained with prioritisation of activities undertaken (Richards 1998). This suggests that additional factors may also influence the decision to participate. Within this small sample, respondents provided an insight into why they could not allocate time to this activity including prioritisation due to interest or motivation to participate, 'Time/ not interested, not on wish list' or purpose of visit to Australia, 'no more time available. Friends to see'. Indeed for 17% of respondents, the purpose of the visit was not to participate in Aboriginal activities, with 88% of this category highlighting visiting friends/family. However, as all surveys were undertaken within the SA Museum, respondents selected at least one activity to undertake during their

stay in Adelaide, suggesting that deeper probing of these responses may highlight additional reasons for non-participation. Within this survey, additional responses related to: motivation to participate -lack of interest (4%) and previous participation (9%); quality perceptions -lack of perceived authenticity (6%); and perceived value-cost (4%).

As with previous studies (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), lack of awareness was cited by 13% of respondents. Additionally, 21% had not planned any within their schedule. Interestingly, for those who had not planned any, four out of the six indicated they would be willing to participate if they, 'came across them', with two clearly stating that lack of awareness had prevented inclusion. This suggests that further probing of responses may have more clearly identified the reason for non-inclusion within holiday activity plans.

Table 6-26 Responses to the open question: 'why don't you intend to participate?'

Reason	Example text	Total
Time	Not enough time Time constraints Tight schedule, focus on other things Time/ not interested, not on wish list	11
Tour	I am on a guided tour that has not booked any such activities	1
Lack awareness	I wasn't aware there were Aboriginal tourist activities available, but would love to participate in these activities next time I come to Australia Very aware of Maori tourism before travelled to New Zealand but not Australian Aboriginal tourism. All Chinese go to Maori tourism. No knowledge of Aboriginal culture before came, no expectation, Lack of knowledge in China, more koala/kangaroo Not aware of any, not seen any promotion in Holland or here since arrived I would participate if I discover any as not promoted well enough. We likely won't come in areas where we expect the aboriginals to live	7
Purpose of visit	My trip is more on visiting family Not here for that (Tour Down Under) Visiting friends on Kangaroo Island	8
Done previously	I did it my last visit	4
Lack authenticity	it's commercial, not authentic more commercial than authentic Perceive Uluru to be not authentic. This is a common view amongst my friends-what was once spiritual now lost to tourism. As Aborigines are known to keep culture private it is assumed any experiences are not authentic. Need to promote (by Aborigines) that they are showing real culture than I would definitely participate.	3
Cost	Like to drive ourselves. Tours + experiences are expensive. on a working holiday visa not enough money	2
Lack interest	Not really interested	2
Not planned any	None planned but would if came across them on Great Ocean Road Not got any planned but hope to Not planned any but would participate if came across them- aware of Aboriginal people but not tourism products Not planned any yet Unfortunately I did not participate in any activity until now- I plan to do this on my next trip Did not consider any when planning our holiday. Also not aware of what we could participate in or what was on offer. If the opportunity arises only if they coincide with travel plans	10

6.7 Willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism

The final two hypotheses considered willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities.

H12: Aboriginal tourism brand equity increases the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination

H13: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination

As discussed within the methodology chapter, respondents were provided with a photograph depicting a 4x4 vehicle in the Flinders Ranges, South Australia. No further information was provided. Respondents were asked if they would be willing to travel to this destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, with 57.4% agreed they would be willing to travel there.

Firstly, consideration to intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism and willingness to travel were considered, with a strong significant relationship identified. The Cramer's V, r =.365, n= 148, p<0.05. Pearson's Chi square value = 19.744, df =2, p <0.005. Interestingly, intention to participate did not always result in a willingness to travel for all participants, with 28.6% responding no. Likewise, 30.2% of those who were not intending to participate were willing to travel to the destination in the photograph to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. These findings suggest other factors, beyond participating in Aboriginal tourism, were influencing the choice process.

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to predict willingness to travel to the remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities with intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities used as predictors. A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that the

predictors as a set reliably distinguished between acceptors and decliners of the offer (Chi square = 15.744, p <.000, df = 1). Goodness of fit measures -2 likelihood 186.145, Cox and Snell R² 0.101, and Nagelkerke's R² of 0.136 indicated a relationship between prediction and grouping. Prediction success overall was 66.9% (70.6% for yes and 61.9% for no). The Wald criterion demonstrated that the intention to participate variable made a significant contribution to the prediction of willingness to travel (p=0.000), to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism. The Exp(B) value indicates that compared to international tourists who have no intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia, those that did intend to were nearly three times more likely to be willing to travel to the remote destination. Therefore H12: Aboriginal tourism brand equity increases the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination was supported.

Table 6-27 Logistic regression analysis of willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities as a function of brand equity

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1ᵃ	Intention	1.361	.352	14.941	1	.000	3.900
	Constant	-.445	.256	3.013	1	.083	.641

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Intention.

To test Hypothesis 13, further analysis was undertaken to identify potential relationships between willingness to travel and tourist characteristics. Motivation to participate and willingness to travel had a moderate significant relationship identified. The majority of the respondents within the survey considered participation to be somewhat important, and their willingness to travel to the destination was fairly

evenly distributed although a slightly higher percentage, 56.5%, were willing to travel. Interestingly, 42.9% of respondents who had no motivation to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities were willing to travel, suggesting although this segment are motivated by other factors, and that they may still be a viable target segment for remote Aboriginal operators. Similar to McKercher's (2002) classification of cultural tourists, 84% of those who considered participation to be very important were willing to travel.

A moderate significant relationship was also identified between number of previous visits and willingness to travel, with a higher percentage of first time visitors, 66.7%, willing to travel to the location compared to 45.3% of repeat visitors. Trip pre-planning was also considered with a statistically significant weak relationship identified between deciding on destinations prior to arrival and willingness to travel to the destination. This result was not surprising, with 75% of those who had not decided before arrival were willing to travel to the location compared to only 53.3% of those who had. This was also reflected when considering respondents who had already planned to travel of the main cities. A moderate correlation existed between respondents who planned to travel outside of the main cities, with 64.4% of those respondents willing to travel to the destination compared to only 30% of those who planned to only visit the main cities. The other two variables related to trip pre-planning, accommodation/transport and activities were not statistically significant.

Whilst age and intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities was not a statistically significant relationship, a moderate correlation was found between age

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and willingness to travel to the destination to participate. A higher percentage of respondents aged 18-29 and over 60 were willing to travel there, with only 22% of those in the 40-49 age group willing to do so.

No statistically significant relationship was identified between number of nights within Australia and willingness to travel to the destination, although a moderate relationship was found between number of stopovers and willingness to travel. Not surprisingly, an increased number of proposed stopovers increased the willingness to travel. No significant relationship was identified between nationality, gender, travel party and willingness to travel.

Table 6-28 Correlations between willingness to travel to a remote destination and tourist characteristics

	% of independent variable willing to travel		Cramer V			Pearson's Chi-square		
Independent variables	Yes	No	r=	n=	p=	Chi square value	df=	p=
Motivation			0.267	145	<0.05	10.309	2	p<0.05
Not at all important	42.9	57.1						
Somewhat important	56.5	43.5						
Very important	84	16						
First time visitor	66.7	44.4	0.214	148	<0.05	6.775	1	<0.05
Return visitor	45.3	54.7						
Gender			0.002	148	>0.05	.001	1	>0.05
Male	57.5	42.5						
Female	57.3	42.7						
Age:			0.292	148	<0.05	12.655	6	<0.05
18-29	59.7	40.3						
30-39	47.1	52.9						
40-49	22.2	77.8						
50-59	50	50						
60-69	60.9	39.1						
70-79	100	0						
80+	100	0						
Nights			0.283	145	>0.05	11.622	12	>0.05
Stopovers			0.267	127	<0.05	9.081	3	<0.05
1-5	50.6	49.4						
6-10	65.5	34.5						
11-20	100	0						

20-100	87.5	12.5						
Travelling outside of main cities?	64.4	35.6	0.280	148	<0.05	11.582	1	<0.05
Main cities only	30	70						
Travel party composition:								
Adult couple	57.7	42.3	0.135	148	>0.05	2.678	3	>0.05
Family	43.5	56.5						
Friends	65.4	34.6						
Unaccompanied	61.9	38.1						
Nationality:								
European	57.6	42.4	0.214	147	>0.05	6.717	3	>0.05
USA/Canadian	74.2	25.8						
Asian	42.9	57.1						
South American	33.3	66.7						
Decided on destinations:								
Yes	53.3	46.7	0.172	148	<0.05	4.359	1	<0.05
No	75	25						
Trip pre-planning								
All								
Some								
None	52.5	47.5	0.210	127	>0.05	5.593	3	>0.05
Don't know	49.1	50.9						
	83.3	16.7						
	100	0						
Decided on activities prior to arrival:								
All	66.7	33.3	0.093	144	>0.05	1.253	3	>0.05
Some	57.8	42.2						
None	46.7	53.3						
Don't know	60	40						
Previous experience overseas:								
Yes	61.2	38.8	0.129	148	>0.05	2.459	2	>0.05
No	53.2	46.8						

A final logistic regression model was undertaken to test Hypothesis 13: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination. Willingness to travel to the remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities was the outcome variable. A number of predictive variables were selected based on the initial descriptive analysis which identified correlations between the outcome variable and motivation to participate, first time visitors, age, and number of stopovers, travelling outside

main cities and pre-planning destinations prior to arrival. Intention to participate was also included as the brand equity measure. Finally, travel party composition, nationality and gender were also included within the model, due to their significance in other studies.

A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that the predictors as a set reliably distinguished between those who were willing to travel to the location and those that were not (Chi square = 58.767, p <.000, df = 22). Goodness of fit measures -2 likelihood 107.421, Cox and Snell R^2 0.381, and Nagelkerke's R^2 of 0.513 indicated a relationship between prediction and grouping, and was a significant improvement on the model which considered intention to participate as the only predictor variable. Prediction success overall was 76.4% (80.8% for yes and 70% for no), a 10% increase on a model which only considers intention to participate as a predictor variable.

The Wald criterion demonstrated that only two variables, intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities (p=0.011) and planning to travel outside of the major cities (p=0.023), made a significant contribution to the prediction of willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism. For both predictors, the Exp(B) value indicates that international tourists who have planned to travel outside of the major cities or were intending to participate were three and a half times more likely to be willing to travel to the destination. These two predictors are not surprising, particularly as they reflect a sample of tourists who have already arrived in Australia. However, they also highlight the importance of increasing Aboriginal tourism brand equity amongst international tourists. To further

understand why these two predictor variables may increase the likelihood of willingness to travel, the findings of the open question, 'why would you be willing to travel there' was analysed.

Table 6-29 Logistic regression analysis of Willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities as a function of brand equity and tourist characteristic variables

Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Intention(1)	1.545	.605	6.512	1	.011	4.688
Previous visit(1)	.897	.545	2.712	1	.100	2.453
Age			1.162	6	.979	
Age(1)	.265	.757	.123	1	.726	1.304
Age(2)	-.797	1.134	.494	1	.482	.451
Age(3)	.531	.864	.378	1	.539	1.701
Age(4)	.262	.772	.115	1	.734	1.300
Age(5)	20.295	12975.883	.000	1	.999	651669916.509
Age(6)	21.847	40192.969	.000	1	1.000	3077440084.827
Stopover cat			1.834	3	.608	
Stopover cat(1)	-.347	.652	.283	1	.595	.707
stopover cat(2)	20.087	16821.260	.000	1	.999	529419856.355
stopover cat(3)	1.972	1.623	1.476	1	.224	7.185
Urban only(1)	1.497	.660	5.142	1	.023	4.469
Pre-plan destination(1)	-.372	.866	.185	1	.668	.689
Travel party			1.309	3	.727	
Travel party(1)	-.643	.819	.616	1	.432	.526
Travel party(2)	-1.179	1.044	1.274	1	.259	.308
Travel party(3)	-.695	1.036	.450	1	.502	.499
Gender(1)	-.064	.511	.016	1	.900	.938
nationality cat			3.049	3	.384	
nationality cat(1)	2.047	1.581	1.677	1	.195	7.748
nationality cat(2)	2.785	1.708	2.659	1	.103	16.193
nationality cat(3)	1.848	1.652	1.252	1	.263	6.346
Motivation			3.692	2	.158	
Motivation(1)	.367	.631	.338	1	.561	1.443
Motivation(2)	1.781	.958	3.460	1	.063	5.937
Constant	-3.954	2.131	3.442	1	.064	.019

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Intention, Previous visit, Age, stopover cat, Urban only, Pre-plan destination, Travel party, Gender, nationality cat, Motivation.

6.7.1 Reasons for willingness to travel to the destination

To reduce survey fatigue, four 'tick all that apply' options were provided to identify reasons for willingness to travel to the destination, with another option also provided. The purpose of this question was to identify other potential reasons in addition to cultural motivation. 56 of the 85 respondents who were willing to travel ticked at least one option. Adventure was the most commonly selected option by 70.5% of respondents, followed by the authentic experience, 65.8%. 22.3% provided an additional response under other.

Table 6-30 Responses to the open question: 'why don't you intend to participate?'

	Frequency	Percentage
Authentic experience	56	65.8%
Adventure	60	70.5%
Novel experience	30	35.2%
Engage in the experience	21	24.7%
Other	19	22.3%
	N=85	

When considering the other responses, it is interesting to note that these are perceptions created only by seeing an image. Seven of the other responses related to undertaking experiences which are 'different', with three of these respondents noted it would be different to cities, and another associating it with 'camping'. However, two of the respondents also noted they would prefer a guide to explain the plants and place. Seven responses directly referred to nature and the landscapes with phrases such as 'looks off the beaten path' and 'in the wild'. Single responses referred to willingness to go if it was 'authentic', if 'en route as the journey is pre-planned', or if other activities are available in addition to Aboriginal experiences, or dependent upon cost. Another respondent noted that they liked adventure.

Finally, consideration to relationships which may exist between tourist characteristics and reasons for willingness to travel were examined. Statistically significant relationships were identified between the dependant variable willingness to travel and the independent variables of nationality and previous participation. A strong correlation between authenticity and nationality was identified, Cramer V, r=0.364, n=85, p=<0.05, with the relationship statistically significant, Pearson Chi square=11.240, df=3, p= <0.05. USA/Canadians who agreed they would be willing to travel had the highest number of respondents who selected authenticity, 91.3% compared to 59.2% of Europeans and 41.7% of Asians. This suggests that international tourists from USA/Canada perceive that authenticity of the experience will be improved by visiting the location. However, for the other tourist segments, remote operators who consider that this is an element of their competitive advantage may benefit from effectively communicating this message to them.

Previous participation also had a strong relationship, Cramer V, r=0.344, n=85, p= <0.05, which was statistically significant, Pearson Chi Square=10.064, df=2, p=<0.05. 80.5% of respondents who had previously participated in cultural activities overseas were willing to travel as they perceived the experience would be authentic, compared to 54.8% who had no previous experience. This suggests that past experience may be used to determine authenticity and future research might consider which types of experiences have been participated in and how they influence the perceived authenticity.

When considering relationships between respondents' characteristics and the selection of adventure, only nationality had a moderate, significant relationship,

Cramer V, r=0.297, n=85, p<0.05, Pearson's Chi square=7.484 df=3, p=<0.05. However, a greater proportion of Europeans selected this option, 79.6%, compared to 65.2% of USA/Canadians and 41.7% of Asians. These findings suggest that Asian tourists are less motivated by seeking adventure.

No statistically significant relationships were identified between characteristics and the novel experience option. The final option, 'engage in the experience' was selected by 21 respondents, with previous experience statistically having a strong statistically significant relationship; Cramer V r=0.377, n=85, p=<0.05, Pearson's Chi square=12.050, df=2, p=<0.05. 81% of the respondents who selected this option had previous participation experience and this represented 41.5% of the total respondents, n=148, who had previous participation experience.

6.7.2 Reasons for not being willing to travel to the destination

Of the respondents, 63 were not willing to travel to the destination. With these responses summarised in Table 6-31, 65% of the respondents cited time as a reason for not travelling to the destination. Interestingly, they made this assessment without being provided with any details relating to travel time or distance. Similarly, 23.8% cited cost as a constraint, again without being provided with any pricing structures. 23.8% referred to lack of awareness prior to arrival. The remaining options were selected by less than 10% of respondents, with only 4.7% selecting 'not interested'.

Table 6-31 Responses to the open question: 'why are you not being willing to travel to the destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism (tick all that apply)'

	Count	%
Cost	15	23.8
Time	41	65
Lack of awareness prior to arrival	15	23.8
Can participate in cities	2	3.1
Not interested	3	4.7
Safety concerns	5	7.9
Travelling with children	3	4.7
Other	22	34.9

A relatively high number of respondents, 34.9%, ticked other. The responses were grouped under similar themes, with five clearly referring to lack of time and five visiting family. Another seven where grouped under environmental issues as they related to aspects such as safety, accessibility, and heat. Communication strategies may consider how they can effectively minimise or remove these constraints.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented the findings from the survey completed by international tourists at the South Australian museum. Descriptive statistics are provided, alongside bivariate and multivariate analysis. Measurement scales for Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value were developed and tested for validity and reliability using Factor Analysis and Cronbach Alpha. The scales were used to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3: Literature review, with the summary of results presented in Table 6-32.

Table 6-32 Results of hypotheses

H1: Aboriginal tourism brand salience amongst international tourists is low	**Supported**
H2: Aboriginal tourism brand salience will vary amongst target segments	**Partially supported**
H3: International tourists will associate a limited number of attributes with Aboriginal tourism activities	**Supported**
H4: There is a positive and significant relationship among the proposed dimensions of consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal Tourism context	**Supported**
H5: Brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate	**Supported**
H6: Brand image of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate	**Not supported**
H7: Perceived quality of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate	**Not supported**
H8: Perceived authenticity of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate	**Supported**
H9: Perceived value of Aboriginal tourism increases the likelihood of international tourists to intend to participate in Aboriginal tourism	**Not supported**
H10: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists to intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday	**Partially supported**
H11: International tourists characteristics will mediate the influence of brand equity dimensions on overall brand equity	**Supported**
H12: Aboriginal tourism brand equity increases the likelihood of international tourists' willingness to participate in a remote destination	**Supported**
H13: International tourist characteristics increase the likelihood of international tourists willingness to participate in a remote destination	**Supported**

Overall the findings from this survey provided some interesting insights into Aboriginal tourism consumer-based brand equity in Australia, and the mediating effects of tourist characteristics. Table 6-32 provides a summary of results for the hypotheses. As discussed in the methodology, the following chapter provides a more detailed discussion of these findings, alongside the results from Chapters 3, 4 and 5. This is supportive of the Realism paradigm, which provided a framework for this study, and increases the overall validity of the case study. The following chapter will also develop a final preliminary consumer-based brand equity framework for future research (Perry 1998). A number of theoretical and methodological contributions are identified, alongside managerial implications. Finally, limitations of the study are discussed with areas for future research.

Chapter 7: Discussion of findings

7.1 Introduction

This final chapter assembles the findings of the exploratory case study. Reflective of the hybrid sequential mixed methods design implemented, the discussion draws on the results of the four sources used within the research design. To assist in the discussion and integration of findings, each source has been allocated a code for ease of reference: academic and management literature (LR); recalibrated International Visitor Survey data (RIVS); Interviews (CI); and a survey undertaken on International tourists at the South Australian Museum (VS). Similarities and differences are highlighted before conclusions are made. Whilst research question 1 and objectives were answered in Chapter 4, the study generated some emerging themes and questions. These are considered within this discussion, alongside emerging themes and questions from Chapter 5 (Appendix 7)

The discussion in this chapter focuses on the remaining 4 research questions displayed in Table 7-1. Initially, consideration to Question 2 is given, and contemplates how international tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism influences overall brand equity. Further deliberation to brand equity is given, with question 4 considering the mediating effect of tourists' characteristics. Finally, the focus of the discussion moves onto international tourists' willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. The significance of consumer-based brand equity and tourist characteristics on the willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in

Aboriginal tourism activities are discussed. In line with the recommendations of Perry (1998), the case study discussion concludes with a preliminary framework based on the findings. To conclude, the chapter considers contributions, both theoretical and methodological, practical implications, limitations and directions for future research.

Table 7-1 Research questions and objectives for the study

Research question	Objective
1: How do individual characteristics of international tourists influence the decision to include a remote destination during their holiday in Australia?	e) Identify the characteristics of international tourists' which increase the probability of including a remote destination during their holiday in Australia f) Consider how these characteristics may be used to segment the target market.
2. How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism? 3: Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to travel to participate in a remote destination?	i) Identify measures of International tourists perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia j) Identify brand equity dimensions which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. k) Explain how the brand equity dimensions of Aboriginal tourism impact on intention to participate l) Identify if brand equity increases the likelihood of willingness to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination.
4: How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity? 5: How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?	f) Identify tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. g) Identify if tourist characteristics mediate the effect of other brand dimensions on overall brand equity h) Explain how tourist characteristics mediate the influence of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination

7.2 Discussion of research findings

This section briefly describes the background to the research, methodology applied, and data sources used. Using the findings from each data source, the discussion answers the research questions developed in Phase 1 of the study.

7.2.1 Research background, methodology and data sources used

Whilst tourism has been cited as offering the potential to improve the economic and social well-being of remote Aboriginal communities (Heaney & Salma 2004; Jackson 2009; Moscardo & Pearce 1999), there has been a continuous decline in the numbers of international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism within Australia (TRA 2011b). Additionally, there has been a corresponding decline in the number of international tourists who include a remote destination within their travel itinerary (Carson & Harwood 2007). To contribute solutions to this research problem, the objectives of the study were to identify how the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists influenced both intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday, and their willingness to travel to a remote destination to undertake these activities. Using the consumer-based brand equity framework, the study aimed to develop a consumer-based brand equity model for Aboriginal tourism within Australia. A final conceptual model was developed which considered the influence of brand equity and tourist characteristics on the willingness of international tourists to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism.

To undertake this research, an exploratory case study design was selected to enable the refinement, or if necessary to refute, the application of consumer-based

brand equity theory within a new context. A single case study design was selected, with the South Australian Museum considered a representative case (Yin 2003). This research design was considered appropriate as it enabled research to be undertaken within a real life context and enabled the collection of data from multiple sources (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis 2008). Consideration was given to a number of mixed method options available, before a sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design was implemented. This design had three phases of implementation using four data sources.

The first stage used two data sources, current literature, and recalibrated International Visitor Survey data. The objectives of this stage were to review current research in the field of Aboriginal tourism and destination choice, to identify both gaps in the literature and develop a preliminary conceptual framework. As a profile of remote international tourists was not identified within the literature, International Visitor Survey data was recalibrated and characteristics which increased the likelihood of visitors to travel to a remote destination were identified. These findings were used to develop a profile of a remote international tourist answering Research Question 1, and were used as a data source within Phase 2 and 3.

Whilst dimensions of consumer-based brand equity were identified within the literature review, Phase 2 was employed to investigate the appropriateness of these dimensions in the context of Australian Aboriginal tourism. Furthermore, this phase was used to develop a survey instrument for Phase 3. Interviews were then undertaken with stakeholders of the South Australian Museum. A convergent interview approach was applied enabling developing themes to be considered in the

context of academic and management literature. This approach enabled new insights to be identified which could be further examined within a demand side survey.

During the final phase, a survey was completed by 148 international tourists who visited the South Australian Museum. Measurement items to be applied within the scales were adapted from academic literature. Factor analysis and Cronbach alpha scores were examined to test the reliability and validity of the scales developed revealing the measurement scale for each construct was valid.

When considering the demographic profiles of the samples used in each phase, unaccompanied travellers followed by adult couples were the most commonly represented groups within the Tourism Australia data (section 4.2). These groups were also found to have the highest representation on tours undertaken at the museum (section 5.2). However, in the final survey (section 6.2), international tourists travelling alone were least represented, 14.2%, compared to 39.4% in the Chapter 4 sample, and adult couples had a higher representation 52.3% compared to 31.5% in the recalibrated sample. The remaining travel groups were similarly represented across samples. However, adult couples had the greatest propensity to include a remote destination within their holiday to Australia, and therefore this final sample may be considered appropriate in identifying perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism and remote contexts.

Previous research has identified that international tourists with a propensity to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia were the British (20.1%), Americans (15.4%), German (12.1%) and Dutch (8.1%) (TRA, 2011), and this is reflected in participation in Aboriginal tourism activities in other countries (Kutzner

& Wright 2010; Unknown 2008). Both the interviews (Chapter 5), and the final survey (Chapter 6), supported these findings suggesting that nationality may be used in defining target segments. However, reflective of alternative research (Kutzner & Wright 2010; Lynch, M et al. 2010, 2011; McKercher 2002; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004), the interviews highlighted that nationality may influence the depth and breadth of motivation. Additionally, language was identified as acting as a potential barrier to participation in activities such as tours (section 5.2). Furthermore, the interviews highlighted that differences exist between tourists' prior knowledge of Aboriginal tourism in Australia, and lack of knowledge is often substituted with experiences undertaken overseas (section 5.4). These initial findings suggest that if nationality is used to profile target segments, other characteristics need to be considered to enable effective branding strategies to be developed.

7.3 Findings of Research Question 2 and interpretations

Research question 2: How do the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism influence the overall brand equity of Aboriginal tourism?

To answer research question 2, three objectives were established. Firstly, measures were identified which could adequately assess international tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism within Australia. This was undertaken by combining a literature review with the convergent interviewing technique to develop a number of Likert items. Within Chapter 6, these items were tested using PAF and Cronbach alpha to develop scales to measure Brand Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value. The findings of a logistic regression

model identified that only two dimensions, Authenticity and Awareness, directly increased intention to participate.

To meet the aims of the second objective, following the literature review, a preliminary consumer-based brand equity model was developed for this exploratory study. Hypotheses were developed and tested using standard regressions and logistic regressions. The hypotheses and results are shown in Table 6-32 in Chapter 6. Finally, the third objective of this research question aimed to explain how the brand equity dimensions of Aboriginal tourism impact on intention to participate. To answer this further, consideration to the findings of each source in relation to the dimensions of Awareness, Personality, Quality, Authenticity and Value, was given.

7.3.1 Brand awareness and intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities

The findings of this study support earlier work which identified that awareness directly influences brand equity (Horng et al. 2012; Kim, H & Kim 2005; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Pike et al. 2010). Contrary to previous research which suggested that low levels of awareness exist amongst international tourists (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), the interviews suggested low brand salience reflected breadth rather than depth of awareness (section 5.3). This perspective was supported in the survey with 73% of respondents having had brand awareness (section 6.3). Two potential reasons for these conflicting findings are identified. Firstly, the sample within this study may be considered cultural tourists (McKercher 2002). It has been suggested that planning holidays is an ongoing process with tourists continually discussing potential destinations and collecting information (Decrop 2010). Carneiro and Crompton

(2010) suggest that prior involvement influences the information search and, as a result, cultural tourists may have an increased propensity to seek information relating to gaining knowledge of cultural activities in countries they plan to visit. Indeed, a relationship between previous participation overseas and awareness was identified in the interviews (section 5.7) and survey (section 6.3), with 52.2% of respondents with previous experience having brand awareness compared to 27.8% of those who had no previous experience. Furthermore, international tourists with no previous experience were more likely to have gained awareness when they arrived in Australia (section 6.3).

Alternatively, the differences in findings may simply reflect the measures used (Im et al. 2012), with measures for awareness within tourism research adapted from general marketing literature (Konecnik & Gartner 2007). Unprompted recall measures (Woodside & Lysonski 1989) such as, 'What activities are you aware are available within Australia?' have been used to measure awareness of aboriginal tourism (Ruhanen et al. 2013a). However, ability to recall does not always reflect knowledge stored to memory, with international tourists utilising different cues to retrieve brands (Macdonald & Sharp 1996; Romaniuk & Sharp 2004). This suggests a recall measure may simply be reflecting the activities the respondent intends to participate in. Therefore, using this as a single measure may not adequately identify the brand salience of Aboriginal tourism, measured by the depth and breadth of brand awareness (Aaker, D 2000; Keller 1998b, 2001) resulting in inadequate information for strategic decision-making.

The brand salience of Aboriginal tourism amongst international tourists may impact on the development of a national brand logo which has been recommended to increase awareness of Aboriginal tourism products (Fransen 2012; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). Whilst logos are used to assist in the identification and recognition of a brand, for benefits to arise from this, tourists must attach distinctive associations to the logo (Govers 2013). However, the interviews highlighted that brand salience of Aboriginal tourism may be low (section 5.3). Although international tourists are aware of Aboriginal culture as a concept, interviewees suggested they have low levels of brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities available (section 5.3). Supporting this perspective, 88% of survey respondents agreed that when they thought about Australia, Aboriginal people came to mind. However, when asked if they were aware that Aboriginal people provided tourism activities this number declined to 73% (section 6.3.1).

Interestingly, of the 40 respondents who were not aware Aboriginal people provide tourism activities, 74% agreed they associated Aboriginal people with Australia (section 6.3.1). Further examination of the data identified that these respondents were able to continue making responses to questions relating to Aboriginal tourism, even when a 'don't know' option was provided. Reflecting interviewee comments (section 5.3), a number of respondents in the survey commented that they were aware that Aboriginal tourism activities existed, but had no awareness that activities were provided by Aboriginal people. As cultural products offered by non-Aboriginal operators has been cited as impacting on tourism development opportunities for Aboriginal people (Buultjens & Fuller 2007; Fuller, Buultjens & Cummings 2005), it may be considered that for tourism to have the

potential to improve the economic status of remote communities (Jackson 2009; Moscardo 2005), branding strategies need to firstly increase awareness that Aboriginal tourism is directly associated with Aboriginal people.

Additionally, reflective of Aaker (1996), awareness *per se* was not sufficient to increase the likelihood of intention to participate with the stage at which respondents gained awareness directly influencing the outcome. Respondents who gained awareness during the planning stage of their holiday were four times more likely to intend to participate compared to those with no awareness (section 6.6.2.1). Conversely, awareness gained prior to planning the holiday or after arrival had no influence. Yet, it must be noted, that when identifying the stage at which international tourists gained awareness, those who fell into the 'during planning stage' group were the least represented, 16% of respondents. Therefore, to increase intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, it may be beneficial to develop strategies that target international tourists at the planning stage of their holiday.

Respondents with previous experience overseas were more likely to have gained awareness prior to arrival, and this may be reflective of cultural tourists' information searches. The survey and interviews identified that tourists from USA/Canada were more likely to have awareness prior to arrival (section 5.2, section 6.3.1) compared to only 39.3% of Asian respondents (section 6.3.1). This was also reflected in the strong relationship identified between nationality and previous participation overseas, with 71% of respondents from the USA/Canada having previous experiences compared to only a third of the other nationality groups. In

contrast, Asian respondents were more likely to have no awareness or gained it after beginning their holiday (section 6.2). Unfortunately, they were also most likely to plan their holiday, with 79% of Asian respondents selecting their destinations before arrival, and 62% pre-booking all their accommodation and transport (section 6.2). As Asian tourists reflect a growing target market for Australia (TourismAustralia 2014), these findings highlight the importance of creating awareness in these target markets prior to arrival.

Supportive of earlier studies into nationality and motivation (Kim, S & Prideaux 2005), to effectively target international tourists at the planning stage, consideration to sources of awareness is required. The interviews suggested that a range of sources were used to increase awareness of Aboriginal tourism, although the impact on brand equity may be positive or negative (section 5.3). Within the survey, a number of sources of awareness were identified, with travel brochures and Internet searches most frequently selected, followed by word of mouth (section 6.3.2). The interviews identified the importance of increasing volunteers' knowledge (Smith & Holmes 2012) to increase the benefit of the museum acting as a source of word of mouth communications (section 5.3).

However, limited statistically significant relationships existed between tourist characteristics and sources of awareness. Some differences between nationalities were identified, with USA/Canadian and Europeans more likely to have gained awareness from books than Asians (section 6.3.2). Alternatively, a higher percentage of Asians gained awareness from travel agents (section 6.3.2). Whilst this exploratory study provided an insight into sources of awareness, to enable strategies

to be developed to increase awareness further research is required. Undertaking a gap analysis of sources within countries will be beneficial to identify which sources tourists use to gain awareness of activities, and where Aboriginal tourism currently does not gain exposure.

Aaker (1996) considered that brand awareness activities need to ensure brands are recalled for the correct reason. Brand salience refers to the likelihood of a brand to be thought of in a buying situation (Romaniuk & Sharp 2004). When developing a profile of remote tourists, a number of activities were identified which increased the likelihood of tourists to travel to a remote destination. Ryan and Hutton (2002) considered that Aboriginal operators have the opportunity to add value to mainstream products, yet the key challenge for remote Aboriginal operators is to ensure that international tourists are aware that they are being offered products which can satisfy their needs (Keller 2001). Although academics and the tourism industry in Australia may be aware that the Aboriginal tourism industry has diversified (Whitford & Ruhanen 2010), the interviewees emphasised that the product categories associated with Aboriginal tourism are limited (section 5.3). The interviewees noted that limited awareness of contemporary Aboriginal culture existed, with tourists perceiving indigenous traditions from a stereotypical or historical perspective (section 5.3). These high levels of association may reflect the portrayal of Aboriginal people within Australia's brand image to create a national identity (Pomering & White 2011). Indeed, 20% of respondents who intended to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday provided reasons relating to the brand identity of Australia such as: *'Aboriginal culture is an integral part of Australia'* (section 6.6.2.4).

The survey supported the interview findings with limited breadth of awareness identified. Whilst 72% of respondents were aware of art and craft products, less than 15% of respondents were aware of contemporary products such as active adventures or coastal escapes (section 6.3.2). Activities which increased the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination are within these categories such as fishing, snorkelling and whale/dolphin watching (section 4.3). Similarly, guided tours increased the propensity to include a remote destination (section 4.3), but only a fifth of respondents were aware of these activities being provided by Aboriginal operators (section 6.3.2). As breadth of awareness is an aspect of brand salience which is the initial building block when developing a brand (Keller 2001), these findings suggest for Aboriginal operators who offer products outside of the art and craft category, promotional campaigns to increase brand salience may benefit from focusing on increasing breadth of awareness.

Furthermore, brand salience also reflects the depth of awareness. Whilst alternative studies have considered Top of Mind awareness to be paramount in tourism choice decisions (Pike & Mason 2011), this study found that the 39% of international tourists considered to have Top of Mind awareness, had less breadth of awareness than the survey respondents who gained awareness during the planning stage. Previous studies have noted that extending the brand concept from products to services has implications for management (Williams, P, Gill & Chura 2004; Woodside, Cruickshank & Dehuang 2007), and this study suggests that whilst Top of Mind awareness is considered paramount for some product categories, for Aboriginal tourism it may not be. These findings support Keller's (1993) initial conceptual framework that suggested that the nature of the initial brand node created impacts on

the associations which become attached to memory. Therefore, future research may need to further consider how awareness applies in a tourism context and, indeed, if branding theories are directly transferable.

Although some relationships between tourist characteristics and product categories were found, they were not consistent, and no clear pattern emerged. Bush/outback tours had moderate relationships with travel party and nationality, whilst motivation to participate only had relationships with festivals and cultural parks. Previous experience overseas only had a relationship with art and craft and cultural parks. Interestingly, those respondents who considered participation in Aboriginal tourism to be very important had higher levels of awareness of cultural parks, as did those who had previously participated. However, due to the exploratory nature of this study the findings are not generalisable, yet provide an avenue for future research into experiential loyalty.

7.3.2 Brand Authenticity and Intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities

Similar to earlier research (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), perceived Authenticity was also found to have a statistically significant relationship with intention to participate, and H8 was supported. The findings identified that an increase on the scale of 1, would improve the likelihood of intention to participate by 97% (section 6.6.2.1). Overall, the median score for the scale was five, reflecting moderate levels of agreement. However, considering the findings from the literature review, the interviews, and the use of the 'don't know' option in the survey some insights into the potential gaps in brand knowledge (Pike

2007) related to Authenticity in the context of Australian Aboriginal tourism are provided.

Ruhanen et al.'s (2013) study identified that international tourists' concerns relating to authenticity of Aboriginal tourism were connected with the commercialisation of product and how to assess authenticity. The survey findings highlighted that a high number of respondents, 23%, could not give an opinion on whether, 'Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic' (section 6.2.1). This may reflect that some brands are only deemed authentic after personal experience of the benefit was encountered, due to the functional claims only able to be assessed after personal use (Beverland & Farrelly 2010). If perceived authenticity increases intention to participate (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), then further consideration to the authenticity findings may provide insights into potential strategies to increase perceived authenticity prior to purchase, and contribute to reversing the declining trends in participation.

Aboriginal culture is strongly connected to the destination in which it is located, and understanding international tourists' perceptions of Aboriginal tourism and the place it is located can assist in the planning and development of cultural attractions (Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011; Sedmak & Mihalič 2008). Perceived authenticity is also connected to place (Beverland 2006; Moscardo & Pearce 1986; Ramkissoon & Uysal 2011), and is considered a key attribute when developing authentic brands (Alexander 2009; Beverland 2006). However, within the interviews, international tourists were considered to be unaware of the important connections between Aboriginal culture and place, particularly those from European or Asian

backgrounds (section 5.3, p.207). Reflective of low levels of brand knowledge related to culture and place, tour guides highlighted that following visits to the Australian Aboriginal Cultural Gallery, international tourists often asked questions relating to population numbers and areas of residency, and where they could 'observe' the culture (section 5.3).

The survey supported these findings, with 22% of respondents unable to provide an opinion on whether authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia (section 6.2.1). Whilst the median score for this item was five, when asked the same statement in relation to cities, a higher number of respondents could answer, although the median score was three, at the disagree end of the scale. These findings are contrary to Ryan and Hutton (2002, p. 642), who consider that the growth in urban Aboriginal tourism enterprises may impact on the willingness of international tourists to travel to a remote destination, as these enterprises are, 'no less authentic in the telling of Aboriginal stories'. These findings suggest that international tourists may lack the brand knowledge required to make these assessments. For urban operators, lack of perceived authenticity in cities may result in international tourists not participating in the activities. Alternatively, for remote operators, no understanding of the connection between place and culture, or perception of increased authenticity, may result in international tourists not being willing to overcome the constraints of travelling to the destination. This suggests that communication strategies which increase brand knowledge related to the importance of place within Aboriginal culture may be beneficial in increasing perceptions of authenticity and overall brand equity.

In addition to the lack of awareness of associations between culture and place, further consideration was given to contemporary Aboriginal culture. Although Aboriginal operators may consider contemporary culture to be a key element of authenticity (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), the interviews highlighted that few tourists are seeking contemporary Aboriginal experiences, '*as they do know that Aboriginal people were here for a very long time and they're probably looking for evidence of that*' (section 5.4). Reflective of low levels of awareness of contemporary Aboriginal culture, the survey found that 23% of respondents could not provide an opinion to the item, 'Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic' (section 6.2.1).

Furthermore, the interviews highlighted the complexity of international tourists' perceptions of authenticity and contemporary Aboriginal culture. Both the interviews and the survey identified that associations with Aboriginal tourism are predominantly related to art and artefacts such as boomerangs and didgeridoos, in addition to history, museums and cultural centres (section 5.4, section 6.4.1). Examples within the interviews were provided of tourists deciding on authenticity based on, '*perceived westernised behaviour*' (section 5.5). These findings may indicate the use of stereotypical images of Aboriginal people reflective of a historical past which have been used within Australia's brand image to create a national identity (Pomering & White 2011). Whilst it has already been noted in relation to the diversified product range that international tourists need to be aware that the brand can satisfy their needs (Keller 2001), these findings further highlight that for a competitive advantage to be gained, increasing understanding of contemporary Aboriginal culture is also required.

Additionally, Australian Aboriginal operators consider personal engagement and culturally appropriate stories to be key elements of authenticity (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). The interviews and survey within this study supported these findings, with interviewees believing that having an Aboriginal tour guide increased authenticity, particularly amongst international, rather than domestic tourists (section 5.5). The median score within the survey for the item, 'Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person' was six, the highest score amongst all the authenticity items. However, it was highlighted that some respondents were not aware that Aboriginal tourism products were provided by Aboriginal people within Australia. Furthermore, 17% of respondents in the survey selected 'don't know' for this item, highlighting a potential lack of brand knowledge (section 6.2.1). Therefore, it may be concluded that promotional strategies which focus on this item of authenticity may be beneficial in overcoming competition from other non-Aboriginal operators (Buultjens & Fuller 2007; Buultjens, Gale & White 2010).

Academic research often focuses on staged authenticity, with research suggesting that it is still perceived by tourists to be authentic, and results in satisfaction with the experience (Cohen 1988; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a; Yang & Wall 2009). Whilst Yang and Wall (2009) consider tourists seek staged experiences which reflect stereotypical images seen prior to the visit, other researchers consider the depth of experience and motivation of individual tourists, influences the breadth of attributes needed for tourists to perceive the experience as authentic (Cohen 1988; Kolar & Zabkar 2010). However, the interviews in this study suggested that international tourists may also seek staged experiences, reflective of

activities undertaken overseas (section 5.3). Therefore, future research may seek to further examine how previous experience impacts on perceptions of authenticity in Australian Aboriginal tourism contexts.

7.3.3 Interaction between brand dimensions of Awareness, Authenticity, Value, Personality and Quality

Whilst Authenticity and Awareness had a direct relationship with intention to participate, relationships were also identified between the dimensions and H4 was supported. Figure7-1 highlights the relationships identified amongst the dimensions, with Awareness having no direct relationship with any dimension. Higher scores for Value and Personality will positively influence the score for Authenticity, with perceived Value having a significantly higher importance than Personality.
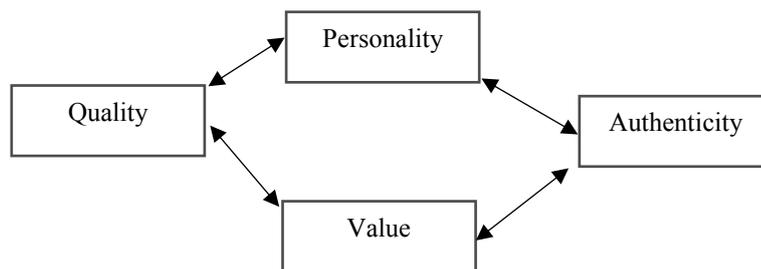
Figure 7-1 Preliminary model of relationships between brand dimensions

7.3.3.1 Relationship between Perceived Authenticity and Perceived Value

Contrary to earlier research (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013), a multi-dimensional perspective of Value adapted from an Adventure tourism context was employed within this study (Williams, P & Soutar 2009) with four elements being used: Functional, Epistemic, Emotional and Social. In total, eight Likert items were used within the scale, which had a median score of five, showing overall agreement that participating in Aboriginal tourism activities provided value.

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When considering functional value, 30% of respondents were unable to provide a response to the statement, 'Aboriginal activities are good value for money' (section 6.2.1). Yet responses to other measures of value were higher, supporting earlier research which highlighted that price influences post-purchase rather than pre-purchase decision-making (Campo & Yague 2008). Therefore, this provides support to the suggestion that value should be measured from a multi-dimensional perspective (Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991; Sweeney & Soutar 2001; Williams, P & Soutar 2009). Additionally, they highlight the importance of developing measures appropriate to the context of the study to reduce bias (Pike 2009). Had measures been transferred from alternative studies, the focus would have been on monetary value impacting on the overall findings.

The multi-dimensional perspective of Value used within this study included time as a functional measure. Previous research has considered that consumers view time and money differently, with the way time is spent used to create value (Mogilner & Aaker 2008). Overall, the median score for, 'Participating in Aboriginal activities is a good way to spend my time on holiday' was five. However, holidays are time constrained (Richards 1998), and the survey within this study (section 6.6.2.5), supported earlier research which identified that time is often perceived as a constraint, preventing participation in Aboriginal tourism activities (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), or travel to remote destinations (Carson & Taylor 2008). Therefore, further consideration into how to increase the value of spending time in Aboriginal activities is required.

The profile of remote tourists (section 4.3.3) identified that increasing the number of stopovers and length of stay positively influenced the likelihood to include a remote destination. However, compared to international tourists travelling alone, adult couples had the highest propensity to travel to a remote destination, yet had shorter lengths of stay. The findings identified that adult couples were more likely to pre-package elements of their holiday prior to arrival, which appeared to assist in overcoming constraints (section 4.3.4). As the findings related to brand awareness identified that awareness gained during the planning stage increased the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism, this suggests that benefit may be gained from promotional strategies for Aboriginal activities which provide options to pre-package elements of the holiday such as transport, accommodation and activities.

Additionally, to increase the perception that participation is a good way to 'spend time' during the holiday, emphasising other aspects of value generated by participating in the activity may be beneficial. The interviews highlighted that although the GFC and high Australian dollar may have impacted negatively on perceived value of activities (section 5.8), this may be overcome if activities are considered, 'once in a lifetime' activities (Im et al. 2012; Tung & Ritchie 2011). This is considered epistemic value, and this Likert item was included alongside two others within the survey.

The median score for, 'Aboriginal activities offer once in a lifetime experiences' had a median score of six, higher than the overall median for the scale. Additionally within epistemic value measures, opportunities to learn new knowledge

also had a median score of six, whilst the median score for novelty was only five. Within the open question which identified reasons for intention to participate, 62% of respondents provided increasing cultural knowledge as a reason for participation. This suggests that increasing promotional messages which focus on the epistemic value gained from participating in, 'once in a lifetime experiences' and increasing knowledge may provide opportunities to emphasise the value gained from spending time on these activities.

Moreover, this may be beneficial when targeting cultural tourists with previous experiences overseas. 92% of the survey respondents with previous experience stated they would participate in Australia as they enjoyed learning about different cultures (section 6.2). Earlier research (eg. Smith and Holmes, 2009), the interviews (section 5.5), and the surveys highlighted the importance of tour guides in increasing understanding of Aboriginal culture (section 6.4.3). However, the interviews also identified that prior knowledge differed between nationalities (section 5.2), suggesting that tour guides need to understand the target markets' existing knowledge to enable them to effectively assist them in making connections.

Furthermore, as authenticity also had a relationship with value, it may be beneficial to connect tour guides with engagement with a local Aboriginal person, which also had a median score of six. Australian Aboriginal operators consider culturally appropriate stories to be a key aspect of authenticity (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a), and this perspective was supported in the interviews with non-Aboriginal tour guides. However, 17% of respondents used the 'don't know' option for this item (section 6.2.1), suggesting that awareness of the benefits of using local

Aboriginal tour guides may not be understood. Additionally, the interviews highlighted how tourists were not always willing to pay for an Aboriginal tour guide at the museum (section 5.6). Tours at the museum are free and this highlighted that tourists may not be aware of associated benefits of having an Aboriginal guide. Therefore, promotional messages which accentuate the benefits to international tourists, particularly in relation to increasing cultural knowledge, may be useful in developing a competitive advantage.

Finally, when considering emotional value, the median scores for the Likert items participating in Aboriginal activities being 'enjoyable' or 'exciting' were five, and increasing this perception may also increase the overall value scale. Within the respondents who considered previous experience overseas influenced their decision to participate in Australia, 59% based this decision on previous enjoyment (section 6.2). As 62% of survey respondents and 92% of those with previous experience made reference to intention to participate due to a motivation of gaining increased knowledge, using epistemic value with positioning strategies may increase the perception of enjoyment to be gained from participating.

7.3.3.2 *Relationship between Perceived Authenticity and Personality*

Authenticity was also identified to have a relationship with the dimension named Personality. This dimension included three Likert items which measured self-congruity of international tourists. Previous research has considered self-congruity within tourism contexts, although the findings have been inconclusive (Boksberger et al. 2011). Research suggests that as luxury goods have become more 'mainstream', consumers are looking to the experience economy to meet their self-esteem and self-

actualisation needs (Yeoman, Brass & McMahon-Beattie 2007). However, the findings of this research suggest that self-congruity does not directly influence the intention of international tourists to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, but the influence is mediated by perceptions of Authenticity. This may reflect the work of Beverland and Farrelly (2009), who identified that consumers seek authentic products that reflect their self or social congruity.

Examination of the three Likert items highlight differences between the methods by which international tourists may use participation to reflect their identity. Overall, this scale had a median score of four which was the lowest score from the four dimensions. This reflects the range of scores from three to five, indicating disagreement through to agreement. Whilst the first item considers that self-congruity had a median score of four, the Likert item reflecting social congruity only received a median score of three. This suggests that international tourists do not consider that participating in Aboriginal tourism activities will influence how others perceive them, or they consider it unimportant (Sirgy & Su 2000).

Interestingly, personal values were included as a measure of self-identity (Mittal 2006) due to the identification in previous cultural research of their influence on brand equity (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010). The survey found that this Likert item had the highest median score of five. Whilst 16% of respondents selected the 'don't know' option relating to social congruity, this was reduced to 12% for the item 'Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am', and only 7% for the item relating to personal values (section 6.2.1).

These findings have implications in relation to increasing brand Authenticity. Beverland and Farrelly (2009) considered individuals' purchase brands or products which are consistent with their values. Personal values have been identified as influencing buying behaviour serving as standards or criteria to be met in decision-making (Schwartz 2011), and can influence travel motivations and activity participation (Mehmetoglu et al. 2010). Whilst this exploratory research identifies that increasing self-congruity and, in particular, the reflection of personal values may increase perceived Authenticity, further research is required to point out which personal values this relates to. Yeoman et al. (2007) consider that there is a growing market trend for products which are perceived to be ethical. To assist in developing a competitive advantage, future research may consider if Aboriginal tourism products offered by Aboriginal people are perceived to be 'more' ethical. Furthermore, Boksberger et al. (2011) found that increased frequency of travel decreased levels of self-congruity which Sirgy and Su (200) consider is connected to functional congruity where assessments are made on destination attributes. As much of the congruity research in tourism has been undertaken in the context of destinations, this may provide a new avenue for research in Aboriginal tourism contexts, with consideration of its transferability to experiential products.

7.3.3.3 *Relationship between Perceived Quality, Personality and Perceived Value*

Contrary to previous research where Authenticity was utilised as a quality measure in tourism research, Quality was identified within the factor analysis as a separate dimension. Interestingly, Quality did not have a direct relationship with Authenticity, with its relationship mediated by Personality and Value. This supported earlier research which considered Quality affected both brand image and perceived

Value (Liu, Liu & Lin 2013; Sweeney, Soutar & Johnson 1999). Only two Likert items were used to create the scale which had a median score of five. Overall the statement, 'Aboriginal activities in Australia are good quality' has a median score of five, although 23% of respondents selected the 'don't know' category (section 6.2.1). Whilst Gartner and Konecnik Ruzzier (2011) suggest that previous experience with similar products are used to make quality assessments prior to purchase, this was not reflected within this study. No differences in responses were identified between respondents based on previous experience overseas. Whilst some respondents, 19%, stated they were planning to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities as previous activities were good quality, this was the second lowest reason provided (section 6.2).

The second item, 'Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday' only had a median score of four, with 21% selecting the 'don't know' response (section 6.2.1). This is reflective of the low levels of brand salience identified in relation to the product categories and associations with traditional cultural products such as Art and Craft. As previously discussed, campaigns overseas may seek to grow awareness of products available which, in turn, may increase perceptions of quality. This may also directly influence perceived Value to be gained from participating, as it would target a wider range of tourist motivations.

7.4 Findings of Research Question 4 and interpretations

Research Question 4: How do individual international tourists' characteristics impact on Aboriginal tourism brand equity?

The two objectives for the fourth research question sought to identify the tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, and to identify if they mediate the effects of the brand dimensions. A logistic regression model was conducted to identify tourists' characteristics which may predict intention to participate. Whilst the outcome variable was intention to participate, predictor variables of previous visits, age, gender, travel party composition, nationality, previous experience overseas, travelling outside major cities and depth of motivation to participate were included to measure tourist characteristics. Two variables made a significant contribution to the outcome variable; travel party and depth of motivation, and H10 was supported.

A further model was tested which included the tourist characteristic variables and the brand dimensions. This model fit was higher than the two separate models which considered either the brand dimensions or tourist characteristics with a prediction success overall of 81.9%. It was identified that travel party and depth of motivation still increased the likelihood of intention to participate, but these mediated the relationship that existed between Authenticity and Awareness, supporting H11. The inclusion of tourist characteristic variables saw an increase in the likelihood of intention to participate, suggesting the mediating relationship was positive for overall brand equity. Whilst some studies include one type of tourist characteristic such as first versus repeat visitors (Gartner & Ruzzier 2011), familiarity with the experience (Horng et al. 2012), or nationality (Konecnik & Gartner 2007), alternative studies (eg. Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Pike et al. 2010), have not included any tourist characteristics as independent variables.

However, the findings of this study suggest that consideration to a range of target segments characteristics is required when discussing brand equity models.
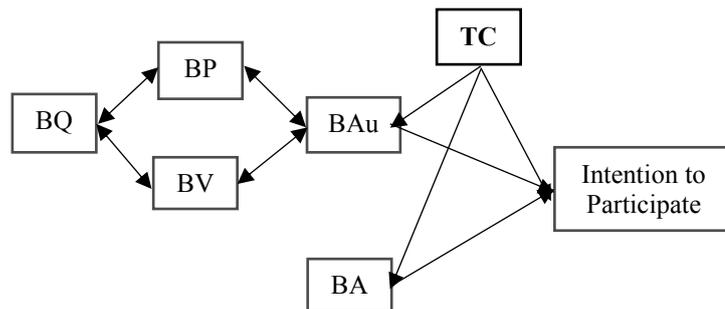
Figure 7-2 Conceptual framework: Consumer-based brand equity in an Aboriginal tourism context
BQ= Perceived quality BP=Brand Personality BV= Perceived Value BAu= Perceived Authenticity BA=Brand Awareness TC=Tourist Characteristics

Supportive of McKercher's (2002) classification, the depth of motivation positively influenced intention to participate. When considering depth of motivation in the first model which excluded brand dimensions, compared to a base category of 'not at all important', those who considered it 'somewhat important' were twice as likely to participate and those who felt it was 'very important' were nearly 15 times more likely to intend to participate (section 6.6.2.2). However, when brand dimensions were included the likelihood to intend to participate doubled for both categories. This suggests that the impact of increasing perceptions of Authenticity on overall brand equity is positively influenced by the depth of motivation to participate. Further consideration to depth of motivation within target segments was given. The 'somewhat motivated' to participate category represented 57.4% of respondents. Distribution between nationalities was fairly even, with 67.9% of Asians within this

category, 59.8% of Europeans, and 51.6% of USA/Canadians. Respondents from the USA/Canada were most likely to consider it 'very important', whilst only 3.6% of Asians were highly motivated (section 6.2). These findings highlight that the mediating effect of motivation on the brand dimensions and intention to participate may differ between tourist segments.

Indeed, travel party also mediated the relationship between the brand dimensions and intention to participate, and further consideration to this category and depth of motivation was given. Compared to international tourists who were travelling alone, respondents travelling with family or with friends were most likely to intend to participate. Overall, 76.9% of those travelling with friends and 65.3% of family groups intended to participate. The survey found that 59.1% of respondents travelling with friends and 61.5% with family considered participation somewhat important (section 6.2), and based on McKercher's (2002) classification, may be considered causal or sightseeing tourists. 31.8% of those travelling with families and 23.1% with friends considered participation 'not at all important', yet nearly half of these respondents intended to participate, and may be considered incidental tourists (McKercher 2002).

Conversely, within the interviews, travel party groups with a higher attendance on tours were identified as adult couples or those travelling alone (section 5.2). However, the study did not specify certain activities, and this may be the difference between intention to participate and actual participation. Indeed, alternative research suggested that 19% of respondents had top of the mind awareness for the Aboriginal tourism product, with only 2% intending to participate (Ruhanen, Whitford &

McLennan 2013b). However, the intention to participate was based on the selection of a number of activities provided by the researcher. Therefore, supportive of earlier research (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a, 2013b), future research which identifies the types of products which international tourists may wish to participate in could be beneficial, with consideration to how the needs differ between target segments.

7.5 Findings of Research Question 3 and 5, and interpretations

Research question 3: Does Aboriginal tourism brand equity influence the willingness to travel to participate in a remote destination?

Research question 5: How do the individual characteristics of international tourists mediate the effect of brand equity on willingness to participate in a remote destination?

The final research questions sought to understand the influence of brand equity and tourist characteristics on willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. When shown the photograph, 57.4% of the respondents agreed they would be willing to travel to the destination during the holiday to participate in Aboriginal tourism, compared to 56.8% who intended to participate in activities during their holiday (section 6.7). However, not all respondents who intended to participate were willing to travel, and some respondents who had no intention to participate, were willing to travel. This suggests other motivational factors influenced the decision. Nevertheless, brand equity, measured by intention to participate, was found to significantly predict willingness to travel to the destination. The logistic regression model identified those who intended to

participate were three times more likely to be willing to travel to the destination in the photograph and H12 was supported.

A second logistic regression model was computed with tourist characteristics included. This increased the predicative success of the model by 10%, suggesting this model was better fit when considering willingness to travel to a remote destination, ultimately supporting H13. However, only two variables were meaningfully significant: intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism, and plans to travel outside of the main Australian cities. Whilst these findings are not surprising, they do emphasise the importance of developing brand equity and targeting international tourists before they arrive in Australia. Indeed, 23.8% of respondents stated they would not be willing to travel to the location due to lack of awareness prior to arrival or cost, with 65% stating lack of time. This supported earlier research findings relating to lack of awareness, time and cost acting as constraints (Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Lynch, et al. 2010; McKercher 1998; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros, 2004; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a, 2013b) , and interview findings (section 5.8).

Decrop (2010) argued that destination choice is an ongoing process, and this research project identified that trip pre-planning has a significant influence on intention to travel to a remote destination (section 4.3.4). The interviews supported this, considering the majority of international tourists pre-planned their itinerary prior to arrival (section 5.8). As a result of the initial findings, the final survey included questions relating to trip pre-planning. Whilst 81.1% had decided on the destinations prior to arrival, only 46.5% of the sample had pre-booked all their accommodation

and transport, and 43.3% had booked some of it before arriving (section 6.2). International tourists from the USA/Canada and Asia had a higher propensity to pre-book all of their accommodation and transport, 62.1% and 61.9% respectively, reducing the flexibility within their itineraries upon arrival. Interestingly, the interviews suggested that international tourists from the USA/Canada had a better perception of distance within Australia than Asian or European tourists, and this may also influence their trip pre-planning behaviour (section 5.8).

Whilst a discussion on developing brand equity was undertaken earlier, considering the reasons provided for willingness to travel also provide some insights for developing brand equity. Krider et al. (2010) suggested that individual tourist characteristics interact with destination images assisting in choice selection. Supportive of this earlier research, statistically significant relationships were identified between two tourist characteristics, nationalities and previous participation overseas, and answers from the open question providing reasons for willingness to travel to the destination.

Previous experience overseas had a statistically significant relationship with two reasons provided: increased perception of authenticity; and opportunities to engage in the experience (section 6.7). Previous research has identified that tourists bring previous experiences, motivations, preconceptions and attitudes gained in previous holidays to new destinations (Stylianou-Lambert 2011). Indeed, it has been considered that previous experiences act to produce a transferred loyalty effect, with tourist seeking similar activities in new destinations (McKercher & Guillet 2011; Pearce & Kang 2009). The interviews supported this concept, with some tourists

having previous experience with Aboriginal tourism overseas, increasing awareness and interest in Australian Aboriginal activities (section 5.7). Supportive of earlier research (Lynch, M et al. 2010; Moscardo & Pearce 1999), 45.3% of respondents had previous experience overseas, with nearly two thirds, 62.7%, of those respondents intending to participate in Australia (section 6.2). These respondents are considered to be exhibiting experiential loyalty (McKercher & Guillet 2011), with 92% considering that previous participation influenced their decision to participate in Australia as they 'Enjoyed learning about new cultures' (section 6.2).

However, nationality had a significant relationship with previous participation, with a higher percentage of respondents from USA/Canada, 71%, having previously participated, compared to a third of European or Asian tourists. This may be reflective of the interview findings which identified that this segment had greater awareness and knowledge of Aboriginal people within Australia due to the cultural history within their own countries (section 5.2). This suggests that nationality may influence cultural capital which, in turn, influences participation in cultural activities (Richards 1996).

Additionally, tourists from the USA/Canada were found to have greater awareness prior to arrival in Australia, with the highest representation amongst nationalities in gaining awareness during the planning stage, which positively increases intention to participate. Alternative studies identified that high levels of involvement positively influence the information search in the earlier stages of consideration set development (Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Pearce & Kang 2009).

Therefore, a positive consequence of experiential loyalty may be increased information searches.

Within the profile of remote international tourists (section 4.2.4), it was identified that tourists who pre-booked elements of their holiday prior to arrival had a greater propensity to include a remote destination. The USA/Canadian segment was more likely to pre-plan destination choices, with 62.1% of them also pre-booking accommodation/transport prior to arrival (section 6.2). The interviews also identified that this segment had greater awareness of the concept of distance in Australia, and were therefore more likely to pre-plan (section5.8). As a result, it may be considered important that remote Aboriginal operators targeting this segment provide easily accessible information at the planning stage of the holiday with options to pre-book. These exploratory findings suggest that remote Aboriginal operators targeting the USA/Canadian market may benefit from developing a brand image reflecting the authentic traveller. This brand profile may focus on dimensions such as authenticity in the place, emotional and epistemic value, such as enjoyment, increasing knowledge, and engaging in the experience

Alternatively, Europeans were more likely to be willing to travel for adventure, which is more commonly associated with self-congruity. As the conceptual model developed within this study highlighted that Brand Personality has a significant relationship with Authenticity which in turn increases the likelihood to intend to participate. Within the European sample in this study, half of respondents were in the 18-29 year age category and travelling as part of an adult couple, reflective of characteristics which increased the likelihood to travel to a remote destination

(section 4.3.2). Furthermore, the profile identified that first time visitors had an increased propensity to include a remote destination and 63.5% of European travellers were visiting for the first time. These exploratory findings suggest that remote Aboriginal operators targeting the European market may benefit from developing a brand image reflecting the young, European adventurer.

7.6 Conclusions and implications

The results presented in chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 indicate a number of findings which may contribute to addressing the research problem of declining participation numbers in Aboriginal tourism activities and visitors to remote destinations. As an exploratory case study, the findings are not generalisable, but provide a number of new insights into the market for Australian Aboriginal tourism. The following conclusions highlight both the theoretical and methodological contributions, with areas for future research.

7.6.1   Theoretical contributions

A number of theoretical contributions arise from this research and they have been grouped under seven themes.

1) Development of a conceptual framework for consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal tourism context

The initial preliminary conceptual framework developed in Chapter 3, was built on some existing relationships identified in both marketing and tourism literature on consumer-based brand equity. Liu, Liu and Lin (2013) identified that an inconsistency in results was found within consumer-based brand equity research in tourism contexts. As previous research identified that the standard brand equity

model applied to products may not be appropriate in new contexts (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009), the model also proposed some new relationships between tourist characteristics and brand equity dimensions, and willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism.

The consumer-based brand equity framework suggests a strong brand may result in international tourists selecting the Aboriginal products over alternative unknown suppliers (Keller 1993, 2001). Earlier research identified the complexity of measuring loyalty in tourism contexts (Niininen 2004) commonly associated as the outcome measure of brand equity. Whilst traditionally this is reflected in loyalty measures such as willingness to repurchase, loyalty within tourism is complex due to tourists' motivation to seek novelty (Pearce & Lee 2005), and the infrequency of purchase (Pearce & Kang 2009). As with earlier research (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010, p. 501) intention to participate was used as an indirect measure of brand equity (Christodoulides & De Chernatony 2010; Keller 1993).

The model developed, Figure 7-3, is a significant contribution to the literature on consumer-based brand equity research, extending the work undertaken in both Marketing and Tourism contexts (eg. Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Chen & Tseng 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Gómez & Molina 2011; Horng et al. 2012; Kimpakorn & Tocquer 2010; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Lee & Back 2008; Pike et al. 2010; Tsai, Cheung & Lo 2010; Wong 2013). The model suggests that two dimensions have direct relationships with intention to participate: Awareness and Authenticity. The research supports earlier work (Boo et al. 2009), which identified existing models may not be transferable to

new contexts, and suggests modelling should be undertaken for individual products and services. The use of the case study design, with multiple data sources, provides validity to the framework. However, future empirical research may be undertaken to further test the model, with consideration to developing models for different target groups.
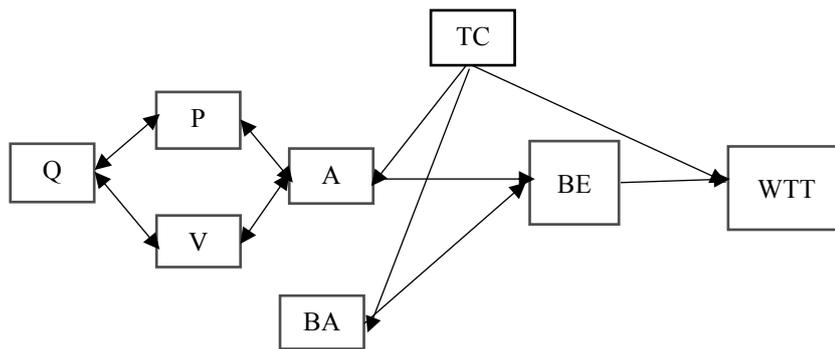
BA: Brand awareness BI: Brand Image BQ: Brand quality BV: Brand value
TC: Tourist characteristics BE: Brand Equity WTT: Willing to travel to a remote destination
Figure 7-3 Final conceptual framework for Consumer-based brand equity in an Australian Aboriginal tourism context

(2) Interrelationships between brand dimensions

Previous studies noted the interrelationships between brand dimensions, although individual models have been constructed for different contexts (for example Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Chen & Tseng 2010; Gartner & Konecnik Ruzzier 2011; Gómez & Molina 2011; Horng et al. 2012; Kimpakorn & Tocquer 2010; Konecnik & Gartner 2007; Lee & Back 2008; Pike et al. 2010; Tsai, Cheung & Lo 2010; Wong 2013). Whilst this research supported earlier work that relationships exist, the findings highlight that only the dimensions of Authenticity and Awareness have a direct relationship with overall brand equity. Contrary to alternative research which identified that awareness had direct relationships with other dimensions such as brand experience (Boo, Busser &

Baloglu 2009), perceived quality (Bertsch & Ostermann 2011), and value perceptions (Oh 2000), this study found no relationships. Furthermore, no direct relationship was identified between Quality and Authenticity, with the relationship mediated by Personality and Value. However relationships were identified between Quality and the dimensions of Personality and Value.

Similarly, a direct relationship was identified between Awareness and Brand equity. This supports earlier studies which also identified that this relationship had relationships with brand equity (Kim, et al. 2008; Kim, Jin-Sun & Kim 2008), although it conflicts with alternative studies in which no direct relationship was found (Hyun & Kim 2011; Liu, Liu & Lin 2013). Brand awareness falls along a continuum (Aaker, D 1996b), with 'Top of Mind' measures used to assess brand awareness (Boo, Busser & Baloglu 2009; Pike & Mason 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a). This strength of awareness is considered necessary for inclusion in the consideration set (Pike & Mason 2011). However, the logistic regression model identified that this depth of awareness did not have a significant relationship with intention to participate. Indeed, only awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities gained during the planning stage had a statistically significant relationship with intention to participate.

Further developing understanding of brand salience in the context of Aboriginal tourism, the researcher considered both the depth and breadth of awareness (Aaker, 1996b, 2000; Keller 1993, 1998b, 2001), identifying that tourists who gained awareness at the planning stage had greater awareness of products available. These findings highlight the importance of developing measures of

awareness for new industry contexts (Aaker, 1996b), and this is further discussed in the methodological approaches section 7.3.2.

(3) Gaps in the brand knowledge of Aboriginal tourism activities amongst international cultural tourists

Whilst previous research has identified low levels of awareness amongst international tourists (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010; Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a, 2013b; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), this study suggests that gaps in knowledge are more closely related to the breadth rather than depth of awareness. Whilst high levels of awareness of art and craft exist, this knowledge is not consistent across all product categories. Associations of Aboriginal tourism within the international tourist market are more closely connected with historical or stereotypical themes, rather than with contemporary activities which are also provided by Aboriginal operators.

When considering the other brand dimensions, generally low levels of agreement were identified across all the scales and items, suggesting low levels of brand knowledge exists in the international tourist market. When considering separate dimensions and items within them, the value measure had a median score of five. Value for money had the highest 'don't know' response level amongst all Likert items. Gaps in brand knowledge related to value were greater in functional and emotional measures. Similarly, the second highest use of the 'don't know' category was found in the Likert item relating to perceived overall quality. As functional value and perceived quality influence consumer choice (Zeithaml 1988), future research is

required to further examine how international tourists make assessments of holiday experiences prior to participation.

Likewise, the third highest response within the 'don't know' category related to perceptions that Aboriginal tourism activities within Australia are authentic. Gaps in knowledge related to Authenticity are identified, with particular reference to a lack of brand knowledge related to the importance of place within Aboriginal culture and the authenticity of contemporary products. An interesting insight was provided within this research relating to the lack of knowledge that Aboriginal tourism products are provided by Aboriginal people. Furthermore, the study found that knowledge of Aboriginal culture differed between target segments. Future research may benefit from further investigating perceptions of authenticity within Australian Aboriginal tourism, with greater consideration to differences between target segments.

(4) Mediating effects of tourist characteristics on brand equity and willingness to travel to a remote destination

Although tourist characteristics have been found to influence destination choice (Krider et al. 2010) and mediate brand dimensions (Horng et al. 2012), limited studies consider the influence of tourists' characteristics as mediating the influence of brand dimensions on overall brand equity. Within this research, including tourist characteristics in the logistic regression model improved the predictability variance, providing support for their inclusion when developing models.

Supportive of earlier studies which considered tourism experiences (Camarero, Garrido & Vicente 2010; Horng et al. 2012), the findings suggest that the brand

equity of Aboriginal tourism activities influences destination choice. However, the predictive variance improved when tourist characteristics were included, which suggests that they have a mediating influence, and future studies examining consumer-based brand equity in the context of tourism experiences may benefit from their inclusion.

(5) Development of a profile of remote international tourists

A significant number of studies into destination choice have identified that tourist characteristics can influence decision-making behaviour (for example Crompton & Um 1992; Decrop 2010; Hong, S-k et al. 2006). This study extends previous dispersal research in Australia (Koo, Wu & Dwyer 2010, 2012; McKercher 1998) by identifying tourist characteristics which increase the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination. The research identified that travel party composition, activities, age, length of stay and number of stopovers and pre-booking elements of the holiday prior to arrival all positively increased the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination.

(6) **Contribution of knowledge relating to international tourists with an interest in Aboriginal tourism activities**

A number of previous studies have sought to profile tourists with a pre-disposition to participate in Aboriginal tourism during their holiday. Demographics have been used to profile tourists, although the findings are inconclusive. Whilst

previous studies identified more females were found to participate (Lynch, M et al. 2010), similar to the findings of Kutzner and Wright (2010), this study found age and gender had no statistical significance on intention to participate. However, travel party composition had a significant relationship with intention to participate. Compared to the respondents travelling alone, respondents travelling with family or with friends were more likely to intend to participate.

Likewise, depth of motivation was identified as positively influencing intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. Similar to alternative research on cultural tourists (eg. Ho & McKercher 2004; Kutzner & Wright 2010; Lynch et al. 2010, 2011; McKercher 2002; McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Moscardo & Pearce 1986, 1999; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008), the findings suggest that not all tourists classified as cultural tourists are a homogenous group, with varying depths of motivation to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. Additionally, a major contribution of this study was the identification that participating in an Aboriginal tourism activity, or intending to, is not a sufficient precursor to indicate that an international tourist will travel to a remote destination.

Within the remote tourist profile, it was identified that international tourists who watch an Aboriginal dance or performance, had an increased propensity to be urban tourists. Within the final survey, whilst intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities increased the likelihood of an international tourist being willing to travel to a remote destination, the effects were mediated by personal characteristics. Interestingly, the final survey also identified that some respondents who initially had no intention to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during their holiday, were

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willing to travel to a remote destination to participate. Indeed, the results identified that whilst USA/Canadian respondents were willing to travel due to increased perceptions of Authenticity, Europeans perceived it as adventurous. This suggests that when developing a profile of international tourists, attention to the location of the experience is required.

Whilst this exploratory study has provided some insights into the perceptions and attitudes of international tourists towards remote Aboriginal tourism, respondents were only provided with an image on which to base their decision. Future research may be undertaken which examines how the provision of additional information such as activity choice, price and travel time, influences the decision, positively or negatively, and how this differs between target segments.

(7) Experiential loyalty

Whilst previous consumer-based brand equity research has considered behavioural and attitudinal loyalty, this study included an additional construct, Experiential loyalty (McKercher & Guillet 2011; Pearce & Kang 2009). An earlier tourism study identified that half of all trips exhibited the repetition of activities undertaken on previous holidays (McKercher & Guillet 2011). Alternative Aboriginal tourism studies, identified previous involvement influenced both the depth of experience sought and intention to participate in further activities (Lynch, M et al. 2010, 2011; Moscardo & Pearce 1999). The findings from this study expand earlier findings, identifying that 45.7% of respondents had previous experience overseas and, of those, 62.7% intended to participate in Australia. However, when asked if their previous experience had influenced their decision to participate in

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Australia, this figure reduced to 44%. Whilst the original concept (Pearce & Kang 2009) suggests that transferred loyalty occurs when similar activities are undertaken in new destinations, these findings may indicate that experiential loyalty as a construct may be more complex.

This exploratory study identified some key areas for future research into experiential loyalty within tourism experiences. Respondents who exhibited experiential loyalty, considered it influenced their decision due to their interest in culture and previous enjoyment overseas. This suggests that global Aboriginal tourism experiences can positively or negatively impact on the brand equity of Australian Aboriginal enterprises. Furthermore, the study suggests that previous experience positively influenced the perception of authenticity of Aboriginal tourism activities within remote Australia, and future research may consider this in more depth with consideration given to its application in promotional strategies.

7.6.2   Methodological approaches

Two main overall contributions to methodology approaches were identified in relation to the research design and development of measurement scales.

(1) Research design

Whilst mixed method designs are encouraged in the marketing discipline due to their rigorous approach (Woodruff 2003), historically limited applications are identified (Hanson & Grimmer 2007; Harrison & Reilly 2011). Within marketing research, quantitative research designs within the positivism paradigm are commonly applied (Hunt 1994) which may prevent the researcher gaining a holistic perspective

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of the marketing problem (Harrison & Reilly 2011, p. 22). As research has identified that business people consider academic research following this paradigm to be irrelevant (Sobh & Perry 2006, p. 1197), the research design within this study considered that knowledge production needed to be connected to the context of the research problem (Gibbons et al. 1994).

As earlier studies identified the complexities of transferring the brand concept from products to services (Hudson & Ritchie 2009; Williams, Gill & Chura 2004; Woodside, Cruickshank & Dehuang 2007), an exploratory case study design was developed to create a consumer-based brand equity model in a new context. The use of this design has enabled the researcher to refine existing theories within this new industry context (Jack & Kholeif 2007 cited in Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 63), generate theory from the findings (Bryman & Bell 2011; Yin 1984), and identify new insights for future research.

Whilst exploratory mixed method designs are the most commonly applied design in marketing research (Harrison & Reilly 2011), this research project developed a sequential hybrid exploratory mixed method design, using three phases of data collection. The use of four data sources enabled the researcher to develop measures applicable to this new context reducing potential bias (Pike & Page 2014), and providing opportunities for the triangulation of a number of perceptions (Sobh & Perry 2006).

Finally, this research design contributes to academic literature through the selection of the unit of analysis. A review of the literature identified that the majority of research in Aboriginal Tourism was undertaken in the Northern Territory or the

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Eastern seaboard. Therefore, to expand on current academic literature the context of this study South Australia was selected. Reflective of alternative Aboriginal tourism studies (Lynch, et al. 2011; Ryan & Huyton 2000), it was considered important to collect data from a wider target market. The unit of analysis selected was the South Australian Museum, due to its propensity to attract tourists with an interest in participating in cultural activities during their holiday. As a result of this research design, the findings have been used to generate a number of practical implications for remote Aboriginal operators in relation to market development or penetration strategies (Kotler et al. 2010).

(2) Development of measures and scales

This research project contributed to tourism and marketing literature by developing Likert items to create scales to assist in the development of the model. Items were generated from literature searches, experience surveys and insight-stimulating examples (Churchill Jr 1979). The development of these scales identified some new insights for future research into scale development. Firstly, although previous research included authenticity within the quality measure (Chhabra, Healy & Sills 2003), this study identified Authenticity as a separate dimension to Quality. As a pre-existing scale for authenticity in Aboriginal tourism in Australia was not identified in the literature, the development of the scale within this exploratory study provides opportunities for future research to refine and further develop the scale.

Additionally, as much of the research into consumer-based brand equity is undertaken on respondents with experience of the product or service, this research found that some of the commonly applied measures, such as assessments of value for

money or quality, could not always be answered. Supporting alternative research, this suggests that issues may arise in transferring items into new contexts (Pike & Page 2014, p. 216), and future research may seek to further develop measures and scales in the context of experiential services. A specific example of this relates to Quality measures, with difficulties in identifying items to include within the research found. As a result, future research is needed to further examine how international tourists assess quality prior to experiencing an activity.

A measurement scale for Value in Aboriginal tourism was also developed, adapting the multi-dimensional model applied in alternative research (Williams & Soutar 2009). Similar to the Authenticity measure, future research may be undertaken to refine and further develop the scale.

Finally, the research identified that brand awareness in tourism marketing is complex due to the infrequent exposure to marketing activities. Consideration to the use of awareness measures in alternative consumer-based brand equity research identified that recall measures were commonly applied. However, Aaker (1996) considered the type of awareness needed differs between product classes with different cues used to recall a brand name (Macdonald & Sharp 1996).

Following the development of a profile of remote international tourists (section 4.4, p.185), it became apparent that trip pre-planning positively increased the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination, and this was supported within the interviews, with the majority of tourists planning itineraries before arrival. This suggested that to include a remote Aboriginal tourism provider, awareness was required prior to arrival. As the survey was to be undertaken by

international tourists who had already begun their holiday within Australia, the researcher considered that Top of Mind awareness may be influenced by marketing activities seen within Australia. As an exploratory study, the survey considered the stage that international tourists gained awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities. Supportive of earlier research which considered potential bias when transferring measures (Pike & Page 2014, p. 216), the use of this measure identified that use of Top of Mind as a single awareness measure may result in inaccuracies in the levels of demand. In particular, using this measure may underestimate demand, and lacks sufficient information to assess where product demands may lie.

The findings from this exploratory study suggest that future research in tourism contexts require greater consideration to the measures for brand awareness, in particular, the use of recall and recognition measures. Additionally, future research that further investigates the depth and breadth of awareness, in relation to the choice process may be beneficial. Whilst it has been highlighted that brand awareness is gained at differing stages of the choice process, future research may further investigate how this process is impacted. In particular, research may consider the cues used by international tourists when identifying activities in which to participate.

7.6.3 Practical implications

A number of issues were identified in Chapter 1, which are currently impacting on Aboriginal Tourism Enterprises in both urban and remote areas and a selection of these are represented in Table 7-4 below. The following discussion highlights how some of the key findings from this study may be used to reduce the impact of these key issues in current and future Aboriginal tourism development.

Figure 7-4 Key issues in the development of Aboriginal Tourism Enterprises

Issue	Author(s)
Decline in participation of Aboriginal tourism experiences	(TRA 2011)
Decline in visitor numbers to remote destinations	(Carson & Taylor 2008)
Low tourism market profile. Lack of awareness of available products.	(Buultjens et al. 2010, Tremblay &Pitterle 2008)
Participation in Aboriginal tourism is not the main motivation to travel for the majority of tourists	(McKercher 2004, Silverberg 1995, McKercher 2002, McKercher & Du Cros 2003, Richards 2002, Tremblay & Pitterle, 2008).
Limited knowledge regarding segment needs	(Kutzner, Wright & Stark 2009)
Identifying the level of demand	(Tremblay & Pitterle 2008, Mckercher 2004)
Competition from ecotourism/nature-based tourism	(Buultjens et al., 2010)
Competition from other tourist attractions	(McKercher, Ho & Cros 2004, Ryan & Hutton 2002)
Cultural products offered by non- Aboriginal operators	(Buultjens & Fuller 2007)
Tourists difficulty in identifying authentic experiences to meet personal needs	(Yang & Wall 2010, Ruhaneen et al. 2013)
Limited transport networks to remote areas impact on market access reducing tourist visitor numbers	(McKercher, Ho & Cros 2004)
Budget restrictions impact on travel to remote areas as greater transportation costs are required.	(Jara-Diaz et al. 2008; Carneiro & Crompton, 2010)
Time available acts as a constraint to travel to remote areas	(Lynch et al. 2010, Jara-Diaz et al. 2008; Carneiro & Crompton 2010)
Travel party members, for example children, can act as a constraint	(McKercher 1998)

(1) Target segmentation

Whilst this research identified differences between target segments, the objective of the study was not to create a profile of international tourists with an interest in Aboriginal tourism. However, the case study design enabled the researcher to develop a deeper understanding of the cultural tourist segment and potential avenues of targeting this group to grow the Aboriginal tourism industry. The findings provide some new insights which may be useful in making strategic decisions. Overall, the findings highlight the importance of developing a brand and supporting strategies, that target separate segments within the market, rather than an undifferentiated or mass marketing approach (Dann & Dann 2007). Selecting target segments enables operators to create positioning and promotional strategies which should be reflected in greater return on investment (Dann & Dann 2007). As a result of these initial findings, which indicated that tourist characteristics influence both intention to participate and willingness to travel to a remote destination, future research may seek to focus on developing target segments with an increased propensity to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in remote Australia.

Supportive of earlier research (Kim, S & Prideaux 2005), differences between nationalities were identified with USA/Canadians having higher levels of motivation, knowledge of Aboriginal culture, and previous experience than European or Asian tourists. Additionally, the segments reacted differently to the image provided, with USA/Canadian respondents considering they would travel to the location due to increased perceptions of Authenticity, whilst Europeans travel motivation was adventure. Whilst these findings are useful in developing a brand user profile, future

research may seek to further expand understanding of how images influence perceptions, and intention to participate, with a particular focus on self-congruity.

As with alternative studies, participation in Aboriginal tourism is not the main motivation to travel for the majority of tourists (McKercher 2002; McKercher & Du Cros 2003; McKercher, Ho, & Du Cros, 2004; Moscardo & Pearce 1999; Richards 2002; Ryan & Huyton 2000, 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008). Yet the findings of this exploratory study suggest there is a motivation amongst the cultural tourist target segment to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities. Overall, the findings from this exploratory study support earlier research (McKercher 2002; Ryan & Huyton 2002; Tremblay & Pitterle 2008) that shows cultural tourists are not a homogenous group and segmentation methods need to reflect this. Furthermore, similar to earlier cultural studies (McKercher 2002), this study considers segmenting tourists based on participation in one activity may produce inaccurate levels of demand. The profile of remote international tourists identified that those who watched an Aboriginal dance performance where more likely to remain in urban areas. Therefore, current strategies which profile tourists with a propensity to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities, based on prior experience of one type of activity, may generate estimates of demand which are applicable for urban Aboriginal operators but inadequate for remote operators.

The identification of activities which increase the likelihood of international tourists to include a remote destination may provide new opportunities for remote Aboriginal operators. Developing these mainstream products with a cultural element, may enable remote Aboriginal operators to develop a conceptual competitive

advantage over non-Aboriginal operators (Ryan & Huyton 2002). Two strategic opportunities may exist with product mix development. Tremblay and Pitterle (2008) suggested that participation in Aboriginal tourism was opportunity driven with the findings from the profile of remote international tourists providing opportunities for market development, and with remote operators targeting new segments whose primary motivation to travel to remote destinations may not be cultural. Developing strategic alliances with other remote operators who offer the products which increase the likelihood to include a remote destination may provide opportunities to enter these new markets. Alternatively, remote Aboriginal operators may seek to expand their product mix offerings to their existing market. This increased value offering may reduce international tourists' perception of constraints such as cost and time (Carneiro & Crompton 2010; Jara-Díaz et al. 2008; Lynch, M et al. 2010). Future research may seek to assess the viability of this suggestion from both a supply and demand side perspective.

However, some remote Aboriginal operators already offer these products. As the study has identified that limited breadth of awareness exists, it may be beneficial to consider positioning and promotional strategies which highlight both the availability and the additional value to be gained by utilising an Aboriginal operator.

Product development needs to consider other elements of the target segments identified within this study. Alternative research into market access identified that travel party members can act as a constraint in the decision to travel to a remote destination (McKercher 1998). Travel party composition can impact on requirements for infrastructure such as accommodation, but also upon costs of transport to

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destinations. Whilst family groups were more likely to intend to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities than unaccompanied travellers or adult couples were, when developing a profile of remote international tourists this travel party group were least likely to include a remote destination. As a result, further research to identify how this segment perceives the constraints associated with travel may be beneficial to identify strategies to remove or minimise them.

Additionally, older tourists were more likely to include a remote destination within their holiday itinerary. Research into Aboriginal tourism in Canada identified that age influences the activity preference in relation to the level of perceived exertion (Lynch, M et al. 2011). This may impact on product development, with supporting promotional strategies required to focus on aspects such as level of activity to minimise perceptions of constraints to participation. Furthermore within the survey, responses to the image included the perception of the area being inaccessible, hot or unsafe which suggests that operators in Australia may benefit from considering how their target segment perceives the areas they are located in, and ensure marketing material alleviates concerns.

A final significant finding of this exploratory study was the level of trip pre-planning amongst international tourists and its impact on willingness to travel to a remote destination. Whilst these findings cannot be generalised they provide a useful insight into the planning behaviour of international tourists. Generally, the findings highlighted high levels of trip pre-planning, with a positive influence on intention to participate and willingness to travel to a remote destination. These findings highlight the importance of targeting international tourists prior to arrival with opportunities

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provided for pre-booking activities. Additionally, a further consideration may be the development of relationships with other stakeholders offering services such as accommodation, transportation and tours. Yet differences in trip pre-planning were found between nationalities, with a higher proportion of USA/Canadian and Asian respondents, pre-booking their holiday compared to European travellers. Further research which investigates international tourists' choice behaviour prior to arrival may be beneficial, with a focus on the decision-making process.

(2) Positioning strategies

Understanding the perceptions of international tourists towards Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia, may assist Aboriginal operators when developing positioning strategies. Whilst competition from ecotourism/nature-based tourism (Buultjens, Gale & White 2010) and other tourist attractions (McKercher, Ho & Du Cros 2004; Ryan & Huyton 2002), have been identified as impacting on Aboriginal tourism development, competition cannot be removed from the marketplace, and operators may benefit from considering new ways to develop a competitive advantage. Ryan and Hutton (2002) consider that Aboriginal operators have the opportunity to develop a competitive advantage on mainstream products. However, cultural products offered by non-Aboriginal operators have also been identified as negatively impacting on Aboriginal tourism operators (Buultjens & Fuller 2007), suggesting that the target segment maybe unaware of the value of the competitive advantage. As a result consideration to increasing knowledge relating to value of participating with Aboriginal operators may be beneficial.

This study contributes to this discussion and provides a number of insights into the gaps in brand knowledge which may be currently impacting on the perceived competitive advantage. Supportive of earlier research (Ruhanen, Whitford & McLennan 2013a, 2013b; Yang & Wall 2009), this study found that tourists have difficulties in identifying authentic experiences. Positioning strategies which focus on increasing brand knowledge related to the connection between Aboriginal culture and place, and contemporary Aboriginal culture may increase overall perceptions of authenticity, and increase intention to participate. Additionally, the research identified that some international tourists are unable to make assessments relating to value for money or levels of quality. As these are commonly used within positioning strategies, future research into the positioning strategies of tourism experiences may be beneficial.

Further consideration to the differences in perceived understanding relating to the term 'Aboriginal tourism' may also benefit strategic decisions relating to positioning. Whilst, academics and practitioners often utilise definitions of Aboriginal tourism that confer that they are provided by Aboriginal operators, the research highlights that international tourists may not necessarily agree with this. To support positioning strategies focusing on the authenticity of the product, increasing the awareness that Aboriginal tourism activities are offered by Aboriginal people may be beneficial.

(3) Promotional strategies

Due to the low breadth of awareness, campaigns need to focus on increasing awareness of the range of products available. A benefit of undertaking this strategy may be reflected in targeting international tourists with other travel motivations.

Trip pre-planning varies between segments with higher numbers of tourists from the USA/Canada and Asia more likely to pre-plan, with awareness campaigns in their countries needed to provide opportunities for bookings to occur. Alternatively, young Europeans have lower dispositions to pre-book, and campaigns may be appropriate within Australia which reminds this target segment of the activities available to them.

As the stage awareness was gained within the choice process varied between nationalities, promotion strategies need to be differentiated, for example, providing higher levels of information at the planning stage in Asian markets compared to reinforcing prior awareness and knowledge in the USA/Canada market.

Previous experience in Aboriginal tourism contexts overseas impacts on the brand awareness of Aboriginal tourism within Australia, and managers may consider how this impacts on advertising objectives. Levels of awareness differ between nationalities, with USA/Canadian respondents having the highest level of previous experiences and Asian tourists the lowest. Future research may seek to understand how previous experience impacts on the perceptions of promotional materials.

Additionally, the research identified the potential to use urban stakeholders to increase awareness of remote Aboriginal tourism activities. Consideration to

developing relationships with the South Australian Museum was given, with training required to overcome the lack of awareness of product availability amongst volunteers and staff.

Finally, international tourists who gained awareness at the planning stage, had the greatest levels of brand salience, but they also represented the smallest group within the four categories of awareness. This suggests that marketing managers may find it beneficial to focus on targeting segments at the planning stage of their holiday. To ensure that promotional materials target the segments, this exploratory study identified that difference sources are used to gain awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities that existed between geographical segments. It is recommended that future research further examines the sources used by target segments, with a gap analysis undertaken to identify where Aboriginal operators may achieve the greatest return on promotional investment.

7.6.4   Limitations and directions for future research

As with all research, this study had a number of limitations which in themselves may provide avenues for future research. The following discussion is separated into four sections, firstly discussing the limitations of the case study design, followed by three sections which focus on three separate data collections and analysis undertaken.

(1) Case study design

The single case study design was selected, with the South Australian museum considered a representative unit of analysis. However, a multiple case study design,

using different cultural and/or Aboriginal experiences may provide a greater insight into the different perceptions of consumer-based brand equity.

Whilst the selection of the South Australian Museum was made to enable the collection of data from cultural tourists in an urban location, alternative research may consider alternative sites in urban and remote destinations, enabling comparison of findings to be made.

(2) Recalibration of international visitor survey to create a profile of the remote international tourist

(a) Sampling method: The study was limited in its use of secondary data which limits the independent variables used within the analysis. The questions in the Tourism Australia survey were not developed to answer the particular hypothesis tested.

(b) Data collection: It must also be acknowledged, as with all statistical data, the knowledge is historical. The data used was collected between 2008 and 2010, and therefore may not necessarily reflect current external influences such as recent marketing campaigns which can influence international tourists' behaviours. Additionally, it may not capture small tourism experiences and therefore caution should be taken when generalising results to all remote enterprises.

(c) Constructs and measurement scales: Whilst the data was recalibrated to define remote and urban destinations, this does not take into account the diversity of remote destinations. Future research may consider recalibrating the data to identify regions based on other categories, for example, desert versus tropics.

The study was not restricted to analysing only tourists who participated in Aboriginal tourism activities. Tourism Australia has collected more detailed data relating to specific Aboriginal activities undertaken by international tourists. However, for the three year period utilised within this analysis, the questions used were not consistent and could not be used within this analysis. Future research may wish to focus on these smaller samples to develop a deeper understanding of international tourists who participate in Aboriginal activities.

The data does not separate respondents based upon their nationality which may impact on perceptions and behaviours of international tourists. Therefore, future research may consider if geographic residency impacts on the probability to travel to remote destinations.

(3) Interviews

(a) Sampling method: Snowball sampling was used to overcome difficulties in identifying stakeholders to interview, discussed in greater detail below. However this method of sampling can cause difficulties when generalising the findings.

(b) Sample size: Ten interviews were conducted as part of the data collection using the convergent interview process. Whilst the interviews were considered to be saturated when convergent themes were identified, widening participation to other stakeholders may have provided new themes.

(c) Data collection: The scope of this case study was the South Australian museum, with interviews undertaken with stakeholders of this unit of analysis. Although it may be considered a representative unit of analysis with regards to

cultural tourists, stakeholders at alternative locations, activities or states, may have provided different perceptions, attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, it is recommended that additional units of analysis may be used in future research.

Whilst the researcher identified ethical guidelines related to health and education research, none was noted in the field of tourism or marketing. Indeed, it appeared that the ethics committee were also guided by health and education guidelines and, as a result, gaining approval was a lengthy process with the researcher answering some questions which were not applicable to the research design. A major issue was the ethical requirement for contact to be made through formal letters. The formal structure of sending letters prior to contacting potential participants was often in conflict with cultural expectations, not only for Aboriginal people, but also regional communities. Future research may consider different strategies in approaching stakeholders for participation, with greater consideration to the language used within letter.

When the researcher realised difficulties in gaining formal interviews, ethics approval was sought to enable informal discussions to be undertaken. Whilst difficulties arose in organising formal interviews, four Aboriginal stakeholders were met during the course of the research and informally discussed the research, providing valuable insights into ongoing findings. Additionally, some participants were invited to participate in the interviews but declined as they were not Aboriginal, and believed they would be unable to contribute anything useful to the research. Three participants who declined to be formally interviewed, participated in informal discussions and their depth of knowledge relating to international tourists was

apparent. Additionally, one respondent met for an informal discussion advising the organisation he worked for had concerns regarding, 'any formal interviews that can be quoted'. All these informal discussions were noted in the field diary and used to add alternative insights during the process of collecting data, as guided by the realism paradigm.

(4) Survey on international tourists

(a) Sampling method: A simple random sample was collected, resulting in a sample, n=148. However, as this research has identified that differences exist between tourists, future research may consider an alternative method of sampling such as stratified random sampling to ensure equal numbers of segments responses are collected. Alternatively, if developing a greater understanding of target segments in relation to brand equity, a non-probability sampling method may be appropriate.

(b) Sampling size: The sample size in this final survey was relatively small. Additionally, the inclusion of the 'don' know' option resulted in the listwise deletion of responses in the logistic regression model, further reducing the sample used. However, the inclusion of this non-response option provided some insights into gaps in brand knowledge and supported earlier research which considered it an important addition to minimise bias in the data. Whilst this sample size was sufficient for the exploratory study, future research may consider gathering a larger sample size to empirically test the conceptual consumer-based framework developed.

(c) Data collection: The scope of this case study was the South Australian museum. Although it may be considered a representative unit of analysis with

regards to cultural tourists, collection of data at alternative locations, activities or states, may have provided different perceptions, attitudes and behaviours from international tourists.

This was a cross sectional study with data collected over the summer months of December and January. As a heat wave occurred during the month of January this may have influenced perceptions related to weather. Additionally, respondents may have been visiting Adelaide for a number of reasons which may have impacted on their intention to participate or their willingness to travel to a remote destination, such as visiting family/friends for Christmas or attending one of the many events in Adelaide during those months such as the cricket in December or Tour Down Under bicycle race in January. A longitudinal study over a longer period or different seasons may produce different results. Alternatively, future cross sectional studies could include a question relating to purpose of visit.

(d) Constructs and measurement scales: The selected Likert items are not comprehensive and could have included alternative factors. However, as the survey was undertaken with international tourists who were visiting the museum, its length was restricted to encourage participation. Future research may look at the constructs used to further improve and develop the scales. An additional moderation to the survey would be the inclusion of a direct question which differentiates between tourists who have already participated and those that have not.

7.7 Concluding comments

Considering that no research has been undertaken using the consumer-based brand equity framework to identify the perceptions and attitudes of international

tourists towards Aboriginal tourism in Australia, this study has built new theory in this context. Furthermore, it has generated additional theoretical and methodological contributions, and identified a range of practical implications for the industry. The use of the exploratory case study design has also reinforced the appropriateness of using mixed method approaches in tourism and marketing research.

Following the comprehensive analysis of the data sources followed by the triangulation of findings, this research concludes that international tourists have insufficient brand knowledge in regards to the diversified product range offered by Aboriginal operators. As the initial foundation of developing a strong brand, awareness strategies need to focus on increasing the brand salience, reflected in both the depth and breadth of awareness. A focus on developing brand knowledge related to Authenticity is also required, particularly related to the importance of country in Aboriginal culture and the relevance of contemporary culture.

The findings of this research may be of interest to a range of stakeholders, including Aboriginal operators, both urban and remote, non-Aboriginal operators, tourism planners and Government agencies involved in tourism planning and strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Information letter 1

Dear [participant's name],

We are researchers at Flinders University undertaking research into Aboriginal tourism in remote Australia. We are conducting a study within South Australia and would like to invite you to take part in the research.

The research aims to develop a deeper understanding of tourists who visit remote areas and participate in Aboriginal tourism experiences. We would like you to participate in a semi-structured interview. Please find attached a list of interview themes with this letter. We would anticipate that the interview would last up to one hour and, with your permission, we would like to make an audio recording of the interview which will then be transcribed. We will provide you with a copy of the transcript of your interview for confirmation/amendment.

Participation in the research project is voluntary. The analysis of the results will be published in a doctoral thesis titled: 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'. We will seek your consent to use the information from the interview prior to publication.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr Marian Whitaker at the email address listed above. Alternatively she can be contacted on (08) 8201 2603.

If you wish to participate in the research please sign and return the consent form in the pre-paid envelope. Upon receipt we will telephone you to arrange an appointment.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Marian Whitaker   Miss Janine Ashwell
Associate Dean (Academic)   Phd Candidate
Flinders Business School

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (project no 5607). For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035, or by email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Appendix 2: Information letter 2

Dear [participant's name],

We are researchers at Flinders University undertaking research into Aboriginal tourism in remote Australia. We are conducting a study within South Australia, and following our meeting with [name] of [enterprise name], he/she has recommended that we invite you to participate in the research.

To assist in developing a deeper understanding of tourists who visit remote areas, we would like you to participate in a semi-structured interview. Please find attached a list of interview themes with this letter. We would anticipate that the interview would last up to one hour and, with your permission, we would like to make an audio recording of the interview which will then be transcribed. We will provide you with a copy of the transcript of your interview for confirmation/amendment.

Participation in the research project is voluntary. The analysis of the case studies will be published in a doctoral thesis titled: 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'. We will seek your consent to use the information from the interview prior to publication.

If you have any questions relating to the research, please contact Dr Marian Whitaker at the email address listed above.

If you would like to participate in the research please sign and return the consent form in the enclosed stamped addressed envelope. Upon receipt we will telephone you to arrange an appointment.

Yours sincerely

Dr Marian Whitaker   Miss Janine Ashwell
Associate Dean (Academic)   Phd Candidate
Flinders Business School

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (project no.5607). For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035, or by email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Appendix 3: Information Sheet

INFORMATION SHEET

Title: 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'

Investigators:

Dr Marian Whitaker & Miss Janine Ashwell
Flinders Business School
Flinders University
Ph: 08 8201 2603

Description of the study:

This study is part of the project entitled 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'

This project will investigate how the drivers of destination choice influence the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism in remote areas of Australia. This project is supported by Flinders University Business School.

Purpose of the study:

The project aims are:

- To develop a profile of international tourists who participate in Aboriginal tourism and travel to remote areas of Australia
- To identify how Aboriginal tourism enterprises influence the destination choice process
- To develop a brand equity model for Aboriginal tourism enterprises

What will I be asked to do?

You are invited to participate in a semi-structured interview around the following themes:

- How are Aboriginal tourism enterprises and tourists who participate in them defined?
- What choice process do tourists follow when deciding to undertake an Aboriginal tourism experience in remote Australia?
- Which dimensions of destination brand equity influences the brand equity of Aboriginal tourism enterprises in remote Australia? Dimensions within the discussion will include brand image, brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand quality and brand value.
- Which dimensions of Aboriginal tourism enterprises brand equity add value to the customer experience and why?

The interview will take between 30 and 60 minutes. With your permission the interview will be recorded using a digital voice recorder to help with looking at the results.

What benefit will I gain from being involved in this study?

The sharing of your experiences will contribute to the future development and planning of Aboriginal tourism enterprises in remote Australia.

Will I be identifiable by being involved in this study?

We do not need your name and you will be anonymous. Once the interview has been typed-up and saved as a file, the voice file will then be destroyed. Any identifying information will be removed and the typed-up file stored on a password protected computer to which only the coordinator, (Ms Janine Ashwell), will have access. Your comments will not be linked directly to you.

Are there any risks or discomforts if I am involved?

Other group members may be able to identify your contributions even though they will not be directly attributed to you. The investigator anticipates few risks from your involvement in this study. If you have any concerns regarding anticipated or actual risks or discomforts, please raise them with the investigator.

How do I agree to participate?

Participation is voluntary. You may answer 'no comment' or refuse to answer any questions and you are free to withdraw from the interview at any time without effect or consequences. A consent form accompanies this information sheet. If you agree to participate please read and sign the form in the pre-paid envelope. A researcher will contact you by telephone or email to arrange an interview at a mutually convenient time.

How will I receive feedback?

A transcript of the interview will be forwarded to you before analysis and you will have the right to withdraw any/all of your responses. The research findings will form part of a PhD thesis, 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'. It is anticipated that the results of this research will form the basis of an article to be published in an academic journal in the Marketing or Tourism field.

Janine Ashwell receives financial support for this research via the Australian Postgraduate Awards and Cooperative Research Centre for Remote Economic Participation

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet and we hope that you will accept our invitation to be involved.

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (Project number No. 5607. For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035, or by email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Appendix 4: Consent form for participation in research

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH
(by interview)

DRIVERS OF DESTINATION CHOICE IN ABORIGINAL TOURISM

I, ….., being over the age of 18 years hereby consent to participate as requested in the information sheet for the research project on 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'.

1. I have read the information provided.
2. Details of procedures and any risks have been explained to my satisfaction.
3. I agree to audio recording of my information and participation.
4. I am aware that I should retain a copy of the Information Sheet for future reference.
5. I understand that:

   - I may not directly benefit from taking part in this research.
   - I am free to withdraw from the project at any time and am free to decline to answer particular questions.
   - While the information gained in this study will be published as explained, I will not be identified, and individual information will remain confidential.
   - Whether I participate or not, or withdraw after participating, will have no effect on any treatment or service that is being provided to me.
   - I may ask that the recording/observation be stopped at any time, and that I may withdraw at any time from the session or the research without disadvantage.

Participant's signature…………………………………Date…………………...

Contact details:

Telephone number ……………………………………………….

Email address: ………………………………………………

I certify that I have explained the study to the volunteer and consider that she/he understands what is involved and freely consents to participation.

Researcher's name………………………….…………………..................

Researcher's signature……………………………..Date………………….

Appendix 5: Final survey undertaken by international tourists at the South Australian Museum

You are invited to participate in a questionnaire survey which is identifying international tourists' attitudes and perceptions of Aboriginal tourism. This project is supported by Flinders University Business School.

- If you are 18 years or over, you are being asked to take part in a survey that examines your perception and attitudes towards Aboriginal tourism.
- This questionnaire should take no more than 10 minutes to complete.
- You are not asked to identify yourself in the survey and will remain anonymous.
- Participation is voluntary. You may answer 'no comment' or refuse to answer any questions and you are free to withdraw from the questionnaire survey at any time.
- The investigator anticipates few risks from your involvement in this study. If you have any concerns regarding anticipated or actual risks or discomforts, please raise them with the investigator.
- Participation in this survey will not benefit you, but the sharing of your experiences will contribute to the future development and planning of Aboriginal tourism enterprises in remote Australia.

No direct feedback will be provided although the research findings will form part of a PhD thesis, 'Drivers of destination choice in Aboriginal tourism'. This project will investigate how the drivers of destination choice influence the decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism in remote areas of Australia.

Janine Ashwell receives financial support for this research via the Australian Postgraduate Awards and Cooperative Research Centre for Remote Economic Participation.

Investigators:
Dr Marian Whitaker & Miss Janine Ashwell
Flinders Business School
Flinders University
Ph: 08 8201 2603

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet and we hope that you will accept our invitation to be involved.

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (Project number No. 5607). For more information regarding ethical approval of the project the Executive Officer of the Committee can be contacted by telephone on 8201 3116, by fax on 8201 2035, or by email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

1. Is this your first visit to Australia? Yes ☐ (go to Q2)   No ☐ number of previous visits ____

2. How many nights will you stay in Australia? _____

3. How many destinations will you visit during your holiday? _____

4. Will you travel outside of the main cities of Adelaide, Sydney, Melbourne, Perth and Brisbane?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Who are you travelling with? Partner ☐   Family   ☐   Friends   ☐

   Alone ☐

6. What is your nationality? _____

7. Please tick your age group:

   18-29   ☐   30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐   70-79 ☐

   80+☐

8. Please tick your gender:

   Male ☐   Female ☐

9. Before arriving in Australia did you decide which destinations to travel to?

   Yes   ☐ please go to Q10   No   ☐ please go to Q11

10. Before arriving in Australia did you pre-book your accommodation and transportation for each destination?

    All ☐ Some ☐   None ☐   Don't know ☐

11. Before arriving in Australia did you decide which activities you would undertake during your holiday?

All ☐ Some ☐ None ☐ Don't know ☐

12. Have you participated in Aboriginal/Indigenous/Ethnic/Cultural tourism activities in other countries?
Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know ☐

If yes, did that influence your decision to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know ☐

If yes, how did it influence your decision? (please tick all that apply)

I have previously enjoyed these activities ☐ Previous activities were good

value for money ☐

Previous activities were good quality ☐ Enjoyed learning about new

cultures ☐

Increased my awareness that Aboriginal experiences were available ☐

Self-development ☐

Other:

_____

_____

_____

13. When you planned your holiday to Australia, at what stage where you aware that Aboriginal people offered a range of tourism activities?

Before I began to plan my holiday ☐ After I had begun to look for activities

to participate in ☐ When I arrived in Australia ☐ I am not aware that

Aboriginal people provide tourism activities ☐

14. How important is it to you to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities during your holiday?
15.

    Not at all important ☐   Somewhat important ☐   Very important ☐

16. How did you become aware of Aboriginal tourism products and services which are available in Australia? (please tick all that apply)

    Travel Agent   ☐   Friends/Family   ☐   Internet search   ☐

    Travel brochures ☐   Social media   ☐   Books   ☐   Was

    not aware   ☐   TripAdvisor   ☐

    Lonely planet ☐   News media   ☐   Previous experiences overseas ☐

    Don't know   ☐

    Other: _____

17. From the following, please tick the tourism products and services you are aware are offered by Aboriginal operators in Australia:

    Art and craft   ☐   Accommodation ☐   Bush or outback tours ☐
    Food experiences ☐   Festivals   ☐   Extended tours   ☐
    Coastal escapes   ☐   Day tours   ☐   Urban culture
    ☐   Active adventures ☐   Cultural parks ☐   None   ☐

18. Which of these do you associate with Aboriginal tourism in Australia? (tick all that apply)

    Art and craft   ☐   Ancient buildings ☐ Alternative medicine   ☐
    Fishing   ☐

    Cultural centres ☐   Inventions   ☐ Welcome to country   ☐
Ruins   ☐

    National Parks ☐   Boomerangs   ☐ Dance/music performances ☐
Snorkelling ☐

    Didgeridoos   ☐   Spears/shields   ☐ Visiting a community   ☐
Bush Tucker ☐

Guided tours ☐ Quad biking ☐ Remote destinations ☐
Kayaking ☐

Basket weaving ☐ Camel riding ☐ Visiting museums ☐
Rock Art ☐

Bush walking ☐ The Outback ☐ Dolphin/Whale watching ☐
Nature ☐

History ☐ Four wheel driving ☐ Dreamtime/storylines ☐
Cities ☐

Traditional living ☐ Cultural/theme parks ☐ Economic development ☐
People like me ☐

Meeting Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders ☐ None of these ☐

Are there any other factors that you associate with Aboriginal tourism?

18. The following questions relate only to Aboriginal tourism activities within Australia. Please rate your answers on a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree.

If your answer is "'don't know" please leave blank

When I think about Australia, Aboriginal people come to mind	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Aboriginal activities available in Australia are quite different to activities available overseas	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal tourism provides a good range of activities for people on holiday	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Participating in Aboriginal tourism reflects who I am	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My friends would think highly of me if I participate in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism experiences	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I particularly value what Aboriginal tourism represents	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities in Australia are of good quality	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities in Australia are authentic	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities in Australia are a reproduction of the past	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Activities are authentic when you engage with a local Aboriginal person	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in remote Australia	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities in Australia represent local ways of life	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Authentic Aboriginal activities are found in Australian cities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Engaging in Aboriginal activities makes an experience authentic	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Contemporary Aboriginal cultural activities are authentic	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities are good value for money	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Participating in Aboriginal activities is a good way to spend my time on holiday	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities are enjoyable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities are exciting	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Tour guides increase my understanding of Aboriginal culture	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to meet new people	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities provide opportunities to learn new knowledge	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities provide novelty	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Aboriginal activities offer once-in-a lifetime experiences	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would recommend Aboriginal tourism activities within Australia to friends/family	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Do you intend to participate in any Aboriginal tourist activities during your holiday?

Yes ☐

Why will you be participating in Aboriginal tourist activities?

_____

_____

_____

No ☐

Why will you not be participating in any Aboriginal tourist activities?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Don't know ☐

20. During this holiday would you travel to this destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism activities?

Yes ☐   Why? (please tick all those that apply):

Authentic experience ☐   Adventure ☐   Novel experience ☐ Engage in the

experience ☐

Other ☐ Please provide an answer

_____

_____

_____

No   ☐ Why? (please tick all those that apply):

Cost ☐ Time ☐ Lack of information ☐ Lack of awareness before arriving in Australia ☐

Can participate in cities ☐ Not interested ☐ Safety concerns ☐ Travelling with children ☐

Other ☐ Please provide an answer

_____

_____

_____

21. If you returned to Australia, would you participate in an Aboriginal tourism activity in a remote destination?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know ☐

Why?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your time in completing this survey

Appendix 6: Correlation results for activities and destination choice

	Pearson's Chi-square	df	Sig	Phi	Sig	Relationship
Outback	17080.183	1	<0.05	0.588	<0.05	Moderate
Aboriginal site or community	11696.661	1	<0.05	0.487	<0.05	Moderate
Aboriginal art, craft and cultural display	7821.406	1	<0.05	0.398	<0.05	Weak
Bushwalking or rainforest	5005.788	1	<0.05	0.318	<0.05	Weak
Snorkelling	4696.535	1	<0.05	0.308	<0.05	Weak
Guided tour or excursion	3993.594	1	<0.05	0.284	<0.05	Weak
National Park	3729.714	1	<0.05	0.275	<0.05	Weak
Other outdoor activities	2287.101	1	<0.05	0.215	<0.05	Weak
Charter boat, cruise, ferry	1865.567	1	<0.05	0.194	<0.05	Very weak
Whale, dolphin watching	1835.285	1	<0.05	0.193	<0.05	Very weak
Art and craft workshop	1739.945	1	<0.05	0.188	<0.05	Very weak
Museums, galleries	1584.238	1	<0.05	0.179	<0.05	Very weak
Historic buildings	1530.85	1	<0.05	0.176	<0.05	Very weak
Botanic, public gardens	1387.829	1	<0.05	0.168	<0.05	Very weak
Visit Farms	1367.101	1	<0.05	0.166	<0.05	Very weak
Pubs, clubs, discos	1290.336	1	<0.05	0.162	<0.05	Very weak
Scuba diving	1267.652	1	<0.05	0.16	<0.05	Very weak
Water sports	1150.662	1	<0.05	0.153	<0.05	Very weak
Surfing	787.91	1	<0.05	0.126	<0.05	Very weak
Festivals, fairs, cultural events	750.759	1	<0.05	0.123	<0.05	Very weak
Attend movies	741.724	1	<0.05	0.123	<0.05	Very weak
Wildlife, zoo, aquarium	741.071	1	<0.05	0.122	<0.05	Very weak
Wineries	721.74	1	<0.05	0.121	<0.05	Very weak
Visit markets	672.339	1	<0.05	0.117	<0.05	Very weak
Aboriginal performance	666.8	1	<0.05	0.116	<0.05	Very weak
Cycling	660.195	1	<0.05	0.116	<0.05	Very weak
Beach	585.082	1	<0.05	0.109	<0.05	Very weak
Tourist train	560.393	1	<0.05	0.107	<0.05	Very weak
Sightseeing	536.579	1	<0.05	0.104	<0.05	Very weak
Go fishing	309.755	1	<0.05	0.079	<0.05	Very weak
Theatre, concerts	228.939	1	<0.05	0.068	<0.05	Very weak
Organised sporting event	193.566	1	<0.05	0.063	<0.05	Very weak
Other sport	192.076	1	<0.05	0.062	<0.05	Very weak
Eat out	111.301	1	<0.05	0.047	<0.05	Very weak
Health spa	43.468	1	<0.05	0.03	<0.05	Very weak
Short educational course	40.777	1	<0.05	0.029	<0.05	Very weak
Shopping	26.035	1	<0.05	0.023	<0.05	Very weak
Snow sports	4.634	1	<0.05	0.01	<0.05	Very weak
Casino	6.163	1	<0.05	-0.011	<0.05	Very weak
None of these	20.215	1	<0.05	-0.02	<0.05	Very weak
Amusements and theme parks	58.469	1	<0.05	-0.034	<0.05	Very weak

Play golf	0.524	1	0.469	-0.003	0.469	None
Other activity	0.685	1	0.408	0.004	0.408	None

Appendix 7: Emerging themes and research questions generated during the study

Emerging themes	Research questions: Phase 1	Research questions: Phase 2
Brand awareness	Do prior visits to Australia increase brand loyalty to Aboriginal tourism enterprises in a remote destination?	How aware are international tourists of Aboriginal culture in Australia?
	Which tourism product categories are international tourists aware are offered by Aboriginal operators?	How aware are international tourists of Aboriginal people providing tourism activities in Australia?
	Does the Internet increase brand awareness of remote Aboriginal tourism enterprises?	Which product categories are international tourists aware Aboriginal people provide?
		How is awareness of Aboriginal tourism activities gained?
		How do previous experiences overseas increase awareness in Australia?
Brand associations	Which product categories do international tourists associate with Aboriginal tourism?	Which associations do international tourists have of Aboriginal tourism activities?
	Do international tourists associate remote destinations with Aboriginal tourism?	Do international tourists associate remote destinations with Aboriginal tourism?
		How do previous experiences overseas influence associations of Aboriginal tourism in Australia?
Brand quality	How does the location of an Aboriginal tourism enterprise impact on the perceived authenticity of the experience?	Does the quality dimension have a relationship with other dimensions of brand equity and intention to participate?
	How does the perceived authenticity of an Aboriginal tourism experience impact on perceived quality?	Do international tourists perceive Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia to be good quality?
		How does the location of an Aboriginal tourism enterprise impact on the perceived authenticity of the experience?
		Does the Authenticity dimension have a relationship with other dimensions of brand equity and intention to participate?
		Does engagement with Aboriginal people increase perceived authenticity?
Brand value	How does the perceived authenticity of an Aboriginal	Does the Value dimension have a relationship with other

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	tourism experience impact on perceived value?	dimensions of brand equity and intention to participate?
	Do international tourists perceive an increase in the value of undertaking Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination?	Do international tourists perceive Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia to be good value?
		How do international tourists gain value from participating in Aboriginal tourism activities?
		Do international tourists perceive an increase in the value of undertaking Aboriginal tourism activities in a remote destination?
Brand loyalty	How do prior visits to Australia impact on the brand loyalty to Aboriginal tourism enterprises in a remote destination?	How does experiential loyalty influence brand equity of Aboriginal tourism activities in Australia?
Tourist characteristics		Do tourist characteristics mediate the influence of brand dimensions on overall brand equity?
		Do tourist characteristics mediate the influence of brand equity on willingness to travel to a remote destination to participate in Aboriginal tourism?