

School of Marketing

Conceptualising the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity Scale

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) - updated March 2014. The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number **SOM2014009**.

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - Four key objectives were set for the research. First, was to extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity to the contexts of food and travel destinations. Second, was to develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. Third, was to examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions. Fourth, was to investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the attitude-behavioural intention relationships for the food and travel destination, also under the four experimental authenticity conditions.

Design/methodology/approach - Research was conducted in three phases. The first phase involved an extensive and a systematic review of authenticity literature in philosophy, psychology, marketing and tourism research. The second phase employed rigorous scale development procedures that involved six stages: (1) construct definition; (2) generating scale items; (3) purifying scale items; (4) refining scale items; (5) validation; and (6) measurement invariance. The qualitative research of this phase comprised four focus groups (N=32) and two expert panels (N=47) to generate and screen potential scale items. Then, the quantitative research utilised a survey instrument that was self-administered to potential travelling Singaporeans (N=3,130) in four main studies. The third phase tested the empirical decision-making model and its hypothesised relationships, under the four experimental authenticity conditions, with structural equation modelling. First, it examined the impacts country image has on attitude and behavioural intention toward food and travel destination with path analysis. Then, it explored the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for

existential authenticity have on the attitude-behavioural intention for food and travel destination with multigroup analysis.

Findings - Working definitions were identified for indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity which are conceptualised as existing at two extreme poles on a continuum. The study developed the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which had nine items representing three indexically authentic food factors (preparation, cultural heritage and serving) and six items representing two iconically authentic food factors (preparation and serving). The scale had reliability, validity and measurement invariance, demonstrating sound psychometric properties. Country image positively impacted on attitude toward the food and travel destination under a majority of the four experimental authenticity conditions. Finally, food orientation and desire for existential authenticity moderated the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under a majority of the four conditions.

Research limitations/implications - While the study only focused on Singaporeans for their perception of Korean Ginseng Chicken and Daegu Otgol Village, the study has potential to be generalised to other food and travel destinations. Findings offer four key theoretical and managerial applications. First, is a resolution amongst conventional and contemporary approaches to authenticity. Second, is an empirical scale to measure indexical and iconic authenticity in food. Third, is an empirical decision-making model, from cross-over studies on product country image and travel destination image, which explains the differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination. Finally, is understanding the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the

attitude-behavioural intention relationships for food and travel destinations, and the proposed tourist typologies they proffer.

Originality/value - To the best of the researcher's knowledge, in addressing the four research objectives set for the current study, it achieves four 'firsts' in its outcomes. It is the first to conduct an extensive and a systematic review of authenticity research to conceptualise the indexical-iconic approach. The developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale is the first to apply a continuum approach in its operationalisation of indexical and iconic food authenticity. The empirical decision-making research model is the first to examine country image for its impact on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions. Finally, the model is also the first to examine food orientation and desire for existential authenticity for their moderating effects on the attitude-behavioural intention relationships for the food and travel destination.

Keywords: Authenticity, Indexical authenticity, Iconic authenticity, Country image, Attitude, Behavioural intention, Food tourism, Scale development

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of study

1.1.1. Authenticity in marketing and tourism

Consumers are seeking greater value from the consumption experience (Verhoef et al. 2009) and are becoming more discerning about where and when to spend their money as opposed to simply what they spend it on and how they spend it (Kirrillova, Lehto and Cai 2016; Jin, Lee and Lee 2015). Central to the modern consumer and tourist experience is the notion of authenticity (Kirrillova, Lehto and Cai 2016; Jang and Ha 2015). Authenticity has been found to be crucial in consumer and tourist evaluations of products (Beverland 2005; Chalmers 2007; Jones, Anand and Alvarez 2005; Revilla, and Dodd 2003) and travel destinations (Cohen, 1988; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Kim 2004; MacCannell 1973; Reisinger and Steiner 2006). Consumers and tourists alike are becoming more concerned with the original, genuine and real (Gilmore and Pine II 2007; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Wang 1999). Thus, the consumption of authentic products results in higher judgement of value since such products are perceived to be more desirable compared to synthetic products or reproductions (Babin and Harris 2016).

The issue of authenticity has featured prominently in contemporary popular press. For instance, recently, Philadelphia chef, Tyler Akin was criticised for his article titled 'PSA: This is how you should be eating pho,' a commentary on traditional Vietnamese noodle soup. The uproar came from the Asian-American community with criticism centring on the issue of cultural authenticity (Wu 2016). Steps have been taken by various organisations and governments to avoid such issues. For instance, the United

Kingdom's Environmental Secretary, Lix Truss, proposed that British laws be implemented to preserve the reputation of quintessential British foods such as Cornish clotted cream and Welsh beef through the development of protected food names (Daily Mail 2016). In fact, the Thai government developed a robot capable of taste-testing food to which authentic flavours are benchmarked (Alvarez 2014). It is apparent that authenticity plays a major role in the marketplace today.

However, the notion of authenticity has been widely acknowledged to be dynamic and highly subjective (Marine-Roig 2015; Reisinger and Steiner 2006). The dynamicity of culture makes authentication a tedious and difficult task (Richards 2007; Sheperd 2002). As globalisation introduces foreign cultures to other regions and countries, the line between the authentic and the contrived is blurred (Schouten 2007). Further, lack of knowledge makes it difficult for consumers and tourists to evaluate the authenticity of what they consume (Lewis and Bridger 2011). For marketers, this complicates decisions on what offerings to preserve and maintain, how to develop authentic offerings and how to communicate the authenticity of such offerings (Richards 2007; Sheperd 2002). Thus, as culture and its products evolve over time, the designation of authenticity becomes more challenging since the issue of origin becomes a moving point on a temporal continuum.

This ever-changing reality has plagued providers of authentic products and travel destinations (Marine-Roig 2015; Reisinger and Steiner 2006). In an ever-evolving world, there is a constant need to adapt and change. To illustrate, production methods for authentic foods may be altered to increase efficiency in the kitchen. Similarly, travel destinations may be modified by introducing modern amenities for tourists. Despite these changes, consumers and tourists still continue to demand authentic

products and travel destinations (Cohen 1988; Richards 2007; Reisinger and Steiner 2006; Sheperd 2002). This begs the question: Why do tourists search for authenticity yet still consume versions of authentic offerings that have been altered?

René Descartes' wax argument in his *Meditations on First Philosophy* serves as an apt metaphor of the current situation. At the core of this argument, Descartes muses over the notion that a piece of beeswax changes its shape, texture, size, colour and smell when exposed to heat. Yet, despite changes in its form, the melted piece of beeswax is still identified as wax (Wagner 1995). In the same vein, a consumer or tourist may still construe a product or travel destination as authentic despite changes which have been made to them. For instance, the Colosseum in Rome, built in the first century, now features modern amenities such as toilet facilities and ambient lighting. Despite these modifications, over six million tourists visit the site annually (BBC News 2016), challenging traditional definitions of authenticity which suggest the notion of timelessness and unchanging originality (Silver 1993; Steiner and Reisinger 2006; Zhou, Zhang and Edelheim 2013). This has prompted researchers to question what authenticity actually is and how the construct may be defined (e.g. Cohen 1988; Richards 2007; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999)

However, it is acknowledged that defining authenticity poses a challenge in itself due to the fragmented nature of authenticity research (e.g. Cohen, 1988; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999). Within the philosophy, psychology, marketing and tourism disciplines, numerous conceptualisations of authenticity exist, making it difficult for researchers and practitioners to arrive at a consensus about the concept. Three traditional approaches exist to the way authenticity is conceptualised. First, the objectivist approach conceptualises authenticity as a

property that is inherent in an object (Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang, 1999). Second, the constructivist approach, which challenges the objectivist approach, suggests that reconstructed and contrived products may still be perceived as authentic (Grayson and Martinec 2004). Third, and more recently, the existentialist approach acknowledges a “potential existential state of being activated by tourist activities” stimulated through an interaction with a touristic object (Wang, 1999, pg. 352). More recently, Grayson and Martinec (2004) draw from Peircian semiotic theory to introduce the indexical-*iconic* approach to authenticity. This theory draws from human perception and epistemology to understand how people discern what is real and truthful. Clearly, there is a need to address the fragmentation in the authenticity research and to develop a more holistic view which encompasses the different approaches.

The importance of understanding authenticity in marketing and tourism today is undeniable. Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011) have noted a strong link between authenticity, attitude and behavioural intention. Babin and Harris (2016) suggested that as perception of authenticity increases, the value ascribed to the product also increases. Past studies have noted that perceptions of authenticity positively impact on attitudes toward the product (e.g. Marcketti and Shelley 2009) and travel destination (e.g. Grayson and Martinec 2004; Wang 1999). In turn, this positive attitude impacts on intention toward the product (e.g. Illicic and Webster 2011) and travel destination (Yu, Chancellor and Cole 2011). In fact, consumers have been found to be willing to pay more for authentic offerings (Gelman et al. 2015; Sriwaranun et al. 2015). Thus, it is critical to develop a better understanding of authenticity in this post-modern era to leverage the construct for its social, economic and sustainable impacts.

1.1.2. Food tourism and authenticity

Food tourism provides insight into a travel destination's culture, history and people (Shankman 2015). The Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance (OCTA) defines food tourism as “any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, and/or consumes food and drink that reflects the local, regional or national cuisine, heritage and culture” (OCTA 2016). The food tourism market in the USA observed growth of up to 60 percent between 2006 and 2013 (Arizona Office of Tourism 2016). In a report by the University of Florida, tourism foodservices in the United States topped \$201 billion in 2012, making foodservices the highest category of travel expenditure (Liu, Norman and Pennington-Gray 2013). The report also estimated that approximately 35 million American tourists sought culinary activities after deciding on a travel destination, while a further 29 million choose a destination specifically for the culinary activities it offers.

A Europe-wide study conducted by Pangaea Network identified similar growth in European food tourism. In 2013, it was estimated that tourist expenditure on food and beverage amounted to approximately €300 billion and 32 percent of overall tourism receipts, ranking it the top revenue earner in the region (Eurostat 2013). In Ireland, tourist spent approximately €2 billion on food and beverage in 2010, with international visitors accounting for 60 percent of the total spending (Failite Ireland 2010). Of the 52 million tourists visiting Spain, six million stated that authentic Spanish food and wines are the main reasons for their choice of destination (IET 2011). Further, food tourism has also seen incremental growth in emerging travel destinations such as Chechia (Spilková and Fialová 2012), Cyprus (Montanari and Staniscia 2009), Hungary (Szivas 1999) and Slovenia (Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015), with tourist seeking novel and authentic gastronomic experiences.

Likewise, in Asia, the ability to sample authentic local food has been the cornerstone of sustainability at many travel destinations (Cohen and Avieli 2004; Henderson 2016; Okumus, Okumus and McKercher 2007). The Slow Food Festival held in Seoul, South Korea in 2013 welcomed 530,000 visitors from 43 Asia Pacific countries, contributing 37 billion Korean Won (US\$37 million) to the local economy (Lee and Nam 2016). In Malaysia, the local food and beverage industry reported a rise of 23 percent in tourist revenue, earning the country RM9.3 billion in 2014 (Tourism Malaysia 2015). For Thailand, food tourism generated THB456 billion in 2015 which accounted for 20 percent of overall tourism receipts. Of that, THB282 billion was contributed by international tourists from China, the UK and Russia, while the remaining THB174 billion came from the domestic market (Ngamsangchaikit 2016).

Many tourists cite the authentic experience as a primary reason for visiting a travel destination (Bessièrè 1998; Refalo 2000). The way various product ingredients are combined, cooked and presented in authentic dishes is integral to a destination's cultural identity (Handszuh 2000). Thus, authentic local and regional food add value to a destination (Telfer and Wall 1996), strengthening its identity (Everett and Aitchison 2008) and enhancing its sustainable competitiveness as a travel destination (Crouch and Ritchie 1999; Du Rand, Heath and Alberts 2003).

In food tourism, tourists' food orientation and the desire to sample local foods has been found to impact on perception of authenticity. Different levels of food orientation suggest diverse categories of tourists (Hughson and Boakes 2002). Hall and Sharples (2003) identified food tourists as those who have high food orientation, demonstrated by "visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist

food productions region are the primary motivating factor for travel” (Hall and Mitchell 2001, p. 308). Symons (1999, p. 336) suggested that high food-oriented tourists are more engaged in the decision to consume local foods and are constantly seeking authentic meals which have to be “true to the place.” Thus, the current study will examine the impact food orientation has on tourist authenticity perceptions.

Tourists’ desire existential authenticity drives them to seek food that allow them to connect with the local culture (Kim and Jamal 2007; Sims 2009; Yeoman, Brass and McMahon-Beattie 2007). Further, past research has shown that interaction with cultural offerings facilitates meaning-making and the achievement of an existential state of being (Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999). This desire for existential authenticity has been found to be a key driver of tourist behaviour (Kim and Jamal 2007; McIntosh and Prentice 1999; McKercher 2002; Wang 1999) and its effects on tourist perceptions warrants further examination.

Despite evidence of the critical role and potential that authentic local food offers in tourism, this has been largely under-researched (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts 2003; Handszuh 2000). There appears to be a lack in the operationalisation of authenticity for authentic foods and travel destinations impeding the empirical testing of the construct. Further, limited studies have examined the topic of authentic food. Where studies exist, they merely focus on country-of-origin issues related to authentic food perceptions (e.g. Everett 2012; Hall and Sharples 2003; Quan and Wang 2004). It is apparent that more studies are required to examine authentic local food for their impact on attitude and intention in the context of travel destinations. Thus, it is important to extend current buying behaviour research by developing valid measures for

authenticity and testing its impacts on attitude and behavioural intention in the context of authentic food and travel destinations.

1.1.3. Country image and its impacts on tourist perception

Country image is inextricably linked to the study of food and tourism (Berno et al 2016; Folgado-Fernández, Hernández-Mogollón and Duarte 2016). Country image serves as a crucial determinant of how consumers and tourists evaluate products and travel destinations (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2004; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005). In country-of-origin literature, country image is defined as descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs about a particular country (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Country image studies of products have suggested that a product's country-of-origin provides a cue to consumers and serves as evaluative criteria (Mossberg and Kleppe 2005). For instance, past research has suggested that wines from countries with more positive country image are perceived more favourably (e.g. Zhang and Merunka 2015; Moulard, Babin and Griffin 2015). Similarly, country image studies of travel destinations have demonstrated that appealing country image positively affects tourist evaluations of destinations (Pearce 1982) and guides tourism marketing strategy (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2004). For instance, Singapore's reputation as a friendly, convenient and exciting shopping destination serves as a basis on which tourist evaluate the authentic Singaporean experience (Pike and Kotsi 2016).

Previously, product country image (PCI) and travel destination image (TDI) have been examined independently of each other (e.g. Hunt, 1975; Pearce, 1982; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989). However, recent studies have begun to explore a potential relationship between PCI and TDI (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011; Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Mossberg and Kleppe, 2005; Zhou, Murray and Zhang, 2002). With

food and travel destination authenticity being closely linked to country image, it is expedient and pragmatic to further examine this interaction.

While the impact country image has on attitude and behavioural intention is well documented in marketing literature (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Han 1989; Han 1990; Hartmann and Apaolaza-Ibáñez 2012; Ilicic and Webster 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012), more research is required to examine the impacts of the construct in the contexts of both marketing and tourism simultaneously. Further, the inextricable link between authenticity and country image and the subsequent effects on buying behaviour need to be further investigated.

1.1.4. Literature research gaps

A review of the literature suggests that six key research gaps exist which support critical need for the current study. These gaps in the literature are summarised as follows:

1. It is imperative to clarify the indexical and iconic authenticity constructs and develop conceptual definitions that are applicable to food and tourism contexts.
2. There is an impending need to develop a scale which utilises the indexical-iconic approach to examine the authenticity of food.
3. It is apparent that an empirical study which operationalises both aspects of authenticity in food and tourism contexts is critical to the research area.
4. There is a need for an empirical decision-making model which accounts for the impacts authenticity and country image have on attitude and behavioural intention to extend buying behaviour research to food and tourism contexts.

5. It is opportune to introduce a comparative study of how food tourists and general tourists view authenticity and country image for their effects on attitude and behavioural intention.
6. It is evident that an empirical study is acutely required to examine how tourists' desire for existential authenticity influences the decision-making process.

1.2. Research objectives

In addressing the six identified gaps identified in marketing and tourism literature, the following four research objectives are set for the current study:

RO1: To extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations (Addressing Research Gap One).

RO2: To develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale (Addressing Research Gap Two).

RO3: To examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions (Addressing Research Gaps Three and Four).

RO4: To investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on attitudes and behavioural intentions toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions (Addressing Research Gaps Five and Six).

1.3. Core theories

In addressing the research objectives identified in the current study, core theories were drawn from psychology, marketing, services marketing and tourism marketing. These

theories underpin and justify the research hypotheses identified in the research model. Each theory is briefly introduced and will be presented in greater detail in Chapter Three.

1.3.1. Hierarchy of effects model

The hierarchy of effects model serves as the overarching theory that governs the research model. This model proposes that consumers process information in three stages, namely, the cognitively, affectively and conatively (Lavidge and Steiner 1961). The cognitive stage involves the development of beliefs and knowledge a particular product. The affective stage relates to the formation of feelings (e.g. liking and preference) that consumers have about a product which then translates into attitudinal beliefs. Finally, the conative stage relates to behavioural reactions (e.g. conviction and purchase) consumers have toward a product.

The basic learning hierarchy suggests that consumers process information cognitively first, affectively second and conatively third. This hierarchy is widely applied in advertising (e.g. Bruner and Kumar 2000; Nyilasy, Gangadharbatla and Paladino 2014; Wijaya 2015), marketing (e.g. Han 1980, 1990; Hanssens et al. 2014; Lee and Goudeau 2014) and tourism (e.g. Butterfield, Deal and Kubursi 1998; Decrop 2007; Pike 2010) research. Further, this hierarchy is often applied in high-involvement contexts (Babin and Harris 2016; Hawkins and Hoch 1992; Zinkhan and Fornell 1989). As authentic food consumption and travel involve substantial risks (Kozak, Crotts and Law 2007; Lepp and Gibson 2008; Quintal, Lee and Soutar 2010) they are regarded high-involvement products. Also, the use of this hierarchy has featured in numerous country image studies (e.g. Han 1989, 1990; Kotler and Gertner 2002; Laroche et al. 2005; Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert 1997; Zhang et al. 2016) to explain the effects of country image on attitude and behavioural intention. As such, the cognition-affect-

conation learning hierarchy was adopted as the overarching theory for the research model.

1.3.2. Associative network theory

Associative network theory suggests that consumers create associations between objects, concepts and images to form memory traces (Anderson 1993; Babin and Harris 2012). According to the theory, memories of places, people, products and occasions for usage are stored through direct and indirect contact (Anderson and Bower 1973; Collins and Loftus 1975; Ellis and Hunt 1992; Gentner and Stevens 1983). In a marketing context, consumers may draw associations between the image of a country and its products (Lee and Lockshin 2012). Likewise, in a tourism context, perception of places, its people and its products are formed through associations between a country's image and its image as a travel destination (Sönmez and Sirakaya 2002).

1.3.3. Categorisation theory

Categorisation theory posits that objects and concepts are organised through a cognitive process which determines what belongs together (Zentall, Galizo and Critchfield 2002). New information is sorted into categories facilitating memory retrieval and comprehension. In marketing, a product's country-of-origin may serve as a categorical cue for consumers (Clement and Zentall 2002). By drawing on existing category knowledge (Babin and Harris 2012), consumers form affective judgments of a product based on the product's country-of-origin (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2010). Thus, positive country image may result in favourable attitude toward the product (Everett 2012).

Similarly, in tourism, positive country image may result in favourable attitude toward the travel destination (Hong, Kim and Lee 2006). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) observed that tourists draw on country image when evaluating travel destinations. Countries and their travel destinations are evaluated based on generalised attributes and characteristics. Thus, country image encompasses mental representation of knowledge, feelings and global impression about a travel destination and manifests as an attitudinal construct.

1.3.4. Halo effect vs. Summary construct

The halo effect occurs when the rating of a brand or product is influenced by a general impression or attitude (Beckwith, Kassarian and Lehman 1978). This serves as a systematic bias with consumers relying on global affective evaluation rather than carefully evaluating distinct and independent brand attributes (Leuthesser, Kholi and Harich 1995). In marketing, the halo effect explains how consumers refer to a country's image to infer the quality of unfamiliar products (e.g. Han 1989; Shapiro 1982). Likewise, in tourism, it has been suggested that tourists draw on country image to inform their evaluation of unfamiliar travel destinations (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2010; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Moutinho 1987).

The summary construct approach is an affect-referral process (Wright 1975) whereby consumers form product judgements based on past experiences with products of the same country-of-origin (Batra et al. 2014). In marketing, Han (1989) argued that products from the same country tend to be viewed as sharing similar product attributes. This is because chunking occurs when consumers abstract individual attributes of products into higher order units (Miller 1956; D'Alessandro and Petcotich

2013). Similarly, in tourism, tourist beliefs about a country's products may influence their assessment of travel destinations (Lee and Lockshin 2010).

1.3.5. Theory of cognitive consistency

Theory of cognitive consistency refers to the propensity of individuals to maintain logical consistency between cognitions and behaviours (Heider 1946; McGuire 1960). Emerging from the balance theory (Heider 1946) and the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger 1957), this theory asserts that judgement and attitude are adjusted to achieve cognitive harmony. In marketing, attitude toward a specific product may result in the re-evaluation of attitude toward other products from the same country (Bilkey and Nes 1988; Thorelli, Lim and Ye 1988). Likewise, in tourism, research has found evidence of this spillover effect in travel destinations (e.g. Lee and Lockshin 2012).

1.3.6. Attitude theory

Attitude theory postulates that an individual's perception and evaluation of an object results in attitude toward the object (Ajzen 1991). Attitude may be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of objects or behaviours (Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015). In marketing, more favourable attitude toward a product has been found to result in higher behavioural intention toward it (Ilicic and Webster 2011; Kempf 1999; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Similarly, in tourism, more favourable attitude toward a travel destination influences higher pre-visit and post-visit behavioural intention toward the travel destination (Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015; Williams and Soutar 2009; Yu, Chancellor and Cole 2011).

1.3.7. Food tourism theory

Food tourism theory suggests that experiencing local foods and visiting food production regions are primary motivating factors that influence tourist travel behaviour (Hall 1996; Hall and Mitchell 2001). Food tourists are driven by the desire to consume authentic food which serves as the primary reason for travel behaviour (Quan and Wang 2004, p. 302). In contrast, general tourists value the holistic experience of a travel destination and merely consume authentic local foods as a supporting activity.

These differing motivations have allowed researchers to segment tourists according to the relative importance of food in the travel experience. For instance, Hall and Sharples (2003) proposed four typologies of tourists, namely gastronomes, indigenous foodies, tourist foodies and familiar foodies. These typologies are based on tourists' relative level of food orientation while traveling. In fact, past research has suggested that food orientation may moderate the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward food (e.g. Lockhin and Spawton 2001; Kim, Suh and Eves 2010; Kim and Eves 2012) and travel destinations (e.g. Karim and Chi 2010; Sims 2009; Sparks 2007; Tsai 2016).

1.3.8. Motivational processing

Motivational processing suggests that an individual's motivations impacts on the degree of consumer involvement when evaluating a product (Petty and Cacioppo 1984; Trampe et al. 2010; Waller and Lea 1999). Higher motivation has been found to have an enhancing effect, producing more favourable attitude as well as strengthening the attitude-behavioural intention relationship (Oliver and Bearden 1985; Lutz, Mackenzie and Belch 1983; Mackenzie and Spreng 1992).

1.4. Key concepts and definitions

Conceptual definitions are provided for key constructs examined in the current study. Conceptual definitions for indexical and iconic authenticity are conceptualised and clarified in Chapter Two and operationalised through a scale development process in Chapter Five. Conceptual definitions of the other constructs in the empirical model are derived and adapted from existing literature and outlined in Chapter Two. Each conceptual definition is identified as follows.

1.4.1. Indexical-iconic approach to authenticity

The perception of authenticity through indexical and iconic cues presented in an object or travel destination. Under this approach, indexical and iconic authenticity are conceptualised as two states of interpretation on opposing ends of a continuum (conceptualised in the current study).

1.4.2. Indexical authenticity

The interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination (conceptualised in the current study).

1.4.3. Iconic authenticity

The interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version (conceptualised in the current study).

1.4.4. Country image

Descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs about the characteristics and competencies of a country's people, political situation, technological prowess,

economic stability and rights, contributing to an overall impression of the country (adapted from Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Nadeau et al. 2008; Papadopoulos 2004; Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009; Roth and Romeo 1992).

1.4.5. Attitude toward food

A tourist's learned predisposition to respond to food with some degree of favour or disfavour (adapted from Eagly and Chaiken 2007; Hosany and Gilbert 2010).

1.4.6. Attitude toward the travel destination

A tourist's learned predisposition to respond to a travel destination with some degree of favour or disfavour (adapted from Eagly and Chaiken 2007; Hosany and Gilbert 2010; Lee 2009).

1.4.7. Behavioural intention toward food

A tourist's readiness to plan and execute the consumption of a food (adapted from Armitage 2016; Westaby 2005).

1.4.8. Behavioural intention toward the travel destination

A tourist's readiness to plan and execute a visit to a travel destination (adapted from Armitage 2016; Westaby 2005).

1.4.9. Food orientation

An unobservable state of interest and motivation to consume different foods, demonstrated through non-situation-specific behaviour toward food (adapted from Mak et al. 2016; Okumus, Okumus and McKercher 2007; Quan and Wang 2004).

1.4.10. Desire for existential authenticity

An unobservable state of motivation or interest to achieve an existential state of being by connecting with a local culture through the consumption of an object or travel destination (conceptualised in the current study).

1.5. Methodology

The current study is undertaken in three phases of research. The first phase involves an extensive and a systematic review of the authenticity literature to clarify various conceptualisations of authenticity which is introduced in Chapter Two. In doing so, it discussed the appropriateness of the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity and its conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity as two extreme poles on a continuum.

The second phase comprises the development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which is described in Chapter Five. This is consistent with procedures suggested by Churchill (1979) and De Vellis (2003) which incorporated the following six stages: (1) construct definition; (2) item generation; (3) item purification; (4) item refinement; (5) validation; and (6) measurement invariance. In the qualitative research of this phase, focus groups (N=32) and expert panels (N=47) were used to generate and screen potential scale items. Then, a total of 3,130 potential travelling Singaporeans aged between 18 and 70 years were recruited to participate in the four main studies which comprised the quantitative research of this phase.

The final phase integrates the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale into a decision-making model and is reported in Chapter Six. Scales for the other key constructs in the research model were derived and adapted from existing studies (see Bagozzi and Yi

2012; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Nadeau et al. 2008; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001) due to their reliability ($\alpha \geq 0.70$) and relevance to the study. The survey instrument was self-administered in Singapore to 958 potential travelling Singaporeans aged between 18 and 70 years. In this phase, participants were randomly recruited to complete the questionnaire at designated public areas such as shopping malls, food courts and food-related events such as food fairs.

Structural equation modelling was used to assess the hypothesised relationships in the research model. First, the effects country image has on attitude and behavioural intention toward food and travel destination were tested under four experimental authenticity conditions using path analysis. Then, the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward food and travel destination were examined under the four experimental authenticity conditions using multigroup analysis.

The four experimental authenticity conditions included the following:

1. **Icon-Icon:** An iconically authentic version of food and an iconically authentic version of the travel destination.
2. **Icon-Index:** An iconically authentic version of food and an indexically authentic version of the travel destination.
3. **Index-Icon:** An indexically authentic version of food and an iconically authentic version of the travel destination.
4. **Index-Index:** An indexically authentic version of food and an indexically authentic version of the travel destination.

1.6. Delimitations of study

In outlining the parameters of the current study, two delimitations are identified. First, the study focuses on Singaporeans and their intention to travel to South Korea. The Singaporean population was selected as the sampling frame due to the familiarity and knowledge they have of South Korean culture (Shim 2010), the involvement of South Korean business initiatives in Singapore (Boh 2013) and the geographic proximity of Singapore to South Korea. Second, the study focuses on a specific South Korean food (Korean Ginseng Chicken) and travel destination (Daegu Otgol Village) in developing the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and testing the research model. The food and travel destination were chosen for their representativeness of South Korean food and destinations, ecological validity and ability to encompass the authenticity dimensions identified in the qualitative research. This product-specific and travel destination-specific approach was utilised so that the four authenticity conditions could be manipulated and measured in an experimental research design (Srinagesh 2011; Wyner 1997).

1.7. Significance of the study

It is envisaged that successful achievement of the current study's research objectives will offer critical input to marketing and tourism research as well as to the industry. These contributions have theoretical, methodological and managerial significance.

1.7.1. Theoretical significance

Four key theoretical contributions are identified in the current study. The first makes a contribution to the conceptual definition of authenticity. The study builds on Grayson and Martinec's (2004) conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity by

conceptualise the two authenticities as existing at two extreme poles on a continuum, integrating the objectivist and constructivist approaches into an overarching conceptualisation of authenticity. The study also extends the indexical-iconic approach to the contexts of food and travel destinations, offering greater insight into the reciprocal interaction between food and travel destination authenticity.

The second makes a contribution to the operational definition of authenticity. The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale is the first to apply a continuum approach in its operationalisation of indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity. It also incorporates both objectivist and constructivist views of authenticity by encompassing cues that tap into the authenticity of originals and reproductions simultaneously. Placing the two forms of authenticity at two extreme poles, the scale is crucial in identifying various food factors such as preparation, cultural heritage and serving.

Third, the study is the first to examine country image for its differential effects on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions. This answers the call from some researchers (e.g. Deng and Li 2013; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Hallberg 1999) for more cross-over studies on product country image (PCI) and travel destination image (TDI). Further, the propriety of formative specifications for country image is also examined to verify findings from a small body of studies that justify the same specifications (e.g. Han 1989; Knight and Calatone 2000; Papadopoulos et al. 2000; Maher and Mady 2010).

Fourth, the study is also the first to examine food orientation and desire for existential authenticity for their moderating effects on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four

experimental authenticity conditions. Findings offer potential to build on existing segmentation studies in marketing (e.g. Peña et al. 2016; Shani and Chalasani 2013; Sharma and Lambert 2013) and tourism (e.g. Chang 2006; D'Urso et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2016). By proposing food orientation and desire for existential authenticity as additional segmentation bases, the study conceptually extends the literature on tourist typologies.

1.7.2. Methodological significance

The current study provides several methodological contributions. First, the indexical-iconic approach aims to integrate current approaches to authenticity. This creates potential for synergies amongst proponents of the different approaches who often work independently of each other. The indexical-iconic approach has potential to initiate a paradigm shift in the way future research on authenticity is conducted. The proposed continuum approach allows for the examination of varying degrees of authenticity, accounting for a broader range of tourist perception and enriching the detail of results produced by future studies.

Second, the developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale is the first to operationalise the Indexical-Iconic approach to authenticity within the context of food. This is done using rigorous procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003). These procedures ensure that the scale possesses reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity as well as generalisability. Further, using a real food product in its development ensures that the scale is ecologically valid. This opens doors for researchers to integrate the scale into existing service quality measures such as the SERVPERF (Cronin and Taylor 1992) and satisfaction measures such as the

ECSI model (Ciavolino and Dahlgaard 2007) to authenticate the overall foodservice experience.

Third, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the study the first to examine country image for its effects on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions. Research on authenticity traditionally utilise qualitative methods and *in situ* case studies. The study's research design equips researchers with a scenario-testing framework which allows the empirical testing of various combinations of indexical and iconic authenticity conditions and their impacts on specific outcome variables. This research design accounts for the confounding effects of both indexical and iconic authenticity that may exist concurrently and allows for a more encompassing assessment of tourist buyer behaviour compared to the traditional case study approaches adopted by most studies on authenticity.

Fourth, the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the attitude-behavioural intention relationships for food and travel destinations under the four experimental authenticity conditions are examined in the study. This sets the stage for researchers to develop more detailed psychographic profiles of tourist segments, expanding understanding of the individual traits that food tourists and general tourists may display. Evidence of these moderations allow researchers to utilise *posteriori* segmentation bases resulting in greater accuracy and validity of the segmentation profile.

1.7.2. Managerial significance

Some significant managerial contributions are highlighted from the current study. First, the study's conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity initiates a new

approach to the development and preservation of authentic products and travel destinations. Applying this approach enables brand managers, destination managers and policy-makers to identify various cues which are important to tourists in their evaluation of authenticity. Such input informs and guides the development of appropriate and effective visions and mission statements for foodservice and travel destinations. This input also defines which elements of food and travel destinations need to be preserved and emphasised in order to communicate authenticity more effectively.

Second, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale presents an easy-to-administer diagnostic tool which is applicable to the foodservice and tourism industries. For foodservice providers, the scale may be deployed in the testing of perceived indexical and iconic authenticity of current and newly-developed food offerings. The scale functions as a check-and-balance to ensure consistency between authenticity claims in marketing communications and actual consumer perception of authenticity. For destination managers, the scale may be utilised as a means to assess and create heritage designations for foodservice providers at a travel destination.

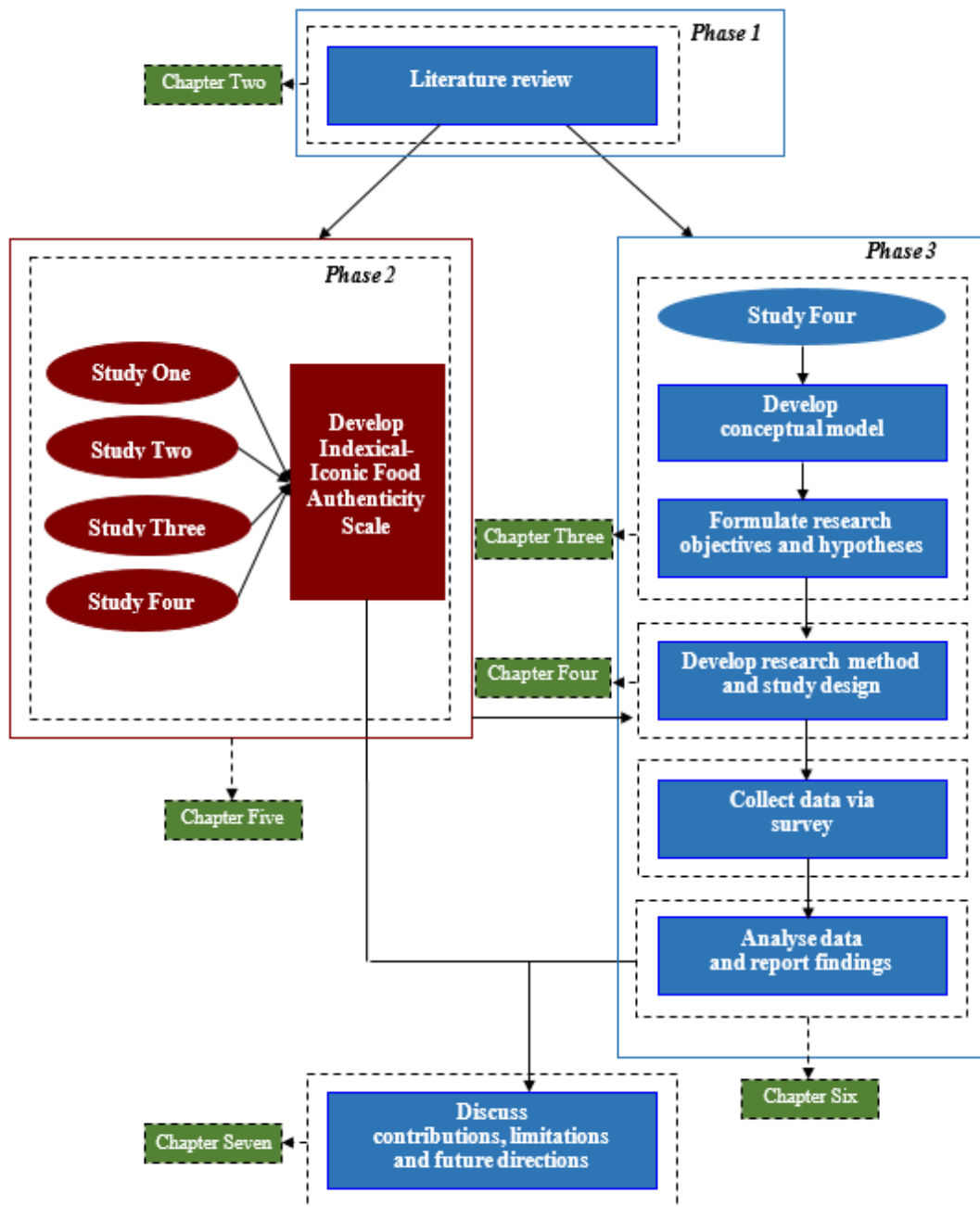
Third, the research model equips practitioners with an empirical decision-making model that helps in understanding how country image effects on attitude and behavioural intention for authentic food and travel destinations. This model has potential to be applied to different kinds of food as well as other product categories such as cosmetics, fashion and pharmaceuticals. The model may also be applied to other travel destinations in South Korea and internationally. Insights create greater synergies between branding strategies and marketing communications for brand and destination managers.

Finally, the current study explores the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination. This delineates marked differences in the attitude and behavioural intention of food tourists versus general tourists as well as tourists with high versus low desire for making a cultural connection with authentic food and travel destinations. These proposed typologies offer insight into how specific travel segments may be profiled by their engagement with food and connectedness with the travel experience.

1.8. Organisation

This thesis is organised into seven Chapters. These include: (1) Introduction; (2) Literature Review; (3) Research Model and Hypothesis Development; (4) Methodology; (5) Scale Development; (6) Results; and (7) Conclusion. A schematic overview of the research process can be seen in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Schematic overview of the research process



Chapter One provides an overview of the scope of the current study. It briefly outlines the background of the study, research gaps and objectives, core theories that underpin the research, key concepts, methodology, delimitations and contributions of the study. Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature that underpins the study's research focus. It concludes by identifying the gaps in the literature and the research objectives. Chapter Three reiterates the research objectives and explores core theories that underpin the research model. It culminates in the development and justification of the research hypotheses. Chapter Four describes the research methodology for the study. It covers the sampling methods, research instrumentation, measures used, scale development procedures and statistical techniques employed in collecting and analysing qualitative and quantitative data. Chapter Five reports findings from the study's scale development procedures and is presented in six stages. These comprise construct definition, item generation, item refinement, item purification, validation and measurement invariance. Chapter Six observes findings of the hypothesis testing in the research model. It concludes with a summary of these findings. Chapter Seven discusses implications of the study's findings and justifies the conclusions drawn with support from the literature. Finally, it highlights the study's contributions, limitations and future research directions.

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

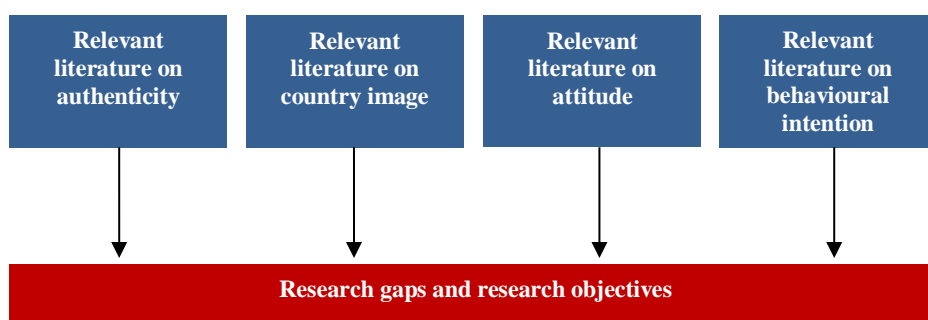
2.1. Introduction

Chapter One delineated the scope of the current study and identified four key research objectives. This Chapter will review literature relevant to the study. To reiterate, the first objective is to extend conceptualisations of indexical-iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations (*RO1*). To achieve this, the applicability of the indexical-iconic approach is examined in relation to the contexts of food and travel destinations. The second objective is to develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale (*RO2*). In doing so, the scale draws from theoretical underpinnings from marketing and tourism literature and proposes five food authenticity dimensions, namely, ingredients, recipe, cooking method, cultural heritage and serving. The third objective is to examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions (*RO3*). These conditions are identified as the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions. The final objective is to investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions (*RO4*).

This Chapter largely comprises five sections. The first section is an extensive and a systematic review of the authenticity literature which examines prominent approaches in marketing and tourism research. The second section examines country image from a marketing and tourism perspective. The third section discusses attitude toward the product and travel destination. The fourth section reviews the behavioural intention

toward the product and travel destination. This culminates with a summary of the identified research gaps and links them to the stipulated research objectives. A schematic overview of the Chapter can be seen in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Schematic overview of the Chapter



2.2. Relevant literature on authenticity

Authenticity is often associated with genuineness, reality and truth (Bendix 1992; Costa and Bamossy 1995; Peterson 2005). The concept is rooted in the philosophical study of ontology and existentialism where philosophers have contemplated on what is true, genuine and real (Ferrara 2009; Shepherd 2015). In the study of ontology, philosophers contemplate the existence of entities and how such entities can be grouped (Hyde 2016). In doing so, philosophers have applied ontology in discourse on a range of topics such as authentic musical performances (e.g. Davies 1991; Dodd 2015; Kania 2008) and politics (e.g. Bourdieu 1991; Duff 2015). Further, in the study of existentialism, philosophers contemplate an individual's existence, freedom and choices (Golomb 2012; Olson 2012). It is the view that humans search for the authentic self and try to make rational decisions despite existing in an irrational universe (Kierkegaard 1996; Olson 2012). The relevance of the authentic self has been examined extensively in psychology (e.g. Grieve and Watkinson 2016; Kifer, Heller and Perunovic 2013; Phua and Tinkham 2016), anthropology (e.g. Douglas-Jones

2015; Linnekin 1991; Whitehead 2015) and sociology (e.g. Hartmann 2015; Morris and Anderson 2015; Vannini and Williams 2009). In particular, psychologists have examined the authentic self or a disposition to think and behave according to an individual's core values and personality (e.g. Chiaburu, Cho and Gardner 2015; Grégoire et al. 2014; Johnson, Robinson and Mitchell 2004).

In marketing research, authenticity has increasingly been used by brands as a positioning tool to resonate with their customers for goods and services (Beverland 2005; Choi et al. 2015; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Peñaloza 2000). In fact, Brown, Kozinets and Sherry (2003, p. 21) asserted that “the search for authenticity is one of the cornerstones of contemporary marketing.” Gilmore and Pine II (2007) argued that the modern consumer market is saturated with fake, contrived, disingenuous and inauthentic products, prompting consumers to increasingly seek genuine goods. The authenticity of goods is judged by the consumer based on a product's attributes provenance (Beverland 2005; Jones, Anand and Alvarez 2005), production method (Autio, Collins and Wahlen 2013; Newman and Dhar 2014) and craftsmanship (Chalmers 2007; Revilla, and Dodd 2003) as well as the branding elements communicated to them (Beverland 2005; Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink 2008; Brown, Kozinets and Sherry 2003; Choi et al. 2015).

This search for authentic products is driven, not only by the search for value (Babin and Harris 2016; Ballantyne and Varey 2006; Baudrillard 1981), but also by the search for self in the consumption of these goods and services (Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Grubb and Grathwohl 1967; Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006; Napoli et al. 2014). Postmodern consumers define themselves via the products they consume which help them determine the conditions and meaning of life (Firat and Vankatesh 1993).

Consuming authentic products helps a consumer at a personal level, with respect to the development of a self-concept (Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Grubb and Grathwohl 1967; Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006; Malär et al. 2011) as well as at a social level, where the consumer communicates the self symbolically to others (Elliot 2016; Grove and Fisk 1989; Liao and Ma 2009).

In tourism research, authenticity has been recognised as a universal value and an essential motivating force that drives tourists to travel to distant places (Cohen 1988; MacCannell 1973; Naoi 2004; Ramkissoon 2015; Wang, Huang and Kim 2015). MacCannell (1976) proposed that modern tourists are constantly in search of authentic experiences. This conceptualisation of authenticity is deeply rooted in tradition, culture, origin and a sense of the genuine (Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Li and Hunter 2015; Wong 2015). MacCannell maintained that authentic experiences are only achieved through the sacred or primitive quality of foreign culture or place. This ascribes the authentic to objects, nostalgia and places under the premise that there is an original quality to such concepts. However, the quest for authenticity by modern tourists is doomed to eventual failure because of “staged authenticity” (MacCannell 1973, p. 595).

The concept of staged authenticity is derived from Goffman’s (1959) dichotomy of the ‘front’ and ‘back’ stage. It suggests that tourism events are generally ‘front stage,’ contrived events for the benefit of tourists. Conversely, the ‘back stage’ where authenticity resides is not accessible to tourists (Chhabra, Healy and Sills 2003; Walby and Piché). Extending from the notion of ‘front stage’ and ‘back stage,’ MacCannell (1973) proposed a dichotomous approach to tourism by distinguishing between the ‘front regions’ and ‘back regions’ of destination experience, suggesting the former as

inauthentic, while the latter as authentic. Products such as works of art, artefacts, cuisine, or rituals are usually described as authentic if they are made or performed by locals according to their traditions in their natural settings (back regions). In contrast, these tourist products are deemed inauthentic if they are performed by paid performers in contrived settings (front regions) (MacCannell 1973). In a world of standardised and commoditised mass tourism, orchestrated 'front region' authenticity prevails. Consequently, some tourists are motivated to seek out the 'back regions' and experience the true and unadulterated culture of the travel destination (Cohen 1988, MacCannell 1973; Naoi 2004). However, since the 'back regions' are generally not accessible to tourists, the tourist experience is destined to be inauthentic (Kim 2010; Maoz 2006).

Selwyn (1996, pp. 6-7) suggested that MacCannell's (1973) approach uses authenticity in two different contexts, namely, authenticity as feelings and authenticity as knowledge. On the one hand, MacCannell (1973) argued that tourism is motivated by the search for authentic experiences, which Selwyn (1996) suggested to be a quest for a subjective experience of feelings or the authenticity of feelings. On the other hand, MacCannell also raised the notion of a staged authenticity which infers that tourists are on a quest for the authenticity of originals which can be objectively authenticated through knowledge (Selwyn 1996; Wang 1999). Simply put, MacCannell's (1973) conceptualisation of authenticity introduces both an objective and subjective component.

The following sections will serve as a systematic review of authenticity research in the fields of philosophy, marketing and tourism. The review of the extant literature identifies key approaches in the study of authenticity and aims to find common themes

within these approaches. First, each approach is introduced from its roots in philosophy, and then, their applicability examined in the contexts of products and travel destinations.

2.2.1. Objective authenticity

Objective authenticity is “usually equated with terms such as accurate, genuine, real, true or actual” (Kim 2004, p. 28) and is referred to as the “authenticity of originals” (Wang 1999, p. 351). The author observed that this type of authenticity is determined by whether touristic objects are historically accurate or not. From the objectivist point of view, attainment of authentic experience is necessarily dependent upon the quality of touristic objects, culture and place (Kim 2004; Wang 1999). This conceptualisation of authenticity presupposes that there exists an original quality that can be evaluated with a certain objective standard.

Some researchers have espoused a cynical view to tourism as a contrived experience (e.g. Dovey 1985; Fussell 1980; Kim 2010; Maoz 2006). For instance, Boorstin (1964) criticised modern mass tourism phenomena as pseudo-events that result from extreme commoditisation and contrivance of tourism attractions. The author’s reference to pseudo-events makes a distinction between the objective approach to authenticity and the contrived representation of the original. This suggests that an authentic tourist experience is determined by the originality of touristic objects. Still Boorstin (1964) concluded that tourists prefer the contrived image to the original due to the amount of effort, inconvenience and risk of seeking the authentic.

Objectivism in philosophy

The philosophy of realism has played a key role in discussions of authenticity in a number of fields of study such as psychology (e.g. Goldman 2006; Lakey et al. 2008), marketing (e.g. Aaker 1996; Kapferer 2001; Keller 1993) and tourism (e.g. Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Reisinger and Steiner 2006; Wang 1999). Philosophical realism is the belief that an individual's reality or some aspect of it is ontologically independent of their conceptual schemes, linguistic practices and belief (Elkana 1978). Rooted in ontology, realists are concerned with what entities exist or can be said to exist, and how such entities can be grouped within a hierarchy and subdivided according to similarities and differences (Putnam 1985).

According to McLeisch (1999), Aristotle proposed that there are four dimensions to the study of ontology. These dimensions include:

1. Categories or ways of addressing an object.
2. The object's truth or falsity (e.g. fake gold, counterfeit money).
3. The object's existence in and of itself or simply by accident.
4. According to the object's potency, movement or finished presence.

Referring to the second dimension, which is more relevant to the current study, Aristotle's notion of authenticity is founded on the assumption that the same attribute cannot at the same time belong and not belong to the same subject and in the same respect. This notion is represented by Aristotle's Law of the Excluded Middle, which states that for any proposition, either that proposition is true, or its negation is. In simpler terms, a proposition can be either A or not A ($\sim A$) but it cannot be both A and $\sim A$. Consequently, an object is either real or fake (Jones 1980; McLeisch 1999).

Based on Aristotle's understanding of the truth, objectivism suggests that objectivity is the state or quality of being true even outside of a subject's (observer) feelings, imaginings or interpretations. A proposition is generally considered to be objectively true when its truth conditions are met and are 'mind-independent,' existing freely or independently from thoughts, feelings and ideas. In the simplest of terms, objectivity refers to the ability to judge fairly, without bias or external influence (Jones 1980; McLeisch 1999; Popper 1972).

Objectivism in product authenticity

In marketing literature, product authenticity is described as something that is "real and genuine and has a history or tradition" (Babin and Harris 2012, p. 285) and refers to both brands and products (Robinson and Clifford 2012). Judgements of a product are based on its uniqueness, workmanship, cultural and historical heritage, materials, aesthetics and shopping experience (Cohen 1988; Littrell, Anderson and Brown 1993; Narcum and Coleman 2015; Wang 1999). Product authenticity is closely linked to how a product is made, who made it, whether it appears to be authentic and of what the product is made (Choi et al. 2015; Littrell, Ma and Halapete 2005; Park, Javalgi and Wachter 2016).

In the marketing context, authenticity is a core component of successful brands because it forms part of a unique brand identity (Aaker 1996; Kapferer 2001; Keller 1993). Consumers seek out authentic brands and experiences (Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Fine 2003; Holt 1997; Peñaloza 2000; Thompson and Tambyah 1999). Their consumption of authentic products results in higher judgments of value since such products are perceived as more desirable compared to synthetic products or reproductions (Babin and Harris 2016). This prompted Brown et al. to observe that the

“search for authenticity is one of the cornerstones of contemporary marketing” (2003, p. 21).

According to the objectivist approach, product authenticity can only be derived through a comprehensive authentication process by experts such as curators, historians and scientists (Wang 1999). Therefore, in order for a product to be evaluated and perceived to be authentic, consumers need to be provided with an informational cue endorsed by an expert or organisation, on which they base their evaluations. For instance, Fotopoulos and Krystallis (2003) examined Greek consumers for the effects the Protected Denomination of Origin (PDO) label had on their perception of the quality of locally produced apples. In Greece, public and authorised private organisations are eligible for providing certification of PDO products. Such labels provide consumers with information on the area of production and subsequently, imply originality and authenticity. The authors concluded that the PDO certification positively affects perception of product authenticity and uniqueness.

Similarly, Beverland (2005) extended Postrel’s (2003) definition of object authenticity as intrinsic to the object and free of alterations against history, quality and art. The former made a distinction between objective attributes (accreditation by formal and informal classifications) and constructed attributes (creations by brand managers to add to overall perception of authenticity). Beverland’s (2005) qualitative study examined visitors to wineries in France, Lebanon and New Zealand for their perception of authenticity in fine luxury wines. The author concluded that formal classifications, or established status classifications, provides legitimacy to a brand’s assertion of authenticity and results in higher levels of perceived objective authenticity.

Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink (2008, p. 7) further developed Beverland's (2005) notion of object-based authenticity, naming it "pure (literal) authenticity." This authenticity is derived from cues that reinforce a continuance of historic practices, including means of production, place of production and product styling. The authors examined consumers through in-depth interviews for their perception of authenticity in Trappist beer advertisements. Their study noted that consumers draw on objective sources of information in such advertisements to evaluate a product's authenticity. These include pictures of people engaged in traditional crafting processes, beer-making with traditional equipment as well as historically accurate colours, font and typesetting. Such cues "provide the consumer with *in situ* guarantees of the genuine article" (Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink 2008, p. 8).

Chronis and Hampton (2008) extended Wang's (1999) definition of objective authenticity as the authenticity of originals when they conceptualised objective authenticity as a product attribute derived directly from objects, tangible signs and communicative elements. The authors identified five key components of authenticity, namely, object-related, factual, personage, locational and contextual. First, object-related authenticity directly relates to tourist perceptions of the artefacts that are available at a travel destination (Bunce 2016; Chronis and Hampton 2008). Cues such as how old the items look, colours, date-stamps and design form the basis of object-related authenticity. Second, factual authenticity refers to tourist perceptions of the historical accuracy of the information they are provided (Chronis and Hampton 2008; Das 2016; Ernst 2015). These assessments are based on a comparison between the tourist provider's information about the history of the place or object and the tourist's own perception of the historical accuracy of the information. Third, personage authenticity relates to belief about the people that featured during the period when the

touristic objects were created and used (Chronis and Hampton 2008; Zilgalvis 2015). The existence of real people in the history of touristic objects serves as authentication that these objects were actually part of real human lives. Fourth, locational authenticity refers to tourist perception of the actual place or exact location where a historical event took place (Brown 2015; Chronis and Hampton 2008; Moulard, Babin and Griffin 2015). The physical location lends credibility to the authenticity of touristic objects, and in many cases, exceeds the importance of encountering an original artefact. Finally, contextual authenticity relates to tourist perception of an unchanged environment and history (Burgin, McConnell and Flowers III 2015; Chronis and Hampton 2008). Tourists have commented on the importance of having a historical location and the artefacts that lack commercialisation.

Objectivism in destination authenticity

According to Relph (1976), authenticity implies all that is genuine, unadulterated, without hypocrisy, honest in itself, in terms of superficial characteristics, in depth as well as the “real thing” (Theobald 1998, p. 411). Such objectivists see authenticity as a factual property of touristic objects that can be measured against “absolute and objective criteria” (Reisinger and Steiner 2006, p. 68). The authors observed that objectivists usually refer to authenticity not as perceived by tourists but as independently judged by experts. However, their study cautioned that when tourists think they encounter an authentic object, it may actually be false or staged; an imitation or a simulation.

Wang’s (1999 p. 355) influential paper defined object-related authenticity as the “authenticity of originals” and is equal to an epistemological experience, namely, cognition of the authenticity of touristic objects. The author suggested that object-

based authenticity is rooted on the availability of historical or factual information. This notion is extended by Chronis and Hampton's (2008) factual authenticity which is based on past information acquired by tourists that forms the factual basis on which authenticity is judged. For instance, the authors observed that the historical accuracy of objects and buildings is judged by historical accounts, books on the various cannons and firearms as well as novels. The authors examined tourists for their perception of authenticity at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania and concluded that tourists compare the information they are provided with their own knowledge of local history.

There have been some allusions to the inadequacy of the objectivist approach to authenticity (e.g. Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Reisinger and Steiner 2006; Wang 1999). These authors argued that objectivity is difficult to verify and that tourists generally do not possess sufficient knowledge to do so. However, other authors still maintain that the conventional objectivist approach is highly relevant in tourism studies (e.g. Naoi 2003; Waitt 2000). For instance, Waitt (2000) posited that tourists who are unfamiliar with the history and tradition of a travel destination will still rely on basic objective cues in their evaluation of authenticity. The author examined visitors to The Rocks, a historical site in Australia and observed that visitors utilise signifiers such as stone steps, statues, cobbled streets and plaques to evaluate the site's authenticity.

Similarly, Naoi (2003) supported the objectivist approach to authenticity when studying tourists at the Kurashiki Bikan Historical Quarter in Japan for their perception of authenticity. Using a bipolar scale with items such as touristic/non touristic, ordinary/exotic, modern/antiquated and artificial/natural, the author demonstrated that tourists use objective cues when forming impressions of authenticity about the

historical site. The author concluded that uniqueness and perception of authenticity based on objective cues are critical in attracting mass tourism.

2.2.2. Constructive authenticity

The constructivist approach challenges the objectivist approach in its premise which suggests that reconstructed and contrived products can still be perceived as authentic (Grayson and Martinec 2004). While the concept of authenticity from the objectivist approach presumes that there exists an original feature of objects, the constructivist approach proposes that the authentic product is a socially constructed interpretation of a true and genuine experience rather than an inherent property (Beverland 2006; Cohen 1988). Thus, a true and genuine experience is arrived at based on socially constructed connotations and is, not given, but negotiable (MacCannell 1973).

The constructivist approach views authenticity not as a static quality of an object but a changing or sometimes modified quality (Kim 2004). Consequently, Cohen (1988) advocated the idea of authenticity as a socially constructed concept that is not predetermined but negotiated. The author proposed that despite the commoditisation of touristic objects leading to 'staged authenticity,' this does not necessarily destroy the authenticity of the products. Instead, Cohen (1988, p. 378) argued that authenticity is determined by what the touristic object means to a tourist; a property "endowed" to the experience by the tourist.

Constructivism in philosophy

Constructivism suggests that an individual's reality is a result of their own perspective and interpretation of various experiences or objects that are often social in nature (Pearce and Moscardo 1985; Wang 1999). According to Wang (1999), constructivism

is not a coherent doctrine and is sometimes used interchangeably with constructionism. The ontological assumption of constructivism is that “there is no unique ‘real world’ that pre-exists and that is independent of human mental activity and human symbolic language” (Bruner 1986 as cited in Schwandt 1994, p. 125). From this perspective, reality is a product of human interpretations or “constructions” (Wang 1999, p. 354).

Schwandt (1994) posited that accepted concepts of truth and reality are a result of perspective and interpretation. In other words, “knowledge is created, not discovered” (Schwandt 1994, p. 125). To the constructivist, a single object can be imbued with multiple meanings, depending on the constructed meaning assigned to it and the contextual situation (Wang 1999). This interpretive approach to reality is the cornerstone of the constructivist approach to authenticity.

Evidently, constructive authenticity is informed by a cultural constructionist epistemology. Cultural constructionism asserts that an individual’s knowledge and reality are outcomes of their cultural context (Zhou, Zhang and Edelheim 2013). Thus, subjective meaning within a community can only be ascribed to a specific cultural context in which its members share accepted symbolic language and ideals (Pernecky 2012; Ryan and Gu 2010; Zhou, Zhang and Edelheim 2013). These authors concluded that reality is best viewed as varying versions of human interpretation and perspective and the result is pluralistic and plastic. For instance, a single concept may be interpreted differently from one individual to another and its meaning may evolve over time.

Constructivism in product authenticity

In marketing literature, the experience of an authentic product, service or brand is largely substantive, staged and negotiated through extrinsic cues (e.g. Alexander 2009; Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006; Zeng, Ho and de Vries 2012). For instance, Millenaar et al. (2010) surveyed diners in the Netherlands for their perception of restaurants. The authors reported that consumers infer authenticity through extrinsic cues such as a restaurant's name, the appearance of its employees, the ingredients for its food and interior design. Their study concluded that, rather than rely on official verification by experts and official bodies, consumers subjectively authenticate restaurants based on their own evaluation of various cues available to them.

Equally important in the subjective construction of authenticity are symbolic cues from packaging materials, product design and the retail environment (Balogh et al. 2016; Tregear, Kuznesof and Moxey 1998; Yoo 2015). For instance, Balogh et al. (2016) argued that the careful manipulation of marketing elements may "communicate authenticity," even in the absence of official certification. Within branding research, authenticity is perceived to be a result of subjective associations or symbolic cues that consumers project and link to a specific brand (Alexander 2009; Mohart et al. 2015). The author interviewed employees of a beer company in Wales for their perception of authenticity associated with the Brains beer brand. The study suggested that employee beliefs about the of the beer brand authenticity of the Welsh beer is reinforced by symbolic through cues which relate to the historical branding. Interestingly, this brand story was constructed by marketers through accentuating stereotypical Welsh personality traits, attitude to life and also sponsorship of the Welsh Rugby League.

Likewise, Leigh, Peters and Shelton (2006, p. 483) viewed constructive authenticity as a form of authenticity that “allows for different interpretations of reality on the basis of consumers’ projections onto objects and is essentially symbolic.” The authors reported that, despite the demise of the car company in the 1980s, the MG endures, through sacralisation of the brand and constant reconstruction of the authenticity of its products. Their study noted that the objective authenticity of the vehicle is not sufficient in evaluating the brand’s authenticity. Instead, MG owners perceive authenticity in the quality of the restorations, parts used in the restorations, driving experience and perceived commitment to brand preservation. These indicators serve as symbolic cues to the authenticity of an authentic MG car.

Littrell, Anderson and Brown (1993) highlighted a temporal dimension in which tourists acknowledge that authenticity is dynamic and the production of products changes over time, supporting a constructive approach to perception of authenticity. The authors studied American tourists for their perception of authenticity in craft souvenirs such as weavings, quilts, pottery and wood carvings. Their study observed that although objective attributes such as uniqueness and originality of the souvenirs are important, other subjective attributes such as aesthetics and the shopping experience contribute to perception of authenticity over time. Similarly, Shenhav-Keller’s (1993) study on Israeli souvenirs concurred that consumers perceive authenticity through temporal cues such as craftsmanship, art and aesthetics, originality, cultural and historic roots as well as the product as a ritual object.

Mkono (2012, p. 388) conceptualised constructive authenticity as a “product of social construction, lending itself to subjectivity and negotiability.” The author argued that authenticity and inauthenticity are a result of how individuals perceive and interpret

objects and expressions. Using a netnographic (online ethnography) method, Mkono (2012) examined marketing messages and online reviews of two restaurants at Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe. The author noted that, while restaurant patrons are concerned about the authenticity of cultural representations in restaurant experiences, they project their beliefs about authenticity in a fluid and unpredictable fashion. Thus, restaurant patron perception of authenticity is based on the subjective expectation of what restaurant patrons believe to be real.

Constructivism in destination authenticity

Within the tourism context, constructive authenticity is defined as the “authenticity projected onto touristic objects by tourists or tourism producers in terms of their imagery, expectations, preferences, beliefs and powers” (Wang 1999, p. 352). The author proposed that various versions of authenticity exist for a single object or tourist experience. Multiple meanings assigned to an object or experience are a result of the different ways in which tourists interpret touristic objects or the holistic tourist experience. For instance, Dickinson, Ott and Aoki (2006) conducted observational research and examined the effects artefacts at the Buffalo Bill museum had on visitor perception of authenticity. The authors reported that such modern museums with simulated environments offer visitors a more authentic experience of history. These differ from museums in the past where visitors are insulated from the artefacts as they gaze at them behind rope barriers and glass panels. Allowing the visitor to immerse themselves in artefacts in interactive environments fosters a “lived experience” through which visitors may create their own subjective sense of authenticity (Dickinson, Orr and Aoki 2006, p. 91).

Wang (1999, p. 356) argued for a “symbolic authenticity” wherein a touristic object or experience is perceived as a symbol of authenticity and not necessarily, as an original or reality. The author does not refute the importance of an objective root in authenticity. In fact, Wang (1999) stipulates that the originality of the touristic object is indeed important within the traditional epistemological (cognitive) definition of authenticity. Yet, the interaction with an object and the symbolism imparted from the object to the tourist ultimately grants a construed interpretation of authenticity to the experience. The intertwining of both an objective property and its subjective interpretation by the tourist is termed “object-related authenticity” (Wang 1999, p. 352).

Culler (1981) suggested that authenticity is a label attached to visited cultures in terms of stereotyped images and expectations held by tourists. The author proposed that tourists are often in search of a symbolic experience which is satisfied by consuming stereotypical images of different cultures. Such images include prototypical cultural examples such as archetyped Italian behaviour, clichéd Oriental scenes, conventional American thruways and traditional English pubs (Culler 1981). Thus, authenticity is a projection of the tourist’s own beliefs, expectations, preferences, stereotyped images and consciousness onto touristic objects and touristic others. This description of authenticity is supported in other tourism studies (e.g. Bruner 1991; Kontogeorgopoulos 2016; Wee, Park and Choi 2015; Zerva 2015).

Likewise, Cohen (1979) argued that perception of authenticity is determined by the mode of touristic experiences that are sought by the tourist. The author identified five key modes, namely, the recreational, diversionary, experiential, experimental and existential modes. These modes, in turn, determine what evaluative criteria is

employed in assessing authentic products or experiences. The author suggested that experimental tourists who search for a unique experience utilise strict guidelines in their quest for the authentic. However, these tourists often lack the ability to distinguish between the authentic and the fake, and often “fall prey to sophisticated forms of covertly staged authenticity” (Cohen 1988, p. 377). Clearly, this exemplifies the constructive nature of authenticity in which tourists who perceive an object or experience as authentic are, in fact, consuming signs or symbols of the authentic (Kontogeorgopoulos 2016; Wee, Park and Choi 2015). Moreover, the Cohen (2015) observed that signs and symbols which are assigned to objects or experiences can, in time, be socially constructed into the authentic. This form of authenticity is termed “emergent authenticity” (Patkin 2015; Cohen 1988, p. 371; Karrebæk and Maegaard 2015).

Bruner (1994) was the first to apply a constructivist perspective to the study of authenticity in tourism. Consequently, Wang’s (1999) commentary on Bruner’s (1994) conceptualisation of constructive authenticity identified five key themes:

1. The socio-cultural context in which individuals evaluate that authenticity is dynamic and constantly changing (Bruner 1994). This is similar to Littrell, Anderson and Brown’s (1993) temporal conceptualisation of authenticity. Therefore, there is a time dimension to the reproduction and construction of what a tourist may deem to be objectively authentic.
2. Originals or traditions are often themselves invented and constructed in different contexts through the social environment. Thus, authenticity is not a static and inherent property of an object but rather a social process in which competing interests argue for their own interpretation of history (Bruner 1994).

3. Authenticity is determined by how each tourist type defines, experiences and interprets authenticity (Bruner 1994). This is relevant to Cohen's (1979) typology of tourist experience modes as to how different groups of tourists define the tourist experience.
4. Perception of authenticity is a result of stereotypical images and expectations held by tourists with tourism experience. This is similar to Culler's (1981) view of authenticity.
5. Even though an object or an experience can initially be deemed inauthentic, through social construction, the very same object or experience may, in time, be perceived as authentic (Bruner 1994). This is similar to Cohen's (1988) perspective of emergent authenticity.

Kolar and Zabkar (2010) operationalised Wang's (1999) notion of object-based authenticity and provided further support for the constructivist perspective on authenticity. The authors examined tourists to Romanesque locations across Europe for the effect the various historical sites and buildings had on visitor perception of authenticity. Their study focused on constructive authenticity (i.e. how inspiring the objects were) and not on objective authenticity (i.e. how original the artefacts were). Kolar and Zabkar (2010) argued that the originality of the touristic object was less important than the experience that the tourist derived from interacting with it. The authors concluded that tourists who benefit more from the experience are more likely to have fond memories which, in turn, produce greater loyalty toward the destination.

2.2.3. Indexical and iconic authenticity

Notions of indexicality and iconicity have been examined in disciplines such as philosophy (e.g. Merrell 2001; Peirce and Houser 1998), anthropology (e.g. Hanks

1999; Nakassis 2016), linguistics (e.g. Johnstone and Andrus and Danielson 2006; Pavlenko and Mullen 2015), and photography (e.g. de Laat 2015; Hainge 2008; Roberts 2009). However, the notion of indexicality and iconicity in the study of authenticity has only recently been introduced to tourism and marketing by Grayson and Martinec (2004). In introducing indexical and iconic authenticity, the authors extended from the objectivist and constructivist approaches to authenticity. Their conceptualisation drew on Peircian semiotic theory (Peirce 1931-1958) which examines human perception and epistemology to understand how people discern what is real and truthful.

Indexicality and iconicity in the theory of semiotics

Peirce (Peirce 1931-1958), who is regarded as a forerunner of semiotics, or the study of signs, primarily focused on how individuals evaluate what is true and genuine and what is not (Merrell 2001). Grayson and Martinec (2004, p. 297) suggested that the “hallmark of Peirce’s work is his link between certain types of cues (or signs) and certain kinds of phenomenological experiences.” According to Merrell (2001, p. 28), a sign is defined as “something that relates to something else for someone in some respect or capacity.”

Peirce’s (1931-1958) semiotic theory identifies three basic classes of signs:

1. An icon is a sign that interrelates with the object by virtue of some resemblance or “verisimilitude” with it. For instance, a portrait, a scale model or a map may serve as an icon (Grayson and Martinec 2004, p. 298; Merrell 2001). Peirce stated that an iconic sign represents its object “mainly by its similarity” (Peirce 1931-1958, p. 276).

2. An index is a sign that relates to an object through a natural or physical or imagined causal connection (Peirce 1931-1958). For instance, smoke is an index of a fire as there is a natural causal relationship between the sign (smoke) and the object (fire).
3. A symbol is a “sign which refers to the object that it denotes by virtue of a law, usually an association of general ideas, which operates to cause the symbol to be interpreted as referring to that object” (Peirce 1931-1958, p. 249). For instance, an exclamation mark which is used to indicate strong feelings or high volume is an arbitrary symbol that is based on language rules.

Indexical authenticity in marketing

Grayson and Martinec (2004, p. 298) extended the objectivist approach to authenticity when they conceptualised indexical authenticity as a form of authenticity that results from “a factual and spatio-temporal link with something else.” In marketing, this link can be both physical and psychic. The authors suggested that products may be indexically authenticated by physical or tangible certification such as a country-of-origin label or, at least, a recommendation from a trustworthy source. Similarly, products may be indexically authenticated through the provision of psychic information or intangible cues such as an association with tradition or the past (Ewing, Allen and Ewing 2012; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Rose and Wood 2005; Thyne and Hede 2016). To illustrate, a bottle of Moet Chandon made in the Champagne region in France that still uses the traditional manufacturing process is perceived to possess indexical authenticity.

Grayson and Martinec (2004) espoused that indexical authenticity may also be perceived through a temporal link with the past. For instance, Beverland and Farrelly

(2010) have conducted interviews with Australian consumers for their perception of authentic products and experiences. Findings from the study have suggested that products may still be perceived as authentic even in instances where some forms of indexical connections are lost. To illustrate, American company, Kraft Foods' acquisition of Vegemite resulted in the loss of the 'Australian-owned' status of the brand. Despite the loss of the spatial country-of-origin connection to Australia, Vegemite still retains its authenticity as a typical Australian product. The physical-temporal link between Vegemite and Australian cultural history enables the brand to retain its indexical authenticity (Beverland and Farelly 2010). This is explained by Grayson and Shulman's (2000, p. 22) notion of 'temporal indexicality' which is defined as "a physical association with time."

Motley and Henderson (2008) acknowledged the corporeal dimension of indexical authenticity in the context of the global hip-hop diaspora. Through a review of extant literature and in-depth interviews with hip-hop music fans in Australia, the authors reported that the individual hip-hop artist plays an important role in providing indexical cues in the world hip-hop scene. On the one hand, traditional spatial cues (the music associated with the appropriate place) and temporal cues (the music style and lyrics linked to an appropriate time) are highly relevant to the indexical authenticity of the music. On the other hand, the artist or the "individual who can keep it real" by rapping about their life stories serves as an additional cue for indexical authenticity (Burkhalter and Thornton 2014; Motley and Henderson 2008, p. 251). However, the authors cautioned that commercialisation and globalisation are gradually eroding these indexical cues because artists are no longer telling their life stories but instead, are more interested in gaining business contracts.

Indexical cues of a product may be derived from a spatial link with a particular country-of-origin (Grayson and Martinec 2004; Mohart et al. 2015) that demonstrates a product's connection with a country or a place (Kjeldgaard and Ostberg 2007; Liu et al. 2015; Martinez 2016). Kjeldgaard and Ostberg (2007) studied ethnographic data on coffee consumption in Scandinavia and reported that a product's source of ingredients and its retail space may provide indexical cues for the authentication of the product. To illustrate, a particular café in Stockholm which sells coffee made from Italian coffee beans, employs baristas with Italian names who are fluent in Italian and has a menu written entirely in Italian provides indexical cues that create perception of authenticity (Kjeldgaard and Ostberg 2007).

Indexical authenticity in tourism

In tourism research, a tourism object that is the original or the real thing is acknowledged to possess indexical authenticity (Grayson and Martinec 2004; Moulard, Babin and Griffin 2015; Tang and Chiu 2015). The authors examined tourists at Shakespeare's Birthplace and the Sherlock Holmes Museum for their perception of authenticity. Interestingly, Grayson and Martinec (2004) pointed out that perception of indexical authenticity is evident in both a historical setting (Shakespeare's Birthplace) as well as a fictional setting (the Sherlock Holmes Museum). The authors attempted to explain this by suggesting that visitors use their imagination in interpreting indexicality. For instance, a visitor seeing a quill at the Shakespeare's Birthplace may imagine Shakespeare using it to write his plays. Similarly, a visitor seeing a pen at the Sherlock Holmes museum may imagine Sherlock Holmes using it to write his case notes. These judgements are based on what visitors have learnt through reading about Shakespeare and Sherlock Holmes. However, the authors (p. 307) have emphasised that the use of imagination has helped "not in support of making

a presumed fiction seem more real, but in support of making a presumed fact seem more real.” This offers some insight into how visitors interpret various cues to form their perception of indexical authenticity.

Grayson and Martinec (2004) identified three forms of indexical authenticity manifested in the various objects on display. Consequently, an object may have:

1. Actual indexicality with the inhabitant which is construed as a belief of a spatio-temporal link to an individual. For instance, the house at Shakespeare’s Birthplace is perceived by a visitor to be authentic because Shakespeare actually lived there.
2. Hypothetical indexicality with the inhabitant which is viewed as a belief of a possible spatio-temporal link to an individual. For instance, a visitor at the Sherlock Holmes Museum may regard some old newspapers as something that Sherlock Holmes could have touched.
3. Actual indexicality with the inhabitant’s era which is conceptualised as a belief of a spatio-temporal link to that era. For instance, the kitchen utensils at Shakespeare’s Birthplace may be perceived by a visitor to be original artefacts from Shakespeare’s era.

Ray et al. (2006) embraced Grayson and Martinec’s (2004) notion of indexical authenticity and defined indexical authenticity as the “degree to which something is thought not to be a copy or imitation or that it is the original or the real thing” (Ray et al. 2006, p. 442). The authors focused on re-enactment tourism and examined historical society members at the Along the Trail event in the USA, retracing the journey of Lewis and Clark. Their study corroborated Grayson and Martinec’s (2004) argument that tourists use indexical spatio-temporal cues to authenticate touristic objects and tourist experiences. This was evident from participants’ strong agreement with three

survey items, namely, *‘Historians agree that this sort of event really happened in the early 1800s,’ ‘Historical documents about life in the early 1800s describe this sort of event,’* and *‘This sort of event is depicted in stories or films about Lewis and Clark.’* The authors concluded that participants in the event use spatio-temporal cues in forming their perception of indexical authenticity (Ray et al. 2006).

Pennington and Thomsen (2010) also adopted Grayson and Martinec’s (2004) semiotic theory in their analysis of the authenticity of travel destinations. The authors highlighted that indexes are highly important to authenticity because of the “committal, documentary aspects of indexes” (Pennington and Thomsen 2010, p. 38). Thus, Indexical cues may be utilised in photographic representations of the travel destination (Hunter 2013; Knudsen and Waade 2010). First, in the case of a seaside resort photograph, indexical cues such as white sands and palm trees provide assurance to tourists that these authentic attributes will be available at the destination (Pennington and Thomsen 2010). Second, in the case of a cultural and heritage tourism destination photograph, indexical cues such as objects and sites can certify that these authentic aspects of a local culture or heritage will be available at the travel destination (Collison and Spears 2010; Ram, Björk and Weidenfeld 2016).

Similarly, Castéran and Roederer (2013, p. 155) defined indexical authenticity as “built from cues that are thought to have a factual link with an original or pre-existing reality.” The authors examined visitors at the Strasbourg Christmas Market and reported that perception of indexical authenticity is a result of tourists having access to elements of verification. Utilising the Camus (2010) scale of authenticity for tourist sites, Castéran and Roederer’s (2013) clear distinction between measures of indexical and iconic authenticity are evident in the use of their scale. Specifically, three items in

their survey, namely, ‘*The Strasbourg Christmas Market is not an imitation,*’ ‘*The Strasbourg Christmas Market is the original, not a copy,*’ and ‘*The Strasbourg Christmas Market is the original Christmas market*’ measured indexical authenticity (Castéran and Roederer 2013).

Hede and Thyne (2010) have highlighted the importance of self-verification in tourist perception of authenticity. The authors examined international tourists at the Janet Frame childhood home in Oamaru, New Zealand and observed that they are themselves appraisers of the various objects on display, basing their appraisals of authenticity on their own expertise and knowledge about Janet Frame through their own research. This knowledge, gleaned from reading Janet’s books and other biographical data, serves as the basis for comparison of indexical cues in the objects. Their study noted that the lack of authentic cues in a reproduction creates a sense of disappointment.

Iconic authenticity in marketing

Grayson and Martinec (2004, p. 298) extended the constructivist approach to authenticity when they conceptualised iconic authenticity as “something whose physical manifestations resembles something that is indexically authentic.” Marketing practitioners often use terms such as “an authentic reproduction” or “an authentic recreation” to describe their products (Bruner 1994, p. 339; Cohen 2007, p. 77; Grayson and Martinec 2004, p. 298). Thus, reproductions are made to mimic the original products and are perceived as authentic based on the consumer’s subjective evaluation of their sensory experiences with these reproductions (Beverland 2006; Liu et al. 2015; Wang, Huang and Kim 2015). To illustrate, a replica of a Meiji Era samurai sword has iconic authenticity if it physically resembles a sword made in the late 19th

century. Other iconic cues such as the material of the sword, the length of the sword and the design on the scabbard also serve as iconic cues in the appraisal of authenticity. This kind of similarity is described by marketing scholars as “verisimilitude” which is defined as an approximation to the truth (Addis and Podesta 2005; Mikes and Morhart 2016). However, Liu et al. (2015) cautioned that some pre-existing knowledge is still required as a basis for the comparison. To illustrate, in order to correctly judge a reproduction of a Ming Dynasty vase, the consumer must have some knowledge about how a Ming Dynasty vase should look and feel.

Leigh, Peters and Shelton (2006) corroborated the utility of iconic cues by adopting Grayson and Martinec’s (2004) conceptualisation that an individual often negotiates tangible cues to authenticity even though the product may be altered or reproduced. The authors conducted interviews with MG owners in the United States for their perception of authenticity in reproductions of MG cars. Since the demise of the brand in the 1980s, car owners have resorted to reproducing various parts of the car in order to preserve them. At social gatherings and club meetings, such cars are judged based on the degree to which the automobile possesses “showroom conditions” (Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006, p. 487). In fact, MG owners with significantly restored replica parts argue that it is not the originality of the parts that count but the preservation of brand heritage through the look of the restored MGs.

Further, Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink (2008) observed that the accuracy of advertising in representing an authentic product results in perception of iconic authenticity. The authors interviewed beer consumers in Australia for their perception of Trappist beers in advertising and observed that consumers use iconic cues to evaluate “approximate authenticity” and to assess whether “products or objects are

deemed authentic if they approximate historical referents” (Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink p. 9). The authors suggested that consumers used mental shortcuts by focusing on iconic cues such as the look and feel, imagery of tradition and overall impression of what a product ought to look like in their judgments of authenticity. Such consumers are more forgiving of inaccuracies and incongruences as they do not go through the process of factual verification. Their study concluded that this was not a result of the suspension of disbelief in attributing authenticity but rather, an understanding of the dynamic nature of the evolution of products.

Similarly, Kjelgaard and Otsberg’s (2007) study of cafés in Scandinavia observed that, through the mimicry American coffee culture, a high level of tangible iconic authenticity is present in the Scandinavian coffee culture. The authors noted that Starbucks is used as the stereotypical American coffee establishment and that many cafés in Scandinavia endeavour to mimic its design and menu, a phenomenon that the authors described as the “starbuckification” of coffee shops (Kjelgaard and Otsberg 2007, p. 181). Owners of such cafés reported that they travel to the United States to visit Starbucks outlets and gain inspiration on how to make their cafés more American. Thus, coffee establishments such as the Wayne’s Chain have adopted iconic authentic American cues such as music, layout and types of coffee served. Through accurately recreating the image of American coffee culture, cafés are providing their patrons with an iconic authentic coffee experience.

An individual may also draw on intangible cues to authenticity even in an altered or reproduced state. Motley and Henderson (2008) studied the global hip-hop phenomenon and posited that, although hip-hop is deeply rooted in the African-American culture, the genre is strongly embraced by artists in other cultures. The

authors cited the Japanese hip-hop scene and suggested that the musical style and the general notion of marginalisation and discrimination that is expressed through the hip-hop culture serve as intangible cues to imbue even the most remote mimicry with iconic authenticity. The use of hip-hop as a way to distinguish an individual from mainstream society has led many Japanese youths to view hip-hop in Japan as real and authentic (Burkhalter and Thornton 2014; Condry 2000; Motley and Henderson 2008).

Iconic authenticity in tourism marketing

Grayson and Martinec's (2004) pioneer study of iconic authenticity was conducted in the context of both fictional and historical heritage tourism. The authors described the construct as the "use of a mental template or composite picture to assess whether something's physical manifestation is similar to something that is indexically authentic" (Grayson and Martinec 2004, p. 301). Consequently, Grayson and Martinec (2004) identified three forms of iconicity:

1. Iconicity with history occurs when tourists compare what they see at the site with what they know from history and therefore, believe this to be factual. To illustrate, Shakespeare's Birthplace may be perceived as authentic because the house resembles pictures of houses from that era.
2. Iconicity with old things occurs when tourists compare objects they see with their own knowledge about how things of a certain age should look. To illustrate, furniture at the Sherlock Holmes Museum may be perceived to be authentic because it looks worn out and weather-beaten.
3. Iconicity with fiction occurs when tourists compare what they see at a site with what they have read about in fiction. To illustrate, Sherlock Holmes is a fictional character. However, the overall layout of the Sherlock Holmes Museum may be

perceived as authentic based on the how visitors imagine the place to be from reading fiction about the character.

Ray et al.'s (2006, p. 442) study on the Lewis and Clark event conceptualised iconic authenticity as "how well the event or object resembles the real thing or accurately copies the original or real thing." The authors observed that tourists are quite content to accept iconic authenticity in terms of how closely the artefacts, products and performances resemble the originals. Their study argued that tourists seek value in the nostalgic elements of the event and do not insist on an extreme degree of indexical authenticity. This was evident from respondents' agreement with two survey items, namely, '*Lewis and Clark were physically near this location*' and '*Many items used in the celebration were old enough to be from the early 1800s.*'

Similarly, Castéran and Roederer (2013, p. 155) defined iconic authenticity as indicative that the "thing in question resembles something that is indexically authentic." The authors examined the Strasbourg Christmas Market in France and observed that many tourist sites comprise both original and artificial components. When visiting such sites, tourists negotiate between the natural and the synthetic in their judgments of authenticity. Their study reported that, at the Christmas Market, tourists may be presented with iconic cues such as decorations and tents made of materials that are authentic to the depicted era as well as limited edition products that have authentic characteristics and an overall connection with Christmas. These cues, although artificial, still contribute to perception of iconic authenticity. Thus, three items in their survey, namely, '*Had the essential nature of the Christmas markets been respected, the Strasbourg Christmas Market would have been different,*' '*The Strasbourg Christmas Market includes artificial elements,*' and '*The Strasbourg*

Christmas Market is a product of techniques and/or materials that are not all original’ measured iconic authenticity (Castéran and Roederer 2013).

Conceptualising the indexical-iconic authenticity continuum

In the current study, indexical authenticity is conceptualised as the *interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination*. Iconic authenticity is conceptualised as the *interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version*. Grayson and Martinec (2004) postulated that indexical and iconic authenticity are not mutually exclusive although an individual may put emphasis on one form over the other given a specific context. Consequently, every perceived cue may possess both indexical and iconic properties (Ewing, Allen and Ewing 2012; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Gunning 2004).

An object may be perceived to possess both indexical and iconic authenticity. To illustrate, an individual may believe that a chair was built during the Victorian era (indexical authenticity) and that it depicts Victorian style (iconic authenticity). A tourist site may also be perceived to possess both indexical and iconic cues. To illustrate, a tourist site such as the Louvre in Paris may comprise historical precincts built during the 18th century (indexical authenticity) as well as commercialised modern amenities such as a subway station, cafes and retail stores (iconic authenticity).

Given that objects and tourist sites may exhibit duality in their authentic properties, it can be argued that indexical and iconic authenticity exist on two opposing poles. Consequently, in the current study, indexical and iconic authenticity are conceptualised as two states on opposing ends of a continuum with varying degrees of interpretation between the ends, as can be seen in Figure 2.2. Thus, indexical and

iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations are also operationalised on this continuum.

Figure 2.2: The indexical-iconic authenticity continuum



2.2.4. Existential authenticity

The concept of authenticity derived from existentialism is clearly distinguished from the objectivist and constructivist approaches. Both objectivism and constructivism tend to view the concept of authenticity as an object-related quality. However, the existentialist approach indicates a potential existential state of being that may be triggered by tourism activities. The concept of existential authenticity is part of a philosophical tradition which contemplates the significance of being human, of being happy and of being oneself (e.g. Hegel 1977; Heidegger 1996; Kant 1929; Kierkegaard 1985; Nehemas 1999; Rousseau 1979; Sartre 1992). This notion of the authentic self has also occupied the interests of psychologists and other behavioural scientists (e.g. Berger 1973; Johnson 2003; May 1953; Taylor 2001).

Existentialism in philosophy

The notion of authenticity and the authentic self first appears in the philosophical writings of Kierkegaard (Mackey 1974). However, the concept dates back to classical philosophy. Plato's approach to the 'self' argued that the essential element to all human beings is the intellect. The true self is achieved by overcoming impulses and

controlling them through the intellect (Hamilton 1971). In contrast to this perspective, Rousseau (1966) suggested that the social person does not present their true self and instead, is deceptive to both themselves and others around them. Living in a social context forces individuals to put on masks “which makes one ugly and causes one distress” (Rubenstein 1994, p. 132). Rousseau (1966) argued that society causes the person to forget their true and authentic self, resulting in an artificial and hypocritical portrayal of the self. This argument is based on Heidegger’s (1960) proposition that a person is authentic the “moment he or she stops behaving according to the rules imposed by society” (cited in Rubenstein 1994, p. 132). Thus, the authentic person is seen as one whose behaviour is a result of free choice rather than subject to social conventions. Conversely, the inauthentic person is a conformist that behaves according to social norms.

Sigad (1970) extended Rousseau’s (1966) notion of the authentic self by distinguishing between an intrapersonal dimension and an interpersonal dimension. In doing so, the author made a distinction between authenticity to oneself and authenticity towards others. On the one hand, an individual needs to work intrapersonally toward forming a genuine attitude to themselves. This is based on the assumption that each individual has an internal essence or truth. On the other hand, the authentic self, although not transmittable directly to others can be construed interpersonally through an individual’s behaviour towards others. Sigad (1970) concluded that the authentic self is a result of being true to oneself and ensuring that this is manifested in a social setting through behaviour.

Further, Kierkegaard (1985) suggested a self-fulfilling perspective by arguing that an individual’s true self is achieved through authentic behaviours. An individual builds

the self through personal choices between authentic and inauthentic modes of existence. The non-authentic mode of existence occurs when the individual submits to social conventions. The author posited that failure to live the authentic mode of existence leads to existential anxiety which arises from the individual confronting the limitations to their existence.

In simple terms, existential authenticity can be described as a special state of being in which an individual seeks to be true to themselves. This is achieved by actively searching to recover the true self that is lost in the routine of everyday life (Berger 1973). In fact, Heidegger (1996) argued that the quest for authenticity begins when an individual starts to ask about the meaning of being.

Existentialism in product authenticity

In marketing literature, the concept of the self is often examined in terms of products, services or brands that consumers choose and the symbolic meaning of brands that guides their purchase behaviour (Grubb and Grathwohl 1967). According to self theory, an individual is aware of their self in terms of their attitude, feeling, perception and evaluation of themselves as an object (Hall and Gardner 1957). The theory posits that an individual's self-evaluation influences behaviour and subsequent consumption choices. Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) draw on congruency theory when they suggested that consumption of products, services or brands is dependent on a perceived congruency with the consumer's self-concept. The authors noted that symbolism of the product is formed based on an individual's interpretation of product image and imbued into the product through social interaction.

Beverland and Farrelly (2010) highlighted that consumers have different goals that they seek to achieve through the consumption experience. The authors examined

Australian consumers for their perception of authenticity and observed that authenticity was perceived even in the absence of objective cues such as overt authenticity labels. In fact, consumers perceived authenticity in “functional and ubiquitous objects” (Beverland and Farrelly 2010, p. 853). Their study concluded that, instead of relying on cues that indicate authenticity, consumers place more emphasis on identifying a contingent relationship between their own goals, self-authentication and the authentication of objects.

Within branding research, Beverland, Farrelly and Quester (2010) reported that brand choice is highly dependent on two key goals, namely, self-authentication and authentic community membership. The authors observed that consumers participate in the consumption of subcultural goods such as skateboards and surf wear to achieve self-authentication or self-referential behaviours that reveal or produce the true self. At the same time, consumers also purchase products, services or brands which help affirm their desired social identity (Arnould and Price 2000). For instance, Leigh, Peters and Shelton’s (2006) study of MG car owners noted that their sense of community adds an existential dimension to the authenticity of their relationship with their cars and with other owners. For instance, participating in MG gatherings allow owners to interact and forge memberships within the community.

Mohart et al. (2015, p. 203) argued that consumers evaluate brand authenticity based on the ability of the brand to “reflect values that they consider important and may thus help construct who they are.” The authors posited that brand symbolism leads to existential authenticity through identity construction by providing self-reference cues which represent consumer values, roles and relationships. For instance, a consumer who grew up on a farm may perceive existential authenticity in a John Deere truck as

it is representative of their heritage and self-concept. Thus, existential authenticity through brand symbolism can be likened to the connection benefit of brands (Beverland and Farrelly 2010) as well as the identity-related aspects of brand attachment (Xie, Batra and Peng 2015).

Existentialism in destination authenticity

Wang (1999) formally introduced the notion of an existentialist approach to authenticity in tourism studies. Since then, studies have focused primarily on applying existentialist theory to the tourist experience (Belhassen, Caton and Stewart 2008; Bruner 1994; Hughes 1995; Torabian and Arai 2016; Yeoman, Brass and McMahon-Beattie 2007). Steiner and Reisinger (2006, p. 299-300) conceptualised existential authenticity as a “human attribute signifying being one’s true self or being true to one’s essential nature” and observed that existential authenticity relates to “what it means to be human, what it means to be happy, and what it means to be oneself.” The authors argued that being in touch with oneself, knowing oneself, and living one’s own life is being authentic. Even if touristic objects, whether fake or real, play a part in the tourist experience, it is the existentially authentic feeling the tourist gets from the tourist activity that makes the experience authentic (Brown 2013; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Steiner and Reisinger 2006). This conceptualisation of authenticity is similar to Selwyn’s (1996) distinction between ‘cool authenticity’ and ‘hot authenticity.’ On the one hand ‘cool authenticity’ implies an objective quality of verification through historical accuracy of touristic objects, events and local cultures, similar to objectivist authenticity. On the other hand, ‘hot authenticity’ has been described by the author as the “aspect of the imagined world of tourist make-believe...concerned with questions of self and society,” in particular with the quest for an “authentic self” and “authentic other” (Selwyn 1996, pp. 20-21).

According to Wang (1999, p. 352), existential authenticity is a “potential state of being that is activated by tourist activities” and indicates an attainment of “true self” and “true interpersonal relationship” marginalised to a great extent in everyday public roles. In conceptualising existential authenticity, the author made a distinction between intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions. Intrapersonal authenticity refers to a state of the authentic self that is based on internal feelings and relations to self (Selwyn 1996). This includes bodily feelings as well as an aspect of self-making that is attained through tourist experiences. Bodily feelings such as touch, smell and taste play a crucial role in shaping tourism experience as contemporary tourism practices become more activity-oriented (Franklin 2003). Thus, the pursuit of physical and sensual experiences acts as a motivator for common tourism practices such as drinking, eating exotic foods, climbing, horse riding, fishing, bungee jumping, listening to exotic music (Kim 2004) and sensual experiences through hedonic sexual encounters at travel destinations (e.g. Herold, Garcia, DeMoya 2001; Josiam et al. 1998; Opperman and Specht 1999). Therefore, tourism may offer possibilities to escape from social rules that oppress the body and allow tourists to attain bodily pleasures in a more authentic sense (Kim 2004).

Wang (1999, p. 363) also suggested that unrestrictive, non-routine tourism activities enhance opportunity for self-making or the formation of a “self-identity.” The author maintained that constraining and monotonous routines embedded in everyday life prevents a modern individual from pursuing self-realisation. However, through tourism activities, tourists are able to achieve a sense of the authentic self (Kirillova, Lehto and Cai 2016; Giddens 1990; Wearing, McDonald and Ankor 2016). For instance, a mountaineer may find their alternative self by challenging themselves with

the task of scaling a mountain. The self is changed by overcoming this challenge (Csikszentmihalyi 1975; Rickly-Boyd 2012).

Interpersonal authenticity revolves around relations with other people (Bryce et al. 2015; Selwyn 1996) and involves a sense of family ties and a sense of camaraderie or “touristic communitas” (Wang 1999, p. 364). Wang (1999; 2000) noted that one of the most significant tourism functions is to reinforce closeness amongst family members. Joint tourist experiences and achievement of a sense of togetherness within the family unit constitute an important dimension of tourism interpersonal authentic experience. The author proposed that recreational tourism not only provides the tourist with the pleasure of experiencing beautiful sights, events or performances but also serves as a means for establishing authentic, natural and intense emotional bonds. Thus, the tourism experience is a “ritual celebrating this authentic family relationship” (Wang, 1999, p. 364).

Extending the notion of ‘communitas’ which refers to intense feelings of social togetherness and belonging (Robinson and Clifford 2012; Turner 1969), Wang (1999; 2000) suggested that the liminal quality of tourism space and time facilitates several primitive ritualistic features in tourist experiences. Liminality is defined as “any condition outside or on the peripheries of everyday life” (Turner 1974, p. 47). According to Wang (1999), the most noticeable element that determines the experience of tourists is the quality of unmediated interactions based on common humanity. This interaction can be seen as the purest of relationships with tourists forming spontaneous connections between “individuated human beings stripped of structural attributes” (Wang 1999, p. 364). Kim (2004, p. 32) supported Wang’s notion of tourism

‘communitas’ by referring to a “sense of community, brotherhood, a feeling of wholeness or a sense of collective flow experience.”

Kim and Jamal (2007) utilised Wang’s (1999) notion of existential authenticity in examining highly involved visitors to the Texas Renaissance Fair for their motivation in attending the fair. The authors identified bonding, friendship, identity-seeking and transcendence (self-transformation) as common motivations amongst repeat visitors. Their study observed that the annual fair served as a space where visitors could conduct a ritualistic pilgrimage annually and mingle with other like-minded visitors. This was evident for highly involved visitors who have opportunity to engage in meaning-making through a variety of practices and rites on the fair ground and in social groups. Thus, by visiting the fair, visitors are able to fulfil both intrapersonal and interpersonal authenticity. Kolar and Zabkar’s (2010) study of visitors to Romanesque sites focused on the intrapersonal aspect of existential authenticity when they described it as a sense of escape and enjoyment, an experience of the true self, driven by motivations to escape everyday life and achieve self-actualisation.

The existential component of tourism consumption is also acknowledged in Noy’s (2002) review of backpackers as narrators. Backpackers are seen as story-tellers who give powerful accounts of long-standing self-change constructed from unique experiences of authenticity and adventure. From this perspective, traveling to socially-constructed authentic locations and interacting with its people is not carried out merely for the sake of acquiring a heroic and exciting story. Rather, authenticity or the adventurous experience allows for narratives of identity to be told through the claim of a lasting self-change (Barlow 2015). Noy’s (2002) argument is that authenticity is only achieved when a lasting change to the backpacker’s self occurs by pushing the

boundaries of existential authenticity. This argument, however, does not explain the means to which this is achieved.

Offering a resolution to fill the gap present in Noy's (2002) argument, Belhassen, Caton and Stewart (2008) introduced the notion of 'theoplacity' when they studied the authenticity of Christian pilgrimages. This notion brings together the Greek 'theos' (god) and the Medieval Latin 'placea,' encapsulating the interrelation between religion and spatiality and illustrating the authenticity of a pilgrimage. The authors argued that growing support for existential authenticity has separated the existential experience the touristic object's authenticity from the social and political contexts that imbue it with meaning. Instead, it is suggested that the meaning of a religious site and a pilgrim's experienced self at the site evoke powerful emotional experiences they have during their travels which give travel existential authenticity. Thus, 'theoplacity' integrates elements of place, beliefs, action and self which exist in dialogue and which act together to produce the complex notion of authenticity (Belhassen, Caton and Stewart 2008; Rickly-Boyd 2013).

Conceptualising existential authenticity as a desire

Although, existential authenticity has generally, been seen as an outcome of interactions with an authentic product, some studies have alluded to the notion of existential authenticity as a desire which exists in varying degrees within a consumer (e.g. Buchmann, Moore and Fisher 2010; Elliott 1997) and tourist (e.g. Cohen, 1988; MacCannel, 1973; Wang, 1999). For instance, Firat and Venkatesh (1995) proposed that a key motivation for tourists travelling to popular heritage destinations is the desire to search for the authentic self through the consumption of cultural products. In fact,

Steiner and Reisinger (2006) concluded that desire to pursue the authentic self (i.e. the experience of existential authenticity) serves as a main catalyst for tourism.

In marketing studies, consumers have been found to desire authentic products for the consumption experience (Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Buchmann, Moore and Fisher 2010; Elliott 1997; Mohart et al. 2015). Elliott (1997) suggested that consumers achieve existential authenticity through consumption for the symbolic meaning and social transactions. For instance, Leigh, Peters and Shelton (2006) observed that MG owners cited desire to connect with the once esteemed car brand as a primary motivation for purchasing the car and participating in MG gatherings. In accordance with 'theoplicity' (Belhassen, Caton and Stewart 2008), it could be argued that for these car owners, consumption of the brand is akin to a spiritual experience and attendance at social gatherings is akin to a religious pilgrimage. Similarly, Rickly-Boyd (2012) observed frequent rock climbers at the foothills of Appalachian Kentucky and cited that their primary desire to travel was to establish existential authenticity obtained through interactions with various nature sites and other rock climbers.

Elliott (1997) argued that desire for existential experiences through consumption is akin to an irrational desire. The consumption of products for existentially oriented consumers is driven by the symbolic value of the products they consumer (Baudrillard 1981; LeVine 1984; Smith 2007). For instance, Wiliamson (1979) noted that consumers seek meaning in the products they consume by either likening or juxtapositioning products to their ideological self. Thus, this kind of consumption requires a higher level of involvement particularly, in the meaning and cultural significance of a product. Consumers tend to favour products that allow for such meaning-making which is driven, to a great deal, by their involvement in the

consumption process (Oliver and Bearden 1985; Lutz, Mackenzie and Belch 1983; Mackenzie and Spreng 1992). For instance, Chang, Wall and Hung (2012) examined regional tourists in Taiwan for their perceptions of Aboriginal heritage souvenirs. The authors reported that tourists who demonstrate greater desire to connect with the local culture from more positive evaluation of authentic souvenirs. Urry (1990) suggested that existential tourists are driven by the desire to feel rather than gaze, resulting in their active participation to search for an authentic destination and their decided attitude toward the destination. Thus, tourists with high desire for existential authenticity are likely to be more involved in the decision to choose a destination (Kim and Jamal 2007; McIntosh and Prentice 1999; McKercher 2002; Wang 1999). Further, Cohen (1990) postulated that tourists with existential motivations which drive them to seek meaning in an authentic destination are fully committed in searching for an elective spiritual centre. In fact, Wang (1999) highlighted that desire for 'liminality' through existential authenticity serves as a basis on which existential tourists select destinations. For instance, Hede and Thyne (2010) examined existential tourists at the Janet Frame Childhood Home in New Zealand and concluded that existential tourists demonstrate a greater desire to connect with the local culture and cultural icons and are more involved, critical and meticulous in evaluating authenticity.

Summary of the authenticity literature

The first section of this Chapter examined the various approaches to authenticity and their relevance to the marketing and tourism contexts. These can be summarised as follows.

First objectivist authenticity can be defined as *the authenticity of objects or places that have received historical and factual verification by experts*. This form of authenticity

is not negotiable by the tourist as it is rooted in documented histories and traditions and communicated by objective cues. The extant literature highlights the applicability of the objectivist approach to authenticity in the contexts of products (e.g. Babin and Harris 2012; Beverland 2005; Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink 2008; Chronis and Hampton 2008; Fotopoulos and Krystallis 2003; Littrell, Ma and Halapete 2005) and travel destinations (e.g. Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Naoi 2003; Reisinger and Steiner 2006; Theobald 1998; Waitt 2000; Wang 1999).

Second, constructivist authenticity as *socially-constructed, subjective perceptions of authenticity in contrived or reconstructed objects and places*. This form of authenticity is negotiated by the tourist based on extrinsic, aesthetic and symbolic cues presented to them. The extant literature highlights the applicability of the constructivist approach to authenticity in the contexts of products (e.g. Alexander 2009; Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006; Littrell, Anderson and Brown 1993; Millenaar et al. 2010; Mkono 2012; Shenhav-Keller 1995; Tregear, Kuznesof and Moxey 1998; Zeng, Go and de Vries 2012) and travel destinations (e.g. Culler 1981; Cohen 1988; Bruner 1994; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999).

Third, the current study defines indexical authenticity as *the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination*. This form of authenticity requires the communication of authentication and documentation through corporeal attributes, similar to the objectivist approach to authenticity. As can be seen in Table 2.1, a systematic review of the extant literature highlights the applicability of the indexical authenticity in the contexts of products (e.g. Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Kjeldgaard and Ostberg 2007; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Grayson and Shulman 2000; Motley and Henderson 2008) and travel

destinations (e.g. Castéran and Roederer 2013; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Hede and Thyne 2010; Pennington and Thomsen 2010; Ray et al. 2006).

Table 2.1: Key themes shared between objectivist and indexical authenticity

Authors	Genuine and real	Verified and authenticated	Documented fact, history or tradition	Objective cues	Specific location
Babin and Harris 2012					
Beverland 2005					
Beverland and Farrelly 2010					
Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink 2008					
Boorstin 1964					
Burkhalter and Thornton 2014					
Castéran and Roederer 2013					
Chronis and Hampton 2008					
Cohen 1988					
Elkana 1978					
Ewing, Allen and Ewing 2012					
Fotopoulos and Krystallis 2003					
Grayson and Martinec 2004					
Grayson and Shulman 2000					
Hede and Thyne 2010					
Kim 2004					
Kjeldgaard and Ostberg 2007					
Kolar and Zabkar 2010					
Littrell, Anderson and Brown 1993					
Liu et al. 2015					
Martinez 2016					
Motley and Henderson 2008					
Moulard, Babin and Griffin 2015					
Naoi 2003					
Pennington and Thomsen 2010					
Popper 1972					
Postrel 2003					
Ray et al. 2006					
Reisinger and Steiner 2006					
Relph 1976					
Rose and Wood 2005					
Tang and Chin 2015					
Theobald 1998					
Waitt 2000					
Wang 1999					

Then, the current study defines iconic authenticity as *a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version*. This form of authenticity is subjective in nature and is also based on corporeal attributes, similar to the constructivist approach to authenticity. As can be seen in Table 2.2, a systematic review of the extant literature highlights the applicability of the iconic authenticity in the contexts of products (e.g. Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink 2008; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Kjelgaard and Otsberg 2007; Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006; Motley and Henderson 2008) and travel destinations (e.g. Castéran and Roederer 2013; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Ray et al. 2006).

Table 2.2: Key themes shared between constructivist and iconic authenticity

Authors	Contrived, reconstructed or artificial	Verisimilitude, similarity and mimic	Stereotypical and symbolic	Subjective cues
Adams 1984				
Addis and Podesta 2005				
Alexander 2009				
Beverland 2006				
Beverland, Lindgreen and Vink 2008				
Bruner 1994				
Castéran and Roederer 2013				
Cohen 1979				
Cohen 1988				
Culler 1981				
Dickinson, Orr and Aoki 2006				
Grayson and Martinec 2004				
Kim 2004				
Kjelgaard and Otsberg 2007				
Kolar and Zabkar 2010				
Laxson 1991				
Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006				
Littrell, Anderson and Brown 1993				
Liu et al. 2015				
Millenaar et al. 2010				
Mkono 2012				

Motley and Henderson 2008		
Ray et al. 2006		
Shenhav-Keller's 1995		
Silver 1993		
Tregear, Kuznesof and Moxey 1998		
Wang 1999		
Wang, Huang and Kim 2015		

Given that objects and tourist sites may exhibit duality in their authentic properties, it can be argued that indexical and iconic authenticity exist on two opposing poles. In the current study, indexical and iconic authenticity are conceptualised as two states on opposing ends of a continuum with varying degrees of interpretation between the ends.

Finally, the current study defines existential authenticity as *an existential state of being achieved through interaction with authentic products and travel destinations*. This form of authenticity is derived from intrapersonal self-making and interpersonal interactions. The extant literature highlights the applicability of existential authenticity in the contexts of products (e.g. Arnould and Price 2000; Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Beverland, Farrelly and Quester 2010; Leigh, Peters and Shelton 2006) and travel destinations (e.g. Belhassen, Caton and Stewart 2008; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999; Yeoman, Brass and McMahon-Beattie 2007). Further, past research has alluded to the notion of existential authenticity as a desire (e.g. Buchmann, Moore and Fisher 2010; Cohen, 1988; Elliot 1997; MacCannell, 1973; Wang, 1999). Thus, the current study conceptualises desire for existential authenticity as *an unobservable state of motivation or interest to achieve an existential state of being by connecting with a local culture through the consumption of an object or travel destination*.

2.3. Relevant literature on country Image

Image was first examined in general psychology studies on learning, sensing, perception and attitude. Image is defined as “a memory code or associative mediator that provides spatially parallel information that can mediate overt responses without necessarily being consciously experienced as a visual image” (Poiesz 1989, p. 462). Earlier definitions of image, originated from the study of sensing and perception which conceptualised image as an alternative to the experience of seeing in the absence of visual stimulation (Annett 1995; Emmorey 2001; Kosslyn 1983; O’Craven and Kanwisher 2000). Mandler (1984) also purported that the concept of image can be extrapolated to the tactile, olfactory, auditory and taste senses. Finn and Louviere (1996) proposed a definition of image as a collection of symbolic associations with an object, place or situation. Further, Nadeau et al. (2008) defined image as a sum of the beliefs, attitudes and impressions about an object. These impressions may be “true or false, real or imagined,” (Nadeau et al. 2008, pg. 85) and are crucial in guiding and shaping behaviour (Barich and Kotler 1991).

Psychology literature on image demonstrated three general approaches to the concept. Poiesz (1989) suggested that these differing approaches occur at different levels of elaboration employed by an individual when evaluating an object. The three approaches are:

1. The means-end approach proposed by Reynolds and Gutman (1984, p. 28) defines image as “a network of meanings stored in memory.” The authors employed a means-end chain perspective to the definition by examining image in terms of object attributes, consequences and personal values. This approach was found to be effective in appraisal of high elaboration with sufficient information and

experience available to the appraiser (Kamakura and Novak 1992; Razo-Zapata et al. 2012). Yet, at lower levels of available information, this approach may lead to forced responses and imaginary reconstructions on the part of the individual (Lascu, Manrai and Manrai 1996).

2. Fishbein's (1967) attitude theory suggests that image can theoretically and operationally be equated to attitude (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982; Kroeber-Riel 1975; Mittal 1988; Wedal and Pieters 2008). From this approach, beliefs that form an image are perceived as descriptive, informational and inferential in nature allowing for more or less elaboration to take place. As such, this theory may be applied to both high and low elaboration situations as allows for evaluations to be made relatively quickly with both high and low informational situations (Poeisz 1989).
3. The holistic approach focuses on image as a general impression or perception of an object (Gigerenzer, Hertwig and Pachur 2011; Gilovich, Griffin and Kahneman 2002; Tversky and Kahneman 1973; Poeisz 1989). This approach conceptualises image as a heuristic which simplifies the complexity of an appraisal by generating an overall impression of an object or object class. Petty and Cacioppo (1986) suggested that this approach to image is highly relevant in low decision-making when an individual uses the peripheral route to attitude change. At lower levels of information processing, image may serve as a persuasion cue to generate small and temporary changes in attitude.

Psychology literature on image has suggested a number of functions for image. These functions are:

1. To reduce the need for extensive and complex information processing, storage and retrieval (Bian and Moutinho 2011; Neisser 2014; Reiser, Black and Abelson 1985). This prompted Lilli (1983) to postulate that image serves a knowledge function, expectation function and consistency function in the processing of incoming information.
2. To serve as a gatekeeper for incoming information which individuals use as a benchmark on which they compare incoming information (Brewin 2013; Smith-Rodden and Ash 2012). Positive image may result in greater willingness of an individual to devote attention and interest in incoming information.
3. To serve as a heuristic or a simplifying choice rule, particularly in low involvement decisions (Clancey 1985; Gigerenzer, Hertwig and Pachur 2011; Gilovich, Griffin and Kahneman 2002). Petty and Cacioppo (1984) espoused that holistic impressions lead to spontaneous evaluations about objects without the need for more complex processing.

Country image in marketing

Country image was introduced to marketing studies to examine products (e.g. Lee and Lockshin 2012) and brands (e.g. Chien, Cornwell and Pappu 2012). Product country image studies have proposed a number of definitions for country image. These definitions differ in terms of the scope which country image encompasses that include: (1) specific product country image; (2) aggregate product country image; and (3) overall country image (Hsieh, Pan and Setiono 2004).

Specific product country image refers to a consumer's overall perception of specific product categories from a particular country (Roth and Romeo 1992). For instance, Erickson, Johansson and Chao (1984) examined American MBA students for their beliefs and attitude toward specific automobiles. The authors noted that automobiles made in Japan and Germany evoked strong positive beliefs and attitude toward product quality. Aggregate product country image refers to a consumer's overall perception of products from a particular country regardless of its product category (Hsieh, Pan and Setiono 2004). For instance, Laroche et al. (2005) reported that products from developed countries such as Germany and Japan are generally perceived by consumers in developing countries as having superior quality. Overall country image refers to a generalised set of beliefs that consumers have about a particular country (Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia-Salmones 2016; Martin and Eroglu 1993). For instance, Elliot and Papadopoulos (2016) examined consumer beliefs about a country for its effects on products and travel destinations. The authors concluded that overall country image shapes evaluation of product attributes which, in turn, influences the decision to visit a destination. These generalised beliefs about a country serve as knowledge structures upon which consumers base their evaluation of products (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Jaffe and Nebenzahl 2001).

It is commonly acknowledged that country image refers to descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs about a particular country (Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009; Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar and Diamantopoulos 2015). Such beliefs encompasses both the character and competencies of the country in general as well as the locals that reside there (Bannister and Saunders 1978; Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009; Roth, Zabkar and Diamantopoulos 2015). These include the country's political, cultural, economic, technological and legal characteristics and competencies (Nadeau et al. 2008;

Papadopoulos 2004) as well as the characteristics and competencies of its people (Nadeau et al. 2008; Papadopoulos 2004; Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009)

Country image is construed to possess cognitive and affective components (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Beerli and Martin 2004; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Papadopoulos 2004; Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009). The cognitive component comprises beliefs about a country's industrial development and technological advancement (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2000). A country's economic competencies (e.g. workers' skill level, technological advancement and stability of economy) and the performance of its people (e.g. work ethic, industriousness and education level) are identified as elements of the cognitive dimension of country image (Elliot and Papadopoulos 2016; Papadopoulos 2004). The affective component refers to feelings about a country's stance toward social and environmental development (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011). A country's policies (e.g. quality of life, rights and freedoms and environmental controls) and people (e.g. likeable, friendly and helpful) are identified as elements of the affective dimension of country image (Nadeau et al 2008).

In product marketing, a consumer's image of a country serves as a bias or stereotype in the absence of complete information about a product (Han 1989). The author proposed two alternative theories that explain the role of country image in product evaluation. First, country image may serve as a halo effect when consumers are unable to detect a product's true quality (Han 1989; Han 1990). Shapiro (1982) noted that the sheer variety of products with differing levels of complexities make it impossible for a fully informed evaluation to be made. As such, analogous to the role of price in

perception of quality, consumers rely on country image as a surrogate indicator of quality when specific product information is lacking.

The halo effect of country image appears to be more prominent in consumers who are unfamiliar with products of a specific country (Han 1989; Huber and McCann 1982). Consumers often draw upon country image as an extrinsic and intangible cue (Lee and Lockshin 2012) to form product judgements when there is insufficient information about a product (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011). Thus, country image impacts on consumer evaluation of a product's quality, risk, outcomes and the likelihood of purchase (Liefeld 1993). Further, Papadopoulos (2005) suggested that the strength of country image effects is dependent on factors such as the product category, demographics, prior knowledge and familiarity with the product.

Second, country image may serve as a summary construct in which consumers base their product judgements on past encounters with other products with the same country-of-origin (Jacoby, Szybillo and Busato-Schach 1977). This effect appears to be more significant in consumers who are familiar or have had past experiences with products from a particular country (Han 1989; Shapiro 1982). Drawing on Miller (1956) and Simon (1974), Han (1989, p. 223) proposed that consumers "recode and abstract individual elements of information into higher order units or chunks." Summarising information into manageable chunks benefits consumers due to the ease in which these smaller amounts of information are stored and retrieved. To illustrate, a consumer will use their past experience with the Korean car brand, Hyundai to construct information about Korea and Korean brands. Thus, other Korean car brands such as Kia are perceived to be of similar quality.

Country image in tourism

Although country image has generally been examined in the context of products, studies have begun to emerge which examine country image in the context of travel destinations (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Nadeau et al. 2008). Extending from product country image studies, travel destination image is conceptualised as an attitudinal construct which consists of cognitive beliefs, feelings and global impressions about a destination (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). Research in travel destination image has observed the effects destination image has on tourist behaviours (Nadeau et al. 2008). Clearly, destination image influences the decision to visit (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Pike and Ryan 2005; Tapachai and Waryszak 2000). However, issues arise when considering the scope for the notion of a 'destination.' Previous studies define the destination as a city (e.g. Giraldi and Cesareo 2014; Oppermann 1996; Sahin and Baloglu 2011), region (e.g. Ahmed 1991; Bruwer and Lesschaeve 2012; Chen, Chen and Okumus 2013; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Hunter 2013) or country (e.g. Chon 1991; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Prayag and Ryan 2012; Tseng et al. 2015).

In travel destination image research, three key components of destination image are identified (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Foster and Jones 2000; Kim and Yoon 2003).

These components include:

1. The cognitive component refers to specific beliefs about the landscape or destination elements. This may include the entertainment, accommodation, tourism sites and transport (Gallarza et al. 2002).

2. The affective component refers to emotional appraisals of the destination. For instance, a tourist may evaluate a destination as exciting, friendly, arousing and relaxing (Trauer and Ryan 2005; Baloglu and McCleary 1999).
3. The conative component refers to behavioural intention toward the destination. This may include intention to visit the destination (Foster and Jones 2000) and intention to recommend or convey positive word-of-mouth about the destination (Chon 1991).

Similar to product country image studies, tourist knowledge and familiarity also influence perception of destination image. This may be explained by two theories. On the one hand, Beerli and Martin (2004) reported that experience with vacation travel in general positively affects cognitive and affective destination image amongst repeat tourists. This suggested that frequent travellers use destination image as a halo to inform future travel destination evaluation. On the other hand, Pearce (1982) examined tourists to a Greek tourist destination and observed that they use knowledge gained from their visit to develop images about other similar Greek destinations. Likewise, Elliot and Papadopoulos (2016) proposed that travel experience in a country may result in the formation or modification of destination perception as image shifts from a mere stereotype to an experienced-based belief. This suggests a summary construct approach to destination image. In short, for tourists with lower familiarity with a destination, country image serves as a halo effect in their evaluation of the destination. Conversely, for tourists with higher familiarity, country image acts as a summary construct in their evaluation of the destination.

Traditionally, product country image and travel destination image have been examined independently of each other (e.g. Hunt 1975; Pearce 1982; Woodside and Lyonski

1989). However, contemporary studies have begun to explore a potential relationship between the two constructs (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005; Zhou, Murray and Zhang 2002). In fact, Nadeau et al. (2008 p. 91) highlighted that in tourism, the product construct can be defined as the “destination experience itself.” Thus, it can be argued that tourist perception of the destination is also subject to the effect of country image.

Moreover, Kim and Yoon (2003) proposed that a second-order overall country image factor is also influenced by both affective and cognitive components. While this proposal supports the traditional affective-cognitive approach to destination image, it also suggests that destination image encompasses images about a destination, its people and the country as a whole. This has led to a number of recent studies that have called for the consolidation of product country image and tourism destination image research into an integrative model of place image (Elliot and Papadopoulos 2016; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011). The integrative model of place image posits that country image influences perceptions of both products and travel destinations simultaneously. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim’s (2011) study allowed for a more integrative approach to place branding using the appeal of a country’s products and destinations to entice consumers. The authors concluded that cognitive image has a greater effect on product evaluation while affective image has a greater effect on behavioural intention.

Similarly, Lee and Lockshin (2012) employed the integrative approach when they observed that country image influences product evaluation which, in turn, influences destination evaluation. However, conclusions from their study were contrary to conventional country image studies which suggested that destination image (generally

conceptualised as country image) directly influences product evaluation. Interestingly, Lee and Lockshins's (2012) reverse country-of-origin effect highlighted that higher familiarity with a country's product positively influences desire to visit the country as a travel destination. Thus, from the integrative approach, product country image may be used as a summary construct to inform evaluation about a destination.

Issues with country image specification in structural models

The specification of country image in structural equation modelling (SEM) has been highlighted by marketing researchers. Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) espoused that an appropriate specification for country image in a structural model is dependent on the nature of the measures and the study's objectives. Further, Diamantopoulos and Papadopoulos (2010) drew attention to the importance of appropriate specification for country image due to its importance in marketing research and frequent use in SEM methodology. The authors cited Han's (1989) halo effect and summary construct effects of country image as a crucial determinant on the type of specification for the construct.

Generally, country image is specified as a reflective construct (e.g. Han 1989; Hsieh, Pan and Setiono 2004; Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Nadeau et al. 2008; Papadopoulos 2005; Pereira, Hsu and Kundu 2005). This reflective specification is justified by the nature of the items used in the scale (Coltman et al. 2008; Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009). Such a specification suggests that changes in the latent construct causally flow to its indicators (Coltman et al. 2008). This requires that the indicators for the dimension be 'reflective' of the essence of the latent construct. For instance, Nadeau et al. (2008) identified four key dimensions of country image, namely, country character, people character, country competence and people competence which are

specified as discrete and reflective dimensions of the construct. To illustrate, the country character dimension used scale items such as ‘*world politics*,’ ‘*environmental controls*’ and ‘*rights/freedoms*’ which reflect the overall characteristics of the country. In this instance, a reflective specification for the country image construct is deemed to be appropriate.

However, Curtis and Jackson (1962) argued that, in specific cases, measures may demonstrate negative or zero correlations despite capturing the same construct. Further, MacCallum and Browne (1993, p. 361) suggested that “in many cases, indicators should be seen as causing rather than being caused by the latent variable measured by the indicators.” In fact, Roth and Dimantopoulos (2009, p. 736) critiqued Martin and Eroglu’s (1993) reflective specification for country image’s political dimension which identified indicators such as ‘*democratic system*,’ ‘*capitalist system*,’ ‘*civilian system*’ and ‘*free market*.’ Roth and Dimantopoulos (2009, p. 736) have argued that a “system that is democratic need not necessarily be also a free market” and instead, proposed that a formative specification would be more appropriate. In this instance, these indicators are not reflective indicator of the latent construct; rather, they serve as causal and formative indicators for the overall dimension of political country image.

Clearly, the choice of measurement model specification is highly dependent on a study’s research objectives (Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009). The authors espoused that if the focus of the study is to identify the major antecedents of a particular outcome variable (e.g. attitude toward a destination), a set of interrelated dimensions (e.g. country image dimensions) would be more informative and reflective as the dimensions could be positively, negatively or not correlated at all with the focal

outcome variable. Recently, Halkias, Davvetas and Diamantopoulos (2016) examined the effect of country image on brand attitude. The authors noted that while one dimension of country image, namely, competence, positively and significantly impacted on brand attitude, the second dimension, namely, warmth, did not. This detail in the results would not have been possible with a formative specification. Similarly, other marketing and tourism studies have benefited from the detail allowed by reflective specification of the country image construct (e.g. Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Nadeau et al. 2008; Nadeau and Olafsen 2015; Papadopoulos 2005; Pereira, Hsu and Kundu 2005).

The underlying reason for the varying relationships between indicators and the latent construct can be explained by the halo effect when consumers evaluate a country's products, warranting the use of a reflective specification. The halo effect suggests that consumers use country image in inferring the quality of unknown products due to a lack of consumer knowledge (Han 1989). From this perspective, country image attributes are a result of an overall impression that consumers have formed about a country (Dimantopoulos and Papadopoulos 2010). As such, each country image indicator serves as an effect indicator for an underlying latent variable and a shift in the construct leads to a shift in the indicators (Bollen and Ting 2000). The halo effect's reflective specification of country image has been utilised in numerous studies on country image (e.g. Ahmed et al. 2004; Halkias, Davvetas and Diamantopoulos 2016; Han 1989; Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Lampert and Jaffe 1998).

Conversely, if a study's research objective is to identify the major dimensions that make up a construct such as country beliefs, a multidimensional formative construct would be appropriate (Roth and Dimantopoulos 2009). For instance, Knight and

Calatone (2000) conducted a study which examined the effect of beliefs about a country in the formation of country image. The authors (2009, p. 129) proposed that country image serves as a summary cue which is used to “encapsulate other product information in a way that reduces cognitive effort.” As such, various beliefs about a country ‘form’ the overall country image construct, justifying a formative specification rather than a reflective specification.

The formative specification is explained by the summary construct which suggests that consumers use beliefs about products that they have previously consumed to form an overall image about a country (Han 1989; Knight and Calantone 2000). Subsequently, the country image construct serves as a summary of beliefs which are then used to generalise onto other products from the same country (Roth and Dimantopoulos 2009). For instance, Baldauf et al. (2009) observed experienced Austrian managers at retail tile stores and reported that their beliefs about Italy’s tiles shape their country image, which in turn, influences their beliefs about other tile brands from Italy. Given the relatively high experience these managers have with products from Italy, the formative specification is deemed appropriate.

2.4. Relevant literature on attitude

Attitude originates from studies in psychology and is defined as a psychological tendency that results from the evaluation of a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (Eagly and Chaiken 2007). The construct refers to the overall evaluation of people, places, things or events. Attitude is a multidimensional construct that comprises affective (feeling), cognitive (belief) and conative (behavioural) components (Stedman 2002).

Attitude has been extensively researched in psychology, specifically in the field of social psychology (e.g. Allport 1935; Katz and Stotland 1959; Kleine, Kleine and Brunswick 2009; Ryan 1992). Bohner and Dickel's (2011) meta-analysis of attitude research highlighted three primary views on the construct, namely, the stable-entity, intermediate and constructionist views. The authors suggested that these views exist on a continuum with the stable-entity and constructionist views occupying opposing ends of the spectrum, and the intermediate between them.

On one end of the continuum, the stable-entity view construes attitude as a component of long-term memory structures (Shook, Fazio and Eiser 2007; Petty, Briñol and Demarree 2007; Visser and Mirabile 2004). Fazio (2007, p. 603) defined attitude as "object-evaluation associations in memory." The author proposed that attitude, represented in the memory's associative networks, is "capable of automatic activation upon presentation of the attitude object" (Fazio 2007, p. 609). Similarly, Petty, Briñol and DaMarree (2007) introduced the meta-cognitive model of attitude (MCM) which asserts that attitude objects are linked in the memory to a number of global evaluative associations. While Shook, Fazio and Eiser's (2007) conceptualisation of attitude suggests that only one evaluative memory association (either positive or negative) can

exist within an individual's associative network, the MCM model's conceptualisation argues that there are numerous evaluative memory associations which vary in strength.

On the other end of the continuum, the constructionist view construes attitude as evaluative judgements constructed based on currently accessible information (Bohner and Dickel 2011). From this perspective, attitude is dynamic and is constantly updated according to the current situation (Gawronski and Bodenhausen 2007; Schwarz 2007). Conrey and Smith (2007, p. 718) posited that attitudes are "time-dependent states of the system rather than static 'things' stored in memory." The authors touted the notion of context-specificity and argued that an individual constantly reconstructs their attitude in differing situations.

Then, there is the intermediate view on attitudes (Cunningham et al. 2007; Eagly and Chaiken 2007) that presents an "umbrella definition" of the construct (Bohner and Dickel 2011, p. 393). Cunningham et al.'s (2007, p. 736) iterative reprocessing model defined attitude as "current evaluations that are constructed from relatively stable attitude representations." The authors espoused that the evaluative process "generates evaluations by integrating activated pre-existing attitudes with additional information about the stimulus, context and goal states" (Cunningham et al. 2007, p. 738). This view of attitude, also known as the deliberative model of attitude (Argyriou and Melewar 2011) integrates both the stable-entity view and the constructionist view.

One commonality for the various views on attitude is the notion that attitude is formed based on an individual's beliefs about a particular object (e.g. Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Fishbein and Middlestadt 1995, 1997). Argyriou and Melewar's (2011, p. 440) meta-analysis of attitude literature observed that "attitudes are formed based on salient beliefs about an object's attributes and the categorisation of these beliefs on an

affective continuum.” This recurring consensus of the importance of beliefs in the formation of attitude can be explained by the multi-attribute theory of attitude.

The multi-attribute theory of attitude was first introduced in social psychology literature in the early 1930s as a means of explaining human personality and purposive behaviour (Lewin 1935; Tolman 1932). These early models of attitude were rooted in theories of instrumentality and expectance in order to predict and understand an individual’s attitude and behaviour directly from cognitive structure (Mazis, Aholta and Klippel 1975). Since then, a number of iterations of Lewin’s (1935, 1944) and Tolman’s (1932) theories have been published (e.g. Edwards 1954; Rotter 1954). However, two of the most prominent multi-attribute models are Rosenberg’s (1956) and Fishbein’s (1963) expectancy-value models.

The expectancy-value approach has been used by psychologists to isolate the determinants of motivated behaviour (Mazis, Aholta and Klippel 1975). This theory propounds that a tendency to perform a particular behaviour is based on an attitudinal evaluation of the expected outcomes of performing the behaviour (Fishbein 1967; Flake et al. 2015; Rosenberg 1956). Further, Fishbein (1967, p. 395) proposed that “attitude toward an object is a function of his beliefs about the object and the evaluative aspects of those beliefs.” Here, the importance of expectations and value are used to explain attitude toward behaviour (e.g. Abraham and Barker 2014; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Chrisman 1976; Fishbein 1963; Henning, Hennig-Thurau and Feiereisen 2012; Simpkins, Fredricks and Eccles 2012) as well as toward objects and people (e.g. Jorgensen and Steadman 2001; McConnell and Leibold 2001; Rosenberg 1967).

Attitude in marketing

In marketing studies, attitude plays a critical role in consumer behaviour because attitude motivates people to behave in predictive ways (Babin and Haris 2012). In product marketing, attitude is defined as an enduring belief and predisposition toward a given brand or product (Hosany and Gilbert 2010). When a product delivers value, positive attitude is formed (Ajzen 2001; Babin and Haris 2012; Hosany and Gilbert 2010). For instance, Henning, Hennig-Thurau and Feiereisen (2012) examined German students for their attitude toward DVDs and calculators and reported that the expectancy-value (product beliefs) of bonus material (for DVDs) and the number of features (for calculators) impact on consumer attitude. Their study also noted that the formation of attitude for hedonic products with high entertainment value such as DVDs is driven by emotional antecedents rather than rational ones.

In line with expectancy-value theory, the benefits associated with consuming a product are expected to produce more favourable attitude toward the product (Han and Shavitt 1994) and in turn, lead to behavioural intention (Hosany and Gilbert 2010). For instance, Ilicic and Webster (2011) surveyed Australian business undergraduates for their attitude toward products such as cameras, milk and water. The authors concluded that positive attitude resulting from celebrity endorsement of a product positively impacts on purchase intention. This is attributed to the benefits associated with the product's functional uses coupled with the shared equity lent by the celebrity which increased the desirability of the product.

Extending beyond the traditional belief-attitude relationship, Lee, Ha and Widdows (2011) argued that attitude formation is influenced by extrinsic cues such as visual attractiveness and prototypicality as well as motivation such as desire for self-

expression. The authors examined Midwestern university students in the USA for their perception of technology products and reported that product beliefs, visual appeal and the self-expressive nature of the technology products positively impact on attitude toward the products.

Whilst conventional theories have proposed that product beliefs directly impact on attitude toward the product (e.g. Fishbein 1963; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Rosenberg 1956), more contemporary views have suggested that this may not be the only way of viewing the relationship (e.g. Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2011; Diwan and Bodla 2011; Erickson, Johansson and Chao 1984; Khalid, Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Zajonc 1980). In fact, it has been suggested that country-of-origin beliefs of a product simultaneously impact on attitude toward the product (e.g. Beckwith and Lehmann 1975; Gruber, Schlegelmilch and Houston 2014; Holbrook 1983; Huber and McCann 1982; Kabadayi and Lerman 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Magnusson et al. 2014). For instance, Godey et al. (2012) have interviewed consumers from China, France, India, Italy, Japan, Russia and the USA for their attitude toward luxury products in general. Their study revealed that country-of-origin perception of a luxury product plays a significant role in the formation of attitude toward it. Interestingly, the authors reported that in countries such as China, India and Russia where the luxury product market is relatively new, consumers attach particular importance to country-of-origin. Thus, “the image variable could have a direct influence on attitude” (Erickson, Johansson and Chao 1984, p. 695).

Attitude toward a product is suggested to be altered by the degree of consumer involvement when evaluating the product (e.g. Atkinson and Rosenthal 2014; Petty and Cacioppo 1984; Trampe et al. 2010; Waller and Lea 1999). Involvement in a

specific product category is seen to have considerable influence over consumer perception and attitude toward products (Bruwer and Buller 2013; Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Lesschaeve and Bruwer 2010). Consumers with differing levels of product involvement are likely to perceive and behave differently toward products (Barber, Dodd and Ghiselli 2008; Bei and Widdows 1999; Lockshin and Hall 2003). Thus, highly-involved consumers who find increased personal relevance in specific product categories acquire greater product knowledge which they utilise in evaluating products (Barber, Dodd and Ghiselli. 2008). These discerning consumers are often better equipped at identifying high value products (Caruna, Ewing and Ramaseshan 2015; Hong 2014) and appreciating the value of these products (Bruwer and Buller 2013). This prompted Atkinson and Rosenthal (2014, p. 36) to observed that product involvement “reflect(s) a degree of personal relevance, such that more relevant products draw consumers’ attention and yield more motivational processing.”

Attitude in tourism

Tourism studies have examined the role of attitude in the context of the travel destination. Lee (2009, pg. 218) defined attitude toward a destination as “psychological tendencies expressed by the positive or negative evaluations of tourists when engaged in certain behaviours.” However, no commonly accepted definition exists although attitude has been defined by tourism scholars in terms of evaluations (e.g. Lee 2009), affect (e.g. Baloglu and Brinberg 1997), cognition (e.g. Baloglu 1998) and behavioural predispositions (e.g. Moutinho 1987) toward a travel destination. These varying conceptualisations prompted Steadman (2002) to suggest that attitude has multidimensional properties that include feelings and beliefs about a destination which predisposes action toward it.

In line with Steadman's (2002) conceptualisation of attitude as a multidimensional construct, Vincent and Thompson (2002) identified three components in attitude toward the destination. These components are:

1. Cognitive or beliefs about a travel destination used in the formation of attitude toward the destination.
2. Affective or psychological expression of preference for a travel destination.
3. Behavioural or verbal indication of the intention to visit or actual visitation to a travel destination.

Many tourism studies have examined the impact destination belief has on attitude toward the destination (e.g. Baloglu 2001; Beerli and Martin 2004; Kim and Richardson 2003; del Bosque and Martin 2008). Thus, various beliefs a tourist holds about a destination come together to form a composite destination image which, in turn, influences their attitude. For instance, Jalilvand et al. (2012) examined visitors at various tourist sites in Iran and noted that cognitive attributes of the destination such as its beautiful scenery, natural attractions and climate directly impact on attitude toward the destination. Similarly, Hsu, Tsai and Wu (2009) explored tourists' image of Taiwan as a tourist destination and concluded that beliefs such as transportation, quality and variety of food, accommodation, price, culture and historical resources contribute to the formation of tourist attitude toward the destination.

Attitude predicts intention to visit since attitude determines if the potential destination is included in the evoked set when selecting the final destination (Um and Crompton 1990; Quintal, Phau and Polczynski 2014). The evoked set is defined as a selection of destinations which the tourist considers as acceptable for the visit (Decrop 2010). For instance, Usakli and Baloglu (2011) observed international visitors to Las Vegas and

reported that favourable attitude toward various attractions such as casinos, shows and entertainment venues place Las Vegas in the evoked set for intention to revisit and recommend to others.

However, a destination's inclusion in a tourist's evoked set may not necessarily lead to actual visitation (Decrop 2010). The author cautioned that while a tourist may have a positive predisposition toward a destination in the evoked set, external factors such as social pressure, perceived risk and situational constraints may lead to a decision to reject the destination. This position is corroborated by past research (e.g. Sönmez and Graefe 1988; Quintal, Lee and Soutar 2010). In particular, Um and Crompton (1992, p. 18) argued that "the recreation site finally chosen represents a decision maker's set of preferences for site attributes constrained by situational factors." In making this observation, the authors distinguished between the outcomes of two sets of attributes. The first set are beliefs about a destination's attributes which satisfy a tourist's specific motives and act as facilitators in choosing the destination. The second set are attributes which are not congruent with a tourist's motives and act as inhibitors in rejecting the destination.

In order to overcome this, destination marketers have reported targeting tourists with product involvement as this segment is likely to downplay factors such as social pressure and perceived risk (Bentley, Page and Laird 2000; Famularo, Bruwer and Li 2010; Lin, Pearson and Cai 2011). By fixating on specific products that they are passionate about, tourists with higher involvement often take more risks compared to tourists with lower involvement (Dholakia 2001; Hall 2003). For instance, Fuchs (2013) examined Israeli students who backpacked around the world. The author noted that students with higher involvement in sensation-seeking activities report lower

perceived physical and social risk and are more likely to visit exotic and even dangerous travel destinations.

Kim, Eves and Scarles (2012) studied British tourists in South Korea, Spain and the United Kingdom in the context of food tourism. The authors noted that tourists who report higher food involvement are adventurous in trying the local cuisine and are more likely to evaluate authentic food more favourably. Henderson's (2009) food tourism study also observed that modern culinary-minded tourists are curious and more adventurous in what they consume and where they consume it. In fact, Hall (2003) profiled the food tourists as novelty-seeking and more likely to participate in risk-taking behaviours. Driven by neophilia, food tourists often demonstrate more favourable attitude toward destinations that offer new and exotic food offerings.

2.5. Relevant literature on behavioural intention

Behavioural intention originates from studies psychology and refers to an “individual’s readiness to perform a given behaviour” (Westaby 2005, pg. 97). In social psychology, one of the most prominent theories for predicting and understanding behaviour is the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Norman, Connor and Bell 2000). This theory was introduced by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and suggests that the “formation of a behavioural intention is the immediate antecedent of action and mediates the influence of other variables on behaviour” (Sheeran and Taylor 1999, p. 1627). Fishbein and Ajzen defined intention in the TRA as a “person’s location on a subjective probability dimension involving a relation between himself and some action” (1975, p. 288). The authors postulated that behavioural intention is predicted by two determinants:

1. Attitude toward the behaviour refers to the evaluation of the relative advantages and disadvantages of performing a behaviour.
2. Subjective norms refers to the perception of social pressure to perform a behaviour.

Subsequently, Ajzen and Madden (1986) revised the TRA by including perceived behavioural control to the TRA to account for situations in which the behaviour may not be within the individual’s ability. Perceived behavioural control refers to perception of the ease or difficulty of performing a behaviour (Sheeran and Taylor 1999). The revised model, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), suggests that PBC can “affect behavioural intentions over and above the effects of attitudes and subjective norms” (Sheeran and Taylor 1999, p. 1629). Over the years, a number of studies have confirmed the efficacy of the TPB as an effective predictor of behavioural intention

(e.g. Armitage and Conner 2001; Cooke et al. 2016; Perugini and Bagozzi 2000; Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015).

Further, while the TRA and TPB assume that behavioural intention is based on attitude and subjective norms, several studies have indicated that past behaviour is also a reliable predictor of future intention, even after the effects of attitudes and subjective norms have been controlled (e.g. Bagozzi and Kimmel 1995; Ouellette and Wood 1998; Norman, Connor and Bell 2000). For instance, Sheeran and Taylor (1999) surveyed individuals from the USA, UK, Germany, Belgium, Norway, Canada and Australia for their intention to use condoms. Their study observed that past behaviour in using the contraceptive significantly increases future intention to use them. These findings corroborate Ajzen's (1996) study which examined patients at a health promotion clinic for their intention to exercise. The author suggested that intention to exercise increased from 30 percent to 83.8 percent when past behaviour is taken into account. This prompted Sheeran and Taylor (1999) to propose that past behaviour leads to more stable cognition which, in turn, results in more accurate prediction of future intention.

Behavioural intention is generally acknowledged as a relatively reliable predictor of actual behaviour (Ajzen 1981; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Webb and Sheeran 2006; Westaby 2005). The underlying psychological assumption underpinning the relationship between behavioural intention and actual behaviour is that most human behaviour is under volitional control (Ryan 1970). Intention is suggested to mediate the effect of other cognitive, affective and contextual variables for the prediction of actual behaviour in various behavioural intention models (e.g. TRA and TPB). Thus, the effect of such variables on behaviour is presumed to be "funnelled through

intentions, which directly drive behaviour” (Westaby 2005, p. 99). For instance, Sniehotta, Scholz and Schwarzer (2005) studied heart disease patients for their intention to participate in physical exercise and concluded that patients who prepare detailed plans for physical activity are more likely to take part in actual physical activities.

While intention is postulated to be the immediate antecedent of actual behaviour, not all intentions are carried out (Ajzen 1985; Kim and Hunter 1993). In fact, some researchers have argued that actual behaviour does not necessarily occur as a result of behavioural intention (e.g. Armitage and Conner 2001; Gollwitzer and Brandstätter 1997; Vallacher and Wegner 1987). Instead, it has been suggested that additional planning or implementation intent enhances the predictability of actual behaviour (Armitage 2016; Gollwitzer 1993; Gollwitzer and Brandstätter 1997; Hagger and Luszczynska 2014). Armitage (2016) investigated consumers in North England for their intention to quit smoking. The authors observed that consumers who report more detailed implementation intentions are more likely to resist the temptation to smoke. Their study concluded that implementation intention acts as a self-regulatory tool for overcoming typical obstacles related to the initiation of goal-directed behaviour.

Behavioural intention in marketing

Behavioural intention toward a product has been examined in marketing studies to explain consumer decision-making (e.g. Moutinho 1987; Zarantonello and Schmitt 2010). Behavioural intention toward a product refers to the degree to which a consumer has formulated conscious plans to act in a certain way toward the product (Warshaw and Davis 1985). The construct is viewed as a surrogate indicator of actual behaviour (Chang and Wildt 1994; Jang and Young 2009) and is often operationalised as

intention to purchase, repurchase and recommend the product (Jang and Namkung 2009; Warshaw and Davis 1985). In marketing research, behavioural intention has been explored in the context of products (e.g. Ilicic and Webster 2011; Jang and Namkung 2009; Yadav, Dokania and Pathak 2016), services (e.g. Jang and Namkung 2009; Levitt 1981; Tsaur, Luoh and Syue 2015) and brands (e.g. Bhat and Reddy 1998; Escalas and Bettman 2003; Nia and Zaichkowsky 2000; Xie, Batra and Peng 2015).

Consumer purchase intention toward a brand stems from two key areas of marketing literature, namely, the symbolic and psychological benefits of brands (e.g. Escalas and Bettman 2003; Fournier 1998; Supphellen and Gronhaug 2003; Xie, Batra and Peng 2015) as well as the functional benefits of brands (e.g. Bian and Moutinho 2015; Bhat and Reddy 1998; Helm and Özergin 2015). Symbolic and psychological benefits are explained by brand resonance which refers to the extent to which customers feel connected with or have a relationship with a brand that impacts positively on purchase intention (Huang, Lee and Kim 2015; Keller 2009). To illustrate, symbolic and psychological benefits such as high brand credibility, luxury status and positive reputation are reported to significantly increase choice probabilities (Nia and Zaichkowsky 2000; Phau and Prendergast 2000; Shukla, Banerjee and Singh 2016). Functional benefits refer to utilitarian features which solve practical consumption problems that impact positively on purchase intention of a brand's products (Bhat and Reddy 1998). To illustrate, functional benefits such as ease of use and ergonomics that are offered exclusively by a brand help satisfy consumers for products with relatively low risk and price (Elliott and Yannopoulou 2007; Park, Jaworski and MacInnis 1986; Xie, Batra and Peng 2015).

Consumer beliefs about a product's attributes are suggested to influence their purchase intention toward it (Ilicic and Webster 2011; Jang and Namkung 2009). A product which consumers perceive to have more favourable attributes will lead to higher purchase intention (Eggert and Ulaga 2002; Lam et al. 2013; Petrick and Backman 2002; Zeithaml 1988). For instance, Lam et al. (2013) examined Spanish consumers for their perception the newly launched iPhone. The authors reported that both the functional and symbolic attributes of the iPhone's positive attributes such as quality and innovativeness positively impact on consumers' purchase intention.

It is widely acknowledged that consumers who demonstrate favourable attitude toward a product have higher behavioural intention toward it (Ilicic and Webster 2011; Kempf 1999; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). For instance, Ilicic and Webster (2011) studied Australian business undergraduates for their attitude toward products such as cameras, milk and water and concluded that favourable attitude resulting from celebrity endorsement of a product positively influences their purchase intention. Similarly, Abd Rahman, Asrarhaghighi and Rahman (2015) surveyed Muslim Malaysian consumers and reported that their religious beliefs about halal products elicit more favourable attitude toward halal products which, in turn, affect higher purchase intention toward the products.

Past experience has been argued to be a predictor of purchase intention. Experience with a product produces familiarity which reduces the risk associated with the product and increases purchase intention toward it (Das 2015; Laroche, Kim and Zhou 1996; Vadhanavisala 2015). For instance, Das (2015) surveyed consumers in Kolkatta, India for their intention to purchase fashion products. The authors reported that Indian

consumers are more likely to purchase products that they have previously consumed over new and novel products.

In services marketing studies, behavioural intention has been explored from the perspective of tangible and intangible features of a service (Jang and Namkung 2009; Levitt 1981). Consumer attitude toward attributes such as product features, physical environments and service aspects are likely to positively relate to behavioural intention (Wakefield and Blodgett 2016). It has also been suggested that the tangible and physical aspect of the service environment provides extrinsic cues which inform the decision to purchase the service (Sweeney et al. 2016; Levitt 1981; Wakefield and Blodgett 1996). For instance, Jang and Namkung (2009) surveyed mid-western university students in the USA for their perception of full service restaurants. The authors concluded that food quality and atmospherics (e.g. restaurant layout, interior design, colours and lighting) positively affect behavioural intention. The intangible aspect of service quality or the evaluation of the interaction between a customer and service provider (Jang and Namkung 2009) has also been widely acknowledged as a strong predictor of intention to purchase a service (e.g. Brady and Robertson 2001; Kaura, Durga Prasad and Sharma 2015; Kivela, Inbakaran and Reece 1999; Nikolich and Sparks 1995; Raajpoot 2002). For instance, Kaura, Durga Prasad and Sharma (2015) examined patrons of Indian banks for their perception of service quality. Their study revealed that that the helpfulness, courteousness and provision of individualised attention by bank employees motivate future patronage of the bank.

Behavioural intention in tourism

Tourism studies have examined behavioural intention in the context of travel destinations (e.g. Bajaj 2015; Chan, Hsu and Baum 2015; Horng et al. 2012; Konečnik

and Gartner 2007; Lewis and Chambers 1989). Behavioural intention toward the destination refers to a behavioural predisposition toward a particular destination both before and after visitation (Williams and Soutar 2009). Such a predisposition is operationalised as intention to visit and revisit (e.g. Assaker and Hallak 2013; Lee, Quintal and Phau 2016; Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015) as well as recommend the destination to others (e.g. Assaker and Hallak, 2013; Kim, Kim and Kim 2009; Lee, Quintal and Phau 2016; Um, Chon and Ro 2006).

Tourist perception of the relative value of various travel destination attributes are crucial elements in the development of visit and revisit intention (Konečnik and Gartner 2007; Lee, Quintal and Phau 2016; Lewis and Chambers 1989). For instance, Horng et al. (2012) studied tourists in Taiwan for their intention to participate in culinary tourism. The authors observed that tourists' perceived value of destination attributes such as food, shopping, sights and nightlife had a direct effect on tourist behavioural intention toward the destination.

Further, past research has established the influence of tourist attitude has on behavioural intention (e.g. Horng et al. 2012; Williams and Soutar 2009; Quintal, Lee and Soutar 2010; Wang and Ritchie 2012). External behaviours have been found to be motivated by internal intentions which underlie attitude (Ajzen 1991 and Lee 2009). Thus, more favorable attitude toward a travel destination leads to stronger behaviour intention toward the destination (Ajzen 2001). For instance, Quintal, Thomas and Phau (2015) examined 720 wine tourists for their intention to revisit the wineries around Australia. Findings of the study demonstrated that satisfactory service delivery and complementary products contributed to favourable attitude toward the winery which,

in turn, positively and significantly impacts on wine tourist behavioural intention to revisit the winery.

Previous travel experience is also likely to influence tourist behavioural intention toward a travel destination (Horng et al. 2012). Past experience is likely to boost tourist confidence by reducing the amount of perceived risk at the travel destination (Pinhey and Iverson 1994; Sönmez and Graefe 1998). For instance, Floyd et al. (2004) examined American tourists during the period after the September 11 terrorist attacks for their intention to take a pleasure trip. The authors reported that past experience with a destination reduces the amount of risk associated with the destination, increasing intention to travel. Likewise, Yang, Sharif and Khoo-Lattimore (2015) observed that experienced tourists to the east coast of Borneo perceive less risk of terrorist attacks and are more likely to visit the region. Further, the frequency of previous visitations is regarded as a key predictor of revisit intention (e.g. Correia, Zins and Silva 2015; Court and Lupton 1997; Mazursky 1989; Petrick, Morais and Norman 2001; Sönmez and Graefe 1998; Um, Chon and Ro 2006). For instance, Sharifpour, Walters and Ritchie (2013) highlighted that repeat tourists to Saudi Arabia perceive less physical risk and are more likely to revisit the country than first-time tourists.

2.6. Research gaps in literature

A review of the literature identifies six key research gaps exist which support critical need for the current study. First, there is a lack of a consensual definition of authenticity due to diverse conceptual approaches to the construct (Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999) in food and travel destination studies. While the contemporary indexical-iconic approach proposed by Grayson and Martinec (2004) offers potential to bridge the gap between these diverse approaches, more work is required in the area. Indeed, some researchers have attempted to apply Grayson and Martinec's (2004) indexical-iconic approach as a starting point in their studies on authenticity (e.g. Beverland 2006; Grayson and Shulman 2000; Lastovicka and Fernandez 2005). However, they have examined the indexical-iconic approach in isolation and have not integrated existing theory into their conceptualisation. Clearly, it is important to draw from the objectivist and constructivist literature to clarify the indexical and iconic authenticity constructs and develop conceptual definitions which are applicable to food and tourism contexts.

Second, there appears to be a dearth of empirical studies which test and validate a scale for indexical and iconic authenticity. The majority of studies has relied on qualitative methods (e.g. Beverland 2006; Lastovicka and Fernandez 2005). Only a small body of studies has developed quantitative scales and these are specific to the Sherlock Holmes Museum (e.g. Grayson and Martinec 2004), Shakespeare's Birthplace (e.g. Grayson and Martinec 2004), the Lewis and Clarke Corps of Discovery event (Ray et al. 2006) and the Strasbourg Christmas Market (e.g. Castéran and Roederer 2013). There is critical need to develop an authenticity measure which follows rigorous scale development procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2012).

Pertinently, an authenticity scale applying the indexical-iconic approach will need to be developed for its applicability across food contexts.

Third, limited empirical studies exist that concurrently examine both indexical and iconic aspects of food and travel destination authenticity. For instance, Wang (1999) only explored the role of objects in objectivist authenticity by conceptualising object-related authenticity as the authenticity of originals. Cohen (1988) only explored constructivist authenticity by conceptualising it as a socially constructed experience of an object. A notable exception is Kolar and Zabkar's (2010) study that operationalised both object-related and existential authenticity in a heritage tourism context. The lack of an integrated and empirical research has prompted Beverland (2006) and Grayson and Martinec (2004) to call for more studies that test the applicability of the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity with tourism products and destinations. It is evident that an empirical study which operationalises both aspects of authenticity in food and tourism contexts will develop greater understanding in this contemporary research area.

Fourth, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, no empirical studies exist which examine authenticity and country image for their impacts on attitude and behavioural intention. Although food tourism studies have highlighted the importance of food authenticity and country-of-origin (e.g. Everett 2012; Hall and Sharples 2003; Quan and Wang 2004), no studies have examined both constructs concurrently in an empirical model. Current literature merely explores the role country image plays in the formation of product beliefs (e.g. Bannister and Suanders 1978; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2004; Lee and Lockshin 2012). Consequently, an empirical decision-making model which explains the impact authenticity and country image have on attitude and

behavioural intention can extend buying behaviour research to the food and tourism contexts.

Fifth, there are no empirical studies which compare food tourists and general tourists for their perceptions of country image and authenticity in decision-making to the best of this researcher's knowledge. Many studies have focused on either food tourists (e.g. Everett 2012; Hall and Sharples 2003; Quan and Wang 2004) or general tourists (e.g. Bannister and Suanders 1978; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2004; Lee and Lockshin 2012). However, no studies have examined the two groups concurrently for their food orientation. A comparative study of how food tourists and general tourists view country image and its effects on authenticity, attitude and behavioural intention provides opportunity for niche tourism marketing.

Finally, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, no empirical studies exist which investigate the food tourist and the general tourist for their desire for existential authenticity when engaging with food and travel destinations. Current literature has primarily examined existential authenticity as an outcome of an interaction with a touristic object (Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Wang 1999). However, some literature has alluded to the notion of existential authenticity as a driver for consumption of authentic products and travel destinations (e.g. Cohen 1979; Kim and Jamal 2007; MacCannel 1973). An empirical study which examines how tourists' desire for existential authenticity impacts on the decision-making process is clearly required. This offers greater insight into how the desire to connect with different cultures may enhance or inhibit behavioural in the contexts of food and travel destinations.

In addressing the six identified gaps, the following four research objectives are set for the current study:

RO1: To extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations (Addressing Research Gap One).

RO2: To develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale (Addressing Research Gap Two).

RO3: To examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions (Addressing Research Gaps Three and Four).

RO4: To investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on attitudes and behavioural intentions toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions (Addressing Research Gaps Five and Six).

2.7. Chapter summary

This Chapter alluded to philosophy and psychology literature as well as examined marketing and tourism literature to clarify various conceptualisations of authenticity. It presented a literature review which highlighted three conventional approaches to authenticity, namely, objectivist, constructivist and existentialist authenticity. The Chapter also introduced a systematic review which conceptualised the more contemporary notion of indexical and iconic authenticity, bridging the objectivist and constructivist approaches into an integrated perspective of authenticity.

Given the diverse traditional approaches to authenticity and the more recent introduction of indexical and iconic authenticity, there is critical need to develop an authenticity scale applying the indexical-iconic approach. The differential impacts which the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity has on the relationships between country image, attitude and behavioural intention are of paramount interest in the contexts of food and travel destinations. Further, the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the attitude-behavioural intention relationships in the context of marketing and tourism require acute consideration.

In the next Chapter, the research objectives that address the research gaps identified in the literature review are revisited. Then, the research objectives are linked with the hypotheses in the research model and the theories that underpin each hypothesis are outlined.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Introduction

Chapter Two reviewed the key constructs in the current study and theories that underpinned them. This Chapter draws on the literature review introduced in Chapter Two. It identifies specific research objectives and develops a research model with hypotheses related to country image and its impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination. It also investigates the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination. First, research objectives that address research gaps identified in Chapter Two are reiterated. Then, theories outlined in Chapter Two which explain the key constructs are revisited. Next, each research objective and hypothesis in the research model, underpinned by relevant theory, is identified. Finally, hypotheses are outlined in tabular form at the end of this Chapter, providing an overview of the research objectives that are examined.

The research objectives identified in the current study are:

RO1: To extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations.

RO1 was developed to address Research Gap One which identifies a need to extend the current approach to indexical-iconic authenticity within the contexts of food and travel destinations. Specifically, the current study will address this objective by:

- Conducting an extensive literature review and a systematic review of authenticity.
- Verifying findings from the literature review and systematic review through focus groups and expert panels.

Achieving *RO1* will suggest how an approach to indexical-iconic authenticity may be applied to food and travel destinations.

RO2: To develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

RO2 was identified to address Research Gap Two which highlights the lack of an appropriate scale that measures authenticity in marketing and tourism contexts. Specifically, the proposed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale will address this by:

- Giving focus to the food context.
- Identifying dimensions of food authenticity.
- Employing rigorous scale development techniques that generate scale items and validate the scale.

Achieving *RO2* will determine what attributes operationally tap into the authenticity of food. This scale will offer a diagnostic tool that can examine tourist perceptions of food authenticity.

RO3: To examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions.

RO3 was developed to address Research Gaps Three and Four that relate to the limited empirical research on the differential effects country image has on buying behaviour in marketing and tourism contexts. Specifically, the proposed research model will address this objective by:

- Examining how country image impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination.
- Exploring these relationships under four authenticity conditions which comprise a combination of indexical and iconic authentic conditions for the food and travel destination.

Achieving *RO3* will highlight whether country image has differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention under the four authenticity conditions. Further, it will identify which condition of indexical and iconic authenticity is influential in decision-making related to the food and travel destination. Therefore, *RO3* is linked to Hypotheses *H1a-b*, *H2*, *H3a-b* and *H4*.

RO4: To investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on attitudes and behavioural intentions toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions.

RO4 was developed to address Research Gaps Five and Six that outline the dearth of research on the moderating roles of food orientation and desire for existential authenticity in marketing and tourism contexts. Specifically, a categorisation of tourists will address this objective by:

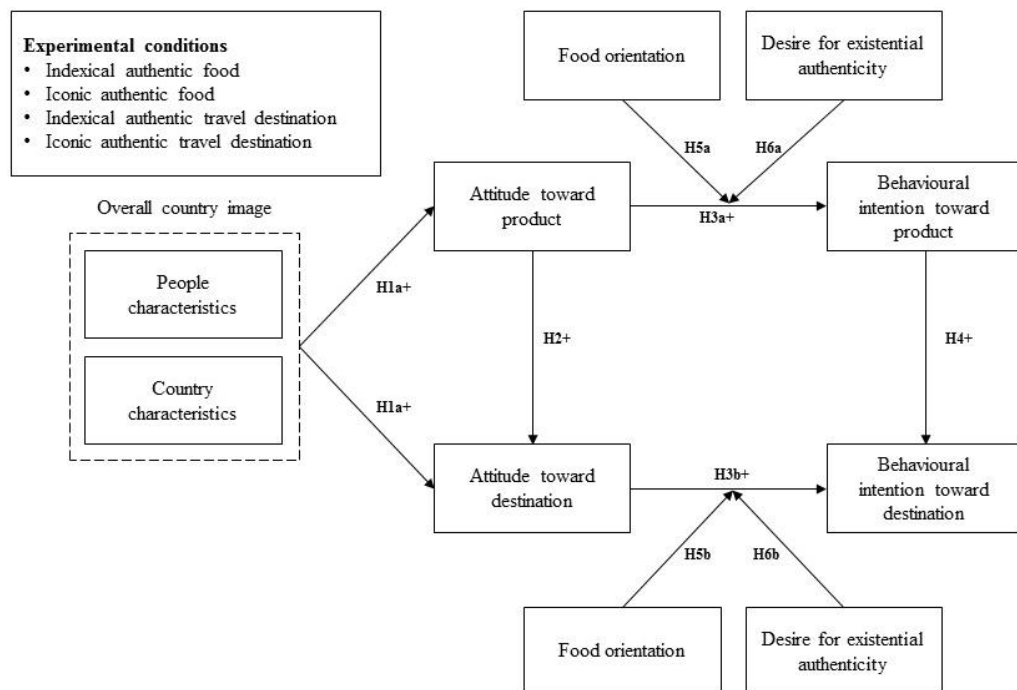
- Targeting tourists with low and high food orientation as well as low and high desire for existential authenticity.
- Examining perceptual differences between these tourist categories in a decision-making model.

Achieving *RO4* will identify differences between distinct categories of tourists. Specifically, this typology will explore food orientation and desire for existential authenticity for their moderating effects on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four authenticity conditions. Therefore, *RO4* is linked to Hypothesis *H5a-b* and *H6a-b*.

3.2. Research model

As was outlined in Chapter Two, six key constructs are relevant to the research model, namely, authenticity, country image, attitude, behavioural intention, food orientation and desire for existential authenticity. In this study, indexical and iconic authenticity serve as the experimental conditions under which the research model is tested. The research model and its hypothesised relationships can be seen in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Research model



Theory that underpins each hypothesised relationship in the research model is outlined in this section. Each theory and hypothesis is considered, first from the marketing perspective (products) and then, from the tourism perspective (travel destinations). The relevant theories are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Summary of theories underpinning hypothesised relationships

Overarching Theories	
Hierarchy of effects model	
Supporting theories	
Theory	Hypothesis
Associative network theory Categorisation theory Halo effect vs Summary construct	<i>H1a-b</i>
Theory of cognitive consistency	<i>H2</i>
Attitude theory	<i>H3a-b and H4</i>
Food tourism theory	<i>H5a-b</i>
Motivational processing	<i>H6a-b</i>

Hierarchy of effects model

The overarching theory that governs the research model is the hierarchy of effects model. This model suggests that consumers experience a sequence of mental stages which in response to information about a product (Barry and Howard 1990; Lavidge and Steiner 1961). These stages range from simple to more complex responses and can be summarised as cognitive, affective and conative (Schultz, Block and Viswanathan 2016). Cognitive processing involves the development of beliefs and knowledge a particular product. Affective processing relates to the formation of feelings (e.g. liking and preference) that consumers have about a product which then translates into attitudinal beliefs. Finally, conative processing refers to behavioural reactions (e.g. conviction and purchase) consumers have toward a product.

The most commonly cited hierarchy is the basic learning model formally developed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961) which proposes that consumers process information cognitively first, affectively second and conatively third. The origins of the cognitive-affective-conative hierarchy may be traced back to models developed in the late 1800s

and early 1900s AID model (St Elmo Lewis 1898 as cited in Strong 1925), AIDA model (St Elmo Lewis 1900 as cited in Strong 1925), AIDAS (Sheldon 1911) and AIDMA model (Devoe 1956). Today, this hierarchy serves as one of the most widely applied causal models in advertising (e.g. Bruner and Kumar 2000; Nyilasy, Gangadharbatla and Paladino 2014; Wijaya 2015), marketing (e.g. Han 1989, 1990; Hanssens et al. 2014; Lee and Goudeau 2014) and tourism (e.g. Butterfield, Deal and Kubursi 1998; Decrop 2007; Pike 2010) research.

The basic learning hierarchy serves as a suitable overarching theory for two reasons. First, this hierarchy is commonly applied in high-involvement contexts (Babin and Harris 2016; Hawkins and Hoch 1992; Zinkhan and Fornell 1989). Authentic food consumption and travel is seen as a high-involvement products due to the substantial financial, social and time risks (Kozak, Crofts and Law 2007; Lepp and Gibson 2008; Quintal, Lee and Soutar 2010). Thus the basic learning hierarchy provides appropriate causal model to explain tourist behaviour in the current study. Second, the use of such a hierarchy has featured in numerous country image studies (e.g. Laroche et al. 2005; Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert 1997; Kotler and Gertner 2002; Zhang et al. 2016), including the prominent Han (1989) study, as a means for explaining the effects country image has on attitude and behaviour. As such, the basic learning hierarchy was adopted to serve as the main overarching theory for the current study.

Associative network theory

Associative network theory suggests that memory is formed based on the creation of associations between objects, concepts and images (Anderson 1993; Babin and Harris 2016). According to the theory, consumers perceive of places, people, products and occasions for usage (Anderson and Bower 1973; Collins and Loftus 1975; Ellis and

Hunt 1992; Gentner and Stevens 1983; Pappu and Quester 2016; Verhellen, Dens and Pelsmacker 2015) through direct and indirect contact. In marketing, such perceptions create associations between the image of a country and the product which originates from it (Lee and Lockshin 2012; Magnusson et al. 2014). For instance, the authors observed that a consumer who has a positive experience with France and its culinary offerings is more likely to perceive France as a producer of fine wines.

Similarly, in tourism, Sönmez and Sirakaya (2002) argued that perceptions of places, people and products create associations between the image of a country and its image as a travel destination. The authors examined travellers from various travel agent databases and noted that Turkey's image as an exotic country shapes perception of Turkey as an authentic travel destination. All these studies suggest that perceptions of a country's image influence perceptions of the country's food and travel destinations through associations with the country's image (e.g. Lee and Lockshin 2012; Sönmez and Sirakaya 2002).

Categorisation theory

Categorisation theory asserts that individuals cognitively organise objects and concepts by determining what belongs together (Argawal and Maholtra 2015; Sinapuelas, Wang and Bohlmann 2015; Zentall, Galizo and Critchfield 2002). The human mind naturally sorts new information into groups to facilitate memory retrieval, develops understanding and draws inferences. In marketing, country-of-origin serves as a categorical cue for consumer information processing (Clement and Zentall 2002; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth 2016; Saimee et al. 2016). Consumers draw on existing category knowledge (Babin and Harris 2016; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth 2016) to form affective judgment by categorising country-specific products based on their image of

the country (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth 2016; Saimee et al. 2016). If the country has a positive image, attitude toward the country's food is likely to be positive (Everett 2012).

Likewise, in tourism, if a country has a positive image, attitude toward the travel destination will be positive (Hong, Kim and Lee 2006; Moulard, Babin and Griffin 2015). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) observed that a country's image serves as a means of categorising its travel destinations. Accordingly, different countries and their travel destinations are conceptualised based on their generalised attributes and characteristics. Thus, country image manifests as an attitudinal construct which encompasses the tourist's mental representation of knowledge, feelings and global impression about the destination. For instance, Hui and Wan (2003) examined tourist perceptions of Singapore and categorise it as a safe and secure country. The authors reported that Singapore's safe image has potential to favourably influence attitude and preference for the country as a travel destination.

Halo effect vs. Summary construct

The halo effect is the result of the theory of cognitive consistency or the tendency in rating to be influenced by general impression or attitude (Beckwith, Kassarian and Lehman 1978; Sweeney et al. 2016). The halo effect is a systematic bias in attribute ratings resulting from a rater's tendency to rely on global affect rather than carefully discriminating among conceptually distinct and potentially independent brand attributes (Leuthesser, Kohli and Harich 1995; Madzharov, Ramanathan and Block 2016). In marketing, the halo effect has been used to explain how consumers judge a product's quality in the absence of sufficient product knowledge (e.g. Borah and Tellis 2016; Han 1989; Madzharov, Ramanathan and Block 2016; Shapiro 1982; Sweeney

et al. 2016). These authors highlighted that due to the inability to evaluate ‘true quality,’ consumers may turn to country image to infer the quality of unknown products. Similarly, in tourism, country image has been found to inform tourist evaluations about an unfamiliar travel destination (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Loureiro 2014; Moutinho 1987). From all these studies, it is evident that the travel destination, as a product, is subject to the generalisations of country image beliefs (Bordás and Rubio 1993; Elliot and Papadopoulos 2016; Gallarza, Saura, and Garcia 2002; Williams and Clarke 1991).

The summary construct approach is an affect-referral process (Wright 1975; Bayraktar and Uslay 2015) which suggests that consumers do not necessarily examine alternative products but instead, retrieve memories of previous experiences with similar products of the same country-of-origin (Batra et al. 2014; Bayraktar and Uslay 2015). In marketing, country image also serves as a summary construct wherein consumers have past experiences with a country’s products (Han, 1989; Bayraktar and Uslay 2015). The author argued that products from a country tend to have similar product attributes that can be generalised to other products from the same country. This occurs as a result of chunking or the propensity of consumers to abstract individual elements into higher order units (Miller 1956; D’Alessandro and Pecotich 2013). Likewise, in the context of tourism, tourist perceptions of travel destinations may stem from their beliefs about a country’s products (Alvarez and Campo 2014; Lee and Lockshin 2010).

Regardless of whether country image acts as a halo effect or summary construct, past research has shown that country image has an impact on the attitudinal rating allocated to a product (e.g. Bilkey and Nes 1988; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Han 1989; Han 1990; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Magnusson et al. 2014) and travel destination (e.g.

Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005; Nadeau et al. 2008). This suggests that tourists are likely to adjust their attitude toward a country's food or travel destination based on their perceptions of the country's image.

In marketing, Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim (2010) observed South Korean consumers for their perceptions of American and Japanese products on display at the Korea World Travel Fair. The authors concluded that more positive country image is associated with product receptivity. Similarly, Magnusson et al. (2014) examined American students for their perceptions of automobile brands from South Korea, Japan and Germany. The authors noted that a more positive country image has a spillover effect on attitude toward products from the same country.

In tourism, Mossberg and Kleppe's (2005) conceptual study argued that tourists use country image to form their overall evaluations of a country's travel destination. Likewise, Zhang et al. (2016) surveyed tourists from the UK and USA for their country image of China as a travel destination. The authors observed that country image serves as a macro attitudinal construct which influences attitude and visit intention toward China.

To summarise, associative network theory suggests that tourists form associations between their existing knowledge of a country and its products (Aaker 1991; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Niss 1996; Pappu, Quester and Cooksey 2006) and travel destinations (Dinnie et al. 2010; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Sönmez and Sirakaya 2002). Using these associations, tourists develop categorisations for various types of products based on generalised attributes and characteristics (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Clement and Zentall 2002; Everett 2012; Hong et al. 2006). In forming these associations and

categorisations of country image, tourists may apply either the halo effect or summary construct according to their relative familiarity with the country's products (Beckwith, Kassarian and Lehman 1978; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Han 1989; Shapiro 1982) and travel destinations (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Moutinho 1987). As such, a country's image influences the way in which tourists perceive of the country's products and travel destinations. Consequently:

H1a: More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country's food.

H1b: More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination.

Theory of cognitive consistency

Theory of cognitive consistency postulates that individuals strive to maintain logical consistency with their cognitions and behaviours (Berthold and Blank 2015; Heider 1946; McGuire 1960; Simon, Snow Read 2004). This theory is rooted in Heider's (1946) balance theory and also, the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger 1957), which both assert that individuals constantly adjust judgement and attitude to achieve cognitive harmony. In marketing, if a consumer has a positive attitude toward a specific product, this may cause them to re-evaluate their attitude toward other products from the same country (Bilkey and Nes 1988; Simon, Snow Read 2004; Thorelli, Lim and Ye 1988). For instance, Batra et al. (2000) studied Indian consumers for their perceptions of foreign products and reported that their positive attitude toward a product from a particular country is generalised to other products from the same country.

Likewise, this spillover effect has also been observed in tourism. For instance, Lee and Lockshin (2012) examined Australian students for their perceptions of copper products from Chile and the country as a travel destination. The authors highlighted that more positive perceptions of Chilean products positively impact on perceptions of Chile as a travel destination. As such, in order to maintain cognitive consistency, attitude toward a country's food will influence attitude toward the country as a travel destination (Chen and Gursoy 2001; d'Astous and Boujbel 2007; Leisen 2001; Loureiro 2015). Consequently:

H2: More favourable attitude toward a country's food positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination.

Attitude theory

Attitude theory postulates that attitude is a result of an individual's perception and evaluation of an object (Ajzen 1991). Attitude refers to an individual's "positive (negative) evaluation of self-performance of the particular behaviour" (Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015, p. 598). Appraisal or evaluation of the consequences associated with behaviour leads to higher behavioural intention (Han and Shavitt 1994). In marketing, consumers who demonstrate favourable attitude toward a product have higher behavioural intention toward it (Ilicic and Webster 2011; Kempf 1999; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). For instance, Bredhal (2001) observed British, Danish and German consumers and concluded that their attitude toward genetically modified products directly influences their purchase intention. Further, Ilicic and Webster (2011) examined Australians for their attitude toward milk and water products and observed that favourable attitude, resulting from celebrity endorsements of the products, positively impacts on purchase intention. Consequently:

H3a: More favourable attitude toward food positively influences behavioural intention toward food.

Likewise, in tourism, more favourable attitude toward a travel destination influences higher behavioural intention toward the travel destination (Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015; Yu, Chancellor and Cole 2011). These intended behaviours apply to both pre-visit and post-visit behavioural intention toward destinations (Williams and Soutar 2009). For instance, Baloglu (2001) examined travellers to Turkey and noted that more positive attitude toward Turkey as a travel destination results in higher revisit intention toward the destination. Consequently:

H3b: More favourable attitude toward a travel destination positively influences behavioural intention toward the travel destination.

Past research has demonstrated that authentic and unique local food can attract visitors to a destination (e.g. Ab Karim and Chi 2010; Boyne, Hall and Williams 2003; Long 2004). For instance, Italy's success as a travel destination is attributed to its iconic cuisine (Rinaldi and Cavicchi 2016). Similarly, Hong Kong's growing number of restaurants that offer a variety of unique and authentic cuisine is largely attributed to the increase in its tourist arrivals (Ab Karim and Chi 2010).

Further, Hu and Ritchie (1993) suggested that food serves as a key factor in a destination's attractiveness, motivating desire to visit the destination. Jaffe and Pasternak (2004) surveyed international and domestic tourists for their motivation to visit a wine region in Israel. The authors reported that desire to sample the food and wine at a wine region serves as a key reason for visiting the wine region. Likewise, Kim et al. (2012) highlighted that Chinese tourists in South Korea identify food as one of the primary motivators to visit the country. Consequently:

H4: Behavioural intention toward a country's food positively influences behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination.

Food tourism theory

Food tourism theory suggests that experiencing local foods and visiting food production regions are primary motivating factors that influence tourist travel behaviour (Hall and Mitchell 2001; Mak, Lumbers and Eves 2012; Sidali, Kastenholz and Bianchi 2016;). Thus, a food tourist views the tourist experience as a “quasi-religious, pilgrimage-like and sacred journey” (Mak et al. 2016; Okumus, Okumus and McKercher 2007; Quan and Wang 2004, p. 298). For food tourists, desire to consume authentic food serves as the “peak tourist experience” and is the major motivation to travel (Quan and Wang 2004, p. 302). In contrast, the general tourist views the tourist destination as paramount. For general tourists, desire to consume authentic local foods is only a supporting activity that serves as a means of completing the tourist experience.

These differing motivations have prompted researchers to develop various typologies of tourists according to the relative importance of food in the travel experience. For instance, Hall and Sharples (2003) conceptualised four typologies of tourists, namely gastronomes, indigenous foodies, tourist foodies and familiar foodies. Gastronomes have high food orientation and travel to a destination primarily to consume the destination's authentic local food. At the other end of the spectrum, familiar foodies have low food orientation and only consume the destination's local food as a daily necessity.

The key difference between the typologies of tourists is the level of importance placed on the consumption of local foods. Past research has shown that food orientation may

moderate the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward food (e.g. Lockshin and Spawton 2001; Kim, Suh and Eves 2010; Kim and Eves 2012) and travel destinations (e.g. Ab Karim and Chi 2010; Goolaup and Mossberg 2016; Sidali, Kastenholz and Bianchi 2015; Sims 2009; Tsai 2016). For instance, Kim and Eves (2012) examined tourists in South Korea for their motivation and intention to consume South Korea's local food. The authors concluded that tourists with higher motivation to consume local cuisine are more likely to sample food that they perceive positively. Consequently:

H5a: Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).

Similarly, Getz et al. (2015) studied food tourists in Europe for their intention to travel overseas to consume the local food. The authors observed that food orientation increases the likelihood of visiting a travel destination to sample the destination's food offerings. Consequently:

H5b: Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).

Motivational processing

Motivational processing suggests that motivation impacts on attitude toward the product by altering the degree of consumer involvement when evaluating the product

(Hsu, Chai and Li 2009; Petty and Cacioppo 1984; Trampe et al. 2010; Waller and Lea 1999). Higher motivation produces an enhancing effect through increasing the extremity of attitude as well as strengthening the relationship between attitude and intention (Hsu, Chai and Li 2009; Oliver and Bearden 1985; Li and Cai 2012; Lutz, Mackenzie and Belch 1983; Mackenzie and Spreng 1992). In marketing, Littrell, Ma and Halapete (2005) examined American consumers for their perceptions of ethnic fashion products and noted that ‘cultural creative’ baby boomers who desire product authenticity demonstrate more positive attitude and higher behavioural intention toward authentic fashion products. Consequently:

H6a: Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).

Likewise, in tourism, stronger desire for existential authenticity will enhance the relationship between destination authenticity and behavioural intention toward the destination (Cohen 1979; Kolar and Zabkar 2010; Knudsen, Rickly and Vidon 2016). For instance, Cohen (1979) reported that tourists who actively seek more authentic existential experiences demonstrate greater positive attitude and behavioural intention toward authentic travel destinations. Consequently:

H6b: Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).

3.3. Chapter summary

This Chapter introduces the proposed research model and outlines the associated research objectives and hypotheses, underpinned by relevant theory and derived from the literature review in Chapter Two. Country image and its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination are hypothesised. Further, the moderating roles of food orientation and desire for existential authenticity on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination are proposed. A summary of the hypotheses in the research model can be seen in Table 3.3.

The next Chapter identifies and examines the process and methods used in collecting the data, developing the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale, and the analyses used in testing the research objectives and hypotheses in the research model.

Table 3.3: Summary of hypotheses in the research model

Hypothesis
<i>H1a: More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country's food.</i>
<i>H1b: More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination.</i>
<i>H2: More favourable attitude toward a country's food positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination.</i>
<i>H3a: More favourable attitude toward food positively influences behavioural intention toward food.</i>
<i>H3b: More favourable attitude toward a travel destination positively influences behavioural intention toward the travel destination.</i>
<i>H4: Behavioural intention toward a country's food positively influences behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination.</i>
<i>H5a: Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).</i>
<i>H5b: Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).</i>

H6a: *Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).*

H6b: *Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination (Moderating effects may be enhancing or diminishing depending on the authenticity experimental condition).*

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

Chapter Three introduced the research model and the specific hypotheses that were developed and tested in the current study. The present Chapter outlines the research approach adopted in the study and is organised into three sections. The first section identifies the aims of the data collection process, justifies the instrumentation, describes the sample frame and outlines the measures that were used. The second section explains the scale development process undertaken to develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale attributes that were of particular interest. It discusses the selection of items that were relevant to the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and its reduction to a smaller set of items with sound measurement properties in terms of dimensionality, reliability, validity and invariance across 3,130 participants in Singapore. The final section outlines the statistical techniques that were used in estimating the structural relationships between various constructs within the research model.

4.2. Research context

The current study sets out to examine food and travel destination authenticity for their respective effects on intention to experience the food and travel destination *in situ*. To address this overall objective, it was necessary to find a study site which had a population which demonstrated familiarity with a country's food and a propensity to travel to the country. For the purposes of the current study, the Singapore population was selected as the sampling frame and this was justified in three ways. First, based on an analysis of consumption trends, Singaporeans were generally found to be

familiar and knowledgeable about South Korean culture due to the ‘Korean wave’ which has emerged in Singaporean pop-culture recently. Singapore has seen a popularisation of South Korean culture in the last 10 years (Shim 2006). According to the Korea Tourism Organisation (KTO 2014), tourist arrivals to South Korea from Singapore have increased by 17% from 2013 to 2014. In fact, 16,508 Singaporean tourists visited Korea in December 2014 alone (KTO 2015). Second, the involvement of South Korean business initiatives in Singapore has lent further support for selecting the Singapore population as the sampling frame for the study. South Korean foreign investment in Singapore has increased by 12.8 percent from S\$3.67 billion in 2010 to S\$4.16 billion in 2011, making South Korea the 8th largest foreign investor in the country (Boh 2013). According to the author, over 1,000 South Korean MNCs including food and beverage companies are currently located in Singapore. Finally, the proximity of Singapore to South Korea suggested that distance was not a deterring factor in travel (McKercher and Lew 2003). Singapore is located 4,564 kilometres from South Korea and is equivalent to a 6-hour flight. This ensured that distance decay, the diminishing attractiveness of destinations due to their distances, did not impact on the data collection (Smith 1985). For these reasons, Singapore was selected as the research site for the current study.

4.3. Mixed method approach

The research adopted a mixed method which comprised a qualitative and a quantitative approach that included six focus groups, two expert panels and three main studies. The mixed method offers greater depth and breadth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007) and is in line with the underlying pragmatist paradigm of the current study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). The number of

participants and objectives for each phase of the research is outlined in this section and a summary can be seen in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Mixed method research approach to scale development

Source of data	Sample	Objectives of study
Focus Group One	Potential travellers (N=8)	Item generation Face validity
Focus Group Two	Potential travellers (N=8)	Item generation Face validity
Focus Group Three	Potential travellers (N=8)	Item generation Face validity
Focus Group Four	Potential travellers (N=8)	Item generation Face validity
Expert Panel One	Chefs (N=2) Researchers (N=1) Restaurant owners (N=1) Tourism practitioners (N=2)	Face validity Content validity
Expert Panel Two	Chefs (N=1) Researchers (N=3) Restaurant owners (N=1) Tourism practitioners (N=4)	Face validity Content validity
Focus Group Five	Students (N=17)	Stimuli development
Focus Group Six	Students (N=17)	Stimuli development
Focus Group Seven	Students (N=17)	Stimuli development
Focus Group Eight	Students (N=17)	Stimuli development
Focus Group Nine	Students (N=10) Researchers (N=10)	Stimuli pre-test
Focus Group Ten	Students (N=5) Researchers (N=5)	Stimuli pre-test
Study One	Potential travellers (N=757)	Scale purification Reliability (internal consistency) Dimensionality Measurement invariance
Study Two	Potential travellers (N=682)	Scale refinement Measurement invariance
Study Three	Potential travellers (N=733)	Scale refinement Measurement invariance
Study Four	Potential travellers (N=958)	Validity testing Measurement invariance Hypothesis testing

4.3.1. Qualitative approach – focus groups and expert panels

For the qualitative research, a literature review, focus groups and expert panels were employed in the item generation phase of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development process. Specifically, the aims of the focus groups and expert panels were to: (1) generate items for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale; and (2) develop

stimuli; and (3) pre-test stimuli utilised in the quantitative phase of the study. Focus groups allow a researcher to understand diverse perspectives through the examination of a wide range of views that participants have on a particular topic and how they interact (Conradson 2005; Liamputtong 2011). They also allow researchers to uncover in-depth understandings of numerous interpretations of a particular topic by examining why particular views are held by participants (Stewart et al. 2007).

First, four focus groups each comprising eight Singaporeans were conducted in Singapore in January 2014. The aims of Focus Groups One, Two, Three and Four were to: (1) generate and add to the authenticity attributes identified in the literature review; and (2) determine if the identified authenticity attributes had face and convergent validity. Participants of Focus Groups One, Two, Three and Four were asked to discuss and identify various attributes associated with the authenticity of food and travel destinations. An initial panel of six experts comprising a researcher, two chefs, a restaurant owner and two tourism practitioners was approached to examine the authenticity attributes identified in the four focus groups and provided feedback from a practitioner's perspective. Then, a second panel of nine experts comprising three researchers, a chef, a restaurant owner and four tourism practitioners was approached to confirm the scale items generated by the four focus groups and the initial expert panel. All responses were recorded and analysed in the development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

A second round of focus groups was used in developing and testing the stimuli for the experimental design in the quantitative research. The aim of Focus Groups Five, Six, Seven and Eight was to identify a suitable food for the stimulus. All four focus groups comprised 17 university students who were asked to identify a single food they

perceived to be truly representative of South Korean food by ranking a selection of South Korean food online. These responses were recorded and analysed to identify the food used in the survey instrument. Once the food was confirmed, Focus Groups Nine and Ten were conducted to ensure that the stimuli was consistent in conveying both indexical and iconic authenticity within the various conditions. Focus Group Nine, comprising 10 university students and 10 researchers, was conducted to pre-test the stimuli. Then, Focus Group Ten, with five university students and five researchers, confirmed the changes made to the stimuli based on feedback from the previous focus group.

4.3.2. Quantitative approach – Main studies

Study One was conducted in Singapore in May 2014. A total of 864 participants comprising potential travelling Singaporeans participated in the study. The aim of Study One was to purify the initial set of scale items generated for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale as well as to examine the dimensionality of the scale. Data collected for the study was also used test the scale for reliability and measurement invariance. In this study, data was collected under all four experimental conditions.

Study Two, conducted in Singapore in August 2014, comprised 798 potential travelling Singaporeans. Study Two's aim was to refine the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items as well as to examine the dimensionality of the scale. Data collected for the study was also used test the scale for reliability and measurement invariance. In this study, data was collected under all four experimental conditions.

Study Three was conducted in Singapore in January 2015. A total of 841 participants comprising potential travelling Singaporeans participated in the study. The aim of Study Three was to refine the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items as well

as to examine the dimensionality of the scale. Data collected for the study was also used to test the scale for reliability and measurement invariance. In this study, data was collected under all four experimental conditions.

Study Four was conducted in Singapore in July 2015. A total of 1079 participants comprising potential travelling Singaporeans participated in the study. The aim of Study Four was to test the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale for convergent, discriminant and predictive validity as well as measurement invariance. Data collected for the study was also used to test the hypothesised relationships between constructs identified in the research model. In this study, data was collected under all four experimental conditions.

4.4. Instrumentation

For the quantitative research, a self-administered online questionnaire using a systematic sampling approach. The questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes to complete. There are a number of advantages of the self-administered questionnaire. First, it allows for anonymity for the participants, decreasing the effects of social desirability bias (Gosling et al. 2004; Lin 2004). Second, it is relatively cheap to administer as it can be distributed to groups of participants without the need for postage or high numbers of data collectors (Keisler and Sproull 1986; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995). Third, it allows for relatively quick and easy distribution to a large number of participants (Heslop, Cray and Armenakyan 2010; Mitchell and Jolley 2009). Fourth, researchers and data collectors exert less control over participants, reducing ethical problems that arise from researchers and encouraging the respondent to continue with the questionnaire (Nosek, Banaji and Greenwald 2002).

However, there are a number of disadvantages to the self-administered online questionnaire. First, participants may be easily distracted while filling out the survey and not pay attention to the questions (Mitchell and Jolley 2009). Second, participants may be more likely not to complete lengthy surveys (Mitchell and Jolley 2009; Sekeran 2003). Third, as the survey is self-administered and researchers are not interacting with participants, issues with the survey or its questions cannot be clarified or corrected (Mitchell and Jolley 2009). Fourth, reliability issues resulting from participants providing incomplete answers or not following instructions may arise given the short time frame in which the data is collected (Kiesler and Sproull 1986). Nevertheless, since the advantages of anonymity, cost savings, quick turnaround, simplicity and neutrality of the self-administered questionnaire outweighed its disadvantages, the self-administered pen and paper questionnaire was justified.

4.5. Sample size and sampling method

The general rule of thumb for calculating a suitable sample size is no less than 50 participants for correlations and regression analyses, with the number of participants increasing as the number of independent variables increases. Green (1991) suggests the formula $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (where m is the number of independent variables) for testing multiple correlations. Hair et al. (2010) proposed that a sample size ranging between 100 and 400 is appropriate for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The authors also recommend a minimum of 100 samples of 100 responses for a model containing seven or less constructs.

A systematic sampling method was employed for Studies One, Two, Three and Four to reduce sampling bias. The method is implemented by selecting every n^{th} subject from the population. While systematic sampling has sometimes been seen as a

probability sampling method (Brewer 1963; Pappu, Quester and Cooksey 2006; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995; Sudman 1976; Levy and Lemeshow 2011), it may be non-probabilistic if the value of the n unit is selected at random, rendering the unit of no significant value or trend (Foreman 1991; Pappu, Quester and Cooksey 2006). Systematic sampling has a number of advantages. First, it offers simplicity in design while preserving a degree of system or process to the random selection of participants (Barnett 1991). Second, unlike simple random sampling which poses the risk of clustered sampling, systematic sampling offers greater potential that the general population will be selected (Barnett 1991).

However, systematic sampling has some disadvantages. First, the process of selection may be susceptible to a hidden periodic trait within the population (Levy and Lemeshow 2013). Should the sampling technique coincide with the periodicity of the trait, the sampling technique will fail to be random and the representativeness of the sample may be compromised. Second, the effectiveness of systematic sampling relies heavily on the sample size. For smaller sample sizes, the random nature of the selection process is negated of generalisability (Brewer 1963). Nevertheless, since the advantages of simplicity and reduced risk of clustering using a systematic sampling method outweighed its disadvantages, the systematic sampling approach was justified.

4.6. Sampling frame

Studies One, Two, Three and Four were conducted between May 2014 and July 2015. The questionnaire was administered to potential travelling Singaporeans aged between 18 and 70 years who provided their consent to participate in the questionnaire. This cross sectional approach was utilised in order to avoid age selection bias (Sekeran 2006). Every fifth visitor was intercepted at designated public areas such as shopping

malls, food courts and food-related events such as food fairs. Again, this cross sectional approach was adopted to ensure that a wide spectrum of Singaporeans who travelled as food tourists and general tourists were approached. In each study, participants were found to be representative of Singapore's general population in terms of their age, gender, income, occupation and marital status (Department of Statistics Singapore 2014).

Prior to the start of the questionnaire, participants were verbally asked, "Are you willing to travel to South Korea?" This served as a screening question to ensure that participants were indeed potential travellers. Those who responded in the negative were thanked and the questionnaire was not administered to them. Only participants who demonstrated willingness to visit South Korea were asked to complete the survey. No incentives were offered for completing the questionnaire.

A total of 3,582 questionnaires were distributed across Studies One, Two, Three and Four. Of this, 452 (12 percent) participants were screened out as they reported unwillingness to travel to Korea, straight-lined their responses or did not complete the questionnaire. The remaining 3,130 participants were deemed as valid and useful for the study as they had met the following criteria: (1) reported their willingness to visit Korea; and (2) successfully completed the entire self-administered online questionnaire. A breakdown of the data collection and responses for each study is summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Data collection and samples

Data collection	Study One	Study Two	Study Three	Study Four
Total number of responses	864	798	841	1079
Total number of responses screened out	107	116	108	121
Total number of usable responses	757	682	733	958
Percentage of usable responses	88	86	87	89

4.7. Research Design

The quantitative phase of the study utilised an experimental design to achieve its four key objectives. Experimental research design allows a researcher to control the research situation so that causal relationships among variables may be evaluated (Srinagesh 2011). The aim in conducting an experimental research design is to determine whether changing an experimental independent variable causes changes in an important dependent variable. Events may be controlled in an experiment to a degree not possible in a survey. As there is a lack of quantitative research in the authenticity literature, the experimental design approach was used to create an environment that reflected all the different conditions that affect perceptions of both food and travel destinations. This allowed for the examination of tourist perception of the various conditions in ways that were advantageous while filtering out other confounding variables that naturally occur in reality (Wyner 1997).

Table 4.3: Experimental research design

	Food		Travel destination	
	Indexically Authentic	Iconically Authentic	Indexically Authentic	Iconically Authentic
Condition 1				
Condition 2				
Condition 3				
Condition 4				

A 2 (food authenticity) x 2 (travel destination authenticity) between-subjects factorial design that comprised four cells was adopted for the quantitative phase of the study, as can be seen in Table 4.3. Food authenticity comprised two types, namely, indexically authentic and iconically authentic. The *same* food was used to allow for comparisons between groups. However, manipulations to the food's attributes determined whether the food had indexical or iconic authenticity. Travel destination authenticity also comprised two types, namely, indexical and iconic authenticity. As with the food, the *same* travel destination was used to allow for comparisons between groups. The travel destination's attributes were also manipulated to determine whether the destination had indexical or iconic authenticity.

For the quantitative phase of the study, a combination of authenticity manipulations for the food and travel destination were utilised. This resulted in four experimental authenticity conditions; (1) iconically authentic food and iconically authentic travel destination (Icon-Icon condition); (2) iconically authentic food and indexically authentic travel destination (Icon-Index condition); (3) indexically authentic food and iconically authentic travel destination (Index-Icon condition); and (4) indexically authentic food and indexically authentic travel destination (Index-Index condition). In

Studies One, Two, Three and Four, data was collected for all four experimental conditions.

Four video stimuli designs based on the two types of authenticity for both the food and travel destination were used to test for attitude and behavioural intention. Subsequent sections describe the design of the various stimuli used in the study.

4.7.1. Criteria for selecting food – Korean Ginseng Chicken

The decision in selecting the food was based on three criteria: (1) the selected food was well known and representative of South Korean food; (2) the food chosen was real to ensure ecological validity; and (3) the food encompassed the dimensionality of food authenticity identified in the qualitative research. These identified dimensions included production methods, uniqueness, culture, originality and extrinsic attributes.

Initially, to ensure the most appropriate food was selected, a list of possible food items was generated. This list was sourced from popular dishes found on 35 restaurant menus, 42 South Korean food websites and 25 Singaporean food blogs. It was important that the food selected was reputedly representative of South Korean food for easy identification amongst participants in a short online survey. In Focus Groups Five, Six, Seven and Eight, students ranked the foods on this list to identify what they believed to be most representative of South Korean food. A separate section asked the students to identify any other foods which were not listed. Two foods received the highest rankings, namely, Ginseng Chicken and Kimchi.

Ginseng Chicken was selected as it was deemed most suitable to the study for two reasons. First, a web search on 42 South Korean food websites and blogs and careful scrutiny of 35 South Korean restaurant menus in Singapore corroborated the findings

that Ginseng Chicken was a popular choice and representative of South Korean food. Second, Ginseng Chicken is a main dish which encompasses the five key dimensions identified in the qualitative research. On the other hand, Kimchi was not chosen for the study. Kimchi is a side dish and does not possess the complexity of a main dish in terms of its production methods, uniqueness, culture, originality and extrinsic attributes. Given the lack of complexity in the preparation process, Kimchi was not deemed intricate enough to encompass the five dimensions of food authenticity.

It was imperative to create a stimulus that was as close to reality as possible to ensure ecological validity but also one which could be manipulated to observe changes in participants' attitude toward the food. As such, an arbitrary restaurant name, Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant was created as a setting for the Ginseng Chicken. The Ginseng Chicken dish was then defined in terms of the five dimensions identified. These dimensions were manipulated in the stimuli in terms of the indexical and iconic authenticity of the food. The name of the restaurant was held constant under the two conditions.

4.7.2. Criteria for selecting travel destination – Daegu Otgol Village

Similar to the food, the decision in selecting the travel destination was based on three criteria: (1) the selected destination was representative of a travel destination in South Korea; (2) the travel destination chosen was a real travel destination to ensure ecological validity; and (3) the travel destination encompassed the dimensionality of travel destination authenticity identified in the qualitative research. These identified dimensions comprised production, culture and heritage, originality and extrinsic attributes.

The travel destination, Daegu Otgol Village, is an actual heritage travel destination located 2.5 kilometres from Seoul, South Korea. Unlike the food which was selected based on popular choice, the travel destination was selected by the researcher in order to control for variations in participants' attitude toward the travel destination. It was important that a little-known travel destination was chosen to ensure that tourist knowledge and past experience with the destination would not bias manipulation effects in the experimental design. Based on careful examination of various heritage travel destinations in South Korea, Daegu Otgol Village was selected for three reasons. First, according to the Visit Korea Website (2014), Daegu Otgol Village is less well-known compared to other heritage travel destinations in South Korea. Moreover, the village was not found to feature in popular tourist websites such as Booking.com, TripAdvisor and Agoda. Second, the travel destination encompassed the four dimensions identified in the qualitative research. Third, from a review of tourism websites that featured the travel destination, information on the destination appeared to be ambiguous, allowing for manipulation of the various attributes of the destination. Daegu Otgol Village was then defined in terms of the four dimensions identified. These dimensions were manipulated in the stimuli in terms of the indexical and iconic authenticity of the destination. The name of the travel destination was held constant under the two conditions.

4.7.3. Stimuli preparation

The stimuli were designed in the form of a video storyboard in order to incorporate both audio and visual activation. Past studies support the efficacy of video stimuli in their research design (e.g. Adelaar, Chang and Lancendorfer 2003; Bruner 1990; LaTour and Tanner, 2003; Texeira, Wedel and Pieters 2012). For instance, the use of

pictures and music are considered to influence the overall ambience which may, in turn, influence perceptions of authenticity (Connell and Gibson 2004; Rees 2008).

Stimuli prepared for the research followed the audio-visual approach suggested by these other studies. First, written descriptions about the food and travel destination served as the copy for the stimuli. The copy was manipulated in each of the stimuli to evoke differing perceptions of authenticity in the food and travel destination. Second, pictures used in the video storyboard were sourced from public internet sites. These pictures were carefully chosen to ensure that they reflected manipulations in the copy. Third, the copy and pictures were combined into a PowerPoint presentation. The four PowerPoint presentations for the indexically authentic food, iconically authentic food, indexically authentic travel destination and iconically authentic travel destination can be seen in Appendix A, B, C and D respectively. Fourth, a narration based on the copy was recorded to reiterate the informational content. Fifth, keywords which were animated to appear at specific times were added to further reinforce particular attributes of importance. Finally, the file was exported into Windows Movie Maker where musical tracks were added to reflect either indexical authenticity (traditional music) or iconic authenticity (contemporary pop music). The length and background of all four presentations were held constant to ensure no confounding variables were introduced. Links to the final videos can be found in Appendix A, B, C and D respectively.

Focus Group Nine, comprising 10 university students and 10 academics, was conducted in February 2014 to pre-test the stimuli. Participants were examined for their perception of authenticity in each of the stimuli to ensure validity. Further, verbal feedback was noted to improve on any inconsistencies. Following revisions, two

weeks later, five university students and five academics, constituting Focus Group Ten, confirmed the veracity of the stimuli. Participants in Focus Group Ten were different from participants in Focus Group Nine to avoid respondent bias.

4.8. Questionnaire design

Four versions of the questionnaire were developed to accommodate the current study's 2x2 research design that examined its key constructs. The online questionnaire's cover page explained the purpose and scope of the study as required by the University's Human Research Ethics Committee. Further, the study's ethics approval number (SOM2014009) was provided to indicate that the research met the ethical standards and was recognised as research that involved minimal risk. The university's appointed Ethics Advisor was consulted to explore potential ethical and legal implications prior to administration of the questionnaires.

The questionnaire comprised 10 sections. Section A asked about participants' food orientation. Sections B and C examined participants' desire for existential authenticity and their country image of South Korea respectively. Section D explored participants' perceptions of food authenticity in relation to a stimulus provided. Sections E and F measured participants' attitude and behavioural intention toward the food respectively. Section G sought participants' perceptions of travel destination authenticity based on a stimulus provided. Sections H and I determined participants' attitude and behavioural intention toward the travel destination respectively. Finally, Section J recorded their demographic information relating to gender, age, marital status, income and occupation. The request for personal data was placed in the last section of the questionnaire so that participants who had already committed 15 minutes in completing the questionnaire would be more inclined to finish it and provide their

confidential details. A sample of the questionnaires used in Studies One, Two, Three and Four can be seen in Appendix E, F, G and H respectively.

Measures for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale were created in a scale development process that is outlined subsequently. Measures for the study's other four key constructs, namely, existential authenticity, country image, attitude and behavioural intention were selected from existing scales for their reliability (>0.70) (Hair et al. 2010) and contextual relevance and were adapted. These measures are also outlined subsequently and a summary can be seen in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Existing scales adapted to measure key constructs

Construct	No. of items	Scale items	Cronbach alpha
Section A: Food orientation	1 item	To sample Korean food	-
Section B: Existential authenticity Adapted from Kolar and Zabkar (2010)	3 items	Experience the local culture Have a spiritual experience Feel connected with history	$\alpha=0.70$
Section C: Country image Adapted from Nadeau et al. (2008)	20 items	Likeable Friendly Helpful Courteous Trustworthy Honest Positive in their work ethic Industrious Individualistic Education level Quality of life Rights and freedoms Wealth Environmental/pollution controls Involvement in world politics Political stability Workers skill level Availability of skilled workers Technology level Stability of economy	$\alpha=0.68-0.85$

Construct	No. of items	Scale items	Cronbach alpha
Section E: Attitude toward the food Adapted from Bagozzi and Yi (2012)	6 items	Harmful/beneficial Not good for health/good for health A foolish choice/a wise choice Useless/useful Bad/good Favourable/Unfavourable	$\alpha=0.85$
Section F: Behavioural intention toward the food Adapted from Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)	3 items	I intend to eat (food) I plan to eat (food) I will expend effort to eat (food)	$\alpha=0.78$
Section H: Attitude toward travel destination Adapted from Bagozzi and Yi (2012)	5 items	Not fun/fun Not appealing/Appealing Boring/Interesting Unexciting/Exciting Dull/Fascinating	$\alpha=0.85$
Sections I: Behavioural intention toward destination Adapted from Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)	3 items	I intend to visit (travel destination) I plan to visit (travel destination) I will expend effort to visit (travel destination)	$\alpha=0.78$

In Section A (food orientation), the scale item utilised a Likert-type seven-point scale, ranging from extremely unlikely (1) to extremely likely (7). In Section C (country image), scale items utilised a Likert-type seven-point scale, ranging from bad (1) to good (7). Scale items in Section D (food authenticity), Section G (travel destination authenticity), Section E (attitude toward food) and Section H (attitude toward travel destination) utilised seven-point semantic differential bipolar scales. In Section B (desire for existential authenticity), Section F (behavioural intention toward food) and Section I (behavioural intention toward travel destination), scale items utilised Likert-type seven-point scales, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Items appeared in random order in each section of the questionnaire to reduce respondent bias (Sekaran 2000). Finally, Section J examined the demographic profile of the participants.

4.9. Data cleaning

Missing data analysis was conducted to identify cases with high levels of missing data, determine whether the data was missing in a random fashion and replace this (Hair et al 2010). Missing data under 10 percent is viewed as low level and can generally be viewed as ignorable. This is unless the data is missing in a non-random fashion. To test whether the data was missing in a random fashion, Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test was applied. The MCAR test determines whether cases with missing data are significantly different from cases with no missing data. This is effective for replacing MCAR data and non-random data because replacement data is determined via analysis of the respondent's non-missing data to determine the expected response (Hair et al. 2010).

While some missing data values were noted in the data across Sections A to I, the results of the MCAR test suggested that data was missing in a random fashion. As such, it was deemed appropriate to impute values rather than delete specific cases. Consequently, the missing values were substituted with mean values using SPSS 22. However, this approach was not adopted for Section J which asked about participants' demographics. In this instance, the missing values were left blank and descriptive analysis was conducted on the available responses.

4.10. Scale development

Chapter Two highlighted that an empirically tested scale for food authenticity using the indexical-iconic approach does not currently exist in marketing and tourism literature. Hence, an aim of the current study was to develop and test an Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale within the context of foods and travel destinations. This was achieved using procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003).

The key stages of these procedures include: (1) construct definition; (2) item generation; (3) item purification; (4) item refinement; (5) item validation; and (6) measurement invariance testing.

4.10.1. Stage one: Construct definition

As a starting point, the scale was based on conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity. Building on Grayson and Martine's (2004) conceptualisation, the current study defines indexical authenticity as *the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination* and iconic authenticity as *a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version*. Indexical and iconic authenticity is also conceptualised to exist at two extreme poles on a continuum. This continuum approach to indexical and iconic authenticity was applied to the conceptualisation of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

4.10.2. Stage two: Item generation

Item generation for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale adopted a mixed-method approach which combined qualitative and quantitative research. This was conducted successively in two rounds.

The first round involved an extensive literature review of marketing and tourism papers and Focus Groups One, Two, Three and Four. These focus groups evaluated the authenticity scale items derived from the initial literature review and offered more suggestions for the proposed scale from the tourist's perspective. Then, the first expert panel confirmed the items generated from the literature review and focus groups and

made further suggestions for the proposed scale from the industry practitioner's perspective.

The second round included another literature review for verification and a second expert panel assessed the generated scale items to confirm their face and content validity. Face validity is the subjective assessment of the correspondence between the construct and what it proposes to measure (Hair et al. 2010).

4.10.3. Stage three: Item purification

Purification and refinement of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items generated in stage two was undertaken in Study One. Initially, the identified scale items were examined using correlation analyses and purified using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and scale reliability testing with SPSS 22. EFA has the primary purpose of defining the underlying structure in the data matrix. The technique assesses the correlations among a large number of variables by defining common sets of factors (Shea et al. 2007). EFA is the first step in the factor analysis process and is employed to reduce the number of factors and items to explain most of the variance for greater predictive purposes. As a key objective of the current study was to develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale, EFA with Oblimin rotation was an important initial step to establish whether the scale items accurately tapped into the proposed food attributes.

First, an item-to-total correlation was run to identify scale items that were inconsistent with the behaviour of other items in the scale. Items that had an average item-to-total correlation above 0.50 were removed as they did not demonstrate internal consistency to the scale (Brocato, Voorhess and Baker 2012). Then, a principal component factor

analysis with Oblimin rotation was used to identify factors, refine the scale items and examine dimensionality of the scale.

Following EFA, the scale items were tested for construct reliability using Cronbach's alpha. A minimum value of 0.70 is considered acceptable (Hair et al. 2006). Such values suggest that the scale demonstrates internal consistency in the context of food.

4.10.4. Stage four: Item refinement

Further refinement of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items generated in stage two and initially purified in stage three was undertaken in Studies Two and Three. The initial scale items were further refined using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with AMOS 22. CFA is the second step in the factor analysis process and is employed to reduce the number of items to explain most of the variance for greater predictive purposes. CFA systematically guides the refinement and modification of constructs and ensures the scale items have internal and external consistency (Anderson, Gerbing and Hunter 1987; Kumar and Dillon 1987; Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). It is considered a superior technique over EFA (O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998; Pedhazur and Schmelkin 1991) since it is a means of scale reduction that suggests what items may be trimmed from the scale in addition to confirming the scale's final form (Floyd and Widaman 1995; Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma 2003).

One-factor congeneric measures were used to test if the scale items shared a single underlying factor (Jöreskog 1974). A number of goodness-of-fit indices were used to ensure that the scale addressed the model fit criteria (Hair et al. 2010). These criteria included the normed Chi-square (≤ 0.03), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation ($RMSEA \leq 0.08$), Goodness-of-fit Index ($GFI \geq 0.90$), Comparative Fit Index ($CFI \geq 0.90$) and Normative Fit Index ($NFI \geq 0.90$).

4.10.5. Stage five: Item validation

Validation of the scale items generated in stage two, initially purified in stage three and refined in stage four was undertaken in Study Four. The factors were tested for their dimensionality and comparative fit using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with AMOS 22. The scale was then tested for convergent, discriminant and predictive validity as well as reliability using structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM is a method of statistical analysis that seeks to explain the relationships between multiple variables by examining the structure of the interrelationships expressed in a series of equations, similar to a series of multiple regression equations (Hair et al. 2010).

Validity is the extent to which a scale accurately represents the theory underpinning the construct (Hair et al. 2010). Convergent validity refers to how strongly items group together within a factor and implies that all within-factor correlations are high and of approximately the same magnitude (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Several tests were conducted to establish convergent validity of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale:

- Overall fit of the measurement model, magnitude, direction and statistical significance of the estimated parameters demonstrate theoretical consistency (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). A reasonable benchmark value of the parameter estimate indicating convergent validity is 0.70 (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991).
- Average variance extracted exceeds 0.50 for all factors (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair 2010). The formula for the variance extracted measure with SEM is:

$$\text{Variance extracted} = \frac{\sum \lambda^2}{[\sum \lambda^2 + \sum (1 - \lambda_j^2)]}$$

The numerator is the sum of the squares of the standardised parameter estimates (λ) between the latent variable and its indicators, while the denominator equals the numerator plus the summed measurement error ($1-\lambda_j^2$).

- Correlation coefficients should consistently reveal significant correlations of the scale with a relevant existing scale to which it is expected to be related (Churchill 1979, 1999).

Discriminant validity refers to the extent that a construct is distinct from other constructs (Hair et al. 2010). Several tests were conducted to establish discriminant validity of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale:

- Low correlations exist between factors (Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997). Factors that correlate too highly may be measuring the same construct rather than different constructs.
- Variance extracted for each construct is greater than the squared structural path coefficient between the two constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981).
- Correlation coefficients between the scale and a relevant existing scale that measures a conceptually different but related construct should be low to moderate and less than 0.80 (Lings and Greenley 2005).
- Correlation plus or minus two standard errors has a confidence interval that is less than the value of one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994).

Testing for convergent and discriminant validity requires the employment of established theoretically related scales (Eastman, Goldsmith and Flynn 1999). Three existing scales were utilised to test the newly developed scale for convergent and

discriminant validity, namely, Castéran and Roederer's (2013) destination authenticity scale, Chhabra's (2008) artefact authenticity scale, Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale. The original scales and their items are highlighted in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Existing scales used in convergent and discriminant validity testing

Scale	No. of items	Scale items	Chronbach alpha
Destination authenticity scale Castéran and Roederer's (2013)	6 items	Indexical dimension The Strasbourg Christmas Market (SChM) is not an imitation. The SChM is the original, not a copy. The SChM is the original Christmas Market.	$\alpha=0.92$
		Iconic dimension Had the essential nature of Christmas markets been respected, the SChM would have been different. The SChM includes artificial elements. The SChM is a product of techniques and/or materials that are not all original.	$\alpha=0.86$
Artefact authenticity scale Chhabra (2008)	4 items	Essentialist definition dimension Should have a documented history. Should be from the actual period. True to the original object. Verified by historians.	$\alpha>0.70$
Ethnic restaurant authenticity scale Jang, Ha and Park (2012)	4 items	Food authenticity dimension I perceived the presentation of the food as authentically Korean. I perceived the taste of the food as authentically Korean. I perceived providing side dishes as authentically Korean. I perceived the self-cooking BBQ at the Korean restaurant as authentically Korean.	$\alpha=0.88$

The scales used in the testing for convergent and discriminant validity were chosen for the following reasons:

- Castéran and Roederer's (2013, p. 156) destination authenticity scale was employed for two reasons. First, the authors argued that the scale "encapsulates elements that can be construed as indexical and iconic cues of authenticity." This was consistent with the conceptualisation of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale that was developed in the current study. Second, the iconic dimension's scale items are consistent with the preparation factor of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. The measures for this scale relate to the originality of the production methods, techniques and materials.
- Chhabra's (2008) artefact authenticity scale was utilised as the essentialist definition dimension of authentic artefacts corresponds with the cultural heritage factor of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. The measures for this scale relate to historical documentation, temporal relation and verification by experts.
- Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale was applied as its food authenticity dimension is consistent with the serving factor of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. This measures for this scale relate to the manner in which the food is presented to the consumer.

Predictive validity refers to the ability of an independent construct to have a significant and positive effect on the dependent construct. If a significant and positive relationship exists, manipulations of the dependent variable can therefore be used to predict impact of independent variables on dependent variables (Messick 1995). Predictive validity was examined by respectively regressing the food and travel destination factors on attitude.

4.10.6. Stage six: Measurement invariance

Measurement invariance of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale validated in stage five was undertaken in Study Four. The identified scale was examined using structural equation modelling in AMOS 22. Measurement invariance establishes measurement equivalence of a newly developed scale across different samples. Most studies investigating measurement equivalence examine it in terms of differences between two or more cultures (Douglas and Craig 1983; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998; Wang and Waller 2006). In the current study, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale was examined for its measurement equivalence across all four studies.

Douglas and Craig (1983) have identified three aspects of measurement equivalence. These include: (1) calibration equivalence; (2) translation equivalence; and (3) metric equivalence. Calibration equivalence refers to the same units of measurement, namely, attributes and scale items that are used across different samples. Translation equivalence focuses on the translation of the survey instrument to the correct language used between different samples to ensure scale items have an equivalent meaning. Metric equivalence relates to the uniformity of the scale and scoring procedures across different samples.

Calibration equivalence was addressed through the consistent use of items in the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale across the main studies. As Studies One, Two, Three and Four were administered in English and it is the official language in Singapore, no translation was required and translation equivalence was assumed. Metric equivalence was addressed by the consistent use of the 7-point Likert style scale in measuring the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items across the main

studies. This enabled testing of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale calibration and metric equivalence to advance to measurement invariance.

There are several measurement invariance diagnostic techniques as suggested by Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998): (1) configural invariance; (2) metric invariance; (3) scalar invariance; (4) factor covariance invariance; (5) factor variance invariance; and (6) error variance invariance. Configural invariance refers to the measurement scale consisting of the same configuration of salient and non-salient factor loadings across samples. Metric invariance concerns each scale item within the entire measurement scale having equal metrics or scale intervals across samples. Scalar invariance implies that the difference in the means of observed items across samples are due to differences in the means of the underlying factors. Factor covariance invariance relates to constraining the latent variable covariances to establish invariance. Factor variance invariance focuses on constraining the latent constructs to establish invariance for each latent variable across samples. Error variance invariance implies that there is invariance between the error terms within the model.

Configural, metric and scalar invariance tests are conducted through examining nested models since each test is nested in the test that precedes it. Configural invariance is indicated by the goodness-of-fit indices already outlined in stage three of the item refinement process. Metric and scalar measurement invariance are determined through comparison of their respective measurement model to the configural model. Each form of measurement invariance is established by examining the change in chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2$), change in degrees of freedom (Δdf) and the *p*-value. The *p*-value must be above 0.10, indicating an insignificant difference between the compared measurement models and

establishing the measurement models are invariant. The measurement model must also satisfy the goodness-of-fit indices (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998).

Factor covariance, factor variance and error variance invariance tests are arbitrary and rely on a given study's research goals (Wang and Waller 2006). First, if the goal is to explore the basic meaning and structure of a new construct, the minimal requirement is configural invariance. Second, if the goal is to compare construct means across samples, partial scalar invariance is required. Third, if the goal is to relate a construct to other constructs in a nomological net, namely, comparing correlation coefficients or standardised regression coefficients, both metric and factor variance invariance is required.

One of the goals in the study was to test the basic meaning and structure as well as the equal metrics of items in the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. Thus, achieving configural and partial metric invariance was deemed appropriate. This would suggest that the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale had factorial similarity and factorial equivalence, which indicates that the scale has a consistent basic factorial structure (Styles 1998).

4.11. Hypothesis testing

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to examine the impact of country image on attitude and behavioural intention toward both the food and travel destination. Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach was adopted in the current study. First, a measurement model maps the measures onto theoretical constructs. The model serves as a factor model which defines the relationships between the observed and unobserved variables. This confirmatory factor analysis allows for the testing of

unidimensionality, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the constructs (Shumacker and Lomax 2004).

Second a structural model tests the hypothesised relationships between the constructs in the research model. This model specifies the relationships among the latent variables underpinned by theory, testing the nomological validity of the model. Path analysis with AMOS 22 was carried out in Study Four to test the hypothesised relationships in the research model. Issues with multicollinearity are tested by examining the correlation coefficients amongst the constructs in the research model (Garg and Tai 2013). Correlations greater than 0.90 between any two constructs suggest problems of multicollinearity (Hair et al. 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell 2013).

Then, multigroup analysis inspected the moderating effects of desire for existential authenticity, past experience and tourist typologies on the relationships in the research model. Food orientation and desire for existential authenticity were discretised into “high,” “moderate” and “low” categories and served as background moderators. Initially, fully unconstrained models were examined for the “high” and “low” moderator categories. Next, each coefficient path was individually constrained to identify the relationships that were moderated first, by food orientation and then, by desire for existential authenticity through a chi-square difference test (Holmbeck 1997; MacKinnon et al. 2002; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995).

4.12. Chapter summary

The present Chapter focused on the methods employed to gather data and the statistical techniques adopted to develop a scale and test the proposed hypotheses in the research model. A mixed-method was adopted for the current study. For the qualitative research, eight focus groups and two expert panels were used in the item generation stage of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development process. For the quantitative research, a self-administered online questionnaire was implemented to confirm and validate the scale as well as to test the relationships between constructs in the research model. A systematic sampling method was utilised for the four main studies and various statistical techniques with SPSS 22 and AMOS 22 were adopted. The following Chapter will report and discuss the results of the scale development procedures for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

CHAPTER FIVE SCALE DEVELOPMENT

5.1. Introduction

Chapter Four described the data collection process, scale development procedures and statistical techniques for data analysis. The second research objective of the current study is to develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale, examine its dimensionality as well as test for its reliability, validity and measurement invariance in the context of foods (*RO2*). Consequently, a scale, namely, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale, is developed in the current study. This Chapter outlines initial development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items, reports findings on the final scale's reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity and finally, examines generalisability of the scale in the context of food.

The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development adopts procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003) for creating measures of multi-item marketing scales. These procedures which were identified in Chapter Four are summarised in Table 5.1. Each study, its relevance in the scale development process and findings, is reported in subsequent sections.

Table 5.1: Scale development procedures

Stages of scale development	Study
Stage One: Construct definition	Literature review
Stage Two: Item generation	Literature review Focus groups Expert panels
Stage Three: Item purification	Study One
Stage Four: Item refinement	Study Two Study Three
Stage Five: Validation	Study Four
Stage Six: Measurement invariance	Study One Study Two Study Three Study Four

5.2. The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity Scale

5.2.1. Stage One: Construct definition

As was highlighted in Chapter Two, initially, conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity were derived from Grayson and Martinec (2004). The authors' definitions of indexicality and iconicity were based on Charles Sanders Peirce's semiotic theory which has already been widely accepted in the field of semiotics (Grayson and Martinec 2004; Mick 1986). In the current study, conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity were adapted to the context of food. To reiterate, the study conceptualises indexical authenticity as *the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination* and iconic authenticity as *a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version* (Grayson and Martinec 2004). Thus, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale is conceptualised as a continuum and operationalised as a seven-point bipolar

scale with indexical and iconic authenticity at two extreme poles on the continuum, as can be seen in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity conceptual continuum



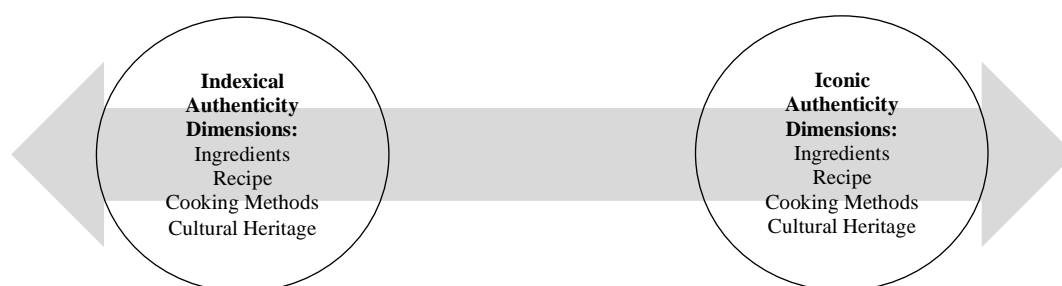
5.2.2. Stage Two: Generating scale items

As was outlined in Chapter Four, an initial pool of 34 scale items was generated for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale through an extensive review of relevant literature and input from four focus groups. Following a review by a panel of six industry experts, ten items were deleted due to their duplication and ambiguity. Then, the scale items were assessed by a second expert panel of nine industry experts and academics. A further nine scale items were deleted resulting in 15 scale items. A brief summary of the results of the qualitative phase of the scale development process can be seen in Appendix I.

From these initial qualitative studies, the scale appeared to tap into five food authenticity dimensions, namely, ingredients, recipe, cooking methods, cultural heritage and serving. This conceptual dimensionality, as represented on the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity continuum can be seen in Figure 5.2. On this continuum, the more traditional or historical aspects of these five dimensions are expected to tap into indexical authenticity, whereas the more verisimilitude or reproduction aspects of these five dimensions are expected to tap into iconic authenticity. Following the

generation of scale items, it was appropriate to proceed to the next stage of the scale development process of purifying the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

Figure 5.2: Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale conceptual dimensionality



5.2.3. Stage Three: Purifying scale items (Study One)

The 15-item Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale generated from the literature review, focus groups and expert panels comprised the survey instrument for Study One. This was self-administered to 757 potentially travelling Singaporeans who reported a willingness to visit South Korea. From this, 397 responses were collected under the indexical authenticity condition and 360 responses under the iconic authenticity condition. The pooled sample of 757 participants was utilised for the item purification stage.

First, correlation analysis with SPSS 22 examined the 15-item Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale for its psychometric properties. More than 75 percent of the correlation coefficients between the scale items were greater than 0.30, suggesting inter-item correlations and the likelihood of underlying factors (Noursis 1994). Next, exploratory factor analysis and an Oblimin rotation assessed the scale's dimensionality, initially identifying 15 items that loaded on three factors which explained 65 percent of the total variance. Eigenvalues for each factor ranged from 1.02 to 6.37, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO MSA)

was 0.93 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was 0.001, suggesting underlying factors in the data. A reiterative process then eliminated items that cross-loaded and had communalities of less than 0.40 (Hair et al. 2010). As can be seen in Table 5.2, the final solution identified 13 items that loaded on three factors and explained 67 percent of the total variance. All three factors produced Cronbach alphas exceeding the 0.70 benchmark as recommended by Nunally (1978). Further, the KMO MSA was 0.92, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity remained at 0.001 and communalities ranged from 0.57 to 0.82, indicating that each item shared some common variance with other items.

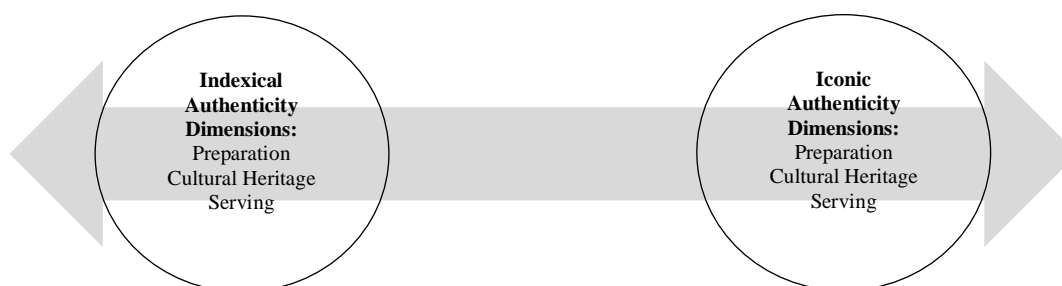
The first factor, preparation, referred to attributes related to the authentic production of food such as the recipe, ingredients and cooking methods. The second factor, cultural heritage, encompassed the cultural aspects of food. The third factor, serving, represented the holistic service of food which included the accompanying dishes and tableware.

Table 5.2: Study One - Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items in exploratory factor analysis

Factors and Items	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach Alpha
Factor1: Preparation		6.37	48.97	0.89
The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques	0.89			
The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	0.86			
The ingredients are traditional	0.85			
The ingredients follow original Korean culture	0.79			
The recipe is true to the original recipe	0.73			
The cooking method is documented in history	0.71			
Factor 2: Cultural heritage		1.33	10.29	0.84
The ginseng chicken is enjoyed by the local community	0.89			
The ginseng chicken is consumed in the tradition of the local lifestyle	0.77			
The ginseng chicken is historically famous	0.77			
The ginseng chicken is the original	0.66			
The ginseng chicken originates from the owners family heritage	0.48			
Factor 3: Serving		1.02	7.85	0.71
The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	0.93			
The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	0.75			
KMO MSA: 0.92				
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 0.001				
Extraction method: Principal components analysis				
Rotation method: Oblimin rotation				

As can be seen in Table 5.2, Cronbach alphas for all three factors were greater than the acceptable 0.65 threshold (Nunnally 1977) for preparation ($\alpha=0.89$), cultural heritage ($\alpha=0.84$) and serving ($\alpha=0.71$), demonstrating that the constructs were reliable (Hair et al. 2010). This suggested that the bipolar scale which measured indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity at each end of the authenticity continuum, tapped into the preparation, cultural heritage and service dimension as can be seen in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale factors after exploratory factor analysis



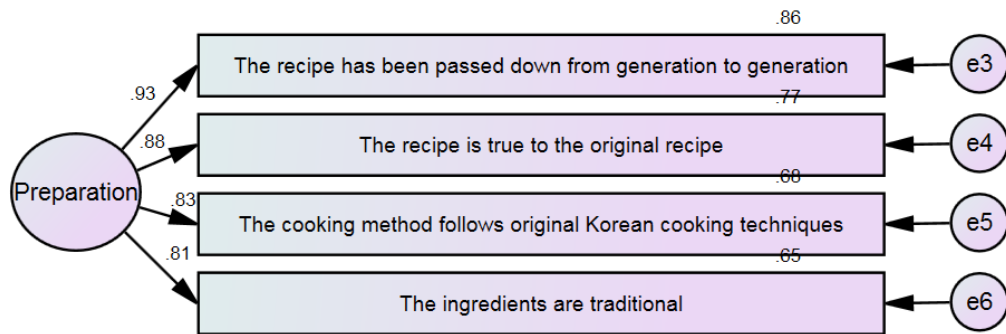
To summarise, in the third stage of the scale development process, Study One generated and identified 13 items that loaded on three factors on the authenticity continuum, namely, preparation, cultural heritage and serving as can be seen in Figure 5.3. The three factors had distinct structures with generally high factor loadings and communalities as well as acceptable reliabilities. This suggested that it was appropriate to proceed to the next stage of the scale development process of refining the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

5.2.4. Stage Four: Refining the scale (Studies Two and Three)

The 13-item Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale identified in Study One constituted the survey instrument for Study Two. This was self-administered to 682 potentially travelling Singaporeans who reported a willingness to visit South Korea. From this, 259 responses were collected under the indexical authenticity condition and 423 responses under the iconic authenticity condition.

Confirmatory factors analysis with AMOS 22 was used to purify and refine the scale items for the three Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity factors that included preparation, cultural heritage and serving. Each factor was examined for its goodness-of-fit indices with one-factor congeneric models and then, all three factors were collectively introduced in a measurement model. To examine indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity which occupy each end of the continuum, the three factors were considered, first under the indexical authenticity condition and then, under the iconic authenticity condition.

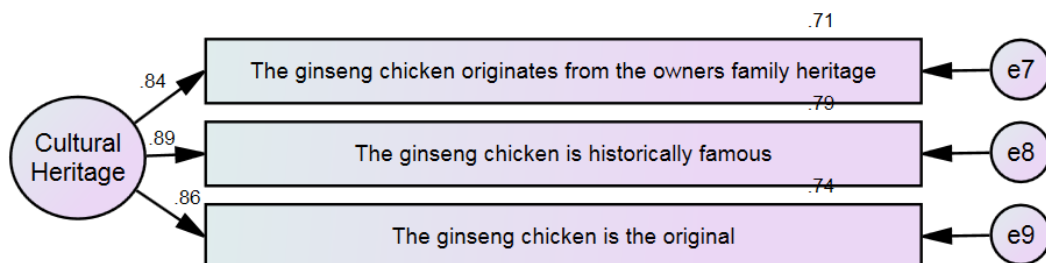
Figure 5.4: Indexically authentic food (preparation) one-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=6.66$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

For the indexically authentic food (preparation) factor, the initial six-item model had an unacceptable fit. Therefore, the modification indices were consulted to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, two items, namely, “*The ingredients follow original Korean culture*” and “*The cooking method is documented in history*” were removed due to cross-loading. After these items were eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices for the model was deemed appropriate ($\chi^2=6.66$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99) (Brown 2004; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996). Thus, the four-item indexically authentic food (preparation) model, as can be seen in Figure 5.4, was accepted.

Figure 5.5: Indexically authentic food (cultural heritage) one-factor congeneric model

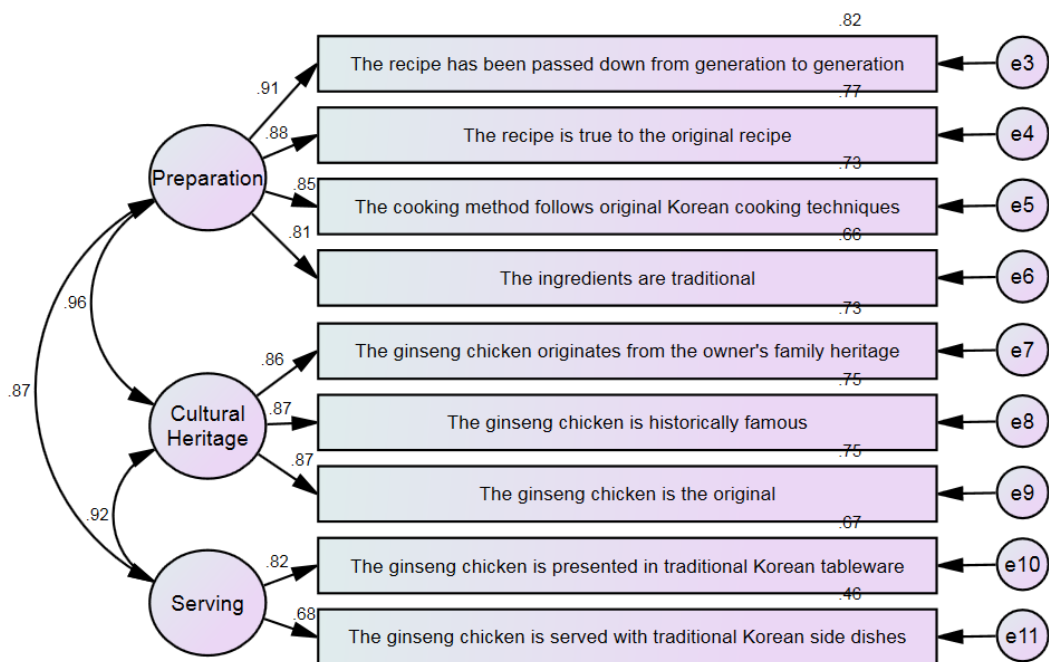


Model fit: $\chi^2=1.66$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the five-item indexically authentic food (cultural heritage) model had an unacceptable fit and the modification indices were examined for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Two items, namely, “*The ginseng chicken is enjoyed by the local community*” and “*The ginseng chicken is consumed in the tradition of the local lifestyle*” were reiteratively removed due to cross-loading. Subsequently, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item model was acceptable ($\chi^2=1.66$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99) (Brown 2004; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996), as can be seen in Figure 5.5.

A one-factor congeneric model for the indexically authentic food (serving) was not run as there were only two items that represented the factor.

Figure 5.6: Indexically authentic food three-factor model

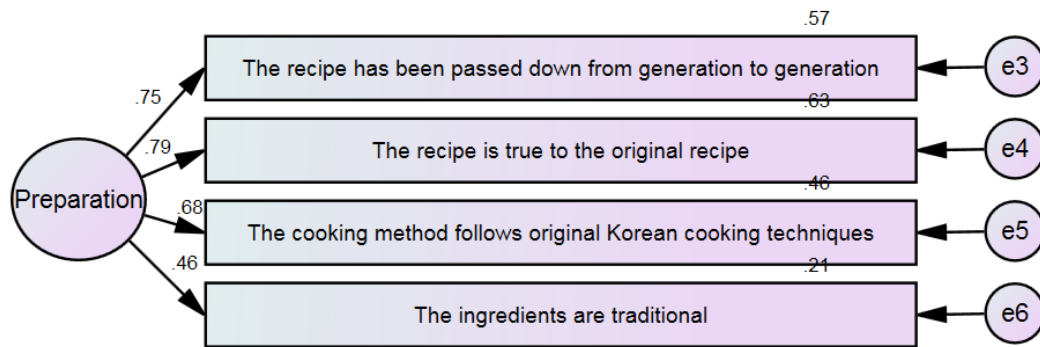


Model fit: $\chi^2=51.03$, $df=24$, RMSEA=0.07, GFI=0.96, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.97

To test the model fit for all three indexically authentic food factors, a three-factor measurement model which encompassed the preparation, cultural heritage and serving factors was specified. The goodness-of-fit indices for the structural model was deemed

appropriate ($\chi^2=51.03$, $df=24$, $RMSEA=0.07$, $GFI=0.96$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.97$) (Brown 2004; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996). Thus, the three-factor indexical authenticity model, as can be seen in Figure 5.6, was accepted.

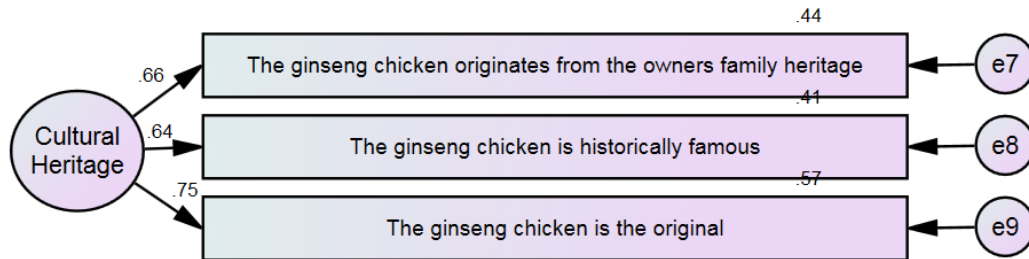
Figure 5.7: Iconically authenticity food (preparation) one-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=5.60$, $df=2$, $RMSEA=0.07$, $GFI=0.99$, $CFI=1.00$, $NFI=0.99$

For the iconically authentic food (preparation) factor, the initial six-item model had an unacceptable fit. Therefore, the modification indices were consulted to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, the same two items, namely, “*The ingredients follow original Korean culture*” and “*The cooking method is documented in history*” were removed due to cross-loading. After these items were eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices for the model was deemed appropriate ($\chi^2=5.60$, $df=2$, $RMSEA=0.07$, $GFI=0.99$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.99$) (Brown 2004; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996). Thus, the four-item iconically authentic food (preparation) model, as can be seen in Figure 5.7, was accepted.

Figure 5.8: Iconically authentic food (cultural heritage) one-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=3.61$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the five-item iconically authentic food (cultural heritage) factor had an unacceptable fit and the modification indices were examined for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Two items, namely, “*The ingredients follow original Korean culture*” and “*The cooking method is documented in history*” were removed reiteratively due to cross-loading. Subsequently, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item model was acceptable ($\chi^2= 3.61$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99) (Brown 2004; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996), as can be seen in Figure 5.8.

Again, a one-factor congeneric model for iconically authentic food (serving) was not run as there were only two items that represented the factor.

Figure 5.9: Iconically authentic food two-factor model



Model fit: $\chi^2=18.52$, $df=8$, RMSEA=0.06, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.98

Finally, to test the model fit for all three iconically authentic food factors, a three-factor measurement model which incorporated the preparation, cultural heritage and serving factors was specified. The initial three-factor structural model had an unacceptable fit. The modification indices were consulted and three items, namely, ‘*The ginseng chicken is historically famous*,’ ‘*The ginseng chicken is the original*’ and ‘*The ginseng chicken originates from the owners family heritage*’ were removed reiteratively due to cross-loading. These items comprised the entire iconically authentic food (cultural heritage) factor. After this factor was eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices for the structural model was deemed appropriate ($\chi^2=18.52$, $df=8$, RMSEA=0.06, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.98) (Brown 2004; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996). Thus, the two-factor model, as can be seen in Figure 5.9, was accepted.

To further refine the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale, the procedures were repeated in Study Three. The nine-item scale purified in Study Two constituted the survey instrument for Study Three. This was self-administered to 733 potentially traveling Singaporeans who reported a willingness to visit South Korea. From this,

382 responses were collected under the indexical authenticity condition and 351 responses under the iconic authenticity condition.

Again, confirmatory factors analysis with AMOS 22 was used to further refine the scale items of the three Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity factors. The preparation, cultural heritage and serving factors were collectively introduced in a measurement model, first under the indexical authenticity condition and then, the preparation and serving factors were collectively introduced into a measurement model under the iconic authenticity condition.

Table 5.3: Study Three - Indexically authentic food goodness-of-fit indicators

Items	Parameter Estimates
Factor 1: Preparation	
The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	0.88
The recipe is true to the original recipe	0.85
The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques	0.82
The ingredients are traditional	0.82
Factor 2: Cultural Heritage	
The ginseng chicken originates from the owners family heritage	0.84
The ginseng chicken is historically famous	0.77
The ginseng chicken is the original	0.85
Factor 3: Serving	
The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	0.89
The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	0.88
Model fit statistics	
χ^2/df	1.89
RMSEA	0.05
CFI	0.99
NFI	0.98
GFI	0.97

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df =degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

For the indexically authentic food, the nine-item scale had acceptable goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2=45.36$, $df=24$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.98, NFI=0.97) (Hair et al. 2010; Jöreskog 1970; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). As such, the scale was not further refined, as can be seen in Table 5.3.

Table 5.4: Study Three - Iconically authentic food goodness-of-fit indicators

Items	Parameter Estimates
Factor 1: Preparation	
The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	0.77
The recipe is true to the original recipe	0.78
The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques	0.76
The ingredients are traditional	0.80
Factor 2: Serving	
The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	0.78
The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	0.73
Model fit statistics	
χ^2/df	1.51
RMSEA	0.04
CFI	0.99
NFI	0.99
GFI	0.99

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df =degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

Similarly, for the iconically authentic food, the six-item food authenticity scale demonstrated acceptable goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2=12.11$, $df=8$, RMSEA=0.04, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99) (Hair et al. 2010; Jöreskog 1970; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). As such, the scale was not further refined, as can be seen in Table 5.4.

Table 5.5: Studies Two and Three - Final Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items summary

Factors and Items	Indexical food	Iconic food
Factor 1: Preparation		
The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	✓	✓
The recipe is true to the original recipe	✓	✓
The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques	✓	✓
The ingredients are traditional	✓	✓
Factor 2: Cultural heritage		
The ginseng chicken originates from the owners family heritage	✓	
The ginseng chicken is historically famous	✓	
The ginseng chicken is the original	✓	
Factor 3: Serving		
The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	✓	✓
The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	✓	✓

To summarise, in the fourth stage of the scale development process, Studies Two and Three purified and further refined the nine items that loaded on three factors for the indexically authentic food and six items that loaded on two factors for the iconically authentic food. These are summarised as can be seen in Table 5.5.

This dimensionality as represented on the Indexical-Iconic Authenticity continuum can be seen in Figure 5.10. Following the refinement of the scale items, it was appropriate to proceed to the next stage of the scale development process of validity testing for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.

Figure 5.10. Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale factors after confirmatory factor analysis



5.2.5. Stage Five: Validating the scale (Study Four)

The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale refined in Studies Two and Three was assessed for reliability and validity using data collected in Study Four. This was self-administered to 958 potentially travelling Singaporeans who reported a willingness to visit South Korea. From this, 437 responses were collected under the indexical authenticity condition and 521 responses under the iconic authenticity condition. The scale was validated, first under the indexical authenticity condition and then, under the iconic authenticity condition.

Table 5.6: Study Four - Indexically authentic food goodness-of-fit indicators

Items	Parameter Estimates
Factor 1: Preparation	
The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	0.90
The recipe is true to the original recipe	0.93
The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques	0.92
The ingredients are traditional	0.90
Factor 2: Cultural Heritage	
The ginseng chicken originates from the owners family heritage	0.94
The ginseng chicken is historically famous	0.91
The ginseng chicken is the original	0.92
Factor 3: Serving	
The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	0.95
The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	0.90
Model fit statistics	
χ^2/df	2.94
RMSEA	0.06
CFI	0.99
NFI	0.98
GFI	0.96

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df =degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale was tested for its reliability under the indexical authenticity condition. Composite reliabilities and average variance extracted scores were calculated from structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. All composite reliabilities exceeded 0.86, suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010), as can be seen in Table 5.7.

Convergent validity of the indexically authentic food factors was examined in three ways, as described in Chapter Four. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor

congeneric models were examined. As can be seen in Table 5.6, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of parameter estimates for each authentic food factor was above 0.90, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 5.7, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores ranged from 0.67 to 0.87, which was equal to or greater than 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), again, suggesting convergent validity. Third, as can be seen in Table 5.8, the correlation coefficient between each indexically authentic food factor and an existing relevant scale was significant (Churchill 1999). As was expected, the preparation factor correlated with Castéran and Roederer's (2013) destination authenticity scale (0.79), the cultural heritage factor with Chhabra's (2008) artefact authenticity scale (0.78) and the serving factor with Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale (0.71). Since these correlations were high (0.71-0.79), this suggested convergent validity.

Table 5.7: Study Four - Indexically authentic food factor composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Attribute	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	Prep	CH	Serv
Preparation (Prep)	4	2.05	0.94	0.91	0.71	1		
Cultural Heritage (CH)	3	2.11	0.92	0.86	0.67	0.90 (0.81)	1	
Serving (Serv)	2	2.22	0.99	0.87	0.87	0.72 (0.52)	0.71 (0.50)	1

Note: M = Mean, SD=Standard deviation, CR=construct reliability, AVE=average variance extracted, Squared correlations in parentheses

Discriminant validity was assessed in four ways, as was outlined in Chapter Four. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. As can be seen in Table 5.7, the AVE for the preparation and serving authentic food factors ranged from 0.67 to 0.87. These values exceeded the squared correlations between both food authenticity factors which ranged from 0.50 to 0.81, suggesting discriminant validity. An exception was the AVE for the

cultural heritage food factor (0.67) which did not exceed the squared correlation with the preparation food factor. Second, the correlation between the cultural heritage and serving factors was moderate (0.72) and below 0.80 which has been observed as being the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations for all three authentic food factors were investigated to determine whether they were significantly less than one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Of all the correlations between the authentic food factors, the highest correlation was 0.90. This had a confidence interval of 0.99 that ranged from 0.25 to 0.88. As the upper end of the highest interval was less than one, the test suggested discriminant validity. Fourth, the correlation between each authentic food factor and another relevant existing scale was examined. As can be seen in Table 5.8, all relevant correlations (0.71-0.79) were below 0.80 where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Since the majority of the tests for discriminant validity were met, this suggested discriminant factors.

Table 5.8: Study Four - Indexical authentic food factor correlations with existing scales

Construct	Castéran and Roederer's (2013) destination authenticity scale	Chhabra's (2008) artefact authenticity scale	Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale
Preparation	0.79***	0.78***	0.75***
Cultural Heritage	0.79***	0.78***	0.76***
Serving	0.72***	0.70***	0.71***

Note: * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

Correlations between a food authenticity attribute and a relevant existing scale in bold

Next, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale was tested for its reliability under the iconically authentic food condition. Composite reliabilities and average variance

extracted scores were calculated from structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. All composite reliabilities exceeded 0.86, suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010), as can be seen in Table 5.10.

Table 5.9: Study Four - Iconically authentic food goodness-of-fit indicators

Items	Parameter Estimates
Factor 1: Preparation	
The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	0.78
The recipe is true to the original recipe	0.70
The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques	0.75
The ingredients are traditional	0.80
Factor 2: Serving	
The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	0.82
The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	0.71
Model fit statistics	
χ^2/df	2.98
RMSEA	0.06
CFI	0.99
NFI	0.98
GFI	0.99

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

Convergent validity of the iconically authentic food factors was examined in three ways. First, as can be seen in Table 5.9, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of parameter estimates for each authentic food factor was above 0.70, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 5.10, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores ranged from 0.69 to 0.75, which was equal to or greater than 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), again suggesting convergent validity. Third, as can be seen in Table 5.11, the correlation coefficient between each iconically authentic food factor and an existing relevant scale was significant (Churchill 1999). As was expected, the preparation factor correlated with Castéran and Roederer's (2013) destination authenticity scale (0.64) and the serving factor with Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale (0.51). Since these correlations were moderate to high (0.51-0.64), this suggested convergent validity.

Table 5.10: Study Four - Iconically authentic food factor composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Attribute	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	Prep	Serv
Preparation (Prep)	4	5.45	0.86	0.89	0.69	1	
Serving (Serv)	2	5.26	0.87	0.86	0.75	0.59 (0.35)	1

Note: M=Mean, SD=Standard deviation, CR=construct reliability, AVE=average variance extracted Squared correlations in parentheses

Discriminant validity was assessed in four ways. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. As can be seen in Table 5.10, the AVE for the preparation and serving authentic food factors ranged from 0.69 to 0.75. These values exceeded the squared correlations between both authentic food factors which was 0.35, suggesting discriminant validity. Second, the correlation between the cultural heritage and serving factors was moderate (0.59) and below 0.80 which has been observed as being the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations for both authentic food factors were investigated to determine whether they were significantly less than one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). The correlation between the two authentic food factors was 0.59. This had a confidence interval of 0.99 that ranged from 0.47 to 0.70. As the upper end of the highest interval was less than one, the test suggested discriminant validity. Fourth, the correlation between each authentic food factor and another relevant existing scale was examined. As can be seen in Table 5.11, all relevant correlations (0.51-0.64) were below 0.80 where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Since all four tests for discriminant validity were met, this suggested discriminant factors.

Table 5.11: Study Four - Iconic authentic food factor correlations with existing scales

Construct	Castéran and Roederer's (2013) destination authenticity scale	Chhabra's (2008) artefact authenticity scale	Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale
Preparation	0.64***	0.64***	0.60***
Serving	0.59***	0.51***	0.51***

Note: * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

Correlations between a food authenticity attribute and a relevant existing scale in bold

Finally, structural equation modelling with AMOS 22 was used to examine predictive validity of the newly developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. As was outlined in chapter two, in marketing studies, it is premised that product authenticity influences attitude toward the product (e.g. Kolar and Zabkar 2010). Consequently, the authentic food factors were tested for their ability to predict attitude toward the food. To achieve this, Bagozzi and Yi's (2012) adapted three-item attitude toward product scale was summed into a composite. Then, in path analysis, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale factors were regressed onto the attitude composite, first under the indexical authenticity condition and then, under the iconic authenticity condition.

For the indexically authentic food, preparation ($\beta=0.41$, $p=0.001$), cultural heritage ($\beta=0.38$, $p=0.001$) and serving ($\beta=0.033$, $p=0.001$) produced significant and positive effects on attitude toward the food. This supported predictive validity for the three indexical authentic food factors, as can be seen in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Study Four - Indexically authentic food factor predictive validity

Attribute	t-Statistic	Standardised β Scores	p-value
Preparation	8.82	0.41	0.001
Cultural Heritage	7.88	0.38	0.001
Serving	6.86	0.33	0.001

For the iconic food, preparation ($\beta=0.24$, $p=0.001$) and serving ($\beta=0.31$, $p=0.001$) produced significant and positive effects on attitude toward the food. As can be seen in Table 5.13, this supported predictive validity for the two iconic authentic food factors.

Table 5.13: Study Four - Iconically authentic food factor predicative validity

Attribute	t-Statistic	Standardised β Scores	p-value
Preparation	3.60	0.24	0.001
Serving	4.60	0.31	0.001

To summarise, in the fifth stage of the scale development process, Study Four was used to test the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale for reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity. The results demonstrated that the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale had sound psychometric properties. This suggested that it was appropriate to proceed to the final stage of the scale development process where measurement invariance of the scale was tested.

5.2.6. Stage Six: Testing for measurement invariance (Studies One to Four)

The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which demonstrated reliability and validity in Study Four, was assessed for measurement invariance using data collected in Studies One to Four. The data from all four studies comprised a total of 3,130 potentially travelling Singaporeans who reported a willingness to visit South Korea. From this, 1,475 responses were collected under the indexical authenticity condition and 1,655 responses were collected under the iconic authenticity condition. Multigroup analysis in structural equation modelling with AMOS 22 was used to determine whether the authentic food factors were invariant across the four studies,

first under the indexically authentic food condition and then, under iconically authentic food condition.

In assessing measurement invariance for the indexically authentic food condition, the first test was for configural invariance. For this test, a fully unconstrained measurement model was specified with AMOS 22. The model (M1) included the indexically authentic food scale items identified in Studies One to Four, as can be seen in Table 5.14. The unconstrained model had an acceptable fit ($\chi^2=221.09$, $df=96$, $RMSEA=0.03$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.98$, $GFI=0.97$). This suggested that the scale had configural invariance across the four studies, as can be seen in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Studies One to Four - Indexically authentic food measurement invariance

Model Specification	χ^2	df	Models Compared	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	χ^2/df	p -value	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	GFI
M1: Configural invariance	221.09	96	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.84	0.03	0.99	0.98	0.97
M2: Full metric invariance	243.60	123	M2 vs. M1	22.51	2	11.26	0.71	0.03	0.99	0.98	0.97
M3: Partial metric invariance	-	-	M3 vs. M1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M4: Full factor variance invariance	234.57	105	M4 vs. M1	13.48	9	1.50	0.14	0.03	0.99	0.98	0.97
M5: Partial factor variance invariance	-	-	M5 vs. M1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df =degrees of freedom, $RMSEA$ =root mean square error of approximation, CFI =comparative fit indices, NFI =normative fit index, GFI =goodness of fit index

Since configural invariance was established, a test for full metric invariance proceeded. For this test, all the standardised regression weights between the indexical authentic food items and their respective latent variable were constrained using AMOS 22. This model (M2) was compared with the configural model (M1). As can be seen

in Table 5.14, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and Δdf were 22.51 and 2 respectively, with a non-significant p -value of 0.71. Therefore, full metric invariance was supported across the four studies.

In testing for full factor variance invariance, the original unconstrained configural model was revisited. Each latent variable in the configural model was constrained with AMOS 22. This model (M4) was compared with the configural model (M1). As can be seen in Table 5.14, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and Δdf were 13.48 and 9 respectively, with a non-significant p -value of 0.14. This suggested that the scale had full factor variance invariance across the four studies.

Then, measurement invariance for the iconically authentic food condition was tested for configural invariance. For this test, a fully unconstrained measurement model was specified with AMOS 22. The model (M1) included the iconically authentic food scale items identified in Studies One to Four. The unconstrained model had an acceptable fit ($\chi^2=63.93$, $df=32$, $RMSEA=0.03$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.99$, $GFI=0.99$), which suggested that the scale had configural invariance across the four studies, as can be seen in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Studies One to Four - Iconically authentic food measurement invariance

Model Specification	χ^2	<i>df</i>	Models Compared	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	χ^2/df	<i>p</i> -value	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	GFI
M1: Configural invariance	63.93	32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1.91	0.03	0.99	0.99	0.99
M2: Full metric invariance	98.72	50	M2 vs. M1	34.79	18	1.93	0.01	0.03	0.99	0.98	0.98
M3: Partial metric invariance	71.38	38	M3 vs. M1	7.45	6	1.24	0.28	0.02	0.99	0.98	0.99
M4: Full factor variance invariance	82.04	38	M4 vs. M1	18.11	6	3.02	0.01	0.03	0.99	0.98	0.98
M5: Partial factor variance invariance	67.74	35	M5 vs. M1	3.81	3	1.27	0.28	0.02	0.99	0.98	0.99

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, *df*=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit index, GFI=goodness of fit index

Since configural invariance was established, a test for full metric invariance proceeded. For this test, all the standardised regression weights between the iconically authentic food items and their respective latent variable were constrained using AMOS 22. This model (M2) was compared with the configural model (M1). As can be seen in Table 5.15, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and Δdf were 34.79 and 18 respectively, with a significant *p*-value of 0.01. Therefore, full metric invariance was not supported and testing for partial metric invariance was required. In testing for partial metric invariance, the modification indices were examined to identify items that were problematic.

The items in the preparation latent variable which produced the greatest variance across groups were unconstrained and the required goodness-of-fit indices between the compared models (M3 vs. M1) were achieved. As can be seen in Table 5.15, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and Δdf were 7.45 and 6 respectively, with a non-significant *p*-value of 0.28. The other goodness-of-fit indices were also acceptable ($\chi^2/df=2.23$, RMSEA=0.02, CFI=0.99,

NFI=0.98, GFI=0.99). Therefore, partial metric invariance was supported across the four studies.

Although the items in the preparation factor was variant across Studies One to Four, this is an expected result and can be explained. Items representing the preparation factor refer to the ingredients, recipe and cooking methods of the food. It is noteworthy that this variance was evident only for the iconically authentic food condition. Given that iconically authentic foods are reproductions of the original, often with changes made to various aspects of the production method, it is expected that perception of authenticity will vary from one consumer to another. In this instance, the stimulus suggested that the iconically authentic food is a fusion recipe with its ingredients and cooking methods altered for practical purposes. This departure from the original recipe would elicit differing perceptions of authenticity for each item by the consumer.

In testing for full factor variance invariance, the original unconstrained configural model was revisited. Each latent variable in the configural model was constrained with AMOS 22. This model (M4) was compared with the configural model (M1). As can be seen in Table 5.15, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and Δdf were 18.11 and 6 respectively, with a significant p -value of 0.01. Therefore, full factor variance invariance was not supported and testing for partial factor variance invariance was required. In testing for partial factor variance invariance, the modification indices were examined to identify latent variables that were problematic.

The preparation factor which produced the greatest variance across the groups was unconstrained and the required goodness-of-fit indices between the compared models (M5 vs. M1) were achieved. As can be seen in Table 5.15, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and Δdf were 3.81 and 3 respectively, with a non-significant p -value of 0.28. The other goodness-of-fit

indices were also acceptable ($\chi^2/df=1.94$, RMSEA=0.02, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.98, GFI=0.99). This suggested that the scale had partial factor variance invariance across the four studies.

Again, although the preparation factor was variant across Studies One to Four, this is an expected result and can be explained. As with the test for metric invariance, this variance was evident only under the iconic authenticity condition. Given adaptations made to the production method, perception of authenticity is expected to vary between consumers. The varying recipes and cooking methods are likely to elicit differing perceptions of authenticity from one consumer to the other.

A summary of the measurement invariance tests conducted under the indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity can be seen in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Studies One to Four - Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items in measurement invariance

Indexically authentic food factors	Items
Preparation	The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation The ingredients are traditional The ingredients follow original Korean culture The recipe is true to the original recipe
Cultural heritage	The cooking method is documented in history The ginseng chicken is enjoyed by the local community The ginseng chicken is consumed in the tradition of the local lifestyle The ginseng chicken is historically famous The ginseng chicken is the original
Serving	The ginseng chicken originates from the owners family heritage The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware
Iconically authentic food factors	Items
Preparation	The cooking method follows original Korean cooking techniques The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation The ingredients are traditional The ingredients follow original Korean culture The recipe is true to the original recipe
Serving	The cooking method is documented in history The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware

*Note: **Bold** items used in achieving partial metric and partial factor variance invariance*

To summarise, in the final stage of the scale development process, Studies One, Two, Three and Four were used to test the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale for measurement invariance. The results are summarised and can be seen in Table 5.14. Under the indexical authenticity condition, the scale possessed configural, full metric and full factor variance invariance across all four studies. Under the iconic condition, the scale had configural, partial metric and factor variance invariance.

5.3. Chapter summary

The second research objective (RO2) identified in the current study is addressed in this Chapter. This is to develop an Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale that can be utilised for different foods. This was achieved when the 9-item measure for the three indexically authentic food factors and 6-item measure for the two iconically authentic food factors exhibited reliability and validity, suggesting the scale had rigorous psychometric properties. Further, the scale demonstrated configural, metric and factor variance invariance under the indexical authenticity condition and configural, partial metric and partial factor variance invariance under the iconic authenticity condition. This suggests that the scale is generalisable and could be introduced into a structural model. A summary of the scale development process can be seen in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development process summary

Stage one – Construct definition		
Qualitative	Purpose	Conceptualise the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale
	Methods	Literature search
	Results	Conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity were derived from Grayson and Martinec (2004). The current study defines indexical authenticity as <i>the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination</i> and iconic authenticity as <i>a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version</i> . The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale was conceptualised as a continuum and operationalised as a seven-point bipolar scale with indexical and iconic authenticity at two extreme poles on the continuum
Stage two – Generating scale items		
Qualitative	Purpose	Identify themes and generate scale items for the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity
	Items	34 initial; 15 final
	Participants	47 (4 x 8 person focus group; 6 person expert panel; 9 person expert panel)
	Methods	Literature search; 4 focus groups; 2 expert panels
	Results	34 items representing 5 food authenticity dimensions, namely, ingredients, recipe, cooking methods, cultural heritage and serving were identified

Stage three – Purifying scale items		
Study One	Purpose	Purify the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items
	Items	15 initial; 13 final
	Participants	757 total, 397 under the indexical authenticity condition, 360 under the iconic authenticity condition
	Methods	Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with SPSS 22; reliability analysis (Cronbach alpha)
	Results	EFA identified 3 factors: (1) preparation ($\alpha=0.89$); (2) cultural heritage ($\alpha=0.84$); and (3) serving ($\alpha=0.71$)
Stage four – Refining the scale		
Study Two	Purpose	Test dimensionality of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items with the three factors identified in Stage three
	Items	13 initial; 9 final (indexical authenticity condition), 6 final (iconic authenticity condition)
	Participants	682 total, 259 under the indexical authenticity condition, 423 under the iconic authenticity condition
	Methods	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA); construct reliability (CR)
	Results	CFA refined the scale. Indexical authenticity condition: (1) preparation (CR=0.91); (2) cultural heritage (CR=0.90); and (3) serving (CR=0.72) Iconic authenticity condition: (1) preparation (CR=0.77); and (2) serving (CR =0.73)
Study Three	Purpose	Test dimensionality of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale items with the three factors identified in Stage three
	Items	9 initial; 9 final (indexical authenticity condition), 6 final (iconic authenticity condition)
	Participants	733 total, 382 under the indexical authenticity condition, 351 under the iconic authenticity condition
	Methods	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA); construct reliability (CR)
	Results	CFA required no refinement Indexical authenticity condition: (1) preparation (CR=0.90); (2) cultural heritage (CR=0.85); and (3) serving (CR=0.88) Iconic authenticity condition: (1) preparation (CR=0.86); and (2) serving (CR =0.73)
Stage five - Validation		
Study Four	Purpose	Test the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale for convergent, discriminant and predictive validity
	Items	9 final (indexical authenticity condition), 6 final (iconic authenticity condition)
	Participants	958 total, 437 under the indexical authenticity condition, 521 under the iconic authenticity condition
	Existing scales utilised	Castéran and Roederer's (2013) destination authenticity scale, Chhabra's (2008) artefact authenticity scale and Jang, Ha and Park's (2012) ethnic restaurant authenticity scale
	Methods	Steenkamp and van Trijp (1991); Fornell and Larcker (1981); Churchill (1999); Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994); structural equation modelling
Results	The Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale exhibited convergent, discriminant and predictive validity for both the indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity conditions	

Stage six - Measurement invariance		
Studies One to Four	Purpose	Test the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale for measurement invariance to establish its generalisability
	Items	9 final (indexical authenticity condition), 6 final (iconic authenticity condition)
	Participants	3,130 total, 1,475 under the indexical authenticity condition, 1,655 under the iconic authenticity condition
	Methods	Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998); Wang and Waller (2006); multigroup analysis
	Results	Under the indexical authenticity condition, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale exhibits configural invariance, full metric invariance and full factor variance invariance. Under the iconic authenticity condition, the scale demonstrates configural invariance, partial metric invariance and partial factor variance invariance. In order to achieve partial metric and partial factor variance invariance, the preparation factor and its items were unconstrained.

In the next Chapter, the newly developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale will be used to test the manipulation of stimuli for the four authenticity conditions. This is required to test the hypothesised relationships in the research model.

CHAPTER SIX RESULTS

6.1. Introduction

Chapter One identified the four key objectives of the current study. First was to extend conceptualisations of authenticity related to food and travel destinations (*RO1*). These various conceptualisation of authenticity were introduced and the thesis position on the various perspectives were clarified in Chapter Two. Second was to develop an authenticity scale for food (*RO2*). Development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and findings from this process were outlined in Chapter Five. Third was to examine country image for the differential impacts it had on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four authenticity conditions (*RO3*). To achieve this, country image, attitude toward the food and travel destination as well as behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination were introduced into structural models, to test *H1* to *H4* under four authenticity conditions, and findings are reported in this Chapter. Fourth was to explore the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity had on the constructs in the research model under four experimental authenticity conditions (*RO4*). To address this, each moderator category was assessed for effects it had on the relationships between country image, attitude and behavioural intention, to test *H5* and *H6* under four authenticity conditions, and findings are also reported in this Chapter.

This Chapter sets out to examine the research questions and hypotheses in the research model identified in Chapter Three. First, descriptive analyses of the demographic data establish sample profiles for the four authenticity conditions. Second, confirmatory factor analyses refine the existing scales for constructs in the research model. Third, path analysis tests the relationships country image, attitude and behavioural intention

toward the food and travel destination. Finally, path analysis explores the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination.

6.2. Sample profile

The hypothesised relationships in the research model (*H1* to *H6*) were assessed using the data collected in Study Four. A total of 1079 responses were collected and 958 responses (89 percent) were deemed usable for the four of the experimental authenticity conditions. These conditions were: (1) iconically authentic food and iconically authentic travel destination (Icon-Icon condition); (2) iconically authentic food and indexically authentic travel destination (Icon-Index condition); (3) indexically authentic food and iconically authentic travel destination (Index-Icon condition); and (4) indexically authentic food and indexically authentic travel destination (Index-Index condition). The final sample sizes for each of the four experimental conditions can be seen in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Sample size for authenticity conditions

Authenticity Condition	Total Sample Size (N=1079)	Usable Sample Size (N=958)
Icon-Icon Authenticity	338	303
Icon-Index Authenticity	240	218
Index-Icon Authenticity	241	199
Index-Index Authenticity	260	238

6.2.1. Demographic profile

Descriptive analysis with SPSS 22 examined first, the pooled sample of 958 participants and then, the individual samples for the four experimental authenticity

conditions. The gender, age, marital status, education and income levels of the pooled and individual samples can be seen in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Demographic profiles

Sample Characteristic	Percentage				
	Pooled Sample (N=958)	Icon-Icon (N=303)	Icon-Index (N=218)	Index-Icon (N=199)	Index-Index (N=238)
Gender					
Male	45.0	49.2	44.0	43.7	41.6
Female	55.0	50.8	56.0	56.3	58.4
Age					
21 – 34 years	11.4	13.5	15.1	7.0	8.8
35 – 44 years	69.9	66.0	57.8	78.4	79.0
45 – 54 years	13.7	16.8	15.1	12.1	9.7
55 – 70 years	4.0	3.6	7.3	2.5	2.5
Marital Status					
Single	58.6	62.0	53.2	60.3	57.6
In a relationship	24.9	21.5	23.4	25.6	30.3
Married	15.8	15.8	22.5	13.6	11.3
Divorced	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.8
Education					
Certificate	6.7	5.3	6.0	6.0	9.7
Advanced Diploma or Diploma	29.4	33.7	26.1	33.2	23.9
Bachelor Degree	48.2	48.2	48.2	44.2	51.7
Graduate Diploma or Graduate Certificate	6.7	6.6	7.8	5.0	7.1
Postgraduate Degree	7.8	5.9	11.0	10.1	5.5
Other	1.1	0.3	0.9	1.5	2.1
Income (Annual)					
Under \$14,999	14.0	8.3	22.5	13.6	13.9
\$15,000 - \$29,999	9.5	12.9	6.9	9.0	8.0
\$30,000 - \$49,999	51.1	46.9	46.3	58.8	54.6
\$50,000 - \$74,999	13.2	10.6	14.2	13.1	15.5
\$75,000 - \$99,999	6.3	10.2	6.0	3.5	3.8
\$100,000 - \$149,999	2.5	4.3	1.8	1.5	1.7
\$150,000 - \$199,999	1.1	3.0	0.9	0.0	0.0
\$200,000 and above	2.3	4.0	1.4	0.5	2.5

Note: Due to some incidents of missing data, some statistics will not add up to 100%

There was a consistent gender distribution in the pooled sample, with females representing 58 percent of participants. Across the individual samples, females made up more than half of the samples, with the highest (58 percent) in the Index-Index sample and the lowest (51 percent) in the Icon-Icon sample. The gender distribution in the pooled and individual samples was representative of Singapore's population of 51 percent females as reported by the Singapore Department of Statistics (2014).

The dominant age group was 35-44 years (70 percent) in the pooled sample. Again, this trend was repeated across the individual samples, with the highest (79 percent) in the Index-Index sample and the lowest (58 percent) in the Icon-Index sample. This suggested that the age distribution of participants in the current study was skewed toward the middle-aged brackets.

Single participants were the majority (59 percent) in the pooled sample. The individual samples followed this trend, with the highest (62 percent) in the Icon-Icon sample and the lowest (53 percent) in the Icon-Index sample. The single status was relatively higher than the Singapore Department of Statistics (2014) census which reported that 62 percent of the population was married.

In terms of literacy, most participants in the pooled sample had a Bachelor Degree (48 percent). This trend was observable across the individual samples, with the highest (52 percent) in the Index-Index sample and the lowest (44 percent) in the Index-Icon sample. This figure was higher than the Singapore Department of Statistics (2014) census which reported that 28 percent of the population held Bachelor Degrees.

Finally, the largest group of participants (51 percent) in the pooled sample fell into the \$30,000-\$49,999 income category. Similarly, across the individual samples, approximately half of the participants were from the income category of \$30,000-

\$49,999, with the highest (59 percent) in the Index-Icon sample and the lowest (46 percent) in the Icon-Index sample. The income distribution in the pooled and individual samples was representative of Singapore's population where the median annual income was \$45,240 as reported by the Singapore Ministry of Manpower (2015).

6.3. Experimental authenticity conditions

The third research objective of the current study sets out to examine the differential impacts country image had on attitude and behavioural intention toward food and the travel destination (*RO3*). To achieve this, the seven constructs in the research model were first refined through confirmatory factor analysis using one-factor congeneric models with AMOS 22. Then, reliability and validity of the constructs were assessed using structural equation modelling in AMOS 22. Once reliability and validity was established, the constructs were introduced into a measurement model. Finally, the constructs were introduced into a full structural model and the hypothesised relationships were examined using path analysis with AMOS 22. This process was adopted for each of the four experimental authenticity conditions.

6.4. Icon-Icon condition

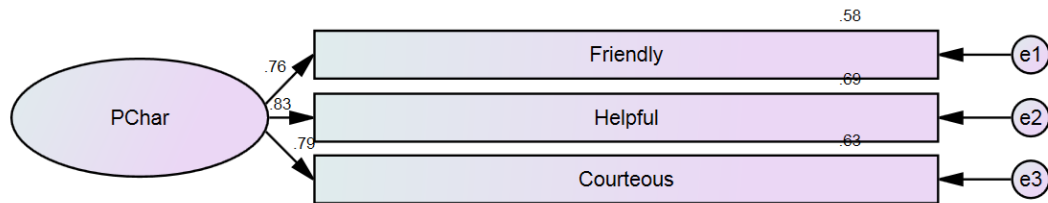
The Icon-Icon condition presented an iconically authentic version of food (Korean Ginseng Chicken) and an iconically authentic version of the travel destination (Daegu Otgol Village). As was outlined in Chapter Four, the appropriateness of the Icon-Icon condition was evaluated from the newly developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and the adapted destination authenticity scale from Castéran and Roederer (2013).

First, a composite of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which encompassed the preparation and serving factors under the iconic authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The composite produced a mean of 5.83 on the 7-point scale, suggesting that the stimulus sufficiently addressed participants' perceptions of the iconic authenticity condition for food. Then, a composite of Castéran and Roederer's (2013) six-item scale under the iconic authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The mean for the composite was 5.61 on the 7-point scale, indicating that the stimulus adequately met participants' perceptions of the iconic authenticity condition for the travel destination.

6.4.1. Icon-Icon condition - Confirmatory factor analysis

One-factor congeneric models analysed and refined the psychometric properties of the seven constructs in the research model that included: (1) country image (people characteristics); (2) country image (country characteristics); (3) overall country image; (4) attitude toward food; (5) behavioural intention toward food; (6) attitude toward the travel destination; and (7) behavioural intention toward the travel destination.

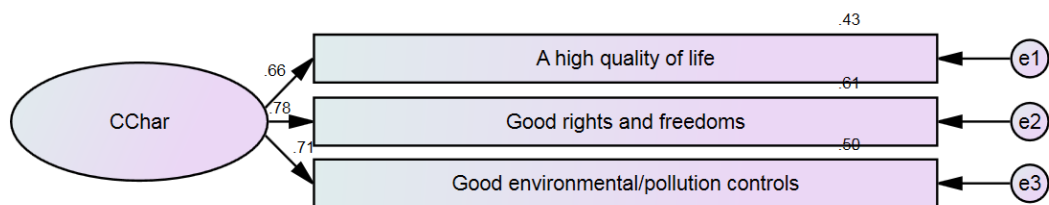
Figure 6.1: Country image (people characteristics) - One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.12$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

The six-item model for the country image (people characteristics) construct had an unacceptable fit. After consulting the modification indices for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999), three items, namely, “*Likeable*,” “*Trustworthy*” and “*Honest*” were removed iteratively due to cross-loading. Subsequently, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item model was acceptable ($\chi^2=0.12$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99), as can be seen in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.2: Country image (country characteristics) - One-factor congeneric model

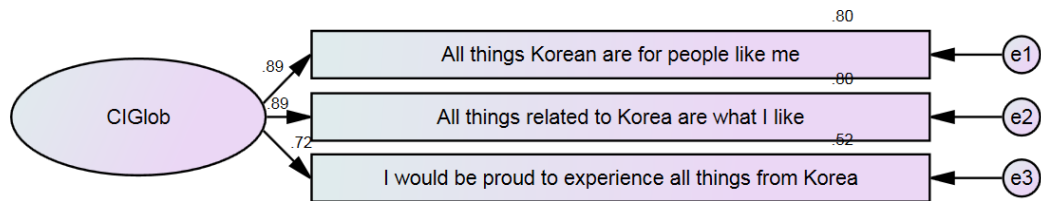


Model fit: $\chi^2=1.65$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the six-item country image (country characteristics) construct was deemed an unacceptable fit and the modification indices were examined for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, three items were deleted, namely, “*Wealth*,” “*Involvement in world politics*” and “*Political stability*” due to cross-loading. As can

be seen in Figure 6.2, the resultant three-item model had good fit ($\chi^2=1.65$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99) and was accepted.

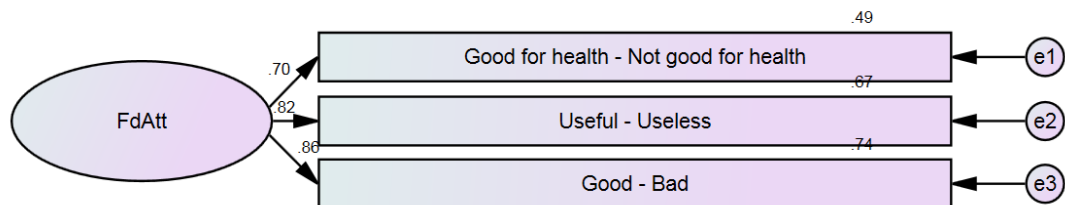
Figure 6.3: Overall country image - One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.18$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

As can be seen in Figure 6.3, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item overall country image construct was acceptable ($\chi^2=0.18$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99, GFI=0.99). As such, the model was not further refined.

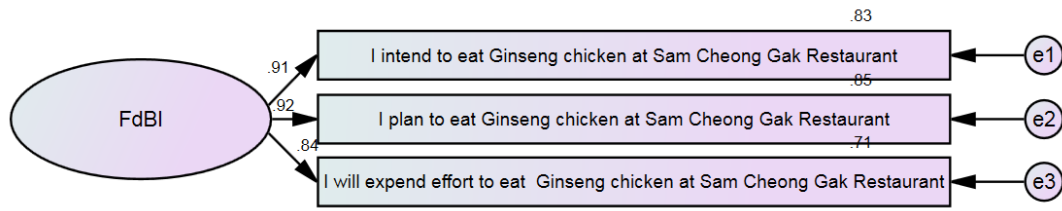
Figure 6.4: Attitude toward food - One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.37$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

The six-item attitude toward food model had an unacceptable fit. After consulting the modification indices for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999), three items, namely, “Beneficial - Harmful,” “A wise choice - A foolish choice” and “Favourable - Unfavourable” was removed iteratively due to cross-loading. Subsequently, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item model was acceptable ($\chi^2=0.37$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99), as can be seen in Figure 6.4.

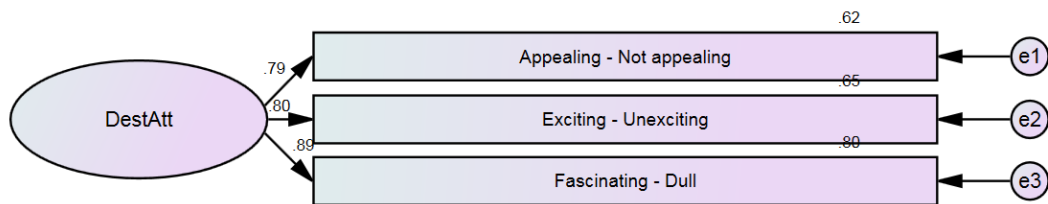
Figure 6.5: Behavioural intention toward food - One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=1.63$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

As can be seen in Figure 6.5, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item behavioural intention toward food construct was acceptable ($\chi^2=1.63$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99, GFI=0.99). Subsequently, no further refinements were made to the model.

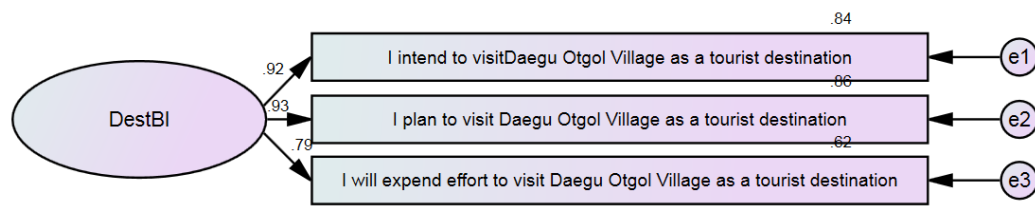
Figure 6.6: Attitude toward travel destination - One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.53$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the five-item attitude toward the travel destination construct was deemed an unacceptable fit and the modification indices were examined for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, two items were deleted, namely, “*Fun - not fun*” and “*Interesting - boring*” due to cross-loading. As can be seen in Figure 6.6, the resultant three-item model had good fit ($\chi^2=0.53$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99) and was accepted.

Figure 6.7: Behavioural intention toward travel destination - One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.67$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.95, CFI=0.96, NFI=0.96

As can be seen in Figure 6.7, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item behavioural intention toward travel destination construct was acceptable ($\chi^2=0.67$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.05, CFI=0.95, NFI=0.96, GFI=0.96). As such, the model was not further refined.

6.4.2. Icon-Icon condition - Reliability and validity

The seven constructs identified in the confirmatory factor analyses were assessed for their composite reliability as well as their convergent and discriminant validity. Composite reliabilities and average variance extracted scores were calculated using structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. As can be seen in Table 6.3, all composite reliabilities exceeded 0.70, ranging from 0.76 to 0.92, suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010).

Convergent validity of the seven constructs was examined in two ways. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor congeneric models were examined. As can be seen in Figures 6.1 to 6.7, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of parameter estimates for each construct were above 0.60, ranging from 0.66 to 0.93, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 6.3, the average variance extracted

(AVE) scores of the seven constructs ranged from 0.51 to 0.80, which were equal to or greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), again demonstrating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity of the seven constructs was examined in three ways. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. The AVE for the seven constructs (0.51-0.80) exceeded the squared correlations between any two constructs (0.04-0.50), suggesting discriminant validity. Second, as can be seen in Table 6.3, correlations between the constructs, ranging from 0.19 to 0.71, were below 0.80 which has been observed as being the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations between all seven constructs were investigated to determine whether their confidence intervals were less than one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Since the highest correlation of 0.70 had a 99 percent confidence interval, ranging from 0.66 to 0.83, the upper end of the highest confidence interval was less than one, suggesting discriminant validity.

Table 6.3: Icon-Icon condition - Composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Construct	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	PChar	CChar	CIGlob	FdAtt	FdBI	DestAtt	DestBI
Country image (people characteristics) (PChar)	3	5.60	0.93	0.84	0.63	1						
Country image (country characteristics) (CChar)	3	5.28	0.83	0.76	0.51	0.52 (0.27)	1					
Overall country image (CIGlob)	3	4.74	1.12	0.88	0.71	0.32 (0.10)	0.43 (0.19)	1				
Attitude toward food product (FdAtt)	3	5.70	1.02	0.84	0.63	0.44 (0.19)	0.36 (0.13)	0.27 (0.07)	1			
Behavioural intention toward food product (FdBI)	3	4.52	1.19	0.92	0.80	0.31 (0.10)	0.24 (0.06)	0.36 (0.13)	0.63 (0.39)	1		
Attitude toward travel destination (DestAtt)	3	5.25	1.25	0.87	0.69	0.40 (0.16)	0.27 (0.07)	0.19 (0.04)	0.60 (0.36)	0.42 (0.18)	1	
Behavioural intention toward travel destination (DestBI)	3	4.60	1.20	0.91	0.77	0.45 (0.20)	0.27 (0.07)	0.28 (0.08)	0.49 (0.24)	0.61 (0.37)	0.71 (0.50)	1

Note: M=Mean, SD=Standard deviation, CR=Construct reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted Squared correlations in parentheses

6.4.3. Icon-Icon condition - Full measurement model

The seven constructs were then introduced into a full measurement model to ensure no significant misfit and no further improvement to the model was required (Jöreskog 1971). Initially, the full model did not produce a good fit. Therefore, the modification indices were consulted to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, four items, namely, “A high quality of life,” “All things related to Korea are what I like,” “Exciting-Unexciting” and “I will expend effort to visit Daegu Olgol Village” were removed due to cross-loading. After these items were eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices for the model were deemed appropriate ($\chi^2=235.78$, $df=98$, $RMSEA=0.07$, $GFI=0.92$, $CFI=0.96$ $NFI=0.93$). This suggested that the model under the Icon-Icon condition was ready for testing of $H1$ to $H4$ using path analysis with AMOS 22.

6.5. Icon-Index condition

The Icon-Index condition presented an iconically authentic version of food (Korean Ginseng Chicken) and an indexically authentic version of the travel destination (Daegu Otgol Village). As was outlined in Chapter Four, the appropriateness of the Icon-Index condition was evaluated from the newly developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and the adapted destination authenticity scale from Castéran and Roederer (2013).

First, a composite of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which encompassed the preparation and serving factors under the iconic authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The composite produced a mean of 5.41 on the 7-point scale, suggesting that the stimulus sufficiently addressed participants' perceptions of the iconic authenticity condition for food. Then, a composite of Castéran and Roederer's (2013) six-item scale under the indexical authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The mean for the composite was 2.53 on the 7-point scale, indicating that the stimulus adequately met participants' perceptions of the indexical authenticity condition for the travel destination.

6.5.1. Icon-Index condition - Confirmatory factor analysis

One-factor congeneric models analysed and refined the psychometric properties of the seven constructs in the research model that included: (1) country image (people characteristics); (2) country image (country characteristics); (3) overall country image; (4) attitude toward food; (5) behavioural intention toward food; (6) attitude toward the travel destination; and (7) behavioural intention toward the travel destination.

All seven constructs had acceptable goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2/df \leq 3.0$, $RMSEA \leq 0.08$, $GFI \geq 0.90$, $CFI \geq 0.90$, $NFI \geq 0.90$) as suggested by Baumgartner and Homburg (1996). As such, the scales were not further refined. A summary of these goodness-of-fit indices can be seen in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Icon-Index condition - Goodness-of-fit indices

Construct	Parameter Estimates	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI
Country image (people characteristics) (PChar)		0.36	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
Friendly	0.90						
Helpful	0.89						
Courteous	0.86						
Country image (country characteristics) (CChar)		0.94	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
A high quality of life	0.79						
Good rights and freedoms	0.87						
Good environmental/pollution controls	0.76						
Overall country image (CIGlob)		0.61	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
All things Korean are for people like me	0.87						
All things related to Korea are what I like	0.88						
I would be proud to experience all things from Korea	0.77						
Attitude toward food (FdAtt)		1.16	1	0.03	0.99	0.99	0.99
Good for health - Not good for health	0.84						
Useful - Useless	0.86						
Good - Bad	0.86						
Behavioural intention toward food (FdBI)		0.36	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.93						
I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.93						
I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.89						
Attitude toward travel destination (DestAtt)		1.14	1	0.03	0.99	0.99	0.99
Appealing - Not appealing	0.85						
Exciting - Unexciting	0.85						
Fascinating - Dull	0.91						
Behavioural intention toward travel destination (DestBI)		0.30	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
I intend to visit Daegu Otgol Village	0.93						
I plan to visit Daegu Otgol Village	0.93						
I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village	0.90						

Note: SCGR=Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant

6.5.2. Icon-Index condition - Reliability and validity

The seven constructs identified in the confirmatory factor analyses were assessed for their composite reliability as well as their convergent and discriminant validity. Composite reliabilities and average variance extracted scores were calculated using structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. As can be seen in Table 6.5, all composite reliabilities exceeded 0.70, ranging from 0.84 to 0.94, suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010).

Convergent validity of the seven constructs was examined in two ways. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor congeneric models were examined. As can be seen in Table 6.4, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of parameter estimates for each construct were above 0.60, ranging from 0.76 to 0.93, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 6.5, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores of the seven constructs ranged from 0.65 to 0.85, which were equal to or greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), again demonstrating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity of the seven constructs was examined in three ways. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. The AVE for the five constructs (0.65-0.85) exceeded the squared correlations between any two constructs (0.04-0.55), suggesting discriminant validity. Second, as can be seen in Table 6.5, correlations between the constructs, ranging from 0.19 to 0.74, were below 0.80 which has been observed as being the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations between all seven constructs were investigated to determine

whether their confidence intervals were less than one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Since the highest correlation of 0.74, had a 99 percent confidence interval, ranging from 0.62 to 0.87, the upper end of the highest confidence interval was less than one, suggesting discriminant validity.

Table 6.5: Icon-Index condition - Composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Construct	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	PChar	CChar	CIGlob	FdAtt	FdBI	DestAtt	DestBI
Country image (people characteristics) (PChar)	3	4.97	1.11	0.91	0.77	1						
Country image (country characteristics) (CChar)	3	5.02	1.06	0.84	0.65	0.60 (0.36)	1					
Overall country image (CIGlob)	3	4.73	1.20	0.88	0.71	0.52 (0.27)	0.55 (0.30)	1				
Attitude toward food (FdAtt)	3	5.26	1.173	0.89	0.73	0.28 (0.08)	0.37 (0.14)	0.19 (0.04)	1			
Behavioural intention toward food (FdBI)	3	4.46	1.24	0.94	0.85	0.34 (0.12)	0.32 (0.10)	0.49 (0.24)	0.38 (0.14)	1		
Attitude toward travel destination (DestAtt)	3	4.95	1.23	0.90	0.76	0.44 (0.19)	0.31 (0.10)	0.42 (0.18)	0.47 (0.22)	0.43 (0.18)	1	
Behavioural intention toward travel destination (DestBI)	3	4.52	1.24	0.94	0.85	0.42 (0.18)	0.33 (0.11)	0.48 (0.23)	0.35 (0.12)	0.53 (0.28)	0.74 (0.55)	1

Note: M=Mean, SD=Standard deviation, CR=Construct reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted
Squared correlations in parentheses

6.5.3. Icon-Index condition - Full measurement model

The seven constructs were then introduced into a full measurement model to ensure no significant misfit and no further improvement to the model was required (Jöreskog 1971). Initially, the full model did not produce a good fit. Therefore, the modification indices were consulted to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, four items, namely, “A high quality of life,” “All things related to Korea are what I like,” “Exciting-Unexciting” and “I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village” were removed due to cross-loading. After these

items were eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices for the model were deemed appropriate ($\chi^2=151.06$, $df=98$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.93, CFI=0.98 NFI=0.95). This suggested that the model under the Icon-Index condition was ready for testing of *H1* to *H4* using path analysis with AMOS 22.

6.6. Index-Icon condition

The Index-Icon condition presented an iconically authentic version of food (Korean Ginseng Chicken) and an indexically authentic version of the travel destination (Daegu Otgol Village). As was outlined in Chapter Four, the appropriateness of the Index-Icon condition was evaluated from the newly developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and the adapted destination authenticity scale from Castéran and Roederer (2013).

First, a composite of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which encompassed the preparation and serving factors under the indexical authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The composite produced a mean of 1.92 on the 7-point scale, suggesting that the stimulus sufficiently addressed participants' perceptions of the indexical authenticity condition for food. Then, a composite of Castéran and Roederer's (2013) six-item scale under the iconic authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The mean for the composite was 5.86 on the 7-point scale, indicating that the stimulus adequately met participants' perceptions of the iconic authenticity condition for the travel destination.

6.6.1. *Index-Icon condition* - Confirmatory factor analysis

One-factor congeneric models analysed and refined the psychometric properties of the seven constructs in the research model that included: (1) country image (people characteristics); (2) country image (country characteristics); (3) overall country image; (4) attitude toward food; (5) behavioural intention toward food; (6) attitude toward the travel destination; and (7) behavioural intention toward the travel destination.

All constructs had acceptable goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2/df \leq 3.0$, $RMSEA \leq 0.08$, $GFI \geq 0.90$, $CFI \geq 0.90$, $NFI \geq 0.90$) as suggested by Baumgartner and Homburg (1996). As such, the constructs were not further refined. The exception was attitude toward food which had a RMSEA score that was over 0.08. However, since the remaining goodness-of-fit indices met the criteria, the construct was deemed acceptable (Hair et al. 2010). A summary of these goodness-of-fit indices can be seen in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Index-Icon condition - Goodness-of-fit indices

Construct	Parameter Estimates	χ^2	df	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI
Country image (people characteristics) (PChar)		0.97	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
Friendly	0.88						
Helpful	0.97						
Courteous	0.89						
Country image (country characteristics) (CChar)		1.31	1	0.4	0.99	0.99	0.99
A high quality of life	0.87						
Good rights and freedoms	0.87						
Good environmental/pollution controls	0.70						
Overall country image (CIGlob)		0.35	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
All things Korean are for people like me	0.82						
All things related to Korea are what I like	0.95						
I would be proud to experience all things from Korea	0.79						
Attitude toward food (FdAtt)		2.64	1	0.09	0.99	0.99	0.99
Good for health - Not good for health	0.89						
Useful - Useless	0.83						
Good - Bad	0.90						
Behavioural intention toward food (FdBI)		2.48	1	0.04	0.97	0.94	0.94
I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.96						
I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.95						
I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.95						
Attitude toward travel destination (DestAtt)		0.18	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
Appealing - Not appealing	0.91						
Exciting - Unexciting	0.92						
Fascinating - Dull	0.95						
Behavioural intention toward travel destination (DestBI)		0.3	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
I intend to visit Daegu Olgol Village	0.95						
I plan to visit Daegu Olgol Village	0.94						
I will expend effort to visit Daegu Olgol Village	0.94						

Note: SCGR=Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant

6.6.2. Index-Icon condition - Reliability and validity

The seven constructs identified in the confirmatory factor analyses were assessed for their composite reliability as well as their convergent and discriminant validity. Composite reliabilities and average variance extracted scores were calculated using structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. As can be seen in Table 6.7, all composite reliabilities exceeded 0.70, ranging from 0.86 to 0.97, suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010).

Convergent validity of the seven constructs was examined in two ways. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor congeneric models were examined. As can be seen in Table 6.6, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of parameter estimates for each construct were above 0.60, ranging from 0.70 to 0.97, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 6.7, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores of the seven constructs ranged from 0.67 to 0.89, which were equal to or greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), again demonstrating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity of the seven constructs was examined in three ways. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. The AVE for the seven constructs (0.67-0.89) exceeded the squared correlations between any two constructs (0.04-0.50), suggesting discriminant validity. Second, as can be seen in Table 6.7, correlations between the constructs, ranging from 0.19 to 0.71, were below 0.80 which has been observed as being the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations between all seven constructs were investigated to determine

whether their confidence intervals were less than one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Since the highest correlation of 0.70 had a 99 percent confidence interval, ranging from 0.59 to 0.86, the upper end of the highest confidence interval was less than one, suggesting discriminant validity.

Table 6.7: Index-Icon condition - Composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Construct	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	PChar	CChar	CIGlob	FdAtt	FdBI	DestAtt	DestBI
People characteristics (PChar)	3	5.64	1.02	0.94	0.84	1						
Country characteristics (CChar)	3	5.54	0.97	0.86	0.67	0.70 (0.49)	1					
Overall country image (CIGlob)	3	4.40	1.58	0.89	0.73	0.48 (0.23)	0.47 (0.22)	1				
Attitude toward food (FdAtt)	3	5.69	1.16	0.90	0.77	0.19 (0.04)	0.27 (0.07)	0.29 (0.08)	1			
Behavioural intention toward food (FdBI)	3	4.76	1.56	0.97	0.91	0.41 (0.17)	0.42 (0.18)	0.63 (0.40)	0.43 (0.48)	1		
Attitude toward the travel destination (DestAtt)	3	5.09	1.53	0.95	0.86	0.25 (0.06)	0.26 (0.07)	0.28 (0.08)	0.30 (0.09)	0.34 (0.12)	1	
Behavioural intention toward the travel destination (DestBI)	3	4.58	1.49	0.96	0.89	0.27 (0.07)	0.26 (0.07)	0.47 (0.22)	0.30 (0.09)	0.30 (0.09)	0.71 (0.50)	1

Note: M=Mean, SD=Standard deviation, CR=Construct reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted
Squared correlations in parentheses

6.6.3. Index-Icon condition - Full measurement model

The seven constructs were then introduced into a full measurement model to ensure no significant misfit and no further improvement to the model was required (Jöreskog 1971). Initially, the full model for the sample did not produce a good fit. Therefore, the modification indices were consulted to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, four items, namely, “A high quality of life,” “All things related to Korea are what I like,” “Exciting-Unexciting” and “I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village” were removed due to cross-loading. After these items were eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices were deemed appropriate

($\chi^2=164.57$, $df=98$, RMSEA=0.06, GFI=0.92, CFI=0.98 NFI=0.95). This suggested that the model under the Index-Icon condition was ready for testing of *H1* to *H4* using path analysis with AMOS 22.

6.7. Index-Index condition

The Index-Index condition presented an iconically authentic version of food (Korean Ginseng Chicken) and an indexically authentic version of the travel destination (Daegu Otgol Village). As was outlined in Chapter Four, the appropriateness of the Index-Index condition was evaluated from the newly developed Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and the adapted destination authenticity scale from Castéran and Roederer (2013).

First, a composite of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale which encompassed the preparation and serving factors under the indexical authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The composite produced a mean of 2.33 on the 7-point scale, suggesting that the stimulus sufficiently addressed participants' perceptions of the indexical authenticity condition for food. Then, a composite of Castéran and Roederer's (2013) six-item scale under the indexical authenticity condition was calculated with SPSS 22. The mean for the composite was 2.29 on the 7-point scale, indicating that the stimulus adequately met participants' perceptions of the indexical authenticity condition for the travel destination.

6.7.1. Index-Index condition - Confirmatory factor analysis

One-factor congeneric models analysed and refined the psychometric properties of the seven constructs in the research model that included: (1) country image (people characteristics); (2) country image (country characteristics); (3) overall country image; (4) attitude toward food; (5) behavioural intention toward food; (6) attitude toward the travel destination; and (7) behavioural intention toward the travel destination.

All constructs had acceptable goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2/df \leq 3.0$, $RMSEA \leq 0.08$, $GFI \geq 0.90$, $CFI \geq 0.90$, $NFI \geq 0.90$) as suggested by Baumgartner and Homburg (1996). As such, the constructs were not further refined. The exception was overall country image which had a RMSEA score that was over 0.08. However, since the remaining goodness-of-fit indices met the criteria, the construct was deemed acceptable (Hair et al. 2010). A summary of these goodness-of-fit indices can be seen in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Index-Index condition - Goodness-of-fit indices

Construct	Parameter Estimates	χ^2	df	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI
Country image (people characteristics) (PChar)		0.87	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
Friendly	0.87						
Helpful	0.94						
Courteous	0.85						
Country image (country characteristics) (CChar)		0.27	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
A high quality of life	0.87						
Good rights and freedoms	0.85						
Good environmental/pollution controls	0.79						
Overall country image (CIGlob)		3.20	1	0.09	0.90	0.93	0.93
All things Korean are for people like me	0.90						
All things related to Korea are what I like	0.90						
I would be proud to experience all things from Korea	0.87						
Attitude toward food (FdAtt)		0.32	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
Good for health - Not good for health	0.71						
Useful - Useless	0.89						
Good - Bad	0.89						
Behavioural intention toward food (FdBI)		3.32	1	0.08	0.98	0.99	0.99
I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.96						
I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.95						
I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at SCGR	0.86						
Attitude toward travel destination (DestAtt)		1.23	1	0.03	0.99	0.99	0.99
Appealing - Not appealing	0.91						
Exciting - Unexciting	0.91						
Fascinating - Dull	0.93						
Behavioural intention toward travel destination (DestBI)		2.73	1	0.08	0.99	0.99	0.99
I intend to visit Daegu Olgol Village	0.95						
I plan to visit Daegu Olgol Village	0.95						
I will expend effort to visit Daegu Olgol Village	0.87						

Note: SCGR=Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant

6.7.2. Index-Index condition - Reliability and validity

The seven constructs identified in the confirmatory factor analyses were assessed for their composite reliability as well as their convergent and discriminant validity. Composite reliabilities and average variance extracted scores were calculated using structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. As can be seen in Table 6.9, all composite reliabilities exceeded 0.70, ranging from 0.87 to 0.95, suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010).

Convergent validity of the seven constructs was examined in two ways. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor congeneric models were examined. As can be seen in Table 6.8, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of parameter estimates for each construct were above 0.60, ranging from 0.71 to 0.96, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 6.9, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores of the seven constructs ranged from 0.70 to 0.86, which were equal to or greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), again demonstrating validity.

Discriminant validity of the seven constructs was examined in three ways. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. The AVE for the seven (0.70-0.86) exceeded the squared correlations between any two constructs which ranged from 0.04 to 0.61, suggesting discriminant validity. Second, as can be seen in Table 6.9, correlations between the constructs, ranging from 0.21 to 0.78, were below 0.80 which has been observed as being the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations between all seven constructs were investigated

to determine whether their confidence intervals were less than one (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Since the highest correlation of 0.70 had a 99 percent confidence interval, ranging from 0.69 to 0.91, the upper end of the highest confidence interval was less than one, suggesting discriminant validity.

Table 6.9: Index-Index condition - Composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Construct	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	PChar	CChar	CIGlob	FdAtt	FdBI	DestAtt	DestBI
Country image (people characteristics) (PChar)	3	5.1	1.12	0.92	0.79	1						
Country image (country characteristics) (CChar)	3	5.16	1.04	0.87	0.70	0.61 (0.37)	1					
Overall country image (CIGlob)	3	4.55	1.44	0.92	0.79	0.53 (0.28)	0.56 (0.31)	1				
Attitude toward food (FdAtt)	3	5.55	1.08	0.87	0.70	0.21 (0.04)	0.31 (0.10)	0.22 (0.05)	1			
Behavioural intention toward food (FdBI)	3	4.52	1.36	0.95	0.85	0.38 (0.14)	0.35 (0.12)	0.53 (0.28)	0.40 (0.16)	1		
Attitude toward travel destination (DestAtt)	3	4.93	1.42	0.94	0.84	0.28 (0.08)	0.24 (0.06)	0.44 (0.19)	0.30 (0.09)	0.45 (0.20)	1	
Behavioural intention toward travel destination (DestBI)	3	4.42	1.37	0.95	0.86	0.41 (0.17)	0.37 (0.14)	0.57 (0.32)	0.26 (0.07)	0.56 (0.31)	0.78 (0.61)	1

Note: M=Mean, SD=Standard deviation, CR=Construct reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted
Squared correlations in parentheses

6.7.3. Index-Index condition - Full measurement model

The seven constructs were then introduced into a full measurement model to ensure no significant misfit and no further improvement to the model was required (Jöreskog 1971). Initially, the full model did not produce a good fit. Therefore, the modification indices were consulted to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Reiteratively, four items, namely, “A high quality of life,” “All things related to Korea are what I like,” “Exciting-Unexciting” and “I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village” were removed due to cross-loading. After these

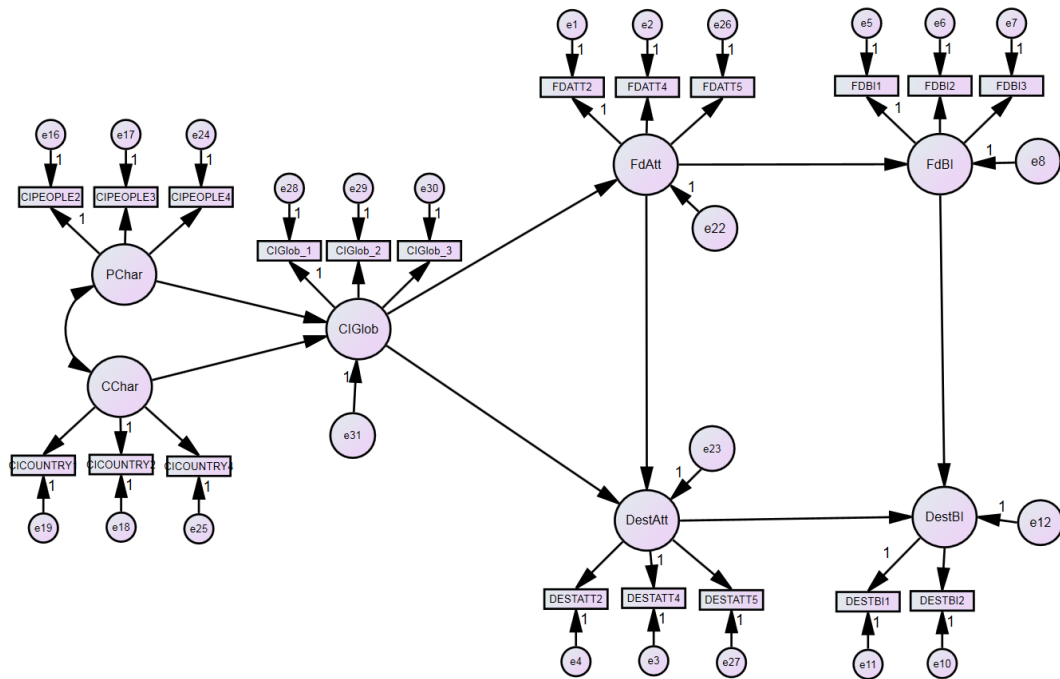
items were eliminated, the goodness-of-fit indices were deemed acceptable ($\chi^2=194.08$, $df=98$, RMSEA=0.06, GFI=0.92, CFI=0.97 NFI=0.94). This suggested that the model under the Index-Index condition was ready for testing of $H1$ to $H4$ using path analysis with AMOS 22.

6.8. Testing *H1* to *H4*

The third research objective of the current study sets out to examine country image for the differential impacts it has on attitude and behavioural intention toward food and travel destination under the four authenticity conditions (*RO3*). To achieve this, the key constructs in the research model were specified with structural models using path analysis with AMOS 22, as can be seen in Figure 6.8. First, model fit was evaluated using the criteria suggested by Brown (2004), McDonald and Ho (2002), Hair et al. (2010), Jöreskog (1970) and Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998). Then, the standardised regression weights and their corresponding significance levels were assessed to determine if *H1* to *H4* were supported.

As was explained in Chapter Two, country image encompasses consumer perceptions of a product based on their evaluations of a country and its people (Roth and Romeo 1992). Various characteristics of a country and its people reflect the image of that country. Thus, the country image construct is construed to have reflective scale items (Diamantopoulos and Papadopoulos 2010). Since there are problems in specifying a reflective relationship in structural equation modelling, a Type II reflective first order, formative second order model was identified (Diamantopoulos and Papadopoulos 2010; Diamantopoulos 2011; Jöreskog and Goldberger 1975) for country image in the measurement model. This formative specification of the country image construct has also been utilised in other studies on country image (e.g. Han 1989; Knight and Calatone 2000; Maher and Mady 2010).

Figure 6.8: Structural model in hypothesis testing



Note: PChar=People characteristics; CChar=Country characteristics; CIGlob=Overall country image; FdAtt=Attitude toward food; FdBI=Behavioural intention toward food; DestAtt=Attitude toward travel destination; DestBI=Behavioural intention toward travel destination

As can be seen in Figure 6.8, the first order reflective country image construct comprised country and people characteristics and the second order formative country image construct comprised overall country image. These were introduced to the measurement model which incorporated attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four authenticity conditions. The resultant structural models had an acceptable fit for the Icon-Icon condition ($\chi^2=361.53$, $df=110$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.88, CFI=0.90, NFI=0.92); Icon-Index condition ($\chi^2=233.37$, $df=110$, RMSEA=0.07, GFI=0.90, CFI=0.96, NFI=0.96); Index-Icon condition ($\chi^2=272.52$, $df=110$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.87, CFI=0.95, NFI=0.92); and Index-Index condition ($\chi^2=285.56$, $df=110$, RMSEA=0.08, GFI=0.88, CFI=0.95, NFI=0.92) (Brown 2004; McDonald and Ho 2002). Having established acceptable goodness-of-

fit indices for each authenticity condition, the hypothesised relationships in the research model were examined under each condition.

H1a: More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country's food

As can be seen in Table 6.10, overall country image produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward its food for the Icon-Icon ($\beta=0.41, p\leq 0.001$); Icon-Index ($\beta=0.33, p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($\beta=0.35, p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($\beta=0.33, p\leq 0.001$) conditions, supporting *H1a*. The significant effects infer that country image has potential to affect attitude toward its food under each authenticity condition. This finding is consistent with previous studies in marketing literature which observe that positive image of a country impacts on favourable attitude toward the country's products (e.g. Bilkey and Nes 1988; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Han 1989; Han 1990; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Magnusson et al. 2014).

H1b: More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination

Overall country image produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward the travel destination for the Icon-Index ($\beta=0.41, p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($\beta=0.25, p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($\beta=0.44, p\leq 0.001$) conditions, partially supporting *H1b*, as can be seen in Table 6.10. The significant effects suggest that country image is likely to influence attitude toward it as a travel destination under three authenticity conditions. This result corroborates tourism studies which report that positive image of a country impacts on favourable attitude toward it as a travel destination (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2010; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005; Nadeau et al. 2008).

H2: More favourable attitude toward a country's food positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination

As can be seen in Table 6.10, attitude toward a country's food produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward it as a travel destination for the Icon-Icon ($\beta=0.65, p\leq 0.001$); Icon-Index ($\beta=0.39, p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($\beta=0.27, p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($\beta=0.22, p\leq 0.001$) conditions, supporting *H2*. The significant effects imply that attitude toward a country's food and attitude toward the country as a travel destination are positively related under each authenticity condition. This finding is in line with previous studies in tourism literature which note that favourable attitude toward a country's food impacts on favourable attitude toward it as a travel destination (e.g. Chen and Gursoy 2001; d'Astous and Boujbel 2007; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Leisen 2001; Loureiro 2014).

Table 6.10: *H1-H4* - Standardised path coefficients and model fit

Hypotheses	Icon-Icon (N=303)	Icon-Index (N=218)	Index-Icon (N=199)	Index-Index (N=238)
H1a: CI → FdAtt	0.41***	0.33***	0.35***	0.33***
H1b: CI → DestAtt	-0.10	0.41***	0.25***	0.44***
H2: FdAtt → DestAtt	0.65***	0.39***	0.27***	0.22***
H3a: FdAtt → FdBI	0.72***	0.43***	0.46***	0.47***
H3b: DestAtt → DestBI	0.60***	0.72***	0.66***	0.76***
H4: FdBI → DestBI	0.37***	0.26***	0.29***	0.27***
Model fit statistics				
χ^2	361.53	233.37	272.52	285.56
<i>df</i>	110	110	110	110
RMSEA	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.08
GFI	0.88	0.9	0.87	0.88
CFI	0.90	0.96	0.95	0.95
NFI	0.92	0.96	0.92	0.92

Note: PChar=Country image (people characteristics), CChar=Country image (country characteristics), CIGlob=Overall country image, FdAtt=Attitude toward food product, FdBI=Behavioural intention toward food product, DestAtt=Attitude toward travel destination, DestBI=Behavioural intention toward travel destination

χ^2 =chi-square, *df*=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

* $p\leq 0.05$, ** $p\leq 0.01$, *** $p\leq 0.001$

H3a: More favourable attitude toward food positively influences behavioural intention toward food

Attitude toward food produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward food for the Icon-Icon ($\beta=0.72$, $p=0.001$); Icon-Index ($\beta=0.43$, $p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($\beta=0.46$, $p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($\beta=0.47$, $p\leq 0.001$) conditions, supporting *H3a*, as can be seen in Table 6.10. The significant effects indicate that attitude toward food has potential to affect behavioural intention toward food under each authenticity condition. This result is consistent with previous studies in marketing literature which observed that favourable attitude toward a product impacts on behavioural intention toward the product (e.g. Hartmann and Apaolaza-Ibáñez 2012; Ilicic and Webster 2011; Kempf 1999; Kim and Chung 2011; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).

H3b: More favourable attitude toward a travel destination positively influences behavioural intention toward the travel destination

As can be seen in Table 6.10, attitude toward travel destination produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward the destination for the Icon-Icon ($\beta=0.60$, $p\leq 0.001$); Icon-Index ($\beta=0.72$, $p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($\beta=0.66$, $p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($\beta=0.76$, $p\leq 0.001$) conditions, supporting *H3b*. The significant effects suggest that attitude toward the travel destination is likely to influence behavioural intention toward the destination under each authenticity condition. This finding corroborates tourism studies which report that favourable attitude toward the travel destination impacts on higher behavioural intention toward the destination (e.g. Di Pietro, Di Virgilio and Pantano 2012; Um and Crompton 1990; Yu, Chancellor and Cole 2011; Zhang et al. 2014).

H4: Behavioural intention toward a country's food positively influences behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination

Behavioural intention toward a country's food produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward it as a travel destination for the Icon-Icon ($\beta=0.37, p\leq 0.001$); Icon-Index ($\beta=0.26, p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($\beta=0.29, p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($\beta=0.27, p\leq 0.001$) conditions, supporting *H4*, as can be seen in Table 6.10. The significant effects imply that behavioural intention toward a country's food and behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination are positively related under each authenticity condition. This result is in line with previous studies in marketing and tourism literature which note that higher behavioural intention toward a country's products impacts on higher behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2010; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Horng et al. 2012; Hung and Petrick 2011; Nadeau et al. 2008; Um and Crompton 1990; Yu, Chancellor and Cole 2011).

6.9. Testing *H5* and *H6*

The fourth research objective of the current study examines the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention for both the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions (*RO4*). To achieve this, the four authenticity conditions were specified in structural models using multigroup analysis with AMOS 22. Food orientation and desire for existential authenticity were discretised into “high,” “moderate” and “low” categories and served as background moderators. Initially, fully unconstrained models were examined for the “high” and “low” moderator categories. Next, each coefficient path was individually constrained to identify the relationships that were moderated first, by food orientation and then, by desire for existential authenticity through a chi-square difference test (Holmbeck 1997; MacKinnon, Lockwood and Hoffman 2002; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995).

6.9.1. Food orientation

As was identified in Chapter Four, food orientation was measured using a single-item scale which asked participants to rate whether food was the main purpose for visiting a travel destination. Then, their responses were discretised into three categories, namely, “high,” “moderate” and “low,” as suggested by Gelman and Park (2008). Only the “high” and “low” food orientation categories were utilised in the multigroup analysis.

H5a: Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food

As can be seen in Table 6.11, attitude toward food produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward food for both the high food-oriented and low food-oriented categories in the unconstrained models under all four authenticity conditions. Constraining the path between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food produced significant chi-square differences for the Icon-Index ($p \leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($p \leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($p \leq 0.01$) conditions, partially supporting *H5a*. The significant effects suggest that food orientation has potential to moderate the attitude-behavioural intention toward food relationship under three authenticity conditions.

Further, an inspection of the standardised regression weights revealed a stronger relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food for the high food-oriented group compared to the low food-oriented group under all conditions with the exception of the Icon-Icon condition. It is likely that tourists who have more favourable attitude to food in general are more likely to purchase food. This finding is consistent with previous studies in marketing literature which observe that attitude toward the product is altered by the degree of consumer involvement when evaluating the product (e.g. Petty and Cacioppo 1984; Trampe et al. 2010; Waller and Lea 1999).

Table 6.11: H5 – Standardised path coefficients and model fit

Hypotheses	Level of Food Orientation											
	Icon-Icon			Icon-Index			Index-Icon			Index-Index		
	Low (N = 101)	High (N = 101)	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	Low (N = 73)	High (N = 73)	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	Low (N = 67)	High (N = 67)	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	Low (N = 79)	High (N = 79)	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$
H5a: FdAtt → FdBI	0.82***	0.34*	0.31	0.28*	0.49***	13.56***	0.38**	0.58**	9.50***	0.38**	0.48***	4.12*
H5b: DestAtt → DestBI	0.51***	0.65***	3.58*	0.69***	0.72***	5.72**	0.41***	0.76***	6.81***	0.70***	0.77***	5.75**
Model fit statistics												
χ^2	594.48		402.27			380.85			427.12			
df	220.00		220.00			220.00			220.00			
RMSEA	0.08		0.08			0.07			0.07			
GFI	0.80		0.80			0.80			0.80			
CFI	0.90		0.90			0.92			0.90			
NFI	0.81		0.82			0.83			0.80			

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

H5b: Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination

Attitude toward the travel destination produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward the travel destination for both the high food-oriented and low food-oriented categories in the unconstrained models under all four authenticity conditions, as can be seen in Table 6.11. When the path between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination was constrained, there were significant chi-square differences for the Icon-Icon ($p \leq 0.001$); Icon-Index ($p \leq 0.01$); Index-Icon ($p \leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($p \leq 0.01$) conditions, supporting *H5b*. The significant effects suggest that food orientation is likely to moderate the attitude-behavioural intention toward travel destination relationship under each authenticity condition.

Moreover, the standardised regression weights indicated a stronger relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination for the high food-oriented group compared to the low food-oriented group under all conditions. This result corroborates tourism studies which report that tourists' food involvement enhances their attitude toward the destination (e.g. Hall and Mitchell 2002; Ryan 1997; Ryan 2002).

6.9.2. Desire for existential authenticity

As was identified in Chapter Four, desire for existential authenticity was measured using a three-item scale which asked participants to rate their desire to interact with a travel destination's culture. A composite variable was created which encompassed the three items for desire for existential authenticity with SPSS 22. Then, as suggested by

Gelman and Park (2008), the responses were discretised into three categories, namely, “high,” “moderate” and “low”. Only the “high” and “low” desire for existential authenticity categories were utilised in the multigroup analysis.

H6a: Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food

As can be seen in Table 6.12, attitude toward food produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward food for both the high and low desire for existential authenticity categories in the unconstrained models under all four authenticity conditions except for the low group in the Icon-Index condition ($\beta=0.13$, $p\leq 0.292$). Constraining the path between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food produced significant chi-square differences for the Icon-Icon ($p\leq 0.05$); Icon-Index ($p\leq 0.001$); Index-Icon ($p\leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($p\leq 0.01$) conditions, supporting *H6a*. The significant effects suggest that desire for existential authenticity has potential to moderate the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention toward food relationship under each authenticity condition.

Further, an inspection of the standardised regression weights revealed a stronger relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food for the high desire for existential authenticity group compared to the low desire for existential authenticity group under all conditions. It is likely that greater desire to connect with a travel destination’s culture will enhance purchase intention toward its food regardless of the type of authenticity the food may possess. This finding is consistent with previous studies in marketing literature which observe that attitude toward the product is altered by the degree of consumer involvement in culture when

evaluating the product (e.g. Oliver and Bearden 1985; Lutz, Mackenzie and Belch 1983; Mackenzie and Spreng 1992).

Table 6.12: H6 - Standardised path coefficients and model fit

Hypotheses	Level of Desire for Existential Authenticity											
	Icon-Icon			Icon-Index			Index-Icon			Index-Index		
	Low	High	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	Low	High	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	Low	High	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	Low	High	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$
	(N = 101)	(N = 101)		(N = 73)	(N = 73)		(N = 67)	(N = 67)		(N = 79)	(N = 79)	
H5a: FdAtt → FdBI	0.67***	0.85***	3.75*	0.13	0.55***	18.54***	0.26*	0.55***	9.50***	0.36**	0.44***	7.07***
H5b: DestAtt → DestBI	0.67***	0.65***	9.76***	0.65**	0.77***	4.53*	0.60***	0.53***	6.81***	0.78***	0.73***	11.94**
Model fit statistics												
χ^2	439.18			352.29			380.85			381.92		
df	220.00			220.00			220.00			220.00		
RMSEA	0.07			0.06			0.07			0.07		
GFI	0.81			0.80			0.80			0.80		
CFI	0.90			0.92			0.92			0.92		
NFI	0.81			0.82			0.83			0.83		

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

H6b: Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination

Attitude toward the travel destination produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward the travel destination for both the high desire for existential authenticity and low desire for existential authenticity categories in the unconstrained model under all four authenticity conditions, as can be seen in Table 6.12. When the path between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination was constrained, there were significant chi-square difference for the Icon-Icon ($p \leq 0.001$); Icon-Index ($p \leq 0.05$); Index-Icon ($p \leq 0.001$); and Index-Index ($p \leq 0.01$) conditions, supporting *H6b*. The significant effects suggest that desire for existential authenticity is likely to moderate the attitude-behavioural intention toward travel destination relationship under each authenticity condition.

Moreover, the standardised regression weights revealed some interesting findings. For participants who were presented with the iconically authentic travel destination condition, higher desire for existential authenticity appeared to diminish the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination. Conversely, for participants who were presented with the indexically authentic travel destination condition, higher desire for existential authenticity appeared to enhance the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination. This suggests that desire to connect with the destination drives tourists to favour genuine travel destinations over contrived ones. This finding corroborates tourism studies which report that destination authenticity serves as a driver for tourists seeking to connect with the local culture (McIntosh and Prentice 1999; McKercher 2002; Wang 1999).

6.10. Chapter summary

In this Chapter, the six hypotheses identified in the research model for the current study were tested and the results reported. A summary of these findings can be seen in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Summary of *H1* to *H6* findings

Hypothesis	Outcome
H1a More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country's food	Supported
H1b More favourable country image positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination	Partially supported
H2 More favourable attitude toward a country's food positively influences attitude toward the country as a travel destination	Supported
H3a More favourable attitude toward food positively influences behavioural intention toward food	Supported
H3b More favourable attitude toward a travel destination positively influences behavioural intention toward the travel destination	Supported
H4 Behavioural intention toward a country's food positively influences behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination	Supported
H5a Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food	Supported
H5b Higher food orientation will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination	Partially supported
H6a Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward food and behavioural intention toward food	Supported
H6b Higher desire for existential authenticity will moderate the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination	Supported

Hypotheses *H1a*, *H2*, *H3a*, *H3b* and *H4* were supported and *H1b* was partially supported, addressing *RO3*. These results suggest that country image positively impacts on attitude toward the food and travel destination which, in turn, influence

behavioural intention toward both the food and travel destinations under the majority of conditions.

Further, hypotheses *H5a*, *H6a* and *H6b* were supported and *H5b* was partially supported, addressing *RO4*. These findings suggest that food orientation and desire for existential authenticity each moderated the relationships between attitude toward the food and the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the majority of conditions. The significance of these finding will be discussed in relation to their theoretical, methodological and managerial contributions in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

7.1. Introduction

Chapters Five and Six reported the current study's findings from developing the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale and testing the hypotheses identified in the research model. This Chapter discusses the research findings and implications. It begins with an overview of the study's research objectives. This provides a preface to the discussion of the findings, which are organised according to their conceptual, methodological and managerial contributions. Following the discussion, limitations of the study are presented along with justifications. Finally, the Chapter concludes with recommended future directions for marketing and tourism research.

7.2. Overview of findings

The current study sets out to achieve four objectives. These objectives were:

- To extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations.
- To develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale.
- To examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions.
- To investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination, also under the four experimental authenticity conditions.

These research objectives which address the research gaps are reiterated and a brief overview of the findings are provided, as can be seen in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Overview of research objectives and findings

Research objectives	Findings summarised
RO1: To extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations (Addressing Research Gap One).	An extensive review of the extant literature outlining the three traditional approaches to authenticity, namely, the objectivist, constructivist and existentialist approach helped conceptualise indexical and iconic authenticity. The current study defines indexical authenticity as <i>the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination</i> and iconic authenticity as <i>a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version</i> . As research has shown that an object may be perceived to have both indexical and iconic authenticity, indexical and iconic authenticity may be conceptualised to exist at two extreme poles on a continuum.
RO2: To develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale (Addressing Research Gap One).	A qualitative and quantitative approach included four focus groups (N=32), two expert panels (N=15) and four main studies (N=3,130) for the scale development. Nine items represented three indexically authentic food factors (preparation, cultural heritage and serving) and six items represented two iconically authentic food factors (preparation and serving). The scale had reliability and validity, demonstrating sound psychometric properties.
RO3: To examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions (Addressing Research Gaps Three and Four).	<p>Country image positively impacted on attitude toward food under the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H1a</i>. Country image also positively impacted on attitude toward the travel destination under the Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, partially supporting <i>H1b</i>.</p> <p>Attitude toward a country's food produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward it as a travel destination for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H2</i>. Attitude toward the food and travel destination also produced significant and positive effects on behavioural intentions toward the food and travel destination under the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H3a</i> and <i>H3b</i>.</p> <p>Finally, behavioural intention toward a country's food positively impacted on behavioural intention toward it as a travel destination for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H4</i>.</p>
RO4: To investigate the moderating impacts food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions (Addressing Research Gaps Five and Six).	<p>Food orientation moderated the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention toward food under the Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, partially supporting <i>H5a</i>. Food orientation also moderated the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention toward the travel destination under the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H5b</i>.</p> <p>Desire for existential authenticity moderated the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention toward food under the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H6a</i>. Desire for existential authenticity also moderated the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention toward the travel destination under the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting <i>H6b</i>.</p>

The study's findings are discussed for their conceptual, methodological and managerial contributions and implications for food tourism research and the industry. These new insights are presented in the following sections.

7.3. Theoretical contributions

7.3.1. Extending the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity to food and travel destinations (Theoretical contributions)

The first research objective was to extend conceptualisations of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations. In order to do so, a thorough review of conventional and contemporary approaches to authenticity in philosophy, psychology, marketing and tourism literature was conducted. The current study builds on Grayson and Martinec's (2004) indexical-iconic approach to authenticity by integrating the objectivist and constructivist approaches in an overarching conceptualisation of authenticity and examining authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations, which fulfilled the first objective and addressed Research Gap One. Consequently, indexical authenticity is conceptualised as *the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object or travel destination* and iconic authenticity as *a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object or travel destination to an indexically authentic version*. In this study, indexical and iconic authenticity are conceptualised to exist at two extreme poles on a continuum, with varying degrees of interpretation between the poles. This conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity makes several theoretical contributions.

First, the conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity as existing on a continuum challenges and builds on the conventional approaches to authenticity.

While objectivism and constructivism are seemingly mutually exclusive schools of thought, some authors have alluded to the notion that varying degrees of authenticities exist on a continuum (e.g. Chhabra 2008; Johnson 2000; MacCannell 1973). The study's indexical-iconic authenticity continuum allows for an encompassing conceptualisation which fills the void between MacCannell's (1973) 'front' and 'back' regions, suggesting that they are not separate and that authenticity exists in different degrees between them. Further, this approach embraces and operationalises Wang's (1999) object-based authenticity which suggests that authenticity is based on a tourist's subjective experience of objects.

Second, the study extends the application of indexical and iconic authenticity to the contexts of food and travel destinations. Past studies have applied the approach in the contexts of products (e.g. Beverland and Farrelly 2010; Kjeldgaard and Ostberg 2007; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Grayson and Shulman 2000; Motley and Henderson 2008) and travel destinations (e.g. Castéran and Roederer 2013; Grayson and Martinec 2004; Hede and Thyne 2010; Pennington and Thomsen 2010; Ray et al. 2006). However, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, the study is the first to integrate the two contexts in an encompassing research project. This offers greater insight into the reciprocal interaction between the authenticity of the products available at a travel destination and the destination itself. By examining products in the context in which they exist, this approach is given greater contextual relevance.

Finally, the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity circumvents conventional approaches to examining the authenticity of food and travel destinations as it relies on consumer perception of various cues presented to them (e.g. Grayson and Martinec 2004; Grayson and Shulman 2000; Kjeldgaard and Ostberg 2007). While conventional

approaches regard objectivity and subjectivity as mutually exclusive, the study's approach allows for tourists to interpret both objective and subjective cues simultaneously. Thus, the inherent authentic nature of a particular object may be confined to a philosophical debate between historians and archaeologists, whereas the subjective construal of the object by tourists and consumers may be the focus of more pragmatic discussion.

7.3.2. Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development (Theoretical contributions)

The second research objective was to develop the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale. The successful development of nine scale items which represent three indexically authentic food factors (preparation, cultural heritage and serving) and six scale items which represent iconically authentic food factors (preparation and serving) met the second objective and responded to Research Gap Two. Development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale provides several theoretical contributions.

First, the developed scale is the first food authenticity scale that applies the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity in its conceptualisation and operationalisation. Further, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, it is also the first scale to apply a continuum approach with both indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity existing at two extreme poles. In doing so, it points towards an approach that incorporates both objectivist and constructivist views of authenticity by encompassing cues that tap into the authenticity of originals and reproductions simultaneously.

Second, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale taps into dimensions which offer insight into various food attributes that are important to tourists in evaluating authenticity. For the indexically authentic food, three factors are identified, namely,

presentation, cultural heritage and serving. Clearly, cues of traditional food preparation and serving imbue properties of indexical authenticity. This reiterates the study's conceptual definition of indexical authenticity as *the interpretation of authenticity through historical and factual cues presented in an object*.

Interestingly, for the iconically authentic food, the cultural heritage dimension was eliminated, resulting in two factors, namely, presentation and serving. Evidently, cues of cultural heritage are less critical in signifying properties of iconically authentic products. Possibly, tourists are more aware of the level of authenticity they are getting when consuming a country's food. Perhaps, food reviews and recommendations made on social media may already be guiding their expectations. As such, when tourists are confronted with what they already believe to be a reproduction, they are willing to be more accepting of food preparation and serving that veer from traditional methods. An alternative explanation could be that tourists may not possess sufficient local cultural knowledge in order to make judgements of authenticity and discount cultural heritage from their evaluation. Instead, they may focus on the novelty and detail put into the preparation and serving of the dish. Again, this reiterates the appropriateness of the study's conceptual definition of iconic authenticity as *a result of the interpretation of authenticity according to the degree of similarity of an object to an indexically authentic version*.

7.3.3. Testing H1 to H4 under four authenticity conditions (Theoretical contributions)

The third research objective was to examine country image for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions. The successful integration of country image, attitude and behavioural intention toward food and travel destinations in an empirical

model under four authenticity conditions fulfilled the third objective and addressed Research Gaps Three and Four. Support for the majority of the hypothesised relationships in the research model offers several theoretical insights.

First, the country image construct is operationalised as a Type II reflective first order, formative second order specification, validating a small body of studies which argue for the theoretical significance of this specification (e.g. Han 1989; Knight and Calatone 2000; Papadopoulos et al. 2000; Maher and Mady 2010). Given that a majority of studies still operationalises the country image construct as a reflective specification, the current study's findings provide further evidence that future studies could adopt the formative specification for country image.

Second, findings offer support for country image's impact on attitude toward the country's food. Overall country image produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward its food for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting *H1a*. This highlights that country image is critical when evaluating food product authenticity. Given that evaluations of authenticity often involve a degree of scepticism of marketing communications (Cohen 2007; Gable and Handler 1996; Linnekin 1991), it is not surprising that tourists draw on as much internal information about a country's products as possible to derive their own inferences about authenticity.

Third, overall country image produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward the country as a travel destination for the Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, partially supporting *H1b*. Interestingly, country image did not produce a significant effect on attitude toward the travel destination under the Icon-Icon condition. This infers that tourists may use country image in their formation of

attitude toward the travel destination only when indexically authentic food products are offered. Consequently, when confronted with an iconically authentic food product and travel destination simultaneously, tourists may immediately recognise the contrived nature of the situation. In this instance, tourists may simply enjoy the contrived experience rather than expend cognitive effort in drawing on country image to verify the authenticity of the experience.

Fourth, results highlight the impact attitude toward a country's food has on attitude toward the country as a travel destination. Attitude toward a country's food produced a significant and positive effect on attitude toward it as a travel destination for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting *H2*. It is likely that tourists may be drawing on their attitude toward a country's food in the formation of their attitude toward the travel destination. This extends Lee and Lockshin's (2012) reverse country-of-origin effect which occurs when product beliefs impact on travel destination beliefs. Although the authors originally reported the effect at a cognitive (belief) level, the findings of the current study extend insight into the effect at an affect (attitudinal) level. Theoretically, this suggests that tourists may generalise both beliefs as well as attitude toward a country's products onto its travel destinations.

Fifth, findings validate existing studies which suggest that attitude impacts on behavioural intention for products (e.g. Hartmann and Apaolaza-Ibáñez 2012; Ilicic and Webster 2011; Kempf 1999; Kim and Chung 2011) and travel destinations (e.g. Di Pietro, Di Virgilio and Pantano 2012; Zhang et al. 2014). Attitude produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention for both the food and travel destination under the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting *H3a* and *H3b*. This highlights that evaluation of both indexical and iconic

authenticity has potential to elicit favourable purchase or visit intentions. This is an interesting observation as it suggests that the post-modern tourist may not be as discerning of the type of authenticity they consume (Yeoman, Brass and McMahon-Beattie 2007). Perhaps, such tourists are becoming more pragmatic and understand the futility of expecting the genuine in a cultural environment that is dynamic and ever-evolving (Getz 1998; DeLyser 1999).

Sixth, results support past research which observes that behavioural intention to sample a country's food may result in behavioural intention to visit the country as a travel destination (e.g. Boyneet, Williams and Hall 2002; Long 2004). Behavioural intention toward a country's food produced a significant and positive effect on behavioural intention toward it as a travel destination for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting *H4*. It is apparent that tourists may be drawn to specific travel destinations because of the authentic local foods they offer.

Seventh and conceptually, the empirical model underscores the importance of using country image in predicting attitude and subsequent behavioural intention in the contexts of food and travel destinations. This validates findings from a small body of existing studies (e.g. Bilkey and Nes 1988; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2010; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005; Nadeau et al. 2008) and suggests that the study's research model is theoretically sound. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, the research model is the first to utilise an empirical approach with an experimental research design to examine the effects authenticity has on the relationships among country image, attitude and behavioural intention in the contexts of food and travel destinations. This answers the need for more empirical quantitative research (e.g. Beverland 2006; Grayson and Martinec 2004) in marketing and tourism

literature which, until now, has primarily utilised qualitative methods in examining the authenticity construct.

Finally, the empirical model answers the call by researchers (e.g. Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim 2011; Lee and Lockshin 2012; Mossberg and Hallberg 1999) for more studies that integrate and examine the cross-over effects of product and travel destination evaluations. Traditionally, product country image (PCI) and tourism destination image (TDI) research has been conducted separately and rarely draw on each other. The integration of PCI and TDI theory provides a more holistic approach in examining the country image construct. From a theoretical standpoint, this approach offers greater insight into interactions between PCI and TDI, producing a more realistic representation of how tourists process information in the actual marketplace.

7.3.4. Testing H5 and H6 under four authenticity conditions (Theoretical contributions)

The fourth research objective was to examine food orientation and desire for existential authenticity's moderating effects on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions. Moderating effects were identified in the empirical model which met the fourth objective and responded to Research Gaps Five and Six. Support for the majority of the hypothesised moderating effects in the research model introduces several theoretical insights.

First, findings highlight the moderating role food orientation plays in how tourists perceive of and behave toward food and travel destinations for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting *H5a* and *H5b*. Highly food-oriented tourists are more motivated to try authentic foods and visit authentic travel

destinations. For these tourists, food is the pinnacle of their travel experience. Therefore, the opportunity to taste authentic local cuisine motivates their intention to visit the travel destination at which they can experience consumption of this food. One exception was the Icon-Icon condition under which food orientation did not moderate the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention toward food. This suggests that the enhancing effects of food orientation may not occur if a tourist perceives that both their food and travel experiences are iconically authentic. While tourists may have the desire to sample the food, the contrived nature of the overall experience may not inspire higher purchase intention.

Second, results observe the moderating role desire for existential authenticity has on how tourists perceive and behave toward food and travel destinations for the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions, supporting *H6a* and *H6b*. This suggests that greater desire to connect with a travel destination's culture enhances purchase intention toward its food under all four authenticity conditions. Clearly, indexically authentic food motivates behavioural intention by allowing tourists to connect profoundly with the local culture. Iconically authentic food also motivates behavioural intention as they offer tourists a quick snapshot of the culture within the limits of their travelling time. Interestingly, for the travel destination, higher desire for existential authenticity appears to diminish the relationship between attitude toward the travel destination and behavioural intention toward the travel destination under the iconic authenticity conditions, yet enhance the relationship under the indexical conditions. This suggests that desire to connect with the destination drives tourists to favour more genuine travel destinations over contrived ones.

Conceptually, categorising and examining tourists according to their food orientation and desire for existential authenticity gives greater insight into how specific tourist segments engage in decision-making. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to examine the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination. This contributes to existing segmentation studies in marketing and tourism as it provides a platform on which tourist typologies can be further developed. These moderating variables can contribute to the psychographic profiling of tourists with particular relevance to their personalities and lifestyles, offering greater insight into their specific motivations and preferences.

7.4. Methodological contributions

7.4.1. Extending the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity to food and travel destinations (Methodological contributions)

The current study refined and introduced working definitions for indexical and iconic authenticity and introduced them on a continuum. This operationalisation of indexical and iconic authenticity has significant methodological implications.

First, the systematic review conducted in Chapter Two suggests that the indexical-iconic approach can integrate the objectivist and constructivist approaches to authenticity. The study's methodology which utilised an experimental research design brings together the two extensively-researched, and often, opposing perspectives of authenticity. This creates opportunities for synergistic research collaborations to occur between proponents of the objectivist and constructivist approaches.

Second, the indexical-iconic continuum approach may serve as a paradigm shift in the way researchers approach the study of authenticity. While traditional research on authenticity in marketing and tourism highlight distinctions between the authentic and inauthentic, some studies have also alluded to the “authentic reproduction” (e.g. Bruner 1994, p. 399; Grayson and Martinec 2004, p. 298). The study’s indexical-iconic authenticity continuum takes into account both perceptions of absolute authenticity based on fact and construed authenticity based on subjective knowledge into an encompassing framework. Future studies which adopt this proposed continuum will be able to explore varying degrees of authenticity, enriching detail in their results.

7.4.2. Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development (Methodological contributions)

Development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale followed rigorous procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003). These procedures include: (1) defining the constructs; (2) generating the scale items; (3) purifying the scale items; (4) refining the scale items; (5) validating the scale; and (6) establishing measurement invariance. The first two procedures included an extensive literature search, ten focus group sessions and two expert panels. These qualitative procedures ensured that the scale items had face and construct validity. The next four procedures involved four main studies comprising 3,130 participants. These quantitative procedures provided support for the scale’s reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity as well as generalisability across the four main studies. The resultant parsimonious scale has potential to be operationalised in different contexts and product categories such as shopping for hand-made souvenirs.

Further, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale identifies nine items which represent indexical authenticity and six items that represent iconic authenticity. These

were developed based on a real food product, providing more ecological validity to the findings. The relatively simple and relevant scale suggests that it can be incorporated into an instrument that authenticates the quality of the food experience. For instance, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale may be integrated into existing service quality measures such as the SERVPERF (Cronin and Taylor 1992) or satisfaction measures such as the ECSI model (Ciavolino and Dahlgaard 2007) to authenticate the dining experience delivered by foodservice providers.

7.4.3. Testing H1 to H4 under four authenticity conditions (Methodological contributions)

The current study introduced a four-cell experimental research design in operationalising authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to examine country image for its impact on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions, namely the Icon-Icon, Icon-Index, Index-Icon and Index-Index conditions. This allows researchers to control the research context so that causal relationships among variables may be evaluated (Kirk 2013). The research design provides a platform for researchers to carry out scenario-testing to assess various combinations of indexical and iconic authenticity conditions and their impacts on outcome variables of interest. To illustrate, Shanghai's cultural district may pose a challenge to tourists seeking for the authentic due to the juxtaposition of historical buildings and architecture with modern trams and contemporary hand-made souvenirs. The four-cell research design is useful in operationalising these varying degrees of product and travel destination authenticity since it takes into account the confounding effects of indexical and iconic authenticity on a continuum.

7.4.4. Testing H5 and H6 under four authenticity conditions (Methodological contributions)

Findings demonstrate the moderating effects food orientation and desire for existential authenticity have on the attitude-behavioural intention relationships for food and travel destinations under the four experimental authenticity conditions. Clearly, due to their significant effects, both moderators may be operationalised as key variables in conducting segmentation typologies of target markets. Previous studies have utilised involvement as a segmentation tool (e.g. Dimanche, Havits and Howard 1993; Chen 2003). The introduction of food orientation and desire for existential authenticity as segmentation tools provides greater insight into the psychographic profile of tourists since these tools consider tourists' penchant for trying new local foods and connecting with new local cultures. While most segmentation studies apply *a priori* segmentation procedures to define what bases are used in a cluster analysis, these moderators serve as *posteriori* segmentation bases adding greater accuracy and validity to the ways in which populations are segmented (Wedel and Kamakura 2012).

To illustrate, four segments are proposed for operationalising profiles of tourists visiting a travel destination. First, 'cultural foodies' refers to the tourist with high food orientation and high desire for existential authenticity. Second, 'novice foodies' refers to the tourist with low food orientation and high desire for authenticity. Third, 'blasé foodies' refers to the tourist with high food orientation but low desire for existential authenticity. Finally, 'situational foodies' refer to the tourists with low food orientation and low desire for existential authenticity.

7.5. Managerial contributions

7.5.1. Extending the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity to food and travel destinations (Managerial contributions)

The current study's conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity as existing on a continuum offers new approaches to the preservation and development of food and travel destinations. Traditional approaches focus on historical and factual cues which preserve cultural heritage as well as the overall experience of food and travel destinations. The study's approach focuses on various cues that communicate indexical and iconic authenticity which are interpreted by tourists. This has considerable implications for product development, brand management and policy-making as the focus is extended from identifying and preserving inherent properties to communicating the authenticity of food and travel destinations to tourists.

The indexical-iconic approach to authenticity may be applied in the crucial stage of developing a vision or mission statement for a foodservice. By deciding if their array of offerings are indexically or iconically authentic, foodservice providers are able to position and develop their offerings with consistent and appropriate marketing strategies. Thus, a restaurant may apply the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity to assess whether its recipes, ingredients and cooking methods (preparation) and the various side dishes offered (serving) are perceived to be authentic, as well as to communicate its menu's authenticity through press releases (cultural heritage). To illustrate, Thomas Kim, owner of The Rabbit Hole, a Korean-inspired restaurant in Minneapolis, adopts the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity. The restaurant is positioned and promoted as a fusion of Korean-inspired food with a modern twist (MPR News 2016). While the restaurant's menu is based on traditional Korean recipes

(indexical authenticity), it integrates contemporary alterations (iconic authenticity) in its recipes.

Similarly, the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity may be applied in developing a vision or mission statement for a travel destination. This allows policy-makers and destination managers to channel valuable resources to introduce products that are congruous with how the destination is envisioned and evoked. Destination managers may develop marketing communication campaigns to promote either an unchanged historical destination (indexical authenticity) or a reproduction of an historical era (iconic authenticity) to different segments of tourists. In either case, it is of paramount importance that tourist expectations of authenticity are managed by honestly communicating what the destination can and cannot deliver. For instance, the Plimoth Plantation near Boston is a full-scale living reproduction of a Colonial English community where tourists may experience life in 1600s America (Plimoth Plantation 2016). Although the village has been constructed according to historical documentation, managers of the site have also introduced other attractions such as a replica of the Mayflower II, an English village, a Native American settlement and a craft centre. The travel destination is promoted as a historical experience but it is highlighted that the site is a reproduction, aimed at educating tourists on the lifestyles of early settlers and the native communities.

7.5.2. Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale development (Managerial contributions)

On an operational level, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale equips foodservice providers and destinations managers with an easy-to-administer diagnostic tool that is relevant to the hospitality and tourism industries. This empowers practitioners to evaluate how their current and newly-developed offerings perform in

terms of consumer perception of authenticity. In doing so, this helps them to allocate resources and budgets more efficiently toward preserving or developing various aspects of their offerings. To illustrate, a restaurant that develops a menu of indexically authentic food can apply the diagnostic tool to assess how its traditional recipes and cooking methods are viewed by consumers. These elements may then be credibly conveyed in marketing communications such as menus, press releases and advertisements as well as through the overall dining experience such as the side dishes, tableware and atmospherics. The importance of atmospherics in communicating the authentic dining experience has been highlighted extensively in foodservice studies (e.g. Beer 2008; Ebster and Guist 2005; Jang, Ha and Park 2012).

Further, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale acts as a check-and-balance to ensure consistency between a company's claims through their marketing communications and actual consumer perception of authenticity. This allows foodservice providers to close the communication gap which occurs when promises made by marketing communications differ from the actual service delivery (Duffy, Fearne and Healing 2005). By delivering on the authentic experience that consumers are promised, foodservice managers are ensured of greater consumer satisfaction (Augustyn and Ho 1998; Popli et al. 2013).

Likewise, the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale provides destination managers and heritage organisations with a means of authenticating food available at a travel destination. To illustrate, destination managers may utilise the scale to assess and create heritage designations for particular restaurants or food vendors. For instance, traditional Japanese cuisine, *Washyoku*, was awarded the UNESCO Intangible Cultural Heritage designation (Demetriou 2013). This designation affirms the

cuisine's authenticity and its authentication serves as a unique selling point for the Japanese cuisine.

7.5.3. Testing H1 to H4 under four authenticity conditions (Managerial contributions)

On an operational level, the research model equips practitioners with an empirical decision-making framework that develops understanding of how authenticity and country image impact on attitude and behavioural intention in the context of food and travel destinations. However, the model is not necessarily limited to these contexts but may also be applied to other product categories such as cosmetics, fashion and pharmaceuticals. This would not be the first academically-developed research model that has been applied to industry and practical situations. For instance, Ajzen's (1985) theory of planned behaviour is commonly used by Tourism Research Australia to gain more insight into tourist perception of various offerings such as accommodation, heritage sites and natural landscapes (Tourism Research Australia 2016).

Findings suggest that country image plays a critical role in influencing tourist attitude in the contexts of food and travel destinations. Clearly, authentic food and travel destinations are not exempt from the effects of country image. This poses an important question for marketers of products and travel destinations: Should limited resources be focused toward capitalising on positive country image or overriding negative stereotypes? For instance, Tsingtao Beer, which originates from Qingdao in China's Shandong province adopts the former approach. The brand promotes its beer products as being affordable and of high quality (Tsingtao 2016). In doing so, it capitalises on China's reputation as a producer of cheap products but also promotes its use of natural spring water from the Laushan Mountains (Tsingtao 2016), circumventing questions of poor quality which may be associated with Chinese products.

Similarly, destination marketers may apply strategies that capitalise on positive country image and override negative stereotypes. To illustrate, Thailand has long endured a dual country image as a tropical paradise (Gurtner 2016) as well as a hot bed of prostitution (Carr 2016). To counter these conflicting images, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) launched the ‘Amazing Thailand: It begins with the people’ campaign in 2014. This campaign reinforces positive country image by highlighting the friendly and accommodating reputation of Thailand’s people (TAT 2016). At the same time, TAT is working with the Korean Tourism Organisation (KTO) to promote filming of Korean movies and TV dramas in Thailand (Yonhap News Agency 2016). These collaborative efforts in movie-induced tourism are intended to reshape negative country image stereotypes, reposition and rebrand the travel destination through sharing in the equity provided by South Korean celebrities and products.

Results imply that attitude and behavioural intention toward a country’s food are significant predictors of attitude and behavioural intention toward the country as a travel destination. This has acute implications for destination marketers as it suggests that they can capitalise on the food at a travel destination to create a synergy in food and travel destination branding through marketing communications. For instance, in 2013, Tourism Australia launched the ‘Restaurant Australia’ campaign as part of its ‘There’s Nothing Like Australia’ campaign. This initiative showcased the exceptional food and wine available at different restaurants in destinations across the country. Since the campaign’s launch in December 2013, the food and wine spend in Australia has grown by 24.6 percent to approximately AUD1.3 billion, positioning the country within the top 10 food and wine destinations globally (Tourism Australia 2016).

The study demonstrates that indexical and iconic authenticity positively impacts on desirability of the food and travel destination. For foodservice and destination managers, this suggests that authenticity remains crucial in the tourist decision-making process. In product development, managers need to be mindful when making alterations to their products so as not to undermine cultural integrity. For indexically authentic food, this could mean ensuring that strict benchmarks are set for the degree of adherence to traditional methods. For iconically authentic foods, there is a requirement to incorporate some resemblance to traditional methods in their preparation and serving so that they may be promoted as authentic. Likewise, destination managers will need to take stock of the over-commodification of the travel destination's natural and built environments which may compromise perception of the destination's authenticity.

Key to this discussion is the preservation of integrity in interpreting authenticity. While authenticity is critical in achieving cultural and economic sustainability for products and travel destinations (Chhabra 2015; Cohen 2002; Liu 2003; Rand, Heath and Alberts 2003; Sims 2009), ethical issues, particularly with indexical authenticity, necessitate consideration. Clearly, the promise of authenticity has been leveraged by unscrupulous marketers in order to garner greater profits (Harwood and El-Manstrly 2012). To avoid this, several questions are posed: To what degree is modification acceptable in staying within acceptable bounds that qualify for authenticity? In fact, how may authenticity be benchmarked? These questions highlight the need for a nominated organisation that can objectively assess, verify and provide certification of authenticity. High on the agenda of policy-makers is to establish a rigorous framework which comprehensively sets criteria and benchmarks that assess and endorse product

offerings, destination development and management projects with a seal of authenticity.

7.5.4. Testing H5 and H6 under four authenticity conditions (Managerial contributions)

The current study demonstrates the significant moderating effects food orientation has on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under the four experimental authenticity conditions. Findings observe that tourists with high food orientation are more likely to want to sample a country's local food and visit it as a travel destination in all four authenticity conditions. According to segmentation typology, such tourists, referred to as 'foodies' may be categorised as early adopters of new foods, highly experimental, adventurous (Jolliffe 2016) and driven by their desire to sample novel food offerings (Getz et al. 2014). Thus, segmentation profiles according to food orientation can help marketers and destination managers to devise specific strategies for each segment in the market. In fact, the 2015 Foodie Study from Sopexa, a French marketing consultancy, highlights that foodies are heavy users of social media such as Facebook, Pinterest and Instagram (PR Newswire 2015). Developing greater understanding of this segment facilitates communication with them through these social media platforms.

Further, the loyalty behaviour of foodies and their propensity to share their experiences online offers a cost-effective means of promoting start-up businesses which have limited marketing budgets. For destination marketers in emerging destinations, the appeal of interesting and novel dishes may serve as a unique selling point for highly food-oriented tourists. Their willingness to visit and recommend the destination and its food to others is crucial in developing local food businesses and cuisine and an

economic spillover effect for other tourist offerings at the destination (Amira 2009; Telfer and Sharpley 2015).

Results note the moderating effects desire for existential authenticity has on tourist intention to sample new and novel foods under the four authenticity conditions. Greater desire to connect with a country's culture appears to somewhat override the historical accuracy of a food's production. For foodservice providers, this provides interesting insight into how tourists perceive authentic products. On the one hand, tourists with high desire for existential authenticity may want to experience food offerings that are representative of the culture in a travel destination. On the other hand, the degree of adherence to traditional methods may not be imperative to this segment. This implies that foodservice providers may be able to take some liberties with their product preparation to cater for a wider range of tourist tastes and preferences. This is not to suggest that foodservice providers should denounce traditional methods when producing iconically authentic dishes. However, it does take into account that elements of the food production process such as the ingredients or cooking methods may be difficult to reproduce in a commercial restaurant setting due to their unavailability, time pressures or religious customs.

Finally, the study reiterates that tourists with high desire to connect with a country's culture appeared to favour indexically rather than iconically authentic destinations. This underscores the need for destination managers to identify distinct tourist segments based on the emphasis they place on indexical or iconic cultural accuracy. For instance, Costa Rica's 'No Artificial Ingredients' campaign suggests an unchanged and uncommodified experience of the culture, lifestyles and nature (Barrantes-Reynolds 2010) that may hold greater appeal for tourists with high desire for existential

authenticity. Conversely, iconically authentic destinations such as Disneyland and Las Vegas may hold less appeal for tourists with high desire for existential authenticity. In this instance, it would be more feasible to target tourists with low desire for existential authenticity.

7.6. Limitations and future directions

Six key limitations are identified in the current study. Each of these limitations is discussed with subsequent opportunity for future research suggested. Following this, recommendations for further research are highlighted.

First, the current study only sampled Singaporeans with a propensity to sample South Korean food and travel to South Korea. This addresses the study's methodological focus due to: (1) the current popular Korean Wave in Singapore; (2) familiarity with South Korea's food and travel destinations; and (3) geographical proximity of South Korea from Singapore. Further, the experimental research design of the study dictated that a single research context was examined to obtain a more homogenous sample. As suggested by Calder and Philips (1982) and Cook and Campbell (1979), more homogenous samples are used in order to strengthen internal validity. However, as a result of this, generalisability of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale is currently limited to tourists from Singapore. Also, past research has reported that consumers may perceive products (e.g. Hanaki et al 2007; Jung 2006; Lita and Cho 2012) and travel destinations (e.g. Kim et al. 2007; Lee and Scott 2008; Yu and Ko 2012) more positively when impacted by a fad such as the Korean Wave. Constant exposure to popular culture from a particular country increases consumer interest in the country's culture, which in turn, increases cultural capital and consumer knowledge (Holt 1998; McRobbie 2004). As such, future studies could examine

tourists to South Korea from other countries such as the USA and United Kingdom where the Korean Wave is not quite so influential. This helps to generalise findings on tourist perceptions of South Korean food and travel destinations.

Second, only one food, Korean Ginseng Chicken, was examined as it is well known and representative of South Korea food, ecologically valid and encompassing of the various food authenticity dimensions identified in the qualitative research. Future studies need to consider the plethora of other South Korean dishes on offer in order to extend the scale and research model's applicability to other food. Further, it is necessary to validate the scale in the contexts of other country-of-origin food such as Singapore (e.g. Hainanese Chicken Rice), Thailand (Tom Yum Soup), France (Duck Confit) and Scotland (Haggis). This circumvents the potential biasing effects of the Korean Wave and gives generalisability to the scale.

Third, while the study focuses on indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations, future research could explore the applicability of the indexical-iconic approach to authenticity in other retail contexts. Research has called attention to the key role authenticity plays in consumer evaluations of products such as cosmetics (e.g. Ahaiwe and Onwumere 2015), fashion (e.g. Beard 2008; Zainol, Phau and Cheah 2012), souvenirs (e.g. Chhabra, Healy and Sills 2003; Littrell, Anderson and Brown 1993; Paraskevaidis and Andriotis 2015) and pharmaceuticals (e.g. Amico, Aaronson and Zucker 2015). For instance, Littrell, Anderson and Brown's (1993) study on domestic tourists in the USA suggested that tourists consider elements such as uniqueness, originality, workmanship, cultural and historic integrity as well as the shopping experience when evaluating the authenticity of souvenirs. These elements appear to tap into the three authenticity factors identified in the

Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale, namely, preparation, cultural heritage and serving. Consequently, it would be feasible to apply the scale to a different type of cultural product such as hand-crafted souvenirs.

Fourth, Daegu Otgol Village was the sole travel destination examined in the study to ensure that tourist knowledge and past experience with the destination would not bias manipulation effects in the experimental design (Burmeister and Schade 2007). However, since the destination was little-known, this may have impacted on participants' behavioural intention to visit the travel destination. Studies of other heritage sites in South Korea (e.g. Changdeokgung Palace Complex in Seoul, Gyeongju Historic Areas in the North Gyeongsang Province and Namhansanseong in the Gyeonggi Province) and other countries (e.g. Pompeii in Italy, Salzburg in Austria and the Banks of Seine in France) are encouraged to validate the study's research model and findings. In fact, a comparative study of well-known and little-known sites could shed light onto how familiarity and popularity may affect perception of authenticity and attitude toward the travel destination.

Fifth, the current study does not account for tourists' past experience in their perception and evaluation of an authentic food and travel destination. However, the popularity of South Korea and South Korean products infers that participants are more familiar with South Korean products and may even have visited the country's travel destinations previously. This presents opportunity for future research to examine the moderating effects past experience has on authenticity perceptions of the food and travel destination. Moreover, comparing perceptions of first-time visitors and repeat visitors could lend further insight into whether perceived authenticity is a static

(MacCannell 1973; Park, Javalgi and Wachter 2016; Silver 1993) or dynamic construct (Marine-Roig 2015; Reisinger and Steiner 2006).

Finally, the current study examines tourist evaluations of authenticity from the demand (tourist) perspective. However, it has been shown that this perspective may not be entirely accurate (Cohen 1988; Beverland 2006) since tourists may not possess sufficient knowledge to authenticate products and travel destinations (Chhabra, Healy and Sills 2003). While there may be a number of economic and practical advantages of examining authenticity from the demand (tourist) perspective, there is also need to investigate the notion of authenticity from the supply (service provider) perspective. For instance, studies in foodservice literature have highlighted the ethical, cultural and financial struggles of foodservice providers in either preserving or altering the cultural integrity of their offerings (e.g. Beer 2008; Mkono 2013; Zeng, Go and de Vries 202) to attract and maintain customers. This suggests a critical need to focus on foodservice providers and to help them find a balance between preservation and adaptation in the marketplace.

7.7. Final summary

Four research objectives identified in the current study addressed six identified gaps in the marketing and tourism literature. First, the study clarified various conceptualisations of authenticity in the literature and extended the conceptualisation of indexical and iconic authenticity in the contexts of food and tourism. This was achieved through an extensive and a systematic review of authenticity in marketing and tourism literature, as well as verification of the findings through focus groups and expert panels. Second, development of the Indexical-Iconic Food Authenticity scale was achieved using rigorous scale development procedures to identify the authentic

food attributes for a generalisable scale. The study identified nine items for the three indexically authentic food factors and six items for the two iconically authentic food factors. Third, country image was examined for its differential impacts on attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination under four experimental authenticity conditions. The research model is the first empirical tourist decision-making framework to examine how authenticity impacts on the relationships between country image, attitude and behavioural intention in the contexts of food and travel destinations. Fourth, food orientation and desire for existential authenticity were explored for the moderating effects they produced on the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention toward the food and travel destination. The research model is the first tourist decision-making framework to integrate food orientation and desire for existential authenticity in the contexts of food and travel destinations. Consequently, discussion of the findings presented a conceptual and methodological framework as well as a diagnostic and managerial tool that benefits researchers, foodservice providers, destination managers and policy-makers alike. Finally, the implications of these findings on future marketing and tourism research were proposed.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Stimulus for Indexically Authentic Food

(Link to video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Cy8mFnSxiBw>)



Part A: Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak (삼청각) Restaurant



IND-IND

100 year old recipe



The front entrance of Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant

The recipe for the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Choeng Gak Restaurant is a 100 year old recipe which has been in the owner's/chef's family for at least 10 generations. The chef ensures that nothing has been changed in order to give the most traditional dining experience.

10 generations

Traditional dining experience

Only the finest ingredients



Only the finest ingredients

Only the finest ingredients are used for the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. The recipe comprises a whole chicken, ginseng, garlic, dates, chestnuts and sticky rice. The chef does not believe in altering or modifying the recipe as he believes that it detracts from the heritage of the dish.

Chef does not believe in modifying recipe

Traditional cooking methods

3.5 hours to cook



Ingredients are stuffed in the cavity

The chef uses only traditional Korean cooking methods of stuffing a ginseng root, garlic clove, jujube, and chestnut into the cavity of each hen. The stuffed chicken is then boiled for exactly 3.5 hours to bring out the flavours. Historical records have shown that this kind of cooking methods has been used in the royal kitchens of the Joseon Empire.

Methods used during
Joseon Empire

Historically famous

1923



Koreans from near and far visit the restaurant

The Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant is historically famous in the region. Newspaper articles from the as early as 1923 have documented the success of the restaurant which was opened by the chef's great grandfather. Part of the restaurant's fame is attributed to the fact that the Ginseng Chicken is only served in summer which customary to local tradition. From June to September, Koreans from near and far visit Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant to sample this famous dish.

Only served in summer

Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak
(삼청각) Restaurant



Appendix B: Stimulus – Iconically Authentic Food

(Link to video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LeT16C7jA0Y>)



Part A: Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak (삼청각) Restaurant



ICON-ICON

Innovative twist

Keep up with the times



The front entrance of Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant

The Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant, located just outside Daegu City, Korea, puts an innovative twist to the original ginseng chicken recipe. The chef believes that when it comes to traditional recipes, we need to keep up with the times while still maintaining the authenticity of the dish. By modifying his grandfather's family recipe he has created a fusion of traditional and modern tastes.

Fusion

Health benefits

Local ingredients



Only the finest ingredients

Korean ginseng chicken is well known for its health benefits. Only the finest local ingredients are used for the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. The recipe comprises a whole chicken, garlic, dates, chestnuts and sticky rice. Thoughtfully, the chef uses ginseng powder instead of the root to ensure low prices. While the original recipe calls for the use of young chickens, the chef often uses Cornish game hens which tend to cook faster.

Ginseng powder

Cornish game hens

Improved

Muslin bags



Muslin bags



The traditional Korean cooking methods call for the stuffing of the ingredients into the cavity of each hen. However, the chef has improvised using muslin bags containing the ingredients to boil the stock. Although traditionally, water is used, the chef opts for a chicken stock to add to the flavour of the soup. Instead of the usual cooking time of 3.5 hours, only 20 minutes is needed to prepare Sam Cheong Gak's Ginseng Chicken.

Chicken stock

Only 20 minutes

Fame in the region

Served all year round



Tourists enjoying the food at Sam Cheong Gak

The Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant has been increasingly gaining fame in the region. While many restaurants only serve Ginseng Chicken in summer, Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant serves it all year round. The chef believes that everyone should have a chance to sample his soup regardless of where they're from.

Every should have a chance

Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak (삼청각) Restaurant



Appendix C: Stimulus – Indexically Authentic Travel

Destination

(Link to video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cQ4OC54nSAs>)



Part B: Daegu Olgol Village
(대구 옷골마을)



IND-IND

Historical gem



A 16th century shrine at Daegu Otgol Village

Daegu Otgol Village, located just 20 minutes outside of Daegu City in the agricultural belt, is a historical gem. Boasting traditional Korean architecture dating back to the times of the Joseon Dynasty (1392-1897), the village has been virtually untouched by mass tourism.

Joseon Dynasty

Untouched by mass tourism

Only traditional wooden buildings



Living homes and places of business

Otgol Village is unique due to the fact that there are no brick buildings anywhere in sight. Instead, only traditional wooden buildings can be seen there. Unlike many tourism destinations where the older buildings have been turned into museums and antique stores, these wooden structures are actual living homes and places of business for the locals.

Living homes

Places of business

Forests and rocky mountains



Pristine natural environment

Surrounding the village are thick forests and rocky mountains which are home to a variety of wildlife and have kept in remarkable pristine condition. The area is famous for its mineral water, hot springs, and waterfalls including the Yongso Falls, Sibi Falls, and Yeosin Falls.

Mineral water

Hot springs

Waterfalls

Famous amongst locals



Otgol Village Market

Otgol Village is famous amongst the locals for its market which offers a selection of fresh vegetables, meat, fruits and unique Korean delicacies. As the region does not have many modern supermarkets, the Otgol Village Market serves as the main source of fresh groceries, all farmed from within 50 kilometres of the site.

Main source of fresh groceries

Sacred to the locals



Traditional Ssireum match

Once a year, the Village Hosts the regional Ssireum (Korean wrestling) Festival. Despite the pomp and circumstance surrounding the festival, the annual event is treated as sacred to the locals. The traditional prize for winning a tournament is an ox which symbolises the strength of the contestant.

Traditional prize

Silk weaving and embroidery



Traditional silk weaving

The village is also famous for its silk weaving and embroidery. These works of art are hand made by local artisans who have inherited the skills and methods passed down from generation to generation. Here at Otgol Village you can actually purchase silk souvenirs fresh off the looms.

Souvenirs fresh off the looms

Quaint traditional restaurants



Only quaint traditional-style restaurants that offer a wide array of mouth-watering local cuisine can be found in the village. Many of these restaurants have a long family heritage and are renowned amongst the locals for their regional specialties.

Hangil Restaurant has existed for 60 years

Long family heritage



**See you soon at Daegu
Otgol Village!**

Appendix D: Stimulus – Iconically Authentic Travel

Destination

(Link to video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mGW6MrC0ygY>)



Part B: Daegu Olgol Village
(대구 옷골마을)



ICON-ICON

Tourist attraction

Replicated and restored



Reconstruction of a 16th century shrine

Daegu Otgol Village, located just 20 minutes outside of Daegu City in the agricultural belt, is an exciting tourist attraction. Boasting features that have been replicated and restored, the Village allows tourists to experience life during the times of the Joseon Dynasty (1392-1897).

Joseon Dynasty

Recreate life in the 1500s



Whole neighbourhoods recreate life in the 1500s

The tourism board has made major investments in the village to recreate the ambience of life in Korea during the 1500s. Whole neighbourhoods are built in the traditional Korean architecture and traditional occupations have been introduced to give tourists an idea of what it was like to live in old-world Korea.

Idea of old-world Korea

Korean-style gardens

Local and international species



Daegu Otgol Village Gardens

Surrounding the village are beautiful Korean-style gardens which are home to a variety of wildlife. These gardens are meticulously managed by the local council and boast an array of both local and international species of flowers. The design and layout of these gardens are an interesting combination of a Korean and Western styles.

Korean and Western styles

Korean-style gardens

Local and international species



Daegu Otgol Village Gardens

Surrounding the village are beautiful Korean-style gardens which are home to a variety of wildlife. These gardens are meticulously managed by the local council and boast an array of both local and international species of flowers. The design and layout of these gardens are an interesting combination of a Korean and Western styles.

Korean and Western styles

Local foods and deserts

Ready-made hanbok



Chogiap Market

Only 10 minutes away from the village is the famous Cho Giap International Market which offers a selection of local foods and desserts, ready-made hanbok (traditional Korean dress) and even the odd K-Pop DVD. Everyday tourists from all over the world visit the market to shop till they drop.

K-Pop DVDs

Daegu Cultural Centre

Re-enactment



Re-enactment of traditional drum dance

The Daegu Cultural Centre is located approximately 10 minutes from Daegu Otgol Village. The centre boasts a fully equipped amphitheatre where visitors can enjoy breathtaking shows of re-enacted traditional dances, taekwondo demonstrations and the occasional K-pop concert!

K-Pop Concert

Korean handicrafts

Numerous souvenir shops



For those who want to bring a part of Daegu Otgol Village home with them, there are numerous souvenir shops throughout the village. There, tourists can buy anything from local Korean handicrafts, snacks and delicacies to the latest K-Pop fashions and cartoon figurines.

A variety of souvenir stores

K-Pop fashions

Local Korean food



Otgul Village food district

For the hungry, Otgul Village's food district is a haven for local Korean street food, Korean BBQ restaurants and even gourmet cuisine. However, for the less adventurous, a number of international food chains are also available.

International food chains



**See you soon at Daegu
Otgol Village!**

Appendix E: Survey Instrument – Study One

A STUDY ON FOOD AND DESTINATION AUTHENTICITY IN KOREA

I am conducting research to assess tourist perceptions of food and destination authenticity, and their impact on attitudes and behaviour intention toward food products and travel destinations. Specifically, this study examines Singaporeans for their perceptions of Korean Ginseng Chicken and Daegu Olgol Village, Korea.

The attached survey questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You have the right to refuse to participate in the survey questionnaire at any time without prejudice. Should you complete it, your anonymity is assured as all individual responses will remain strictly confidential. I would greatly appreciate your time in answering the survey questionnaire.

Curtin University's Ethics Committee has cleared the survey questionnaire in line with the university's policy on research with low risk involving human participants. For your reference, the ethics approval number for the survey questionnaire is SOM 2011026.

If you have any questions regarding the research, please feel free to contact me. Alternatively, you may contact Curtin University's Ethics Committee via phone on 9266 2784, email at hrec@curtin.edu.au or in writing to Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845.

Thank you for your kind participation.

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SECTION A

The following statements relate to your **PAST EXPERIENCE** with Korean Ginseng Chicken and Korea as a travel destination.

1	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN in Singapore before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

2	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN IN KOREA before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

3	Have you ever visited KOREA before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

The following statement relates to your **PURPOSE OF VISIT** should you visit Korea in the next 12 months. Please circle the value that most closely represents your views. 1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.

4	Please circle one number for each statement		Extremely Unlikely				Extremely Likely		
	If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, the PURPOSE will be:								
1	To sample the Korean food		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	To experience the sights and sounds of Korea		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	For a business trip		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B

The following statements relate to your **DESIRE FOR AUTHENTICITY** should you visit Korea in the next 12 months. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. . 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree.

B	Please circle one number for each statement		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
	If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, I DESIRE to:								
1	Experience the local culture		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Have a spiritual experience		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Feel connected with history		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

The following statements relate to your **IMAGE** of Korea. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

C1	Please circle one number for each statement KOREANS are:	Low							High						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Courteous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Positive in their work ethic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Industrious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Individualistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Education level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2	Please circle one number for each statement KOREA has:	Low							High						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Quality of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Rights and freedoms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Environmental/pollution controls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Involvement in world politics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Political stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Workers skill level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Availability of skilled workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Technology level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Stability of economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part A of
the Picture Booklet

SECTION D

The following statements examine your **PERCEPTIONS** of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

D	Please rate the following statements regarding the PREPARATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).		
	The INGREDIENTS ...		
1	Are traditional	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Are adapted for contemporary consumption
2	Follow original Korean culture	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Are a modification of the original
The RECIPE ...			
3	Has been passed down from generation to generation	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has been improvised from generation to generation
4	Is true to the original recipe	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Contains the essence of the original recipe
The COOKING METHOD ...			
5	Follows original Korean cooking techniques	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Follows a simplified version of original Korean cooking techniques
6	Is documented in history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is similar to the method documented in history
7	Observes traditional cooking times	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Shortens traditional cooking times for practical purposes
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
8	Is documented in history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is loosely based on historical origins
9	Originates from the owner's family heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Appears to originate from the owner's family heritage
10	Is enjoyed by the local community	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is also enjoyed by non-locals
11	Is consumed in the tradition of the local lifestyle	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is consumed in a way that gives non-locals an idea of the local lifestyle
12	Is historically famous	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has recently be introduced to the area
13	Is the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is a reproduction of the original

Please rate the following statements regarding the PRESENTATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).				
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...				
14	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Is presented in traditional Korean tableware</td> <td>●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●</td> <td>Is presented with some elements of traditional Korean tableware</td> </tr> </table>	Is presented in traditional Korean tableware	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is presented with some elements of traditional Korean tableware
Is presented in traditional Korean tableware	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is presented with some elements of traditional Korean tableware		
15	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Is served with traditional Korean side dishes</td> <td>●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●</td> <td>Is also served with non-traditional Korean side dishes</td> </tr> </table>	Is served with traditional Korean side dishes	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is also served with non-traditional Korean side dishes
Is served with traditional Korean side dishes	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is also served with non-traditional Korean side dishes		

SECTION E

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** toward the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

E	Please circle one number for each statement								
	My ATTITUDE toward Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant is:								
1	Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
2	Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Happy
3	Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
4	Favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfavourable

SECTION F

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. 1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.

F	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant, in FUTURE :	Extremely Unlikely							Extremely Likely						
1	I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part B of the
Picture Booklet

SECTION G

The following statements examine your PERCEPTIONS of Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

G	Please rate the following statements regarding DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE (Please circle one point for each statement).		
	DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...		
1	Is real and not artificially constructed for tourists	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been artificially constructed for tourists
2	Allows for interaction with the local community	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Allows restricted interaction with the local community
3	Offers souvenirs that are made by local hands	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers souvenirs that are mass produced
4	Offers souvenirs that are made using original Korean traditions	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers souvenirs that are made using some Korean traditions
5	Has a natural environment that remains unspoilt	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has a natural environment that has been manicured and landscaped
6	Has architecture that is typical to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has architecture that has been redesigned to reflect the region
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE at Daegu Otgol Village (Please circle one number for each statement).			
DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...			
7	Is preserved in its original state	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been recently developed by local authorities
8	Has a documented history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been fabricated from historical records
9	Offers events and shows that sincerely present local folk heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers events and shows that adapt local folk traditions for entertainment purposes
10	Offers events and shows that maintain the integrity of the tradition	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers events that appear to be staged
11	Has local residents that	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has local residents that partially preserve a

	preserve a lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism		lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism
12	Represents the local way of life	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is a reproduction of what the local lifestyle used to be
13	Has food unique to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has food with aspects unique to the region

SECTION H

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

H	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Daegu Otgol Village is:								
1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
2	Not Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
3	Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
4	Unexciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
5	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinating

SECTION I

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. **1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.**

I	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen Daegu Otgol Village, in FUTURE :							
		Extremely Unlikely			Extremely Likely			
1	I intend to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I plan to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION J

The following section contains **DEMOGRAPHIC** questions that are used to help classify information. Your responses will not be linked to you in any way and will remain confidential. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

1	What is your gender?				
[1]	Male	[2]	Female		

2	What is your age group?				
[1]	Under 20 years	[2]	21 – 34 years	[3]	35 – 44 years
[4]	45 – 54 years	[5]	55 – 64 years	[6]	65 years and above

3	What is your current marital status?				
[1]	Single	[2]	In a relationship		
[3]	Married				

4	What is your field of occupation? (Please choose one only)				
[1]	Manager	[2]	Professional	[3]	Technician/Trades Worker
[4]	Community and Personal Service Worker	[5]	Clerical and Administrative	[6]	Sales Worker
[7]	Machinery Operator/Driver	[8]	Labourer	[9]	Student
[10]	Retired	[11]	Other (Please Specify) _____		

5	What is the level of your post-secondary school qualifications?				
[1]	Certificate	[2]	Bachelor Degree	[3]	Advanced Diploma or Diploma
[4]	Graduate Diploma or Graduate Certificate	[5]	Postgraduate Degree	[6]	Other (Please specify)- _____

6	What is your annual income? (Income per annum in SGD)				
[1]	Under \$14,999	[2]	\$15,000 - \$29,999	[3]	\$30,000 - \$49,999
[4]	\$50,000 - \$74,999	[5]	\$75,000 - \$99,999	[6]	\$100,000 - \$149,999
[7]	\$150,000 - \$199,999	[8]	\$200,000 and above		

Appendix F: Survey Instrument – Study Two

A STUDY ON FOOD AND DESTINATION AUTHENTICITY IN KOREA

I am conducting research to assess tourist perceptions of food and destination authenticity, and their impact on attitudes and behaviour intention toward food products and travel destinations. Specifically, this study examines Singaporeans for their perceptions of Korean Ginseng Chicken and Daegu Olgol Village, Korea.

The attached survey questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You have the right to refuse to participate in the survey questionnaire at any time without prejudice. Should you complete it, your anonymity is assured as all individual responses will remain strictly confidential. I would greatly appreciate your time in answering the survey questionnaire.

Curtin University's Ethics Committee has cleared the survey questionnaire in line with the university's policy on research with low risk involving human participants. For your reference, the ethics approval number for the survey questionnaire is SOM 2011026.

If you have any questions regarding the research, please feel free to contact me. Alternatively, you may contact Curtin University's Ethics Committee via phone on 9266 2784, email at hrec@curtin.edu.au or in writing to Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845.

Thank you for your kind participation.

Researcher:

Sean Lee

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School of Marketing, Curtin University

SECTION A

The following statements relate to your **PAST EXPERIENCE** with Korean Ginseng Chicken and Korea as a travel destination.

1	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN in Singapore before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

2	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN IN KOREA before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

3	Have you ever visited KOREA before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

The following statement relates to your **PURPOSE OF VISIT** should you visit Korea in the next 12 months. Please circle the value that most closely represents your views. 1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.

4	Please circle one number for each statement		Extremely Unlikely				Extremely Likely		
	If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, the PURPOSE will be:								
1	To sample the Korean food		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	To experience the sights and sounds of Korea		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	For a business trip		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B

The following statements relate to your **DESIRE FOR AUTHENTICITY** should you visit Korea in the next 12 months. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. . 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree.

B	Please circle one number for each statement		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
	If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, I DESIRE to:								
1	Experience the local culture		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Have a spiritual experience		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Feel connected with history		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

The following statements relate to your **IMAGE** of Korea. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

C1	Please circle one number for each statement KOREANS are:	Low							High						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Courteous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Positive in their work ethic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Industrious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Individualistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Education level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7


C2	Please circle one number for each statement KOREA has:	Low							High						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Quality of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Rights and freedoms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Environmental/pollution controls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Involvement in world politics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Political stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Workers skill level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Availability of skilled workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Technology level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Stability of economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part A of
the Picture Booklet

SECTION D

The following statements examine your **PERCEPTIONS** of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

D	Please rate the following statements regarding the PREPARATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).		
	The INGREDIENTS ...		
1	Are traditional	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Are adapted for contemporary consumption
2	Follow original Korean culture	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Are a modification of the original
The RECIPE ...			
3	Has been passed down from generation to generation	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has been improvised from generation to generation
4	Is true to the original recipe	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Contains the essence of the original recipe
The COOKING METHOD ...			
5	Follows original Korean cooking techniques	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Follows a simplified version of original Korean cooking techniques
6	Is documented in history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is similar to the method documented in history
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
9	Originates from the owner's family heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Appears to originate from the owner's family heritage
10	Is enjoyed by the local community	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is also enjoyed by non-locals
11	Is consumed in the tradition of the local lifestyle	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is consumed in a way that gives non-locals an idea of the local lifestyle
12	Is historically famous	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has recently be introduced to the area
13	Is the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is a reproduction of the original
Please rate the following statements regarding the PRESENTATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			

14	Is presented in traditional Korean tableware		Is presented with some elements of traditional Korean tableware
15	Is served with traditional Korean side dishes		Is also served with non-traditional Korean side dishes

SECTION E

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** toward the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

E	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant is:								
1	Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
2	Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Happy
3	Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
4	Favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfavourable

SECTION F

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. 1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.

F	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant, in FUTURE :	Extremely Unlikely			Extremely Likely			
1	I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part B of the
Picture Booklet

SECTION G

The following statements examine your PERCEPTIONS of Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

G	Please rate the following statements regarding DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE (Please circle one point for each statement).		
	DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...		
1	Is real and not artificially constructed for tourists	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been artificially constructed for tourists
2	Allows for interaction with the local community	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Allows restricted interaction with the local community
3	Offers souvenirs that are made by local hands	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers souvenirs that are mass produced
4	Offers souvenirs that are made using original Korean traditions	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers souvenirs that are made using some Korean traditions
5	Has a natural environment that remains unspoilt	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has a natural environment that has been manicured and landscaped
6	Has architecture that is typical to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has architecture that has been redesigned to reflect the region
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE at Daegu Otgol Village (Please circle one number for each statement).			
DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...			
7	Is preserved in its original state	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been recently developed by local authorities
8	Has a documented history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been fabricated from historical records
9	Offers events and shows that sincerely present local folk heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers events and shows that adapt local folk traditions for entertainment purposes
10	Offers events and shows that maintain the integrity of the tradition	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers events that appear to be staged
11	Has local residents that	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has local residents that partially preserve a

	preserve a lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism		lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism
12	Represents the local way of life	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is a reproduction of what the local lifestyle used to be
13	Has food unique to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has food with aspects unique to the region

SECTION H

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

H	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Daegu Otgol Village is:								
1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
2	Not Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
3	Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
4	Unexciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
5	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinating

SECTION I

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. **1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.**

I	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen Daegu Otgol Village, in FUTURE :							
		Extremely Unlikely			Extremely Likely			
1	I intend to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I plan to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION J

The following section contains **DEMOGRAPHIC** questions that are used to help classify information. Your responses will not be linked to you in any way and will remain confidential. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

1 What is your gender?					
[1]	Male	[2]	Female		

2 What is your age group?					
[1]	Under 20 years	[2]	21 – 34 years	[3]	35 – 44 years
[4]	45 – 54 years	[5]	55 – 64 years	[6]	65 years and above

3 What is your current marital status?					
[1]	Single	[2]	In a relationship		
[3]	Married				

4 What is your field of occupation? (Please choose one only)					
[1]	Manager	[2]	Professional	[3]	Technician/Trades Worker
[4]	Community and Personal Service Worker	[5]	Clerical and Administrative	[6]	Sales Worker
[7]	Machinery Operator/Driver	[8]	Labourer	[9]	Student
[10]	Retired	[11]	Other (Please Specify) _____		

5 What is the level of your post-secondary school qualifications?					
[1]	Certificate	[2]	Bachelor Degree	[3]	Advanced Diploma or Diploma
[4]	Graduate Diploma or Graduate Certificate	[5]	Postgraduate Degree	[6]	Other (Please specify)- _____

6 What is your annual income? (Income per annum in SGD)					
[1]	Under \$14,999	[2]	\$15,000 - \$29,999	[3]	\$30,000 - \$49,999
[4]	\$50,000 - \$74,999	[5]	\$75,000 - \$99,999	[6]	\$100,000 - \$149,999
[7]	\$150,000 - \$199,999	[8]	\$200,000 and above		

Appendix G: Survey Instrument – Study Three

A STUDY ON FOOD AND DESTINATION AUTHENTICITY IN KOREA

I am conducting research to assess tourist perceptions of food and destination authenticity, and their impact on attitudes and behaviour intention toward food products and travel destinations. Specifically, this study examines Singaporeans for their perceptions of Korean Ginseng Chicken and Daegu Olgol Village, Korea.

The attached survey questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You have the right to refuse to participate in the survey questionnaire at any time without prejudice. Should you complete it, your anonymity is assured as all individual responses will remain strictly confidential. I would greatly appreciate your time in answering the survey questionnaire.

Curtin University's Ethics Committee has cleared the survey questionnaire in line with the university's policy on research with low risk involving human participants. For your reference, the ethics approval number for the survey questionnaire is SOM 2011026.

If you have any questions regarding the research, please feel free to contact me. Alternatively, you may contact Curtin University's Ethics Committee via phone on 9266 2784, email at hrec@curtin.edu.au or in writing to Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845.

Thank you for your kind participation.

Researcher:

Sean Lee

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School of Marketing, Curtin University

SECTION A

The following statements relate to your **PAST EXPERIENCE** with **Korean Ginseng Chicken** and **Korea** as a travel destination.

1	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN in Singapore before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

2	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN IN KOREA before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

3	Have you ever visited KOREA before?			
	1	Yes	2	No

The following statement relates to your **PURPOSE OF VISIT** should you visit Korea in the next 12 months. Please circle the value that most closely represents your views. 1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.

4	Please circle one number for each statement		Extremely Unlikely				Extremely Likely		
	If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, the PURPOSE will be:								
1	To sample the Korean food		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	To experience the sights and sounds of Korea		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	For a business trip		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B

The following statements relate to your **DESIRE FOR AUTHENTICITY** should you visit Korea in the next 12 months. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. . 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree.

B	Please circle one number for each statement		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
	If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, I DESIRE to:								
1	Experience the local culture		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Have a spiritual experience		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Feel connected with history		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

The following statements relate to your **IMAGE** of Korea. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

C1	Please circle one number for each statement KOREANS are:	Low							High						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Courteous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Positive in their work ethic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Industrious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Individualistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Education level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2	Please circle one number for each statement KOREA has:	Low							High						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Quality of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Rights and freedoms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Environmental/pollution controls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Involvement in world politics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Political stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Workers skill level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Availability of skilled workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Technology level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Stability of economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part A of
the Picture Booklet

SECTION D

The following statements examine your **PERCEPTIONS** of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

D	Please rate the following statements regarding the PREPARATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).		
	The INGREDIENTS ...		
1	Are traditional	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Are adapted for contemporary consumption
The RECIPE ...			
3	Has been passed down from generation to generation	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has been improvised from generation to generation
4	Is true to the original recipe	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Contains the essence of the original recipe
The COOKING METHOD ...			
5	Follows original Korean cooking techniques	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Follows a simplified version of original Korean cooking techniques
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
9	Originates from the owner's family heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Appears to originate from the owner's family heritage
12	Is historically famous	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has recently be introduced to the area
13	Is the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is a reproduction of the original
Please rate the following statements regarding the PRESENTATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
14	Is presented in traditional Korean tableware	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is presented with some elements of traditional Korean tableware
15	Is served with traditional Korean side dishes	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is also served with non-traditional Korean side dishes

SECTION E

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** toward the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

H	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Daegu Olgol Village is:								
1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
2	Not Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
3	Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
4	Unexciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
5	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinating

SECTION F

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. 1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.

F	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant, in FUTURE :	Extremely Unlikely			Extremely Likely			
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part B of the
Picture Booklet

SECTION G

The following statements examine your PERCEPTIONS of Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

G	Please rate the following statements regarding DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE (Please circle one point for each statement).		
	DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...		
1	Is real and not artificially constructed for tourists	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been artificially constructed for tourists
2	Allows for interaction with the local community	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Allows restricted interaction with the local community
3	Offers souvenirs that are made by local hands	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers souvenirs that are mass produced
4	Offers souvenirs that are made using original Korean traditions	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers souvenirs that are made using some Korean traditions
5	Has a natural environment that remains unspoilt	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has a natural environment that has been manicured and landscaped
6	Has architecture that is typical to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has architecture that has been redesigned to reflect the region
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE at Daegu Otgol Village (Please circle one number for each statement).			
DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...			
7	Is preserved in its original state	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been recently developed by local authorities
8	Has a documented history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has aspects that have been fabricated from historical records
9	Offers events and shows that sincerely present local folk heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers events and shows that adapt local folk traditions for entertainment purposes
10	Offers events and shows that maintain the integrity of the tradition	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Offers events that appear to be staged
11	Has local residents that	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has local residents that partially preserve a

	preserve a lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism		lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism
12	Represents the local way of life	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Is a reproduction of what the local lifestyle used to be
13	Has food unique to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●	Has food with aspects unique to the region

SECTION H

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** Daegu Olgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

H	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Daegu Olgol Village is:								
1	Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
2	Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Happy
3	Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
4	Favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfavourable

SECTION I

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward Daegu Olgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views. **1 = Extremely Unlikely, 2 = Very Unlikely, 3 = Unlikely, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Likely, 6 = Very Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.**

I	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen Daegu Olgol Village, in FUTURE :								Extremely Unlikely		Extremely Likely	
1	I intend to visit Daegu Olgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
2	I plan to visit Daegu Olgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
3	I will expend effort to visit Daegu Olgol Village as a tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				

SECTION J

The following section contains **DEMOGRAPHIC** questions that are used to help classify information. Your responses will not be linked to you in any way and will remain confidential. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

1 What is your gender?					
[1]	Male	[2]	Female		

2 What is your age group?					
[1]	Under 20 years	[2]	21 – 34 years	[3]	35 – 44 years
[4]	45 – 54 years	[5]	55 – 64 years	[6]	65 years and above

3 What is your current marital status?					
[1]	Single	[2]	In a relationship		
[3]	Married				

4 What is your field of occupation? (Please choose one only)					
[1]	Manager	[2]	Professional	[3]	Technician/Trades Worker
[4]	Community and Personal Service Worker	[5]	Clerical and Administrative	[6]	Sales Worker
[7]	Machinery Operator/Driver	[8]	Labourer	[9]	Student
[10]	Retired	[11]	Other (Please Specify) _____		

5 What is the level of your post-secondary school qualifications?					
[1]	Certificate	[2]	Bachelor Degree	[3]	Advanced Diploma or Diploma
[4]	Graduate Diploma or Graduate Certificate	[5]	Postgraduate Degree	[6]	Other (Please specify)- _____

6 What is your annual income? (Income per annum in SGD)					
[1]	Under \$14,999	[2]	\$15,000 - \$29,999	[3]	\$30,000 - \$49,999
[4]	\$50,000 - \$74,999	[5]	\$75,000 - \$99,999	[6]	\$100,000 - \$149,999
[7]	\$150,000 - \$199,999	[8]	\$200,000 and above		

Appendix H: Survey Instrument – Study Four

A STUDY ON FOOD AND DESTINATION AUTHENTICITY IN KOREA

I am conducting research to assess tourist perceptions of food and destination authenticity, and their impact on attitudes and behaviour intention toward food products and travel destinations. Specifically, this study examines Singaporeans for their perceptions of Korean Ginseng Chicken and Daegu Olgol Village, Korea.

The attached survey questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You have the right to refuse to participate in the survey questionnaire at any time without prejudice. Should you complete it, your anonymity is assured as all individual responses will remain strictly confidential. I would greatly appreciate your time in answering the survey questionnaire.

Curtin University's Ethics Committee has cleared the survey questionnaire in line with the university's policy on research with low risk involving human participants. For your reference, the ethics approval number for the survey questionnaire is SOM 2011026.

If you have any questions regarding the research, please feel free to contact me. Alternatively, you may contact Curtin University's Ethics Committee via phone on 9266 2784, email at hrec@curtin.edu.au or in writing to Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845.

Thank you for your kind participation.

Researcher:

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School of Marketing, Curtin University

SECTION A

The following statements relate to your **PAST EXPERIENCE, ATTITUDE and INTENTION** toward **Korean Ginseng Chicken**.

1	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN in Singapore before?						
	1	Yes					2

2	Have you ever eaten KOREAN GINSENG CHICKEN IN KOREA before?						
	1	Yes					2

3	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Korean Ginseng Chicken is:							
	Unfavourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4	Please rate the following statement regarding your INTENTION to visit Korea in the next 12 months				Strongly Disagree		Strongly Agree			
	I intend to visit Korea in the next 12 months				1	2	3	4	5	6

The following statement relates to your **PAST EXPERIENCE, ATTITUDE and INTENTION** toward **Korea**. Please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

5	Have you ever visited KOREA before?						
	1	Yes					2

6	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Korea is:							
	Not appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7	Please rate the following statement regarding your INTENTION to visit Korea in the next 12 months				Strongly Disagree		Strongly Agree			
	I intend to visit Korea in the next 12 months				1	2	3	4	5	6

The following statements relate to your **PURPOSE OF VISIT** if you were to visit Korea. Please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

8	Please circle one number for each statement Assuming you were going to visit Korea, the MAIN PURPOSE will be:				Extremely Unlikely		Extremely Likely					
	1	To sample the Korean food				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	2	To experience the sights and sounds of Korea				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	3.	For a business trip				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B

The following statements relate to your **DESIRE FOR AUTHENTICITY**. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

B	Please circle one number for each statement If I do visit Korea in the next 12 months, I DESIRE to:	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Experience the local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Have a spiritual experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Feel connected with history	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

The following statements relate to your **IMPRESSION** of Korea. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

C	Please circle one number for each statement KOREANS are:	Low					High	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Courteous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Positive in their work ethic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Industrious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Individualistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Education level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C	Please circle one number for each statement KOREA has:	Low					High	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Quality of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Rights and freedoms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Environmental/pollution controls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Involvement in world politics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Political stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Workers skill level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Availability of skilled workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Technology level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Stability of economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please Refer to Part A of
the Picture Booklet

SECTION D

The following statements examine your **PERCEPTIONS** of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

D	Please rate the following statements regarding the PREPARATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).		
	The INGREDIENTS ...		
1	Are traditional	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Are adapted for contemporary consumption
The RECIPE ...			
3	Has been passed down from generation to generation	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Has been improvised from generation to generation
4	Is true to the original recipe	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Contains the essence of the original recipe
The COOKING METHOD ...			
5	Follows original Korean cooking techniques	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Follows a simplified version of original Korean cooking techniques
Please rate the following statements regarding the CULTURAL HERITAGE of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
9	Originates from the owner's family heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Appears to originate from the owner's family heritage
1 2	Is historically famous	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Has recently be introduced to the area
1 3	Is the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is a reproduction of the original
Please rate the following statements regarding the PRESENTATION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
1 4	Is presented in traditional Korean tableware	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is presented with some elements of traditional Korean tableware
1 5	Is served with traditional Korean side dishes	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is also served with non-traditional Korean side dishes
Please rate the following statements regarding your OVERALL IMPRESSION of the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant (Please circle one number for each statement).			
The GINSENG CHICKEN ...			
1 6	Is not an imitation	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is an imitation

1 7	Is the original, not a copy	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is a copy, not the original
1 8	Is the original (Korean Ginseng Chicken?)	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is a reproduction (of the original Korean Ginseng Chicken?)
1 9	Has respected the essential nature of Korean Ginseng Chicken	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Has not respected the essential nature of Korean Ginseng Chicken
2 0	Does not include artificial elements	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Includes artificial elements
2 1	Is a product of techniques/ingredients that are original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is a product of techniques/ingredients that are <i>not</i> all original
2 2	Has a documented past	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Has been modified based on documented history
2 3	Is a recipe which should originate from the actual period during which it was created	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is a recipe which has been adapted based on the recipe from the actual period during which it was created
2 4	Is true to the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is an adaptation of the original
2 5	Has been verified by historians	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Has not been verified by historians
2 6	Is presented authentically	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is presented in a style to suit contemporary taste
2 7	Should have a taste that is authentic	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Should have a taste which has been modified to suit market demand
2 8	Is made using authentic methods	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is made using modified methods
2 9	Is served with sides congruent to traditional Korean culture	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- --●	Is served with sides which suits contemporary tastes

SECTION E

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** toward the **Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant**. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

E	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant is:								
1	Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
2	Not good for health	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good for health
3	A foolish choice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A wise choice
4	Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Useful
5	Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
6	Favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfavourable

SECTION F

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward the **Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant**. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views

F	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen the Ginseng Chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant, in FUTURE :								Extremely Unlikely		Extremely Likely	
1	I intend to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
2	I plan to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
3	I will expend effort to eat Ginseng chicken at Sam Cheong Gak Restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				

Please Refer to Part B of the
Picture Booklet

SECTION G

The following statements examine your PERCEPTIONS of Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

G Please rate the following statements regarding DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE (Please circle one point for each statement).			
DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...			
1	Is preserved in its original state	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has aspects that have been recently developed by local authorities
2	Has a documented history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has aspects that have been fabricated from historical records
3	Offers events and shows that sincerely present local folk heritage	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Offers events and shows that adapt local folk traditions for entertainment purposes
4	Offers events and shows that maintain the integrity of the tradition	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Offers events that appear to be staged
5	Has local residents that preserve a lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has local residents that partially preserve a lifestyle untouched by mass-tourism
6	Represents the local way of life	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is a reproduction of what the local lifestyle used to be
7	Has food unique to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has food with aspects unique to the region
8	Has architecture that is typical to the region	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has architecture that has been redesigned to reflect the region
Please rate the following statements regarding Daegu Otgol Village (Please circle one number for each statement).			
DAEGU OTGOL VILLAGE...			
7	Is <i>not</i> an imitation	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is an imitation
8	Is the original, not a copy	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is a copy, not the original
9	Is the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is a reproduction
10	Has respected the essential nature of Korean history	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has not respected the essential nature of Korean history

11	Does not include artificial elements	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Includes artificial elements
12	Is a product of techniques/methods that are original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is a product of techniques/methods that are not all original
13	Has a documented past	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is based on a documented past
	Is verified by historians	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has not been verified by historians
	Has a scenic landscape	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Has a manicured landscape
	Represents the past	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is a reproduction of the past
	Is the original	●-----●-----●-----●-----●-----●----- ●	Is a reproduction of the original

SECTION H

The following statements examine your **ATTITUDE** Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

H	Please circle one number for each statement My ATTITUDE toward Daegu Otgol Village is:								
1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
2	Not Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
3	Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
4	Unexciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
5	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinating

SECTION I

The following statements examine your **FUTURE INTENTION** toward Daegu Otgol Village. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

I	Please circle one number for each statement Having seen Daegu Otgol Village, in FUTURE :							Extremely Unlikely	Extremely Likely					
1	I intend to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I plan to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I will expend effort to visit Daegu Otgol Village as a tourist destination							1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION J

The following section contains **DEMOGRAPHIC** questions that are used to help classify information. Your responses will not be linked to you in any way and will remain confidential. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

1	What is your gender?				
[1]	Male	[2]	Female		

2	What is your age group?				
[1]	Under 20 years	[2]	21 – 34 years	[3]	35 – 44 years
[4]	45 – 54 years	[5]	55 – 64 years	[6]	65 years and above

3	What is your current marital status?				
[1]	Single	[2]	In a relationship		
[3]	Married				

4	What is your field of occupation? (Please choose one only)				
[1]	Manager	[2]	Professional	[3]	Technician/Trades Worker
[4]	Community and Personal Service Worker	[5]	Clerical and Administrative	[6]	Sales Worker
[7]	Machinery Operator/Driver	[8]	Labourer	[9]	Student
[10]	Retired	[11]	Other (Please Specify) _____		

5	What is the level of your post-secondary school qualifications?				
[1]	Certificate	[2]	Bachelor Degree	[3]	Advanced Diploma or Diploma
[4]	Graduate Diploma or Graduate Certificate	[5]	Postgraduate Degree	[6]	Other (Please specify)- _____

6	What is your annual income? (Income per annum in SGD)				
[1]	Under \$14,999	[2]	\$15,000 - \$29,999	[3]	\$30,000 - \$49,999
[4]	\$50,000 - \$74,999	[5]	\$75,000 - \$99,999	[6]	\$100,000 - \$149,999
[7]	\$150,000 - \$199,999	[8]	\$200,000 and above		

**Appendix I: Results of Item Reduction in the Qualitative
Phase of the Scale Development Process**

Appendix I: Results of Item Reduction in the Qualitative Phase of the Scale Development process

Source	Scale Item	Removed In	Reasons for Removal (sample comments)
Focus Group 2	The ginseng chicken is not an imitation	Expert Panel 1	<i>Ambiguous question. What is it an imitation of?</i>
Literature reiew	The ginseng chicken is genuine	Expert Panel 1	<i>Geunuine can mean many things. This is ambiguous</i>
Literature reiew	The essential nature of the ginseng chicken has been respected	Expert Panel 1	<i>What exactly is the 'nature' this question refers to? Too vague.</i>
Literature reiew	The ginseng chicken does not include artificial elements	Expert Panel 1	<i>This is ambiguous. Which elements are we referring to?</i>
Literature reiew	The ginseng chicken is a product of techniques/ingredients that are original	Expert Panel 1	<i>This si a double barrel question. Split up or delete. I recommend deleting since there are other questions that cover both.</i>
Literature reiew	The recipe for ginseng chicken is from the actual period it was created	Expert Panel 1	<i>Difficult to assess. Consumers will not be familiar enough to make this judgement.</i>
Literature reiew	The ginseng chicken is true to the original	Expert Panel 1	<i>This suggests some alterations were made but it is 'true' in nature.</i>
Focus Group 1	The ginseng chicken's recipe has been verified by historians	Expert Panel 1	<i>Verification is a very formal term. It is as though it was a historical document which has been studied in great depth by authorities.</i>
Focus Group 2	The ginseng chicken is unique	Expert Panel 1	<i>Uniqueness does not necessarily mean authentic</i>
Focus Group 1	The ginseng chicken is certified as authentic	Expert Panel 2	<i>Ambiguous - what has been certified?</i>
Literature reiew	The chef is renowned for his ginseng chicken	Expert Panel 2	<i>Ginsenc chicken is a traditional dish. Just because the chef is famous for it doesn't mean it is authentic.</i>
Literature reiew	The ginseng chicken has not been adapted to be more contemporary	Expert Panel 2	<i>Wordy. Does not covey any more information than the 'true to the original recipe' item.</i>
Literature reiew	This kind of ginseng chicken is hard to find	Expert Panel 2	<i>Rarity does not equate to authenticity.</i>
Focus Group 4	This authentic ginseng chicken can only be found in (destination)	Expert Panel 2	<i>We know this is not true as it is a popular dish.</i>
Focus Group 4	This authentic ginseng chicken is only sold in (restaurant)	Expert Panel 2	<i>We know this is not true as it is a popular dish.</i>
Focus Group 3	The presentation of the ginseng chicken is authentic	Expert Panel 2	<i>What aspects of the presentation is authentic? The bowl? The chopsticks? The place mats? The way spring onions are sprinkled on top? Too ambiguous.</i>
Focus Group 3	The taste of the ginseng chicken is authentic	Expert Panel 2	<i>How are respondents to know what it tastes like from a video stimulus?</i>

Literature reivew	The method for making the ginseng chicken is authentic	Expert Panel 2	<i>Wording is tedious. The other item which uses the term cooking method is better.</i>
Literature reivew	The sides are congruent to the traditional Korean food	Expert Panel 2	<i>Congruent feels like a technical word. An easier to understand term would be better. Make it as easy as possible for respondents to read this.</i>
Literature reivew	The cooking method observes traditional cooking times	Retained for qualitative study	
Literature reivew	The cooking method is documented in history	Retained for qualitative study	
Literature reivew	The ginseng chicken is documented in history	Retained for qualitative study	
Literature reivew	The recipe is true to the original recipe	Retained for qualitative study	
Literature reivew	The ginseng chicken is the original	Retained for qualitative study	
Literature reivew	The ingredients are traditional	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 1	The ginseng chicken is presented in traditional Korean tableware	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 1	The ginseng chicken originates from the owner's family heritage	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 1	The cooking methd follows original Korean cooking techniques	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 2	The recipe has been passed down from generation to generation	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 2	The ginseng chicken is served with traditional Korean side dishes	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 3	The ginseng chicken is consumed in the tradition of the local lifestyle	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 3	The ginseng chicken is enjoyed by the local community	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 4	The ginseng chicken is historically famous	Retained for qualitative study	
Focus Group 4	The ingredients follow original Korean culture	Retained for qualitative study	