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### **A cross-cultural comparison of tourists' cultural behavioural intentions**

This study attempts to address the deficiency of cross-cultural research in cultural tourism consumption. Drawing data from tourists visiting selected cultural sites in the island of Mauritius, it investigates the cross-cultural behavioural intentions (revisit intentions, willingness to recommend) on a sample of 541 tourists across different nationality groups. Using multinomial logistic regression, significant differences were observed across the respondents' behavioural intentions, perceived authenticity, information search behaviour and destination image. The empirical results indicated that the significant cultural differences observed would have a range of implications for destination planners, marketers and managers. In conclusion, the need for further cross-cultural behaviour research in a cultural tourism context was advocated.

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## **Introduction**

Interest in cross-cultural research has produced a plethora of studies across several disciplines such as psychology, sociology, geography, political science and marketing amongst others.

While the consumer has been the focus of several tourism and hospitality studies, researchers have largely ignored the role of cultural and contextual variables in explaining the cultural behaviour of travellers. Cultural tourism is seen to attract the attention of countless tourists in the international tourism market (Chang and Liu, 2009; Kim et al., 2007; Ramkissoon and Uysal, in press). With the diverse market offerings in the increasing number of destinations, people's interests in visiting cultural and natural heritage attractions have expanded. The cultural tourism market remains an important category for many destinations (McKercher, 2004) with some destinations becoming more popular than others (van der Ark and Richards, 2006). The growing contribution of cultural institutions in tourist destinations (Stylianou-Lambert, 2011) has called for more research in this field of study. In competing for cultural tourists, an understanding of the cross-cultural influence of dimensions explaining tourists' cultural behavioural intentions is a wise area of investigation. Although several studies have explored the relationship of culture to leisure and consumer behaviour, research investigating cultural behavioural intentions across different cultures is scant in literature. There has been very little research if any on how to develop the cultural tourism market by analysing the specific targeted markets and making the best use of this information to further promote cultural tourism across these cultures. Efforts to date have been limited in identifying what specific aspects influence tourists to consume cultural products (Ramkissoon and Uysal, in press) and what aspects of a destination are more appealing to them. This study investigates the cross-cultural similarities and differences within dimensions of perceived authenticity, motivation, information search behaviour, destination image and behavioural intentions

across five different national groups. General Linear Model (GLM) with repeated measures is used for the analysis. Some theoretical and practical implications are further discussed.

### **Cross-cultural study**

Culture has been described as one of the most complex words in the English language, thus making it difficult to define (Williams, 1976). Master and Prideaux (2000) argued that culture can be viewed from two different perspectives, from an ideological viewpoint comprising of values, norms, conventions and practices (Rokeach, 1979) and secondly as a combination of both ideological and material elements such as ways of life (Assael, 1992; Mowen, 1993). Human societies differ in shape, purposes and meanings and are expressed in institutions, arts and learning (Williams, 1958). Williams (1958) argued that culture can also mean a whole way of life; the common meanings, the arts and learning and the special processes of discovery and creative efforts. The term culture encompasses peoples' civilization with its processes of continuity and change and is portrayed in individuals' values, beliefs, rituals, artifacts and tools (Were, 1982). Thomlinson (1991) argued that as there are different meanings of culture, it is better to concentrate on the way the term culture is actually being used. A similar view is given by van Maanen and Laurent (1993) who argued that it is important not to focus on the all-embracing definition of what culture is. Richards (1996) noted that because of the vast meaning of the term 'culture', it also poses a major problem in analysing the consumption of cultural products.

A range of studies in tourism have shown the influence of culture on tourists' behaviour (e.g. Kim et al; 2002; Sussmann and Rashcovsky, 1997; Pizam and Jeong, 1996, Yu and Ko, in press). Actions acceptable by some cultures may be repugnant to other cultures (Pizam and Sussmann, 1995). National culture characteristics such as attitudes, social behaviours, perceptions, needs, expectations, beliefs, norms, motivations and verbal and non-

verbal communication patterns of tourists (March, 1997; Rokeach, 1973) have been used to explain variations in tourists' behaviour. Leisure researchers have analysed travel vacation patterns among different nationalities (Kim and Lee, 2000; Sussmann and Rashcovsky, 1997). Noting the significant differences between French and English Canadians in the number of their vacation trips, and the importance they assigned to accommodation and destination attributes, Sussmann and Rashcovsky (1997) concluded that tourism is a product of cultural variables and processes. The analysis of behavioural characteristics of Japanese, Korean and American tourists on guided tours revealed considerable differences in their trip length, food preferences, adventure, novelty and familiarity, photography and letter-writing (Pizam and Jeong, 1996). A recent study by Yu and Ko (in press) revealed significant differences in perceptions of medical tourism among Chinese, Japanese and Korean tourists in Korea. Korean tourists placed more emphasis on selection factors followed by the Chinese tourists, and lastly the Japanese. Kim and Prideaux (2003) noted significant behavioural differences among four national groups of passengers (Japanese, Korean, Chinese and Americans) in their expectations of availability of in-flight materials, their food and beverage requests and duty-free purchases. Lee and Lee (2009) found a clear contrast between Japanese and Korean travellers in their evaluative image of Guam. Their findings indicated that the travellers' perceived destination image exerted a significant influence on their destination choice as well as preconditioned tourist destination behaviours leading to attitudinal consequences. Reisinger and Turner (1997) presented the cultural differences between Indonesian and Australian tourists using Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions of power-distance, individualism,-collectivism, uncertainty-avoidance, and masculinity-femininity. Indonesian tourists were found to be oriented towards collectivism (group-oriented) and had a preference for package tours while the Australians being more inclined towards individualism (self-oriented) sought independent tours preferring risk-taking activities in

contrast to Indonesians. Hofstede (1991) and Matilla (1999) further argued that westerners being from an individualistic society value hedonic experiences such as enjoyment and fun more than Asian consumers. Wong and Lau (2001) confirmed that Chinese travellers favour travelling in groups. Cultural differences were noted in travel agents' attitudes towards political instability at selected Mediterranean destinations (Seddighi et al., 2001). The latter concluded that the significant differences among travel agents from six European countries had important implications for policy makers and destination marketers. The scholars further noted that the respondents' cultural background determined the difference in their perception across the different types of political instability examined.

Some studies have looked at cultural influences on tourists' information search behaviour indicating different significant cultural differences among various national groups (Gursoy and Chen, 2000; Gursoy and Umbreit, 2004; Ortega and Rodriguez, 2007) and preferences for external information sources for their decision-making process (Chen, 2000; Mihalik et al., 1993; Uysal et al., 1990). Tourists visiting national parks in USA revealed that they had different preferences for external information sources influencing their decision making process (Uysal et al., 1990). A study conducted by Iverson (1997) showed that Korean travellers revealed shorter decision time frames than Japanese travellers. March (1997) further concluded in his analysis of Korean and Japanese travellers' behaviour that the former bought more expensive gifts and engaged in more adventurous tourism activities as compared to the Japanese. Chen (2000) argued that cultural differences existed between Japanese, Australian and South Korean vacation and business tourists travelling to the USA. Mihalik et al. (1993) in their study of German and Japanese tourists travelling to USA concluded that the latter relied mostly on pamphlets, books and travel agents. Another study by Ortega and Rodriguez (2007) revealed that British, German, American and French tourists in Spain attributed much importance to information at the destination through films shown in

their hotel rooms and pamphlets available in the lobby area. While Spanish tourists also attributed great importance to pamphlets in the hotel area, they were less keen on information through films in their hotel rooms. Kang and Mastin (2008) employed Hofstede's cultural dimensions to investigate cultural differences in international tourism public relations websites. They argued that this is important to build and maintain relationships with multicultural audiences. Prior studies have also observed that tourists' motivation to travel to destinations is influenced by their cultural background. In essence, Philipp (1994) noted a racial difference amongst white and black Americans in their quest for novelty at tourists' destinations. Kozak (2002) argued that literature still lacks empirical studies investigating how tourists' motives differ across different groups. An understanding of cultural differences in tourists' motivation is necessary in international tourism management (Kim, 1998).

Cross-cultural studies examining perceived service quality (Mattilla, 1999; Winsted, 1997) equally revealed significant variations from consumers of different nationalities. A more recent study by Levy (2010) examined social interaction of consumers within their cultural groups. He concluded that Asian consumers benefited better from management facilitation of social interaction than Westerners. A number of studies have examined cross-cultural differences in the hospitality context. Baek et al. (2006) in their investigation of college students' perception on fast-food restaurant selection argued that Korean students preferred cosiness while Filipinos preferred a quick service. Koreans' search for comfort was attributed to Korea's economic success as compared to most Asian countries. Koreans perceive comfort as a reward for their hard work. Furthermore, in a study of hotel consumers' attitudes and complaining behaviours, Yuksel et al. (2006) found that British, Dutch, Turkish and Israeli tourists differed significantly in their voice behaviour. British tourists were found to be more likely to complain and express their dissatisfaction than the Dutch. This was attributed to the wider use of the English language. The Turkish, coming from a collectivist

society were reported to be feeling sad once they voice their dissatisfaction as they feel that they might be causing harm to others. Israelis, in contrast did not exhibit such feelings. Significant cultural variations were found amongst South-Korean, Japanese, Chinese, and American passengers' complaints under irregular airline conditions (Kim and Lee, 2009). US and Japanese passengers were more likely to respond privately while the Chinese were less keen on doing so. These results were attributed to the individualistic society of Americans where customer satisfaction is highly valued. The South-Koreans and Japanese did not seem to be willing to take legal action as a complaint behaviour. Kim and Lee's findings were also consistent with Huang et al (1996) showing that US consumers are more likely to complain to a third party. The differences between those from collective and individualistic cultures were further expanded by Hsieh and Lin (2010). Taiwanese Bed and Breakfast operators, being in a collective environment perceived fewer difficulties in maintaining their work-life balance as compared to the US operators who are oriented towards individualism.

A brief review of the above studies highlight the range of differences found across different national cultures. While there has been a plethora of studies in both the tourism and hospitality contexts, the literature has indicated a clear absence of studies investigating cross-cultural differences of cultural behavioural intentions of tourists. Given the centrality and importance of cultural tourism consumption, investigating salient dimensions of cultural behavioural intentions such as perceived authenticity, motivation, information search behaviour and destination image (Ramkissoon and Uysal, in press) across different cultures is important. From this perspective, any attempt to understand the cross-cultural influence of these constructs will bring further contribution to the tourism knowledge base. Furthermore, to date, the authors are not aware of any cross-cultural studies on perceived authenticity. Perceived authenticity remains an important theme in cultural tourism studies (Ramkissoon and Uysal, in press; Kolar and Zabkar, 2010; Chhabra, 2008). While this concept has been



considered by some researchers (Grayson and Martinec, 2004, Poria et al, 2003) as an antecedent of tourist behaviour, it still requires further investigation (Wang, 1999). It is expected that the cross-cultural analysis of this construct across different nationalities will contribute to the existing reservoir of knowledge on authenticity.

## **Methodology**

This study was set within the context of Mauritius, an island with a land area of around 1860 km<sup>2</sup>, situated in the Western Indian Ocean off the South East Coast of Africa. A pre-test of the measurement indicators adopted from the literature was deemed necessary to ensure validity. The behavioural intentions measurement scale was a slightly modified version of items adopted from Chen and Tsai (2007), González et al. (2007) and Lam and Hsu (2006). The perceived authenticity 11-item measurement scale was developed from studies (Chhabra, 2008; Cohen, 1988; McIntosh and Prentice, 1999) and slightly modified to fit the context of the study. Motivational items borrowed from Chang et al. (2006) and Yoon and Uysal (2005) constituted the 23-item scale for this construct. The 10-item information search behaviour scale measured on a 5-point Likert was adopted from Cai et al. (2004), Gursoy (2001) and Gursoy and Chen (2000). Destination image items were borrowed from Baloglu and Mangalolu (2001) and Chi and Qu (2000) and the 15-item measurement scale was measured on 5-point Likert scale. The questionnaire was first circulated to a pool of tourism researchers for content validity. Their feedback was noted and incorporated in the revised version of the questionnaire. A pilot study was further conducted with a sample of 115 tourists at one of the most popular cultural heritage sites of the island, Le Gorges National Park. This sample size met the ratio criteria for the scales measured by maintaining a ratio of at least five responses for every one variable measured. This resulted in the final version of the questionnaire survey design which was further translated into two more

languages (French and German) besides English. The translation was effected by professional translators fluent in both English and the targeted language. Back translation was further employed (Brislin, 1976) to reduce translation bias (Van de Vijver and Hambleton, 1996). The schedule was designed for self-completion with the researchers assisting the respondents where necessary. Tourists were approached on a next-to-pass basis, and when a person refused to participate, the next person was approached. Exit locations were considered impractical for the survey since tourists were often seen to be in a hurry. The fieldwork was undertaken in the months of January, February and March 2009 across 10 selected cultural sites of the island involving all weathers. Data was collected from 560 respondents visiting 10 selected cultural and heritage sites of the island. Nineteen questionnaires were eliminated as the data was being coded since they were incomplete resulting in 541 coded questionnaires used for data analysis.

## **Data analysis, results and discussion**

### **Demographic profile of respondents**

The results indicated that out of the 541 surveyed respondents, 270 (49.9%) came from France, 148 (27.4%) from the United Kingdom, 73 (13.5%) from Germany and 50 (9.2%) from India. The surveyed respondents comprised of 219 (40.5%) males and 322 (59.5%) females with most visitors (32.6%) tending to be from 30-39, followed by 20-29 (28.3%) and 40-49 (19.7%). Forty-seven respondents (10.4%) ranged between 50 and 59 and 54 respondents (8.7%) were 60 and above. Only 7 respondents (1.3%) were aged 19 or younger. The social profile of respondents revealed that they were essentially white-collar workers or had essentially been so for those who were already in retirement with 38.4% being professionals (doctors, lawyers, teachers etc.), 15.7% in technical professions, 14.2% in clerical and administrative positions, 12.6% as directors or managers and 6.3% working as service and sales personnel. Skilled manual workers constituted of only 3.2% of the total

sample. The remaining were students (2.9%), housewife/man (6.2%) and unemployed (.5%) people.

Factor analysis was employed in an exploratory attempt to derive a meaningful pattern from the measured constructs. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with varimax rotation was conducted on each domain of tourists’ cultural behavioural intentions. The EFA revealed one factor for “Behavioural Intention” reporting 59.18% of the variance and two factors for “perceived authenticity” accounting for 58.27% of the variance. The three delineated factors for “information search behaviour” accounted for 54.52% of the variance. Destination image explained 62.82% of the variance with four factors. The Cronbach alpha, designed to check the internal consistency of the items within each construct indicated satisfactory reliabilities of 0.60 and above (Hair et al., 1998). The findings are reported in Table 1.

**Table 1: Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Factor Loadings</b>	<b>Explained Variance (%)</b>	<b>Cronbach’s Alpha</b>
<b>Perceived Authenticity</b>		<b>58.27%</b>	
<i>Community Interaction</i>	0.61	42.43%	.815
Represent local ways of life	.850		
Represent the local community	.845		
Real not manufactured	.801		
Allows for interaction with local community	.703		
Souvenirs made by local hands	.566		
<b>Sense of History</b>	0.76	15.84%	.782
Have a documented history	.765		
Verified by historians	.740		
Represent a scenic landscape	.716		
Represent the past	.661		

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Factor Loadings</b>	<b>Explained Variance (%)</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
Be a reproduction of the original	.633		
<b>Motivation</b>		<b>31.88%</b>	
<i>Pleasure Seeking</i>	0.67	23.29%	.689
To enjoy the nice tropical climate	.833		
To enjoy scenic landscape	.807		
I have had good recommendation	.604		
To enjoy good hospitality of people	.593		
<i>Novelty Seeking</i>	0.56	8.59%	.669
To seek a different experience	.896		
To experience culture	.672		
To escape my routine environment	.658		
<b>Information Search Behavior</b>		<b>54.52%</b>	
<i>Destination Specific</i>	0.62	31.64%	.786
I get information from tourist leaflets	.830		
I get information from brochures	.813		
I get information from destination specific sources	.801		
I get information from airlines	.468		
<i>Personal and Governmental</i>	0.66	11.86%	.619
I get information from travel consultants	.853		
I get information from National Tourist Offices	.640		
I get information from Friends and Relatives	.548		
<i>Media</i>	0.76	11.02%	.593
I get information from the internet	.824		
I get information from magazines, articles and newspaper	.640		
I get information from TV, radio	.548		

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Factor Loadings</b>	<b>Explained Variance (%)</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
<b>Destination Imagery</b>		<b>62.82%</b>	
<i>Facilities and Services</i>	0.60	30.83%	.715
Easy accessibility	.783		
Safety and security	.742		
Good value for money	.639		
Rich and varied gastronomy	.587		
<i>Climate</i>	0.53	12.01%	.698
Exotic destination	.809		
Famous destination	.780		
Pleasant weather	.727		
<i>Culture</i>	0.64	11.10%	.827
Cultural attractiveness	.874		
Interesting cultural activities	.870		
<i>Diversity</i>	0.45	8.88%	.650
Learn about local customs	.734		
Great variety of flora and fauna	.719		
Different cultures at one destination	.641		
Spectacular scenic landscape	.542		
<b>Behavioural Intentions</b>		<b>59.18%</b>	<b>.754</b>
If I can, I have the intention of coming back to this cultural destination	0.49		
I want to visit this cultural destination	0.68		
I would give good references of this cultural destination to others	0.86		
I would encourage my family and friends to come	0.66		

## **Multinomial logistic regression**

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to identify the mean differences between the four national groups followed by Duncan's multiple range to examine where the differences occur when they were significant. Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD was conducted for this purpose. Multinomial logistic regression was further employed to assess the influence of perceived authenticity, motivation, information search behaviour and destination image on the four national groups of French, British, German, and Indian tourists. This technique was deemed appropriate since it allows simultaneous modeling of the influence of the predictor variables on a dependent variable with more than two groups (Peterson, 2007). The model was significant at .01 significance level with the goodness-of-fit measures giving a good indication of its usefulness. The full model with 12 independent variables (behavioural intention, community interaction, sense of history, pleasure seeking, novelty seeking, destination specific, personal and governmental, media, facilities and services, climate, culture, diversity) was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(36, N=541) = 121.69$  ( $P = 0.00$ ) explaining 37.6% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 41.6% (Nagelkerke) of the total variance. Results indicated that while both the motivational factors 'pleasure seeking' and 'novelty seeking' were not statistically significant, the remaining 10 independent variables made a statistically significant contribution to the model.

British consumers reported the highest mean scores in the cultural behavioural intentions domain than those of the other three groups. In the perceived authenticity domain, French tourists reported the highest mean score for 'community interaction', and the British for 'sense of history'. The latter, interestingly had the lowest mean score for 'community interaction' and Germans showed the lowest mean score for 'sense of history'. In reference to the motivation construct, both 'pleasure seeking' and 'novelty seeking' were not significant. The information search behaviour domain attracted significant differences across the groups.

The highest mean score for ‘destination specific’ was reported by Indian tourists, while the French showed the lowest mean score. British showed the highest tendency for ‘personal and governmental’, and Indians for ‘media’. The lowest mean for ‘personal and governmental’ was scored by Germans while the French exhibited the lowest tendency for ‘media’. Interestingly, Indians showed the highest mean score both for ‘facilities and services’ and ‘climate’ while British had the lowest mean score for both these factors in the destination image domain. Germans reported the highest mean score for ‘culture’ for which Indians had the lowest tendency. The French showed the highest mean score for ‘diversity’ while British tourists exhibited the least tendency for this factor. These findings confirmed that significant differences existed across the four groups of respondents confirming previous research (e.g. Kim et al., 2002; Kim and Prideaux, 2003). The mean scores are reported in Table 2.

An investigation of determinants of cultural behavioural intentions has been scant in the literature (Ramkissoon and Uysal, in press), and to the authors’ knowledge, no study has yet investigated these determinants of behaviours to a particular nationality. The findings of the present study revealed that tourists from the different cultural backgrounds and nationalities significantly differed in their exhibited cultural behavioural intentions. This study reinforced March’s (1997) findings that culture can be used to explain differences in tourist behaviour.

**Table 2: One-Way Analysis of Variance between behavioural determinants of cultural tourists by their cultural backgrounds (N=541)**

Behavioural Characteristics	Four Different Cultural Groups				Within-subject one-way ANOVA F-value	P Value
	French	British	German	Indian		
Behavioural Intentions	4.43	4.25	4.17	4.33	3.25*	0.00

<b>Perceived Authenticity</b>						
Community Interaction	4.14	3.72	3.82	3.98	6.18**	0.00
Sense of History	3.78	3.83	3.53	3.79	2.94*	0.00
<b>Motivation</b>						
Pleasure Seeking	5.49	5.54	5.10	5.28	1.71(NS)	0.00
Novelty Seeking	5.29	5.25	5.05	5.73	1.85(NS)	0.00
<b>Information Search Behavior</b>						
Destination Specific	3.26	3.69	3.37	3.88	4.84**	0.00
Personal and Governmental	3.53	3.65	2.99	3.44	2.71*	0.00
Media	3.41	3.86	3.73	4.22	8.60**	0.00
<b>Destination Image</b>						
Facilities and Services	4.20	4.06	4.08	4.23	3.19*	0.00
Climate	4.01	3.94	3.95	4.48	3.97*	0.00
Culture	4.11	4.03	4.23	3.85	3.08*	0.00
Diversity	4.34	4.11	4.19	4.26	2.90*	0.00

*Note: Significance indicated by \*\* $P < 0.01$ ; \* $p < 0.05$ ; NS = Not Significant*

**Table 3: Multinomial Regression Analysis of behavioural determinants of cultural tourists as a function of their cultural backgrounds (N=541)**

Country	Variable	Wald test		
		$\beta$	Wald	Exp ( $\beta$ )
1	INTERCEPT	1.781	.202	
	Behavioural Intention	.261	.207	1.298
	Community Interaction	.638	2.108	1.893



	Sense of History	.189	.161	1.208
	Pleasure Seeking	.938	8.053*	2.555
	Novelty Seeking	-.766	5.692*	.465
	Destination Specific	-.362	.872	.696
	Personal and Governmental	.489	1.897	1.631
	Media	-1.591	11.722**	.204
	Facilities and Services	-.115	.054	.891
	Climate	-1.972	8.435**	.139
	Culture	.747	4.032*	2.111
	Diversity	1.481	6.123*	4.398
2	INTERCEPT	7.553	3.718*	
	Behavioural Intention	-.352	.370	.703
	Community Interaction	-.402	.837	.669
	Sense of History	.687	1.939	1.988
	Pleasure Seeking	.952	7.377*	2.591
	Novelty Seeking	-.652	3.945*	.521
	Destination Specific	-.070	.030	.932
	Personal and Governmental	.154	.186	1.167
	Media	-.820	2.976+	.440
	Facilities and Services	-.394	.591	.674

	Climate	-1.966	8.220**	.140
	Culture	.833	4.863*	2.301
	Diversity	.514	.718	1.672
3	INTERCEPT	9.359	4.345*	
	Behavioural Intention	-1.000	2.301	.368
	Community Interaction	.093	.037	1.097
	Sense of History	.351	.430	1.421
	Pleasure Seeking	.532	2.023+	1.703
	Novelty Seeking	-.857	5.628*	.425
	Destination Specific	-.092	.043	.912
	Personal and Governmental	-.583	2.066	.558
	Media	-.499	.883	.607
	Facilities and Services	-.258	.198	.772
	Climate	-1.953	7.326	.142
	Culture	1.235	7.323*	3.439
	Diversity	.927	1.783*	2.527

a. The reference category is:4

*Note: Significance indicated by \*\* $P < 0.01$ ; \* $p < 0.05$ ; +  $p < 0.10$*

The multinomial regression results in Table 3 report the independent variables which were significant across the models. Only 6 of the variables were statistically significant across the between groups comparisons. ‘Pleasure seeking’ and ‘novelty seeking’ were statistically significant across the French, British and German groups as compared to the Indians. In essence, this means that French, British and German tourists preferred ‘pleasure

seeking' and 'novelty seeking' compared to Indian tourists. As far as the information search behaviour factors were concerned, only 'media' was statistically significant across the French and British groups. Hence, both these groups had a preference for the internet, magazines and newspapers and TV and radio. In reference to the destination image construct, 'facilities and services' was statistically significant across the French group. Both 'climate' and 'culture' were both statistically significant across the French, British and German groups as compared to the Indians while 'diversity' was only statistically significant amongst the French tourists.

### **Implications and conclusions**

The objective of this study was to investigate the cross-cultural similarities and differences in cultural behavioural intentions of tourists across four national groups. A factor analysis was first conducted to identify the main dimensions of tourists' cultural behavioural intentions resulting in a five factor solution defined as "behavioural intentions", "perceived authenticity", "motivation", "information search behavior", and "destination image". The empirical findings have led to important managerial perspectives. Observation of the similarities and differences in the cultural behavioural intentions of tourists across the various national groupings has suggested valuable information to destination marketers which may be incorporated into their marketing strategies. More efforts need to be expended in developing a more appealing cultural product to the targeted markets. Destination marketers can link the key behavioural constructs of perceived authenticity, motivation, information search behaviour and destination image to stimulate interest in the cultural tourism product of their destinations.

The cross-cultural noted differences on perceived authenticity confirmed the centrality of the concept for both French and British consumers. French tourists showed a highest preference for 'community interaction'. It would be worthwhile for destination marketers to develop cultural tourism products reflecting the representation of local ways of

life of the community for the French market. Tourists in the island, are not very exposed to the locals' patterns of living and activities. It would be beneficial to organize activities which allow more interaction between tourists and the local community. For example, they can assist in handicrafts, pottery making and other hand-made souvenirs produced by the local people. It was further interesting to note that the strong tendency exhibited by British consumers for 'sense of history' concurs with items highly ranked in Chhabra (2008) , Hall (2007) and Ramkissoon and Uysal (in press). There is a need to develop more cultural tourism products allowing the British consumers to dig into history. With the strong interest shown for scenic landscapes, destination marketers need to develop these attractions which can arguably offer a different experience to the consumers of nature and culture. This would help attract potential tourists from the British market segment. In essence, the findings indicate that destination marketers should concentrate on these cross-cultural differences in perception of authenticity to reinforce their attractiveness to the targeted markets and enhance their competitiveness on the global market. They should ensure that the significant dimensions of perceived authenticity are displayed while marketing the cultural attributes in the identified significant information sources used by French and British consumers. Furthermore, the managerial implications would lead to further facilitate the understanding of tourists as encoders of cultural tourism experiences based on their nationality and this would help in understanding their future behavioural intentions and hence develop appropriate marketing strategies for the targeted markets.

In reference to information sources, tourists' search behaviour across the groups has important implications for destination marketers. In essence, much effort should be invested to attract tourists by focussing on their most commonly used information sources. To better target the Indian segment exhibiting a strong tendency for 'destination specific', destination marketers need to work closely and establish good relationships with airlines and destination

specific sources such as government travel offices since they distribute free tourism brochures and leaflets to tourists. Brochures should be attractive containing specific information about the cultural and natural attractions at the destination. Additionally, destination marketers need to work with media representatives to ensure that positive images of the destination's cultural attributes are broadcasted on TV and radio since this was seen to be important sources of information consulted by Indian travellers. Journalists from India can be invited to the cultural destinations to gain a better coverage on TV and radio. Findings additionally suggested that the internet can further increase business for the Indian market since Indians are likely to use the internet more than the other tourists. It would be worthwhile to post attractive, up-to-date and competitive offers on the websites. The British indicated a strong tendency for 'personal and governmental'. They are likely to get information from travel consultants, national tourist offices, and friends and relatives. Destination marketers need to focus on travel agencies to further penetrate into the market and achieve actual demand from potential British travellers. They also need to establish good relationships with national tourist offices. The latter may help to increase the number of British tourists by providing additional information on cultural attractions at the destination. Furthermore, it seems that British travellers tend to listen to friends and relatives for information. Increased attention therefore should be given to customer satisfaction to encourage positive word-of-mouth of the cultural destination. Customer satisfaction can be assessed by survey feedback from departing tourists and areas requiring improvements should be worked upon. These findings corroborate with other information search behaviour research (e.g. Chen and Gursoy, 2000; Gursoy and Chen, 2000; Money and Crofts, 2003; Ramkissoon and Nunkoo, 2008) concluding that travellers from different nationalities do utilize different information sources with varying frequency. These findings are critical for the cultural tourism product development.

The similarities and differences of destination image perceived across the different national groups have shed more light in this area demanding significant research emphasis. Destination marketers can link the information about the different destination images to develop their positioning strategies. Also, it is important that they communicate a specific message which appeals to the targeted audience in its most effective way. The Indian segment expressed a high tendency for ‘facilities and services’ and ‘climate’. Destination marketers should attempt to improve or build the image of the destination in terms of accessibility, safety and security and providing good value for money, and enriched gastronomy to Indian tourists. Germans had the highest tendency for ‘culture’ indicating that destination marketers need to promote the cultural attractiveness of their destinations in the information sources utilized by this market segment. The French had a strong tendency for ‘diversity’. Promoting different cultures and local customs, and having a scenic image of the destination with great variety of flora and fauna will stimulate the interests of French travellers for the cultural tourism product. These results are consistent with previous destination image studies (e.g. Lee and Lee, 2009; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Kim and Morrison, 2005).

While this study revealed significant differences in intentions across the four groups of French, British, German and Indian tourists, some limitations may lie in not assessing cultural diversity within the respective groups. There could be cultural differences among the tourists coming from France for example, those living in big cities as compared to suburbs. Similarly, Indians coming from different states could exhibit significant cultural differences. It might also be worthwhile to have a thorough examination of why those differences in determinants of tourists’ cultural behaviour exist. Another limitation is that this study did not attempt to analyse differences between first-time and repeat travellers. Future researchers may address these finer differences and enhance the current findings.

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