A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia

by

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This thesis is presented in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy**

Department of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing Faculty of Business and Law



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DECLARATION

I, Pannakarn Leepaiboon, declare that the Ph.D. thesis entitled 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia' is no more than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signed		
Date	1/9/2007	

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ABSTRACT

Owing to the rapid increase in the number of Thai restaurants in the Australian multicultural context during the past decade, there has been a need for greater understanding of the factors contributing to customer adoption of Thai food. Therefore, in order to provide a basis for the creation of sustainable marketing strategies in this context, the purpose of this research has been to develop 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia'. In this model three main parts of the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (EBM) Consumer Decision-making Process (1995) and Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001): prepurchase; purchase and consumption; and post-consumption have been adapted and incorporated. In the testing of this model, a combination of qualitative and quantitative component involved interviews with thirty Thai restaurant owners and the quantitative component utilized a questionnaire for a survey of 1,009 respondent customers, following their consumption of Thai food.

The major conclusions from the findings of this research are that, at the pre-purchase evaluation stage, using a combination of descriptive and inferential statistics (ANOVA and the standard multiple regression), factors affecting customer adoption of Thai food were found to include seven aspects: demographics; experience; subjective knowledge; need recognition; sources of information and evaluation of alternatives. During the consumption evaluation stage descriptive analysis revealed that descriptions of Thai dishes and recommendations from friends who were satisfied with Thai food were the most significant factors affecting customers in deciding to order Thai dishes at Thai restaurants. Added to this, at the post-consumption evaluation stage, results using inferential statistics (correlation analysis) in relation to

the 4Ps marketing mix revealed that both 'product' and 'price' had significant relationships to overall customer liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to friends. For 'place' (convenient location of Thai restaurant) only one significant relationship was found to overall customer liking of Thai food and 'promotion' had no significant relationship to customers liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase or intention to recommend Thai food to friends. At the post-consumption evaluation stage, results from the application of inferential statistics (correlation analysis) revealed that there were significant relationships among the overall liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. In accordance with an authentic Thai taste, results using inferential statistics (ANOVA) indicate that customers' experience and subjective knowledge of Thai food were shown to be significant factors affecting their decision to repeat purchase. Finally, results using descriptive analysis in relation to a comparison of the opinions of Thai restaurant owners and their customers revealed that Thai restaurant owners were largely unaware of customer wishes for authentic Thai food tastes, rather than the modified, overly sweet and creamy dishes that the restaurant owners believe their customers want.

This first model: 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia' has been tested, and has shown the significant factors affecting consumers in deciding to adopt Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CDP	Consumer Decision-Making Process
CLA	Consumer Lifestyles in Australia
DEP	Department of Export Promotion
DIMIA	The Department of Immigration and
	Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs
EBM	Engel Blackwell and Miniard
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GST	Goods and Services Tax
GTR	Global Thai Restaurant
НАССР	Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point
КМО	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
Ν	Number of Respondents
NFI	National Food Institute
Q	Question
TAT	Tourism Authority of Thailand
TCFFI	Thai Culture and Food Festival Inc.
TFRC	Thai Farmers Research Centre
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
WTO	World Trade Organization

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Thailand is an agricultural country producing a large amount of rice and a wide variety of unique crops that form the basis of a varied, sophisticated and delicious cuisine. Growing up in a family of wholesale food producers on the outskirts of Bangkok and seeing the poverty facing much of the rural population in this beautiful country has provided the basis for my enduring desire to see Thai foods achieve success in distribution to a worldwide market. This would not only assist in poverty alleviation for the rural poor but bring the delights of Thai food to a wider consumer base. However, as the Thai Farmers Research Centre (TFRC, 2001) reveals, food sales from Thailand have remained slow. Even though Thai restaurants have emerged in foreign countries they do not provide high enough volume markets for the export of Thai foods and ingredients. Increasing the number of Thai food exports (TFRC, 2001). These facts encouraged me to undertake research into the consumption of Thai food in Australia, with the intention of providing a basis for wider marketing application.

BIS Shrapnel in its research report on *Ethnic Foods in Australia*, 2004 to 2007 estimated that the Australian market for ethnic food is currently worth A\$6 billion; that consumers spend A\$3.8 billion of this figure in both restaurants and takeaways and A\$2.2 billion in supermarkets and other retail outlets (Mangosi 2005). BIS Shrapnel research also shows that Australian taste buds now prefer Asian cuisine, which is having a negative influence on the fast food business as younger consumers move in the direction of cheaper and healthier Asian alternatives. Australians were found to be particularly adventurous in their choice of cuisine, with most frequently eaten cuisine types identified as Chinese, followed by Italian, Thai, Japanese (Sushi) and Indian.

Mangosi (2005, p.93) points out that even though changes in eating habits are generally slow to happen, there is evidence that in Australia, consumer spending on ethnic ingredients will continue to show a high growth rate. This growth will be supported by generational change and by an increased percentage of the population having Asian ancestry. The introduction of new product lines by food manufacturers should also stimulate demand.

Asian cuisines are now considered to be the newest trend in ethnic food. Notably, the number of Italian foodservice outlets has declined in recent years, while the number of Asian outlets has continued to rise strongly. In fact, 40% of restaurants in Melbourne and Sydney are Asian restaurants whereas around 13% of restaurants offer Italian cuisine. This partly reflects the ethnic mix of the population, for example, 10% of the population in Sydney and 8% in Melbourne in 2001 was born in Asia. This rise in popularity of Asian cuisine has offered cheap innovative options, superseding Italian restaurants. The BIS Shrapnel research also reported that 'Asian cuisine amounts to 33.5% of total consumer expenditure on ethnic foods, followed by Mexican at 7.4% and Middle East and other types at only 0.3%'. Therefore, in Australia, the outlook for the retail sale of ethnic food is positive, with ethnic food expenditure expected to rise to A\$2.7 billion by 2007, providing an excellent opportunity for expanding markets for Thai food in Australia. However, in order to achieve this expansion the market needs up-to-date research information on customers' opinions of Thai food; whether their background experience and knowledge of traditional Thai food affects them in choosing Thai food when eating out; their needs, sources of information and the effect of price; and which alternative cuisines do they compare with Thai food.

1.1 Background to the Research

Following the Asian crisis of 2 July 1997, large numbers of businesses collapsed. As a result, many unemployed people in Thailand decided to open their own businesses of Thai restaurants and fast food restaurants. However, they were competing within already saturated markets. The local fast-food and restaurant markets in Thailand had been nearing saturation levels, so new markets needed to be found. In the mean time, many US fast-food chains had invested in Thailand and shared the local market. Further to this, according to Rungfapaisarn (2000a) as international chains have more financial power than local chains to expand outlets and launch aggressive sales and marketing activities, food businesses had suffered. Because Thai people, particularly the younger generation who are not nationalistic, have sampled western fashion and food, they can accept international culture quite rapidly and easily adopt western food. To avoid the negative trend of paying large amounts of royalty fees to international fast food restaurants every year, Rungfapaisarn (2000a, 2000b) challenged Thai business people to reduce the international chains, develop their own fast-food brands, export them and bring the money back to benefit Thailand. There is thus a need for the factors that affect the adoption of Thai food in other countries to be investigated in order to understand and recognize potential markets.

1.2 Research Problem

There are many models of the consumer decision-making process for various products, but as far as the researcher is aware, there has been no published model of the decision-making process for the adoption of Thai food by consumers in Australia. In addition, no evidence has been found in the literature of research relating to a model of consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food. Therefore, the model presented in this study 'A model of consumer decision-making for the adoption of the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia' would not only be useful for marketing Thai food in Australia, but could be adapted and validated for other countries, as well as for other Asian cuisines being marketed overseas.

1.3 Research Aims

The aim of this research is to develop 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia'. The results of this study would be useful in developing marketing plans that are attractive and suitable for consumers in Australia to adopt Thai food.

Specific Aims

In order to develop a model suited to this study, seven specific aims have been identified as follows:

- To identify stages and factors affecting consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.
- To identify the significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for dinner) among different consumer groups based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, need recognition, and evaluation of alternatives.
- To identify differences and similarities between Thai restaurant owners' opinions and their customers' opinions, in relation to factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia.
- To identify the effect of relationships between the 4Ps Marketing Mix (product, price, place, promotion) on overall consumer satisfaction and overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, and intention to recommend Thai food to friends.
- To identify the effect of relationships among the overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner.
- To identify the significant differences in repeat purchase for consumer groups with different experiences if Thai food has authentic Thai taste.
- To identify the significant differences in repeat purchase for consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge if Thai food has authentic Thai taste.

In order to achieve these research aims, seven research questions and twenty-six null hypotheses were formulated. These are detailed in Chapter 3 (Sections 3.5 and 3.6). These were developed on the basis of the literature review as outlined in Chapters 2 and 3.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The results of this study will be useful for Thai restaurants both in Australia and internationally, providing an understanding of factors affecting consumer

decision-making for the adoption of Thai food. Furthermore, this study will be of benefit to the Thai food industry in its effort to increase export opportunities for Thai ingredients and foods. In economic terms, the export of Thai food is an important source of foreign income for Thailand. Furthermore, this study will provide insights for the Global Thai Restaurant (GTR) project which will involve the opening of 3,000 restaurants in the United States, Europe, Japan, Australia, New Zealand and other Asian and African countries over the next five years (Robert 2001; Kurlantzick 2001; GTR 2001).

This study also supports one of the objective of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) and the Ministry of Commerce, Department of Export Promotion (DEP) which focuses on greater attention in raising awareness of 'Thai food' as a very important part of Thai culture, tourism promotion of Thailand and the economy of the nation as a whole (TAT 1999). Moreover, Intrawityanunt (1999) noted that not only have these been 'important and crucial to efforts to promote tourism, have been efforts to raise Thai culture and heritage into the international spotlight' but Wangpaichitr (1999) said that 'Thai food has also taken its role side by side with other tourism resources in the promotion of Thai culture for tourism'. As a result, the ability to produce Thai food for the world will be another important step in the development and creation of a national image for Thailand, and also for Thailand to be well-known as a world-class tourist destination (Wangpaichitr 1999).

This study will therefore be of prime importance in assisting in promoting and raising international awareness of Thai food, which is one of the major factors for tourism promotion of Thailand around the world. This study will assist Thai food companies and exporters to know what consumers are looking for, and to recognize that Thai food products can be sold around the world when the factors affecting consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food are better understood. However, Thai food companies should also realize the importance of producing Thai food products that reach international standard before exporting overseas. (Intrawityanunt, 1999).

1.5 Scope of the Study

To provide a comprehensive basis for analysis this study draws from both qualitative data focusing on interviews with thirty owners of Thai restaurants as well as quantitative data targeting customers who had already dined at Thai restaurants. To comply with ethics procedure all respondents were over 18 years of age. As Thai people rarely frequent Thai restaurants in Australia (researcher's observation), they are not included in this study. This study focused only on consumers who had already purchased and consumed Thai food or experienced Thai food.

1.6 Definitions of Terms

The term, 'Thai food', in this study means meals/dishes, not ingredients. 'Thai food' is not a new product for Thai nationals and consumers who have already tried the product, but it is a new product for international consumers who have never heard of it or tried it. Therefore, for every consumer who has not been brought up with Thai cuisine there will have been a decision made at some stage to try Thai food. At this stage Thai food is new to them.

1.7 Structure of the Study

This thesis is organized into nine chapters. *Chapter One* is concerned with a general overview and introduction to the focus of this study, the importance of the study, the background to the research, the research problem, and the contribution that the study makes to knowledge. This is followed by a review of the literature divided into two chapters, beginning with a review of Thai food in Thailand and Australia and ending with a review of the relevant theoretical models and framework, including the factors affecting consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Specifically, *Chapter Two* reviews Thai food in Thailand and Australia. The review includes five main aspects of food production in Thailand; development of Thai cuisine (the evolution of Thai food industry; food consumption in Australia; and Thai food in Australia.

Chapter Three reviews the theoretical models relevant to this present study and provides the research framework. The review includes three main aspects of theoretical models and previous studies for developing the research framework. First, the theory of consumer behaviour models aims to explain factors affecting the models including the definition, purpose and types of consumer behaviour models; consumer decision-making process and consumer buyer behaviour models; the objectives of the consumer decision-making process model; and international consumer buying behaviour models. Second, the concepts of the new product adoption process are reviewed, including consumer adoptive behaviour and innovation-decision process models, the difference between the diffusion process and the adoption process, and factors affecting the innovationdecision process. Third, consumer food behaviour models are reviewed, including definitions and types of food, consumer food behaviour and food buying decision models, food preference and food choice models. The complex factors affecting food consumption are also outlined. These are followed by a description of the research framework for this study.

Chapter Four presents the research design and methodology for testing the hypotheses and investigating stages of the proposed model. The first part presents the qualitative research design and methodology which includes the interview questionnaire structure, pre-test of the questionnaire, sampling, data collection techniques, and data analysis techniques. The second part presents the quantitative research design and methods including the survey questionnaire structure, the measuring scales used, the pre-test and pilot test of the questionnaire, sampling techniques, data collection, and the statistical analysis plan.

Chapter Five presents results of the qualitative interviews with thirty Thai restaurant owners. Descriptive data analysis will be used for this part of the study.

Chapter Six presents results of the quantitative survey completed by all respondents using descriptive analysis.

Chapter Seven presents the quantitative results by using inferential analysis for testing the null hypotheses.

Chapter Eight provides a discussion involving a comparison of the implications of the findings from the interviews with the thirty Thai restaurant owners with the findings of the survey of 1009 customers. In addition, the validity of the results for the hypotheses are also discussed in relation to findings of previous studies. Moreover, the results presented are integrated in terms of the research framework, theoretical framework, and the seven research questions.

Finally in *Chapter Nine* a summary of the results and major findings and the implications of these findings is presented. This chapter also provides a discussion of the limitations and gaps in this study, along with challenges for future research.

1.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the background to this research, research problem, research aims, significance and scope of the study, definitions of terms, as well as the structure of nine chapters of this present study. The structure of the thesis is shown in Figure 1.1 (p.9). The next chapter presents a literature review relating to Thai food in Thailand and in Australia.

Figure 1.1 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter One Introduction

1.0 Introduction

- 1.1 Background to the Research
- 1.2 Research Problem
- 1.3 Research Aims
- 1.4 Significance of the Study
- 1.5 Scope of the Study
- 1.6 Definitions of Terms
- 1.7 Structure of the Study
- 1.8 Chapter Summary

Chapter Four

Research Design and Methodology

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Theory of
- Research Methods 4.2 Qualitative
- Research Design 4.3 Quantitative
- Research Design
- 4.4 Chapter Summary

Chapter Seven

Ouantitative Research Results (Inferential Analysis) 7.0 Introduction 7.1 Pre-Purchase Evaluation (Experience, Knowledge, Need Recognition, Sources of Information, Evaluation of Alternatives) 7.2 Post-Consumption (4Ps marketing mix and overall liking, repeat purchase, recommendation) 7.3 Post-Consumption (overall liking, repeat purchase, recommendation and frequency of eating out for Thai food) 7.4 Post-Consumption (Experience with an authentic Thai taste) 7.5 Post-Consumption (Knowledge with an authentic Thai taste) 7.6 Chapter Summary

Chapter Two

Review of Thai Food (Thailand and in Australia)

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Food Production in Thailand
- 2.2 Development of Thai Cuisine
- 2.3 Development of Thai Food Industry
- 2.4 Food Consumption in in Australia
- 2.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter Five

- Qualitative Research Results
 - (Descriptive Analysis)
- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Profile of Thai Restaurant Owners and Staffs
- 5.2 About Thai Food at Thai Restaurants in Australia
- 5.3 Profile of Customers
- 5.4 Popular Thai Dishes
- 5.5 Consumption of Thai Food in Australia
- 5.6 Chapter Summary

Chapter Eight

Discussion 8.0 Introduction 8.1 Comparison Opinions of Thai Restaurant Owners and Customers 8.2 Factors Affecting Consumer in the Adoption of Thai Food 8.3 Post-Consumption 8.3.1 Correlation between satisfaction of marketing mix

with liking, repeat purchase and recommendation 8.3.2 Correlation between liking, repeat purchase, recommendation and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner 8.3.3 Experience and an authentic Thai taste 8.3.4 Knowledge and an authentic Thai taste 8.4 Chapter Summary

Chapter Three

Theoretical Models and Research Framework

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Consumer
- Behaviour Models 3.2 New Product
- Adoption Models 3.3 Consumer Food
- Behaviour Models
- 3.4 Research Framework
- 3.5 Factors for the Adoption of Thai Food
- 3.6 Research Questions
- 3.7 Hypotheses
- 3.8 Chapter Summary

Chapter Six

Quantitative Research Results

(Descriptive Analysis)

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Profiles of
 - Respondents
- 6.2 Experience
- 6.3 Knowledge
- 6.4 Need Recognition
- 6.5 Sources of Information
- 6.6 Evaluation of Alternatives
- 6.7 Consumer Behaviour of Eating Out in in Australia
- 6.8 During Consumption
- 6.9 Post-Consumption
- 6.10 Chapter Summary

Chapter Nine

Conclusions, Implications, Recommendations 9.0 Introduction

- 9.1 Research Conclusions
- 9.2 Research Implications
- 9.3 Limitations to the
- Study
 - 9.4 Recommendations for
 - Further Research
 - 9.5 Chapter Summary

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THAI FOOD (THAILAND AND AUSTRALIA)

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a brief history of Thai food in Thailand to provide a background for understanding the Thai food that is being offered to consumers in Australia. The evaluation and distribution of the different types of Thai food in Thailand are also discussed. Although literature on Thai food is scarce, much information is generally understood by Thai people, and many characteristics of Thai food are discussed in cookery books, Thai restaurant web-sites, and promotions from the Thai Government.

The four sections of this chapter include: a brief introduction to Thailand; development of Thai cuisine including an outline of Thai food characteristics; the evolution of Thai food and four regional variations; development of the Thai food industry; and a brief account of Thai food and Thai restaurants in Australia.

2.1 Food Production in Thailand

The total area of Thailand is 514,000 square kilometres (Warren and Hutton 1999; TAT 2000). Forty-five percent of the land is used for agricultural production, employing about sixty percent of the country's labour force but accounting for only thirteen percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In contrast, the industrial sector employs only twelve percent of the thirty-six million labour force but contributes thirty-two percent to the GDP (NFI 2003). Thailand has fertile land and bountiful water resources, abundant tropical fruits, and currently it is the world's leading supplier of longan, durian, mangosteen and longkong fruits. It is one of the leading rice producers in the world, with about twenty-four million tons per year, and is one of the world's largest suppliers of sugar, tapioca and pineapple (NFI 2003). These factors give Thailand a great potential for food exports to other countries.

Thailand is located in Southeast Asia, bordering the Gulf of Thailand and the Andaman Sea among neighboring countries including Burma, Laos, Cambodia, and Malaysia (Figure 2.1).

50 100 km CHINA à 50 100 mi VIETNAM BURMA LAOS , Ghiang Mai Udon Thani Phitsanulok Khon Kaen Khorat Nakhon Sawan Plateau Ubon* Nakhon* Ratchathani Ratchasima BANGKOK Laem Chabang Si Racha Saltahip CAMBODIA VIETNAM Sural" Thani Phuket. Songkhia Hat Yai Pattani INDONESIA MALAYSIA

Figure 2.1 Map of Thailand and Regional Influences on Cuisine

The word 'Thai' evokes a positive feeling as it means free. 'Thailand' is not only called 'land of the free' (Bernstein 2003), but also 'land of smiles'. Added to this, Thailand is called 'the Land of Healthy Living' (Junhasavasdikul 1999), as the majority of Thai people are agricultural workers in a land of plentiful foods including rice, seafood, shrimp, cane sugar, coconuts, tropical fruits, tapioca, mushrooms, and bananas (Bernstein 2003). Thailand is a country of high agricultural production, remarkable for its wealth of cooking ingredients, rendering nutritious dishes of diverse deliciousness (Wangpaichitr 1999). With over twelve million people, Bangkok is the capital of Thailand. It is noisy, crowded, modern. Thailand is known as a new industrialized country (Bernstein 2003; Junhasavasdikul 1999). However, just one hour's drive away from Bangkok there are green fields, mountain ranges, forests, sea shores and beautiful natural resources (Junhasavasdikul 1999).

In Thailand about 600,000 people work in more than 9,000 food factories of varying size which process foods including fruits and vegetables, shrimps and seafood, poultry and poultry meat products, rice grain and cereal products, sugar and confectionery, and juice and beverages (NFI 2003). Nowadays, Thailand has the prospect of exporting food products because of high technology and the perserverance of private entrepreneurs (NFI 2003). About US\$10 billion annually is earned from its food industry (NFI 2003). The total value of exported food in 2001 was 444.706 million baht (approximately exchange rate 40 baht/US\$1= US\$11.12 million). Thailand now ranks among the world's top ten exporters of food products even though its food manufacturing industry only started in the 1970s. Thailand is the world's largest exporter of frozen shrimps, the second largest exporter of seafood, especially tuna, and it is in the top ten exporters of frozen chicken (NFI 2003).

2.2 Development of Thai Cuisine

Bernstein (2003) noted that in recent times Thai food has become one of the world's most exciting cuisines and one of the most coherent in Southeast Asia because it is eclectic and combines various tastes from other cuisines. As a result

there is now a wide range of flavour, with some dishes suited to both Asian and Western palates. Wangpaichitr (1999) and Kongpan (2001) point out that those who eat Thai food on a daily basis have adjusted Thai cuisine to be coherent with the natural way of living, as many Thai food products are made from herbs and spices. Kongpan (2001) points out that herbs and spices provide great nutritional benefits, meaning that Thai food is seen as healthy because many dishes include herbs and spices. Due to its unique and diverse cuisine Thai food has rapidly become well-known, and nowadays hot and spicy dishes are popular world wide (Kongpan 2001).

2.2.1 The Evolution of Thai Food

From the seventeenth century onwards Thai cuisine has been influenced by both Eastern and Western cuisines including Portuguese, Dutch, French, and Japanese (TAT 1998; 1999). However, the main influences have been from the two Asian cuisines, Chinese and Indian, not directly, but through Thailand's neighbouring countries. Examples include curry flavours from India via Burma, the sour tamarind from Burma via the Muslim south, sticky rice and rustic, bitter flavours from Laos, Muslim dishes from Malaysia, satays and peanut from Indonesia via Malaysia, and also the introduction of stir-fried wok cooking and steamed fish dishes, soups and noodle dishes from the Chinese immigrant population (Kahrs 1990; Heyward 1993; TAT 1998, 1999; Bernstein 2003).

Thai cuisine has shown 'a remarkable talent for taking the best of each influence and combining them in a highly distinctive way' to make Thai cooking a strongly regional set of cuisines' (Kahrs 1990, p.7). Stewing and baking, or grilling were traditional Thai cooking methods. However, Thai cuisine has adapted to foreign cooking methods, and substituted ingredients, for example ghee used in Indian cooking was replaced by coconut oil, and coconut milk substituted for other dairy products (TAT 1998; 1999). Some ingredients have come from even further away, such as chillies that were introduced to Thai cooking during the late 1600s by Portuguese traders who brought them from the New World via Europe (Kahrs 1990; TAT 1998; 1999), and Portuguese missionaries who had acquired a taste for them while serving in South America (TAT 1998; 1999). Innumerable new ingredients were added to the Thai culinary repertoire in the seventeenth century, when the first contacts were made with Europe, and trading was also established with other Asian countries (Warren and Hutton 1999). Indian traders established ports along the southern Thai peninsula and also brought cultural and culinary influences to the Thai cuisine (Warren and Hutton 1999). Mon settlers arrived about the same time (seventeenth century) in the Chao Phraya valley and founded the Dvaravati kingdom, which is a main producer of rice and also an important religious centre for Thai people (Warren and Hutton 1999). With the growing of Thailand's prosperity the traditional Thai features changed radically. Although the accomplished Chakri monarchs were capable of maintaining the kingdom's independence, many Chinese immigrants came to the new city of Bangkok, and Western traders also added to its variety. By the end of the nineteenth century Bangkok was becoming a modern, Western-style city.

2.2.2 Thai Food Characteristics

The ideal Thai food incorporates the four elements of taste, providing a harmonious blend of spicy, sweet, sour, and salty (Warren and Hutton 1999; TAT 1998, 1999; Bernstein 2003). Basic Thai ingredients consist of a variety of herbs, spices, and vegetables which combine to provide Thai foods with their special flavours, not just spicy, but also sweet, sour, and salty in varying degrees to suit the particular dish (Warren, Tettoni and Punchun 2002). Herbs and spices used as common ingredients include lemon grass, kaffir, lime, garlic, chilli, galanga, marsh mint, pepper, and ginger (Hongwiwat 1998; TAT 2000). As a result, a major attribute of Thai cuisine is not only the use of these herbs and spices, but the wide variety of dishes that they have inspired (Kahrs 1990).

The basis of Thai cooking has been rice and its has supported and provided for the sustenance of Thai people for thousands of years (Kongpan 2001). Steamed rice is always the main accompaniment in Thai meals, and is often accompanied by vegetables spiced with chilli paste, fish sauce, and coconut cream (Warren and Hutton 1999). Rice is considered a staple food and accompanies most foods, even soups and condiments (Thompson 1993). As a result, a wide variety of

Figure 2.2 shows ten Thai ingredients commonly used for Thai cuisine.

"The Healthy Heart of Thai Cuisine"

'At the heart of Thai cuisine are the nutritious and healthy herbs, spices and flavouring which provide the dazzling array of delicious and exotic tastes that make Thai cuisine so unique'. Source: A poster of the Department of Export Promotion (DEP), Thailand (2003)

• Chilli (Phrik) is 'used as

garnishing and flavouring in Thai dishes. All contain capsaicin, a biologically active ingredient beneficial to the respiratory system, blood pressure and heart. Other therapeutic uses include being a stomachic, carminative and antiflatulence agent, and digestant.'

• Lemon Grass (Takhrai)

'This erect annual plant resembles a coarse greygreen grass used as a flavouring. Lemongrass contains 0.2-0.4% volatile oil. Therapeutic properties are as a diuretic, emmanagogue, antiflatulence, antiflux and antimicrobial agent.'

• Garlic (Kra-thiam)

'The bulbs contain 0.1 to 0.36% garlic oil and organic sulphur compounds. Therapeutic uses are as antimicrobial, diaphoretic, diuretic, expectorant, antiflatulence and cholesterol lowering agents'.

• Galangal (Kha)

'The approximately 0.04% volatile oil content has therapentic uses as carminative, stomachic, antirheumatic and antimcrobial agents.'

• Kaffir Lime Peel (Makrut)

'The leaves and peel contain volatile oil. The major therapentic benefit of the juice is as an appetiser'.

• Sacred Basil (Ka-phrao)

'Contain approximately 0.5% volatile oil which exhibits antimicrobial activity, specifically as a carminative, diaphoretic, expectorant and stomachic'.

• Sweet Basil (Ho-ra-pha)

'Therapeutic properties are as carminative, diaphoretic, expectorant, digestant and stomachic agents.'.

• Marsh Mint (Sa-ra-nae)

'The fresh leaves are used as a flavouring and eaten raw in Thai cuisine. Volatile oil contents give the plant several therapeutic uses, including carminative, mild antiseptic, local anaesthetic, diaphoretic and digestant properties.'

Lime (Ma-nao)

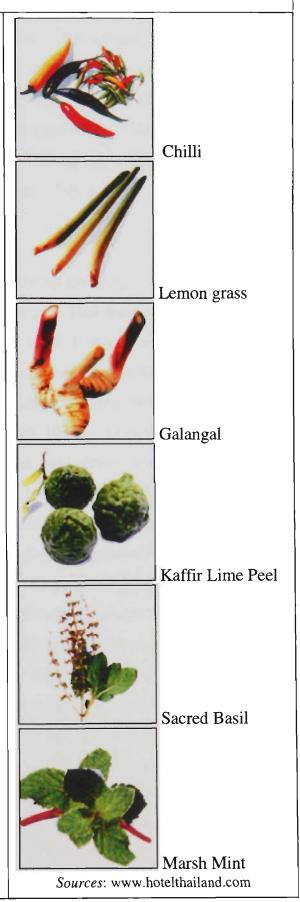
'The fruit contains Hesperidin and Naringin, Scientifically proven antiinflammatory flavonoids. Lime juice is used as an appetiser, and has antitussive, antiflux, stomachic and antiscorbutic properties.'

Source: A poster of the Department of Export Promotion (DEP), Thailand (2003)

• **Turmeric** (Khamin Chun)

Medicinal use : Rhizome-Carminative, treats peptic ulcers and dyspepsia, externally used for itching and infected wounds.

Sources:www.thaiherbs.com



foods that can be cooked and easily mixed with rice have been developed (Kongpan 2001). Meals may also include mild dishes, sweet teas and coffees, and sweet desserts and fruits (Bernstein 2003).

Traditionally, there is no entrée in Thai cooking (Thompson 1993). Thai food is about the balance of seasonings, flavours and textures from a range of contributing ingredients (Thompson 1993). Thai food should be mixed with rice easily and should be extremely flavourful so that the taste can be recognized even after mixing with rice (Kongpan 2001). Generally, Thai curries 'burn' intensely, but briefly, whereas curries from other countries, e.g. Indian curries 'burn' for longer periods with stronger spices (TAT 1998; 1999).

2.2.3 Eating Thai Food Styles/Etiquette

Thai food is eaten with a fork and spoon, the spoon being used to convey food to the mouth. There is no need for a knife because Thai food is served in bite sized pieces, e.g. meats with steamed rice (TAT 1998; 1999). The ideal way of eating Thai food should be to involve two or more people because the principle of eating Thai food is sharing dishes, each person conveying portions to their own individual plates of steamed rice (TAT 1998; 1999). Thai foods are served all at once instead of serving dishes in courses, and diners are permitted to share complementary combinations of different tastes (TAT 1998; 1999). Generally, diners order whatever dishes they want to eat, two diners order three dishes, three diners order four dishes, and so on. Therefore, the greater the number of diners, the greater the number of dishes ordered to share the different tastes (TAT 1998; 1999). To order Thai food properly a meal should consist of a soup, a curry dish with condiments and a dip with accompanying fish and vegetables (TAT 1998; 1999). The meal may not always include a curry, for example, it may be replaced by a spiced salad. If the soup is spicy then the curry may be replaced by a dish that is not spicy. As with all cuisines the design is to balance flavours, textures and appearance harmoniously either within a single dish or in a complete meal (TAT 1998; 1999). Soups and salad are eaten concurrently with other dishes, not independently (TAT 1998; 1999) or they may be eaten either at the beginning or at the end of a meal (Warren and Hutton 1999). Generally, a large container of rice and other dishes and condiments are at the centre of the table, and the desserts

are usually served after all of the main dishes have been consumed (Warren and Hutton 1999). There is a great variety of Thai sauces and condiments (Warren and Hutton 1999). For example prik nam pla (fish sauce combined with chopped fresh chillies, fresh garlic, and lemon) is a condiment that Thais eat with almost every Thai dish, while there are other condiments (nam prik) for people who really like their food more strongly flavoured and spicy.

Fitzgerald (2000 p.6) points out that in Asian restaurants meals are ordered to share with fellow diners, whereas at western restaurants people tend to order their own meals. David Man, the manager of the restaurant Genting Palace of Burswood Resort says 'when taking food from a central plate to put on your own plate, take from the top. It is bad manners to dig around or take from the side.' Thai With Style, Michael Lennie, says that shared dining is also traditional when eating Thai food. Forell (1995, p.35) points out that diners in Thai restaurants are asked to keep the same spoon and fork for all appetizers and main courses. The usual meal setting is a spoon and fork – the spoon is used to put food in the mouth, and the fork is used to push food onto it, in much the same way Westerners use a knife and fork. Forell notes that one thing people do not always know is that Thais do not normally use chopsticks. In Thailand, the food is piled on the table, with each entrée being served with a specific sauce that matches it. In Thailand, people share the dishes, but, as Forell reports, Australia, people prefer courses.

However, with Thai cooking emerging from relative obscurity to become one of the West's favourite exotic styles of cooking, the above rules of eating have become less clear (Kahrs 1990, p.7). Nowadays, Thai food can be found in every major city and in major international centres (Intrawityanunt 1999), and is known as one of the most popular cuisines in the world (Warren et al. 2002). It has now joined the ranks of internationally recognized cuisines such as French, Japanese, Italian, and Chinese foods (TAT 1999). In an effort to please Western tastes, the fresh chilli factor of Thai food is often reduced, more sugar may be added, and more meat used than in traditional Thai cooking (Dupleix 1999). Thai food in Thailand is extremely hot, 'Thai hot' (Dupleix 1999). David Thompson, who may have been owned one of the very few restaurants to offer an authentic taste

of Thai food in Sydney commented that most of the Thai food in Sydney is adapted to Western taste (Bolles 2000).

2.2.4 Regional Thai Cuisine

There are four parts of Thailand; northern, northeastern, southern, and central. There are different cuisines and Thai food has different characteristics in these four different parts of Thailand, depending on the influence of history, geography and religions (Bernstein 2003). For instance, northern food is milder than food in the central plains; northeastern food is fiery hot; seafoods are the most common foods for people in the south and the Muslim communities are fond of all kinds of curries (Bernstein 2003).

• Northern Cuisine

Many northern dishes in Thailand show influences from neighbouring Burma, Laos, and the earliest migration southward from China which formed at first a small city state known as Lanna, with Chiang Mai as the principal city (Warren and Hutton 1999). Generally, northern people prefer steamed sticky rice rather than the soft steamed rice; they traditionally knead steamed sticky rice into small balls with the fingers and dip them into liquid dishes (TAT 1994; Warren and Hutton 1999). Northern curry dishes are milder and without the coconut milk used in the dishes of central, northeastern, and southern Thailand (TAT 1994; Warren and Hutton 1999). Popular northern dishes in which influences from neighboring Burma are evident are Kaeng Hang Le, a pork curry that relies on ginger, tamarind, and turmeric for its flavour, and Khao soi, a curry broth with egg, noodles and meat, topped with spring onions, pickled onions, and slices of lime (TAT 1994). The regional preferred dish is a spicy pork sausage called *Name* that can be eaten in numerous ways (TAT 1994). The traditional form of a northern meal to entertain guests is a Khantok dinner. Khan means a bowl and tok means a low round table (TAT 1994). To eat Khantok diners sit on the floor around the table and help themselves to assorted dishes which, besides sticky rice, include one or two local curries, a minced-meat dish seasoned with chillies, a salad, fried pork rind, various sauces and condiments. The desserts are likely to be fruits in season such as lamyai, longan or lychee (TAT 1994).

Figure 2.3(a) Popular Northern Dishes

Hang Le Curry (Kaeng Hang Le)

Ingredients: pork, dried chilli, garlic, onion, salt, sugar, tamarind juice, ginger, black soya sauce, shirmp paste and hang le powder.



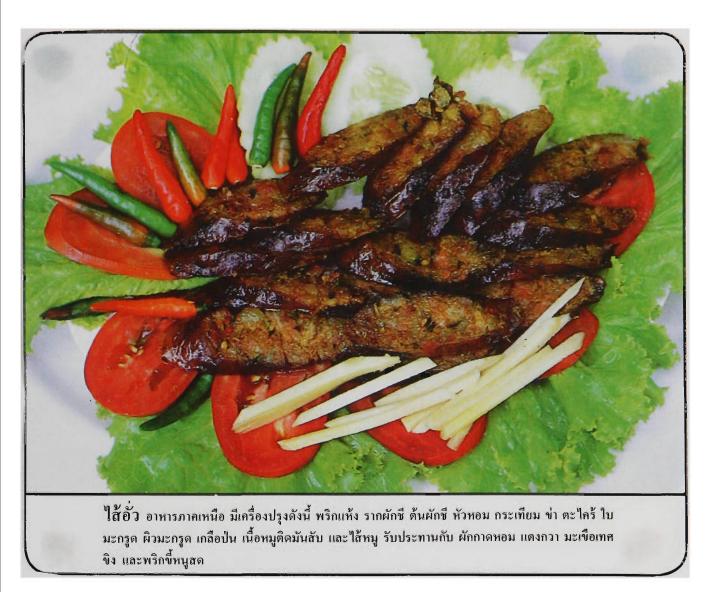
แกงฮังเล อาหารภาคเหนือ มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ พริกชี้ฟ้าแห้ง กระเทียม หัวหอม กะปิ เกลือป่น น้ำตาล น้ำมะงามเปียก ชิง ผงฮังเล ซีอิ้วดำ น้ำ และหมูสามชั้น รับประทานกับข้าวเหนียว หรือข้าวสวย

Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัตนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษา อาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเตอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

Figure 2.3(b) Popular Northern Dishes

Northern Thai Sausages (Sai Oua)

Ingredients: pork, dried chilli, coriander root, coriander leaves, onion, garlic, galangal, kaffir lime peel, lemon grass and salt.



Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, *Four Regional Thai Cuisines*, Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัดนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษา อาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเตอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

Figure 2.3(c) Popular Northern Dishes

Namprik Ong

Ingredients: mince pork, dried chilli, tomato, shallots, garlic, shrimp paste and salt.



นาพรกออง อาหารภาคเหนือ มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ พริกแห้ง มะเขือเทศ หัวหอม กระเทียม กะปี เกลือป่น ปลาร้า และเนื้อหมูสับ รับประทานกับ แตงกวา ต้นหอม กะหล่ำปลี กะหล่ำดอก ถั่วฝักยาว มะเขือเปราะ และ แคบหมู

Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัดนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษา อาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเดอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

• Northeastern Cuisine

Northeasterners are known as Isan people and northeastern food is known as Isan food. Isan food is rather more pungent and strong than the central Thai cuisine (Holland 2003). The northeast is still a largely rural area of Thailand, so that Isan dishes are the traditional fare for people who work the land (Holland 2003). Fish and shrimp are the staple sources of protein for northeasterners because meat is often scarce (TAT 1994). Normally, Isan food is eaten with the hands, balling up a bit of sticky rice, then picking up a small amount of accompanying food and putting it all into the mouth at once (Holland 2003). A number of Isan dishes have been influenced by neighboring Laos just across the Mekong River from Thailand (TAT 1994; Warren and Hutton 1999). There are popular regional dishes such as Som Tam (green papaya salad), Nam Tok, Laap and Kai Yang, which can be called Bar B-Q chicken or beef, and is normally eaten with sticky rice (TAT 1994; Holland 2003). A few Isan dishes are well-known in Thai restaurants abroad, for example Haw Mok, in which fish is ground with red curry paste and then steamed in a banana leaf, and Gai Yang or Barbecued chicken, which is marinaded with pepper, garlic, and sauce. Northeastern people tend to add chillies to most dishes more than do Thais from of other parts of Thailand. Steamed sticky rice is the principal food of northeasterners, and can be eaten as for other dishes or cooked as a sweet dessert (TAT 1994). One of the famous northeastern desserts is Khanom buang which originates from Lao; it is a thin crispy egg crepe stuffed with shrimp, bean sprouts, and other ingredients (TAT 1994). A variety of Isan foods is available in the central part of Thailand because many northeasterners come to work in Bangkok (TAT 1994).

Figure 2.4(a) Popular Northeastern Dishes

Thai Papaya Salad (Som Tam) is a hot and spicy, eaten with barbe-cued meats and sticky rice. Two types of Thai Papaya Salad: Som Tam Pu (with black salted crab) and Som Tom Thai (without black salted crab).

Ingredients: green papaya, fresh chilli, tomato, garlic, lime, fish sauce, palm sugar, dried shimps and ground roasted peanut.



ส้มตำปูเค็ม อาหารภาคอีสาน มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ มะละกอดิบ พริกขี้หนูสด มะเขือเทศ กระเทียม มะนาว น้ำปลา น้ำตาลปี๊บ กุ้งแห้ง และปูเค็ม รับประทานกับ ผักบุ้งไทย กะหล่ำปลี และถั่วฝักยาว

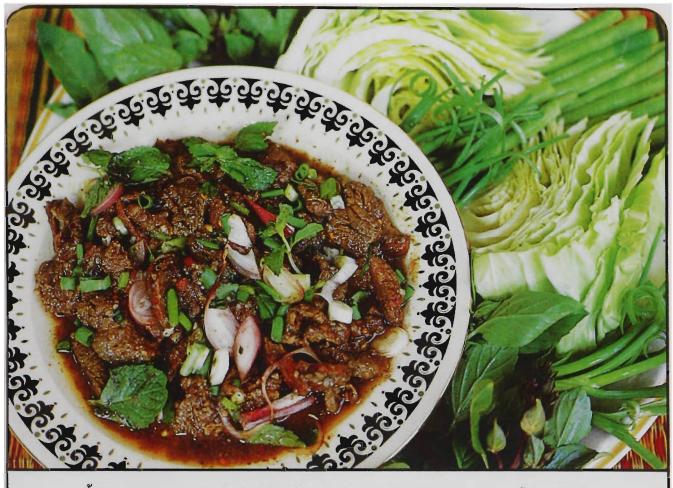
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Figure 2.4(b) Popular Northeastern Dishes

Thai Beef Salad (Nam Tok)

Ingredients: beef, dried chilli, onion, spring onions, lime, fish sauce, marsh mint,

hairy basil and roasted ground rice.



น้ำตก อาหารภาคอีสาน มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ พริกแห้งป่น หัวหอม ต้นหอม มะนาว น้ำปลา ข้าวคั่ว ใบแมงรัก ผักซีฝรั่ง และเนื้อสัน รับประทานกับ ใบแมงรัก กะหล่ำปลี และถั่วผักยาว

Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัดนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษา อาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเดอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

Figure 2.4(c) Popular Northeastern Dishes

Bamboo Salad (Soup Normai)

Ingredients: bamboo shoots, dried chilli, shallots, spring onions, coriander, salt or fish sauce and lime.



ซ**ุปหน่อไม้** อาหารภาคอีสาน มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ หน่อไม้เผา พริกแห้ง หอมเล็ก ต้นหอม ผักซี ผักซีฝรั่ง ใบย่านาง ใบสะระแหน่ เกลือป่น งางาวกั่ว และปลาร้าดิบ รับประทานกับ ผักบุ้งไทย กะหล่ำปลี และ ถั่วฝักยาว

Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัดนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษาอาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเตอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

• Southern Cuisine

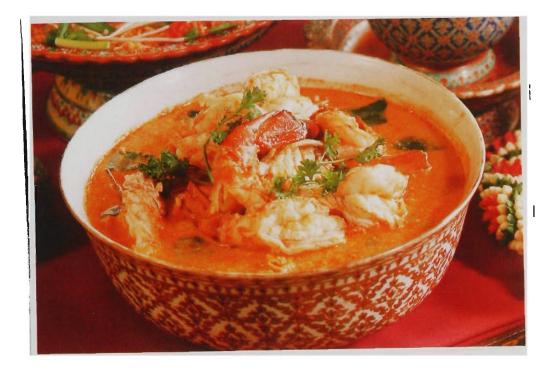
Southern food has been influenced by Muslims, Malaysians and traders from India and Java who sailed to its numerous ports (Warren and Hutton 1999). The coconut grows widely in the south and plays an important role in many dishes; 'its milk tempers the heat of chilli-laced soups and curries, its oil is often used for frying, and its grated meat serves as a condiment' (TAT 1994). There are plenty of fresh seafoods such as marine fish, prawns, rock lobsters, crab, squid, scallops, clams, and mussels (TAT 1994). Cashew nuts are grown in local plantations. They can be eaten as appetizers or stir-fried with chicken and dried chillies and a pungent flat bean called sato which has a bitter flavour much admired by southern diners (TAT 1994). Generally, southerners like foods with chilli-hot and bitter tastes, which Thais from other parts of Thailand tend to find less interesting (Warren and Hutton 1999).

There are some popular dishes, which have been influenced by other cultures. Such dishes include *Gaeng Mussaman*, a mild Indian-style curry seasoned with cardamon, cloves, and cinnamon; *Malay fish curry*, with a garnish of fresh fruit; and *Indonesian satay*, a marinade of any meats on bamboo skewers with a spicy peanut sauce (TAT 1994; Warren and Hutton 1999). *Tom Yam* is one of the most well-known Thai dishes in the world. Seafood, lemon grass, and chillies are the main components of Tom Yam. There is no evidence that Tom Yam is influenced from anywhere else. Regional fruits such as finger-sized bananas, mango-steens, durians, and sweet pineapples are used in desserts (TAT 1994).

Figure 2.5 (a) Popular Southern Dishes

Tom Yam Kung

Ingredients: prawn, tom yam paste, roasted chilli paste (nam phrik pao), fish sauce, kaffir lime leaves, galangal, lemon grass, mushrooms, chilli pepers,lime juice, coriander leaves,



Sources: TAT (1994), 'Discover Thailand and Its Food', Tourism Authority of Thailand, Bangkok

Figure 2.5 (b) Popular Southern Dishes

Yellow Curry (Gaeng Lueang)

Ingredients: fish, chilli, garlic, onion, cumin, shirmp paste, salt or fish sauce, palm sugar, tamarind juice, sour bamboo shoots.



Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัตนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษาอาหารไทยสี่ภาค, ส่านักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเตอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

Figure 2.5 (c) Popular Southern Dishes

Tai-Pla Curry (Gaeng Tai-Pla)

Ingredients: fish, fresh hot chilli, dried hot chilli, pepper, galangal, lemon grass, kaffir lime peel, shallots, cumin, garlic, shimp paste, salt, palm sugar, tamarind juice, bamboo shoots and snake beans.



แกงไตปลา อาหารภากใต้ มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ พริกขี้หนูสด พริกขี้หนูแห้ง พริกไทยป่น ข่า ตะไคร้ ใบมะกรูด ผิวมะกรูด กระเทียม หอมเล็ก ขมิ้นสด กะปิ เกลือป่น น้ำตาลปิก มะขามเปียกคั้นน้ำ หน่อไม้ ถั่วฝักยาว มะเขือเปราะ ปลาย่าง และไตปลาทู รับประทานกับผักต่างๆ และข้าวสวย

Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัดนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษาอาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเตอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

Figure 2.5 (d) Popular Southern Dishes

Sator with Prawns (Pad Sator Goong)

Ingredients: prawn, sator vegetable, garlic, fish sauce, sugar and vegetable oil.



ผัดสะตอกับกุ้ง อาหารภาคใต้ มีเครื่องปรุงดังนี้ สะดอ กระเทียม น้ำปลา น้ำตาลทราย น้ำมัน และกุ้ง รับประทานกับข้าวสวย

Sources: Photographs by Rattana Rommaneeyauthayan, 'Four Regional Thai Cuisines', Intra Poster Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand (ถ่ายภาพโดย รัตนะ รมณียอุทยาน, ภาพประกอบการศึกษาอาหารไทยสี่ภาค, สำนักพิมพ์อินทราโปสเตอร์ กรุงเทพฯ)

• Central Cuisine

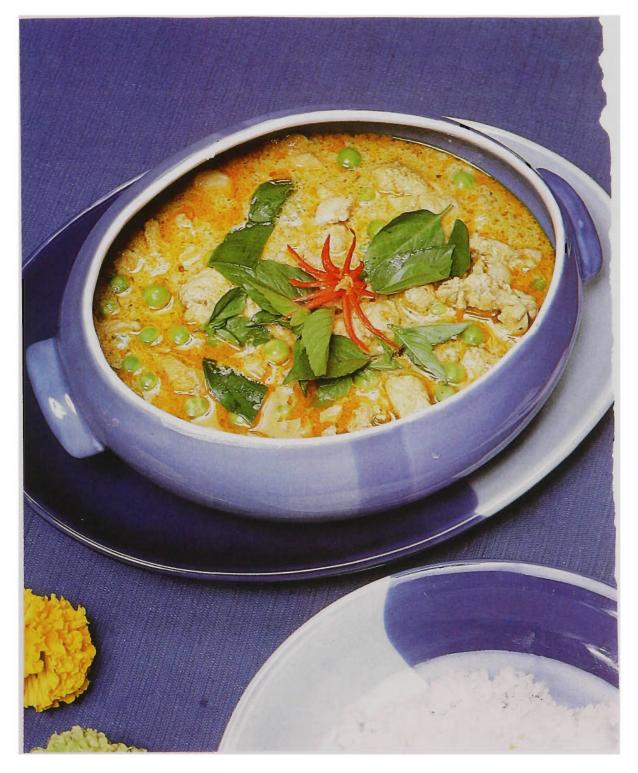
Warren and Hutton (1999, pp.17-19) have noted that the central area of Thailand is the heartland, with Bangkok as the principal market and cultural magnet. The best rice comes from this region. The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT 1994, p.9) notes that much of what we now know as Thai cuisine evolved in the Central Region. Rice, fish, and vegetables were richly flavored with garlic, black pepper, and nam pla, or fish sauce, along with an abundance of fresh fruits, comprising the basic diet of Sukhothai. With the rise of the capital of Thailand (Ayutthaya) in 1400 other elements were added to this increasingly complex Thai blend. The fiery, hot chilli pepper was introduced at this time, along with the equally popular coriander, lime, and tomato. The latter ingredients are thought to have been brought from their native South America by the Portuguese, who opened relations with Ayutthaya in 1511, also introducing the popular Thai sweets based on egg yolks and sugar. Other influences came from India, Japan, Persia, and especially, China. In almost every case however, their contributions have been subtly altered and transformed to suit Thai tastes. Unlike the north and northeast areas, where glutinous rice is used, fragrant plain rice is preferred by central Thais, who usually steam it. However, sometimes they fry or boil their rice.

In addition to fresh-water fish, which central Thai cuisine utilizes, there is seafood from the nearby the gulf of Thailand, as well as a wide range of fresh vegetables, fruits including mangos, durians, custard apples, guavas, and pomeloes. Because many Chinese business men have moved into the cities, Sino-Thai food is popular, particularly in Bangkok, usually in the form of numerous noodle dishes.

Figure 2.6(a) Popular Central Dishes

Green Curry (Gaeng Khiao Wan)

Ingredients: chicken/beef, green curry paste, fish sauce, sugar, coconut milk, bamboo shoots, kaffir lime leaves, and sweet basil leaves.

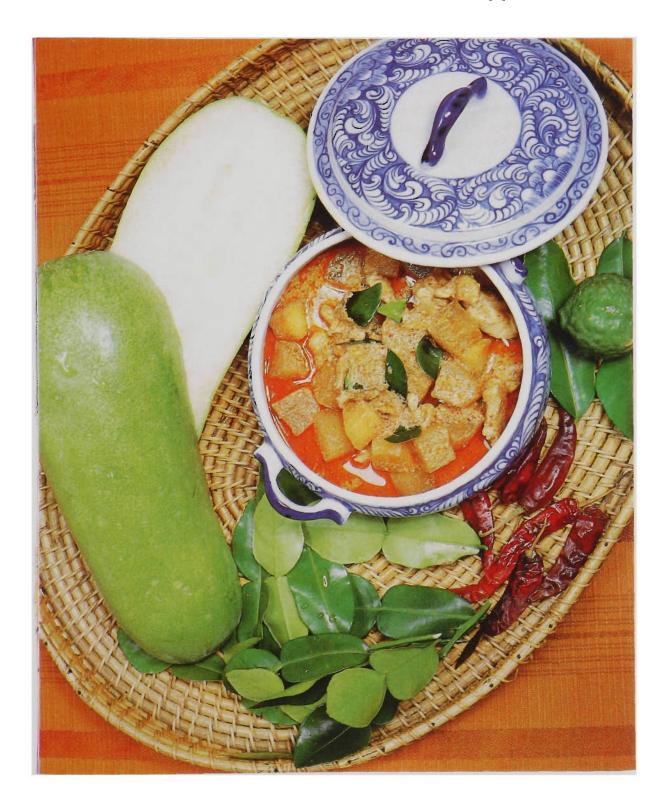


Sources: Kongpan (2001), The Best of Thai Cuisine, Sangdad Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand

Figure 2.6(b) Popular Central Dishes

Chicken and Wax Gourd Curry (Kaeng Khua Fuk Kap Kai)

Ingredients: chicken, grated coconut, wax gourd, tamarind juice, palm sugar, fish sauce, chillies, salt, galangal, lemon grass, shallots, garlic, shrimp paste.



Sources: Kongpan (2001), The Best of Thai Cuisine, Sangdad, Bangkok, Thailand

Figure 2.6(c) Popular Central Dishes

Thai Fried Noodle (Phat Thai)

Ingredients: prawn, narrow rice noodle, dried shrimps, soya bean curd, pickled white radish, garlic, shallots or onion, dried red chilli, sugar, fish sauce, vinegar, bean sprouts, spring onion, ground roasted peanut, lime and vegetable oil.



Sources: Kongpan (2001), The Best of Thai Cuisine, Sangdad, Bangkok, Thailand

Figure 2.6(d) Popular Central Dishes

Chicken Coconut Soup (Tom Kha Kai)

Ingredients: chicken, coconut milk, galangal, lemon grass, kaffir lime leaves, fish sauce, sugar, lime juice, black chilli paste (nam phrik pao), coriander leaves and Thai chilli pepers.

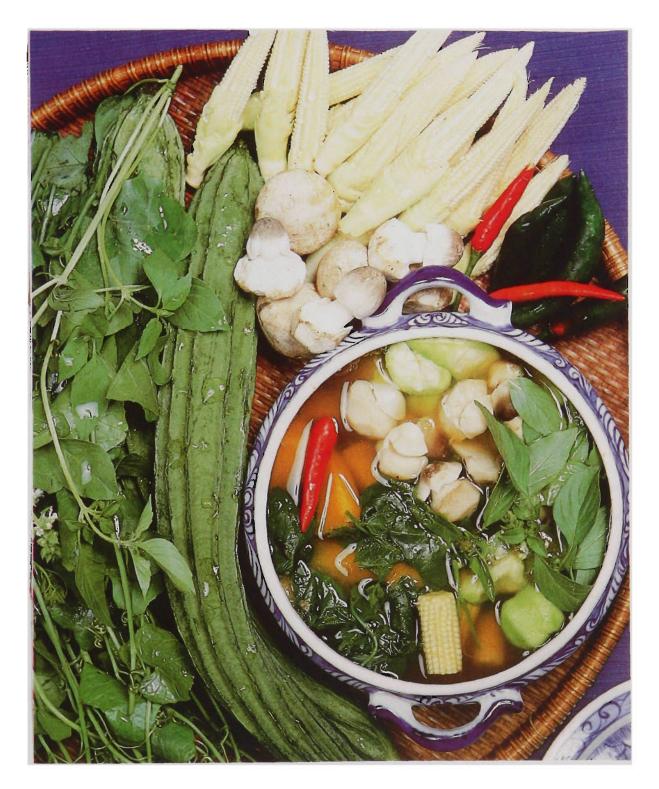


Sources: Kongpan (2001), The Best of Thai Cuisine, Sangdad Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand

Figure 2.6(e) Popular Central Dishes

Vegetable Soup Thai Style (Kaeng Liang)

Ingredients: sponge gourd, bottle-gourd, gord gourd, phak wan, or banana flower, sweet basil, pepper corns, shrimp paste, fish sauce, shallots, dried shrimp or fish, .



Sources: Kongpan (2001), The Best of Thai Cuisine, Sangdad Publishing, Bangkok, Thailand

2.3 Development of the Thai Food Industry

In accordance with needs developed as a result of an increasingly sophisticated demand for Thai cuisine, the production of frozen and canned food has increased, particularly since the introduction of advanced technology. The National Food Institute (NFI) of Thailand (2003) summarizes the chronology of the development of the food industry in Thailand as follows:

Prior to the 1960s seventy percent of exported agricultural products were food commodities. Available technologies mainly utilized drying and pickling to preserve foods.

1960-1970 a government industrial promotion privileges policy was introduced and machinery was imported from Taiwan and Japan for processing product surpluses of canned fruits and vegetables, and vegetable oil.

1970-1980 Thailand started to profit from exporting processed products, firstly targeting local consumption with excess products exported. However, exports were limited due to a lack of experience and know-how in production and marketing.

1980-1990 Thailand was characterized by the rapidity of its industrial development and the adoption of sophisticated technologies from the US and Europe. Thailand established export markets for frozen food products.

1990-2000 Thai products were entering the highly competitive worldwide markets demanding high standards of food safety and health, and low cost of production.

From 2000 to 2003, Thailand has been concerned with the demands of the World Trade Organization (WTO) for Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP) certifications to ensure that exported products are safe. As a result, authorized certifying agencies of food safety and quality including the Department of

Medical Science, the Thai Industrial Standards Institute, the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Fisheries and the Department of Livestock have been rapidly upgraded to meet increasingly high standards under the HACCP program auspices of the NFI.

2.4 Food Consumption in Australia

Since the late 18th century, 'Australian notions of cuisine have closely followed the British food habits introduced by colonisers' (Lupton 2000, p.95). However, although post World War II migrants brought Greek and Italian cuisine to Australia, an Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS, 2002) report showed that more recent intakes of migrants have included not only British, but Chinese, New Zealander, Vietnamese, Indian, and forty other nationalities, including Thai. Consequently, according to Cadzow (1994, p.92), nowhere has multiculturalism become more evident than in metropolitan Australian kitchens and restaurants, where cuisines from around the world for Australian tastebuds. In the past two decades, growth in international trade, globalisation, migration and tourism has resulted in Australian consumers becoming more aware of, and adapting to, a wide range of ethnic foods (Jamal 2003; Verbeke and Lopez 2005). In this situation, the unique taste of Thai food has competed strongly in the restaurant market.

The culinary tradition of Australia and the dramatic changes that have taken place in its overall food habits' since the middle of the 20th century, have resulted in distinct culinary styles including Italian, Chinese and Thai cuisines being adopted into Australian home-cooking and dominating inexpensive dining out (Ripe 1993). Ripe surveyed domestic food habits in Australia and found that 65 percent of metropolitan households (where the majority of Australians live), cook Asianstyle stir-fry meals twice a week. Butchers typically offer a range of pre-prepared meat mixtures based on Asian cuisine, such as Thai lamb curries and satay sticks. Added to this, Asian sauces and preserved spices such as chilli, coriander, curry paste and lemongrass are widely available in supermarkets. Further to this, the trend in Australia is for more family main meals to be eaten out, and takeaway food to be eaten in place of home-cooked meals (Bittman and Pixley, 1997). A 1997 Sydney newspaper market research study found that 44 percent of Sydneysiders ate dinner in a restaurant at least once a week, with 79 percent preparing and eating only five main meals per week at home (Jellie, 1997).

However, an Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) in 1999 report found that people living in rural areas had a lower intake of the introduced pasta and rice dishes, and a higher intake of bread, fats, oils and vegetables including potatoes, carrots, peas and beans, than those living in metropolitan areas. Findings of Lupton (2000) also suggest that in this age of wide food availability and increasing diffusion of cuisines from foreign cultures introducing a vast range of exotic cuisines over the past 30 years, the diet of rural Australians has differed little from that of previous generations, continuing to emphasise the traditional, British-style 'meat and veg.' as the mainstay of the main meal. Their large-scale studies of food intake found that rural people in Australia have quite different diets from those in metropolitan areas.

Consumer Lifestyles in Australia (CLA 2000) revealed that 34 percent of total consumer food spending was on eating out of the home. According to the CLA, are concerned with health and Australians safety consciousness, and vegetarianism and veganism are well-respected alternatives. Added to this, due to the multi-cultural population with increasing numbers of immigrants from other nations, ethnic foods are increasingly popular among Australians. 'Asian cuisine is performing particularly strongly and so are spicy foods, however, Middle-Eastern, European, and Indian influences on food are also gaining wide acceptance'. With a rapidly growing economy and increasing purchasing power, more Australians were adopting sophisticated lifestyles accompanied by more spending on eating out; a demand for food options; expectations of quality service; savouring of the dining experience; and demanding value for money in their food purchases. CLA also revealed that fast food and home delivery businesses were growing across the country in line with economic growth, increasing numbers of working women, and higher income households. 'The overall effect has been a reduction in meals cooked at home in favour of eatingout, buying take-away food or supermarket-prepared home meal replacements and delivered food' (CLA 2000).

The CLA (2000) maintains that Australians are increasingly discriminating in terms of taste and variety when eating out. While still enjoying eating at home, more hectic lifestyles are making it more difficult for them to prepare their own meals and take-away and home-delivery markets have been booming. This indicates that Thai restaurants in Australia need to develop their capacity for this area of marketing. Furthermore, Blisard, Hwan Lin, Cromartie and Ballenger (2002) point out that the growing ethnic population will lead to an increasing variety of food choices in supermarkets and restaurants in the future. Therefore, with Thailand's proud history of rich cuisine, Thai restaurants and food producers may hold the key to providing a vast range of excellent new dishes and ingredients to the Australian householder. In accordance with this potential for increased marketing of Thai food, a suitable model for research into customer adoption of Thai food has been formulated in Chapter 3.

2.5 Thai Food in Australia

Griffin (1993) claimed that the consumption of Thai food might have begun among the students of Newtown in Sydney in the 1970s. Amornpitakpunt (2000, p.26) noted that 'in 1985 there were only a few Thai restaurants operating in Melbourne.....at that time Thai cuisine was not popular compared to Chinese cuisines'. By 1994 Cadzow noted that there were about 15,300 people from Thailand living in Australia, many of them opening Thai restaurants.

According to a 1999 Thai Export Promotion, among the 5,000 Thai restaurants worldwide, approximately 500 were in Australia (Dupleix 1999). By 2000, the number of Thai restaurants in Melbourne had increased to 164, from only 83 in 1993 (Amornpitakpunt 2000), meaning that Thai food was becoming increasingly familiar to Australian customers. By 2001 there were over 579 Thai restaurants in Australia, including more than 242 in Sydney, at least 119 in Melbourne, and over 94 in Queensland (Citysearch 2001). More recently, a report from the Thai Culture and Food Festival 'Songkran 2004' mentioned that the number of Thai restaurants in Victoria had increased to 300 due to the growing number of Thai people now numbering over 10,000; a large number of these being international Thai students.

Although the number of Thai restaurants in Victoria has shown dramatic increases since the early 1990s, there has been some criticism of the cuisine. Dupleix (1999) claimed that 'the fresh chilli factor of Thai food in Australia is missing...the food is reducing to mildly spicy like Chinese food.....in effort to please Western tastes, more sugar is often added, and more meat used than in traditional Thai cooking'. Hewitt (1999, pp.1-2) reported that Glynn Christian (in an SBS radio interview about the tastes of Thailand in Australia), explained that 'there is no such thing as an authentic recipe and that all Thai food has to be hot.....Thai dishes vary significantly depending on who cooks them, and it is one of the few cuisines where chefs are admired for their variation of recipes'. Christian also said that 'there is no such thing as an authentic, it is simply that they like the way the food is cooked there'.

More recently, Natoli (2006), writing about eating out in the Australian Healthy Food Guide, emphasized that 'traditional Thai cuisine combines spicy reds, vibrant greens and fragrant herbs and spices that are packed full of flavours and health-promoting antioxidants'. However, Natoli warned that consumers who wanted to diet should avoid "fried" or "crispy" Thai dishes cooked in lots of oil, and "creamy" Thai dishes due to their high content of coconut milk or cream, both of which are high in saturated fat' (p.80).

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a brief introduction to Thailand. The development of Thai cuisine has been reviewed in terms of Thai food characteristics, eating Thai food styles, the evaluation of Thai food and regional Thai cuisine. The chronology of the development of the food industry in Thailand from 1960 to 2003 is summarized. Finally, Thai food in Australia, Australian food and changing eating habits and consumption of ethnic foods in Australia, are also summarized in this chapter. The next chapter reviews the relevant theoretical models and also presents the research framework used in this study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL MODELS AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

In order to design a model suited to understanding customer adoption of Thai food in Australia this chapter reviews the theoretical models and previous studies which are most relevant to the current study, *A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia.*

This chapter is divided into four main parts. The first part (Section 3.1) focuses on understanding the theory of consumer behaviour models, including factors affecting consumers buying products. Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard's model is the core model of this study (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995; Blackwell, Miniard and Engel 2001). Some factors affecting consumer behaviour models are also described in this part. The discussion of the consumer behaviour models includes a definition of consumer behaviour, the purpose of consumer behaviour models, types of consumer behaviour models, the consumer decision-making process and consumer buying behaviour models, the objectives of the Consumer Decision-Making Process (CDP) model and international consumer behaviour models. In marketing studies the consumer food behaviour and food buying decision process, and food preference and food choice models are classified into However, in this chapter the consumer behaviour models (Bareham 1995). consumer food behaviour models are presented in a separate section (Section 3.3) for greater clarity.

The second part (Section 3.2) focuses on understanding the theory of new product adoption models. Rogers' (1995) innovation-decision process model is one part of the core model for this study. The definitions of new product adoption process and innovation-decision process, consumer adoptive behaviour and innovationdecision process models, the difference between the diffusion process and the adoption process and factors affecting the innovation-decision process are presented in this part. The third part (Section 3.3) focuses on understanding factors in the theory of consumer food behaviour models which affect consumer behaviour in buying foods. Consumer food behaviour models, including the definitions and types of food, consumer food behaviour and food buying decision process models, food preference and food choice models and the complex factors affecting food consumption are presented in this part.

The final part (Section 3.4) focuses on how to build the current study model, *A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia* by using the theoretical models detailed in Sections 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3.

3.1 Consumer Behaviour Models

The definition, the purpose, and types of consumer behaviour models are presented in Sections 3.1.1, 3.1.2, and 3.1.3. These are followed by the consumer decision-making process and consumer buying behaviour models in Section 3.1.4, the objectives of the consumer decision-making process (CDP) model in Section 3.1.5, and international consumer behaviour models in Section 3.1.6. The consumer decision-making process and consumer buying behaviour models are discussed in more detail than other consumer behaviour models because they are more relevant to this particular study.

3.1.1 Definition of Consumer Behaviour

Blackwell et al. (2001 p.6) define consumer behaviour as 'activities people undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services'. The study of consumer behaviour focuses on the reasons why people buy products and on the consumer decision-making process stages as well as the various factors that influence the different stages in the decision process (Blackwell et al. 2001). It involves the study of important factors including how individuals, groups, and organizations make decisions in searching for information, evaluation of alternatives, purchasing, and in using products or services that they expect will satisfy their needs/problems and wants (Schiffman and Kanuk 1994, 1997; Kotler 2000).

3.1.2 The Purpose of Consumer Behaviour Models

Bareham (1995) notes that there are two main objectives of building a consumer behaviour model. The first objective is to describe, explain, predict and eventually control consumer behaviour. The second objective enables researchers to develop better theories and hypotheses which incorporate the relationship between the factors influencing consumer behaviour. Moreover, consumer behaviour models help researchers set up and test new ideas in a conceptual framework for explanation and prediction of consumer purchasing behaviour. They attempt to simplify and demonstrate the variable relationship between factors that affect consumer behaviour and help marketers predict how consumers make a purchasing decision (Bareham 1995). They also assist marketers in developing better marketing strategies to suit consumers' needs (Schiffman and Kanuk 1994). By understanding the stages in the consumer decision-making process marketers can ascertain how consumers buy products/services and determine ways to encourage repeat purchase of products/services (Blackwell et al. 2001).

3.1.3 Types of Consumer Behaviour Models

Bareham (1995) notes that there are various types of models in the consumer behaviour literature. These include five main types: the black box model, mathematical models, food preference and food choice models, decision-making models, and comprehensive models.

The Black Box model consists of three processes: (1) Input (marketing message), (2) Buyer, and (3) Output (purchasing behaviour). This type of model was not chosen for this current study because Bareham notes that the black box model is limited in that it does not explain or predict consumer behaviour.

Mathematical models use a mathematical formula to measure consumer attitudes, beliefs and evaluations, and to measure the influence of other consumers, and these are combined to predict consumer behaviour. Examples of well-established mathematical models for predicting purchase behaviour are those produced by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). Mathematical models were not selected for the

current study because they are limited by a number of factors for assessment of factors affecting consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food.

Decision-making models are concerned with consumer decision-making process stages. There are three processes in the decision-making models which are (1) Input, (2) Process (identify need, look for information, evaluate alternatives, decide, react after purchase) and (3) Output.

Most of the *food preference and choice models* focus on a diversity of factors affecting consumers' food preference and food choice (Bareham 1995). Well-established food preference and choice models include those developed by Shepherd and Sparks (1999), Khan (1981), Randall and Sanjur (1981), and also include Shepherd's earlier model of some factors affecting food choice and intake (Shepherd 1985).

Comprehensive models comprise many variables or factors which can affect consumer behaviour. The main core of the comprehensive model is similar to that of the decision-making model. It involves motivation and recognition of need, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase, and outcomes. The first of these comprehensive models was introduced by Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (EKB model) in 1968, and the model was later revised and renamed the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (EBM) model (Bareham 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001). The principle of the comprehensive model is descriptive rather than predictive. Mainly, the model applies to the purchase of expensive products or those with a high degree of risk (Bareham 1995).

The core model of the consumer decision-making process for this study can be classified within the comprehensive model category which focuses on the EBM model (Engel et al. 1995). The consumer decision-making process and consumer buying behaviour, the objective of the consumer decision-making process model and the international consumer buying behaviour models are described in detail in the following sections.

3.1.4 Consumer Decision-Making Process and Consumer Buying Behaviour Models

The study of the Consumer Decision-Making Process (CDP) has been a focal interest in consumer behaviour for over thirty years (Bettman, Luce and Payne 1998). The CDP model has been used in many research studies for different purposes. For example, Mitchell and Boustani (1994) investigated risk perception and reduction at pre-purchase and post-purchase stages of CDP model; Chen-Yu and Kincade (2001) evaluated the effects of product image at three stages (alternative evaluation, purchase and post-purchase) of the CDP model for clothing products. When consumers have many alternatives to choose from they go through a number of stages in a decision-making process. The Engel, Kollatt and Blackwell (EKB, 1968) model has been updated and modified by many authors but is still a basis for the decision-making process. There are five recognizable stages in the consumer decision-making process. These are *need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase,* and *outcomes.*

In recent years Blackwell et al. (2001) introduced a modified model of the consumer decision process known as the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (EBM) model, which demonstrates how consumers purchase products/services to satisfy their needs/wants or to solve their problems. The EBM model also ascertains the activities that occur *before*, *during*, and *after* the purchase of products/services.

Some authors (Walters and Bergiel 1989; Hawkins, Best and Coney 1992; Lawson, Tidwell, Rainbird, Loudon and Della Bitta 1996; Kotler 2000) have identified *problem recognition* instead of *need recognition* at the first stage; Walters and Bergiel (1989), Hawkins et al. (1992), Lawson et al. (1996), Kotler (2000), Schiffman and Kanuk (1994; 1997), Schiffman, Bednall, Cowley, Cass, Watson and Kanuk (2001), Blackwell et al. (2001) added *post purchase evaluation*. Blackwell et al. (2001) added *divestment*, and Schiffman et al. (2001) used *repeat-purchase* in the consumer behaviour/consumer decision-making process models. Whilst all the above models differ, they all emphasize the two major categories of factors which affect the consumer decision-making processes. These are internal (individual difference) and external (environmental influences) factors. However, in this study the consumer decision-making process is product-specific (Thai food) and the models cited above do not encompass the broad range of product characteristics. Therefore, some provision will be made for product characteristics in the proposed model for this study.

The EBM model focuses on three major components: *pre-purchase*, *purchase*, *and post-purchase*.

1) The pre-purchase component of the decision process model may be broken down into three stages. These are need recognition, search for information, and decision. The first stage of the consumer decision-making process is need recognition where marketers mainly investigate consumers' needs, wants and problems. Marketers must know these needs, wants and problems for a better idea of how to start the development of new and improved products, and to develop more effective marketing programs (Blackwell et al. 2001). Moreover, Schaffner, Schroder and Earle (1998) state that it is important for food marketers to know and understand consumers' needs, attitudes and behaviour towards food, before they study how to organize food marketing. Consumers start to buy things when they believe in a product's ability to satisfy their needs/wants or to solve their problems. Pedraja and Yagiie (2001) agreed that the buyers' decision process starts when consumers recognise a need that can be satisfied. Need recognition is defined as 'the perception of a difference between the desired state of affairs and the actual situation sufficient to arouse and activate the decision process' (Blackwell et al. 2001, p.99). As Blackwell et al. point out, when consumers know what their needs, wants or problems are, then they start to search for their solutions. Different needs can lead consumers to seek different product benefits and can also affect how consumers evaluate products for their purchase and consumption. Therefore, consumers may change the evaluative criteria during decision-making depending on what benefits are desired and what needs are to be fulfilled.

Therefore, at the need recognition stage three aspects were considered for the measurement of consumer' needs and wants. These are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the four Ps marketing mix, and authentic Thai food.

Firstly, Maslow's hierachy of needs is a useful concept for consumers' needs as it demonstrates that consumers attach different priorities to their needs. There are five major components of consumers' needs in Maslow's hierachy model. These start with the most basic physiological needs, followed by safety needs, social needs, self esteem needs, and finally self-actualization needs (Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001). Maslow's theory has been applied to foodservice and restaurant marketing studies (Reid 1983) and also to food research (Mannion, Cowan and Gannon (2000). Maslow's theory is one of the personal needs of intrinsic influences on consumer behaviour (Reid and Bojanic 2001; 2006). 'Maslow's theory holds that individuals strive to satisfy unmet needs' (p.149). Mannion et al. (2000) mentioned that the safety need is the most critical human motive for consumer behaviour. Allen, Cumming and Woodward (1998) believed that food safety and diet health are the same issues in consumers' perception. Wright, Nancarrow and Kwok (2001) studied food taste preferences and cultural influences on consumption with reference to Maslow's model and noted that 'as consumers become more affluent they move from satisfying basic physiological needs to fulfilling social and psychological needs' (p.350).

Verbeke and Lopez (2005, p.823) agreed with Lowenberg, Todhunter, Wilson, Savage and Lubawski (1979) that 'the primary use of food is to satisfy hunger and the physiological needs'. However, Verbeke and Lopez (2005) also agreed with Asp (1999) that there are other reasons for consumers deciding to consume food. These include taste, freshness of vegetables, convenience, ethnic foods with distinctive ingredients, flavours, spices, variety, vegetarian meals, and foods labelled as natural or organic for consumers' perception of health. Lowenberg et al. (1979) cited in Verbeke and Lopez (2005, p.824) commented that, with reference to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 'the increasing popularity of foods from other countries probably bespeaks the fact that increasing travel increases belongingness and raises self-esteem, perhaps even gives greater satisfaction to the security need'. 'Furthermore, the convenience-oriented lifestyle, and the relative wealth of today's consumers, especially in developed societies, result into more people eating in restaurants or consuming prepared foods, therefore being more exposed to new food options and developing a comfort level with them' (Verbeke and Lopez 2005, p.824). 'The desire for healthier, yet flavourful cuisine stands as

another factor in the growth of ethnic foods' (Verbeke and Lopez 2005, p.824). In recent years, in European countries such as the UK, Germany, Belgium and The Netherlands, consumers are more concerned about diet, health, food safety and environment for their consumption of food (Verbeke and Lopez 2005). Thus, hunger and economic price may not be the only reasons for people to purchase food; there may also be cultural and social reasons for their needs (Bareham 1995).

In this study Thai respondents were excluded. Thai food is an alternative cuisine for consumers who are not Thais in Australia. Consequently, consumers' need for Thai food in Australia may not only be because of physiological needs (hunger) like the needs of the majority of consumers in Thailand. There may be more reasons for consumers' need for Thai food in Australia. Maslow's Hierachy of needs is applied in this study, the first is *physiological needs* (e.g. eating Thai food because of being hungry), the second is *safety needs* (e.g. eating Thai food may be perceived as being safe and healthy), the third is *social needs* (e.g. eating out on Thai cuisine while getting together with friends or business colleagues), the fourth is the need for *self esteem* (e.g. eating Thai cuisine because it is fashionable or prestigious), and the last consumer need is for *self-actualization* (e.g. eating Thai cuisine because it brings self-fulfillment, enriching experiences, or new experience).

Secondly, *Marketing mix* is important for developing marketing plans that are attractive and suitable for consumer adoption of Thai food in Australia. The *marketing mix* first invented in the 1960s by Neil H. Borden first gained global acceptance (Reid 1983), and in 1975, McCarthy reformulated this concept into the 4Ps (product, price, promotion and place) marketing mix which is now used as the principal foundation for use in marketing research (Vignali 2001). In attempts to satisfy the needs and wants of consumers, marketing managers need to make many decisions based on the various elements of the marketing mix (Encyclopedia of Business 2005). Before developing marketing plans, factors affect consumers at each stage of the decision-making process must be understood (Kotler 2000). A manager needs to concentrate on a marketing mix plans for achieving success, particularly in food services (Reid 1983; Reid and Bojanic 2001; 2006). Walters

and Bergiel (1989) described marketing strategy as having two steps: identification of marketing targets, and development of marketing mix.

Although more extensive marketing mixes have been developed, in recent years, the 4Ps marketing mix has been the most widely adapted for use in consumer decision-making process models (Kotler 2000; Schiffman et al. 2001). Here, some authors have attempted to include more elements into the traditional 4Ps marketing mix, extending it to 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9Ps. For example, the 7Ps mix of Booms and Bitner (1981) added 'people, physical evidence and process'; Lovelock (1996) added 'personnel, physical assets and procedures'; while Goldsmith (1999) recommended 'personalisation'. Further to these, Melewar and Saunders (2000) suggested 'publications'; Reppel (2003) added 'partnerships'; Arussy (2005) added 'premium price, preference of company, portion of overall customer budget, and permanence of overall relationship longevity'. McDonald added 'people, process and physical' (Vignali 2001). Even though these authors have recommended extending the traditional 4Ps marketing mix approach, Reppel (2003) and Goi (2005) doubt the usefulness of this. Vignali (2001) also emphasized that the traditional 4Ps approach remains the preferred mix used by companies in developing their plans for penetration into new markets; and many marketing textbooks are based on this approach. Furthermore, despite the simplicity of the traditional 4Ps marketing mix posing possible limitations in the service industry, it remains adequate for other products and businesses (Netmba 2005), particularly the food and restaurant industry presented in this thesis. Therefore, in agreement with Vignali (2001), Reppel (2003), Goi (2005) and Netmba (2005), the traditional 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, and promotion) has been chosen for the present investigation into the understanding of customer adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.

The first aspect of the 4Ps marketing mix, *product*, will be investigated in relation to: the benefits of Thai food; how the importance of quality, variety, spiciness, nutritional value, appearance, aroma and taste of Thai food affects consumers in deciding to eat Thai food at purchase and consumption; and post-consumption evaluation of consumer decision-making in their adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. The second aspect, *price*, will be investigated in terms of how much consumers in Victoria, Australia would be willing to pay for breakfast, lunch and dinner for Thai food and other food. In addition, portion size, reasonable price and value for money are also used to measure whether they affect consumers in making a decision to eat Thai food.

The third aspect, *place*, will be measured in terms of whether convenient location and restaurant decorated in Thai style affect consumers to make a decision to eat Thai food. In this study, the item of 'restaurant decorated in Thai style' is included the *place* factor of 4Ps marketing mix in agreement with the study, 'Current trends in foodservice and how they affect the marketing mix of American restaurants' (Folkes and Wysocki, 2001).

The fourth aspect, *promotion*, will be investigated in terms of whether 'winning a trip to Thailand', 'special gifts from Thai restaurants', and 'special discount periods' affect consumers' decision to eat Thai food.

Food choice studies have been carried out by Bell and Prescott (1993), Allen et al. (1998), Bogue, Delahunty, Henry and Murray (1999), Imram (1999) and Hetherington and Bell (2000). All have emphasized the sensory characteristics of food. In restaurant studies Kara, Erdener and Orsay (1995), Kara, Kaynak and Kucukemiroglu (1997) investigated various aspects affecting choice including characteristics of food products, eating time, eating place and price, as well as frequency of purchase. In another study Kivela (1999a), Kivela, Inbakaran and Reece (2000), investigated a conceptual model of dining satisfaction and return patronage in terms of customers' expectations before dining and customers' expectations actually met.

Consumers often judge the quality of products in terms of intrinsic qualities like colour, flavour, taste, aroma, and quantity as well as in terms of extrinsic qualities including price and brand image (Schiffman et al. 2001). Schiffman and Kanuk (1994) emphasized that consumer innovators can often affect the decision of other consumers to adopt or reject a new product. Consumers often rely on informal communication from *family* and *social groups* (friends and leaders) to make a

decision in the adoption or rejection of new products (Schiffman et al. 2001). Kara et al. (1995), Kara et al. (1997) demonstrated that consumers' perception may be formed by *word-of-mouth* communication, past personal experience, and other sources including the *mass media*. Another study by Hart, Casserly and Lawless (1981) noted that word-of-mouth is more important in the restaurant industry than other industries. If word-of-mouth is positive, sales will accelerate the growth of an increasingly larger base of satisfied buyers.

Thirdly, the last factor for measurement of needs recognition is an *ethnic* one and is authentic Thai food. 'The view is that ethnic foods are ideally placed to satisfy consumer demand for high quality, authentic and unusual food products' (McIlveen and Chestnutt 1999, p.238). Ethnic food is one of the most dynamic and profitable components of the UK grocery trade across European countries (Howitt 1996 and O'Carroll 1997). In the past decade, ethnic foods and restaurants have become widely available and increasingly popular in the USA. (Josiam and Monteiro 2004). Their studies found that an authentic cuisine was rated as a very important influential factor in deciding to dine in at ethnic (Indian) restaurant by both South Asian and White Americans. McIlveen and Chestnutt's (1999) study of the retailing environment and its effect on ethnic food consumption in Northern Ireland emphasized that ethnic food is increasing in popularity with Northern Ireland consumers, but is slower than in other areas of They indicated that 'the retailer currently appears to play a more the UK. significant role in promoting ethnic food popularity and authenticity' (p.242).

True authenticity of Thai cuisine requires authentic products that have been grown, processed and prepared in traditional ways, but this is rarely achieved outside local villages in Thailand. According to Reynolds (1993), in defining authenticity, erosion of traditional cuisines has not only occurred overseas, but also in home countries [e.g. Thailand] due to increases in tourism encouraging Westernised adaptations for mass distribution. Ethnic Dining Trends in the USA identify authentic interpretations of ethnic cuisines as requiring the use of authentic products, but despite the ready availability of imported preserved products, due to differences in climate, soil and farming traditions, many fresh, locally grown ingredients lack authentic flavours (Life in the USA 2006). Furthermore, the palate of non-Thai customers may not be fully adapted to authentic taste as identified by Thai people.

According to Kuznesof, Tregear and Moxey (1997), factors affecting perceptions of authenticity of regional foods include customer knowledge and experience of such cuisines. Three types of customers identified in a United States National Restaurant Survey (2000) tend to drive adaptations of imported ethnic cuisines. These include 'Internationalist Diners' wanting an authentic experience. They not only wish to experience an authentic food taste, but attempt to pronounce the name of the dishes properly, and are willing to use different eating utensils as well. This survey also identified 'Social Diners' who wish to experience an appropriate atmosphere with friends, and 'Convenience Diners' who are simply seeking an economical alternative. The latter category has resulted in non-ethnic restaurants frequently offering popularized variants of these cuisines on their menus. Although several studies have been accessed from the United States, few have been undertaken in multicultural Australia, despite the wide range of ethnic cuisines available.

The second stage of the pre-purchase component of the EBM model involves the *search for information* which happens after consumers recognize their needs, wants, or problems, and when they start to search for information to satisfy their needs or wants, or to solve their problems. This stage involves *internal search*, involving information retrieval or knowledge from memory, or *external search*, involving collecting information from mass media or word of mouth (Blackwell et al. 2001). External sources can be classified into two categories: (1) *marketer-dominated (mass-media)* such as advertising, salespersons, dealers, web-sites, consumer reports, point-of-sales, displays, and packaging. (2) *non-marketer-dominated (word-of-mouth)* such as family, friends, neighbours, colleagues and opinion leaders (Kotler 2000; Blackwell et al. 2001).

At this stage, before consumers make a decision to evaluate alternatives the marketer may need to know how long consumers spend searching for information, and where consumers get information to satisfy their needs and wants or to solve their problems, and also how they use this information. Blackwell et al. identify

the factors affecting search for information as being personality, social class, income, size of the purchase, past experiences, prior brand perceptions, and customer satisfaction. However, consumers may be unexpectedly purchase products (Blackwell et al. 2001). Reid (1983) emphasized that success in a foodservice or restaurant business depends on repeat customers and positive wordof-mouth advertising to new customers. Reid noted that some researchers argue that the only good form of advertising is word-of-mouth, and claim that restaurants say 'Let our patrons speak good words about us, and we'll succeed' (p.234), claiming that good food and service will produce satisfied customers who will introduce more customers to the business. However, Reid points out there are also some advantages of promotion in presenting information to consumers in several ways: to introduce new products/services, new decoration of restaurants, to persuade repeat patronage by reinforcing their positive dining experiences, to persuade first-time consumers to know location of restaurants and to create or improve the image of restaurants in the mind of consumers.

Pedraja and Yagiie (2001) emphasized that whatever the reason for customers' needs in deciding to eat out at a restaurant, they will have to search for information on the offer that exists for the desired service in order to be able to compare the existing alternatives and to make the best purchase decision. Restaurant managers/owners need to know what information their customers use for choosing their restaurants in order to design their marketing communications strategies to suit their potential customers (Pedraja and Yagiie 2001).

Once the consumer has gathered a sufficient amount of information, the third prepurchase stage is *evaluation of the alternatives* that have been identified during the search for information. In this stage, consumers may use new or pre-existing evaluations stored in their memory to seek answers for the best options, which they compare and contrast before they make the decision to purchase products to satisfy their needs (Blackwell et al. 2001). Added to this, consumers also consider the relative importance of each of the attributes of the restaurant products (Reid 1983; Reid and Bojanic 2001; 2006). Consumers often observe attributes such as quantity, size, quality, and price, and changes in these attributes can affect their brand and product choices (Blackwell et al. 2001). At this stage, two alternatives: other 'Asian cuisines' and 'price' were identified for investigation of consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Mangosi (2005) emphasized that Asian cuisine were considered to be the newest trend in ethnic food because Australians now prefer Asian cuisine. Chinese cuisine is the most frequently eaten by Australians, followed by Italian, Thai, Japanese (Sushi) and Indian cuisines (details reviewed in Chapter 1, Section 1.0).

2) The Purchase Stage

At this stage the focus is on where and how consumers buy products and also on the factors that influence their purchase behaviours. The retail options available are examined by the consumers and also the strategies that the retailers use when they compete for consumer patronage (Blackwell et al. 2001). After consumers make a decision whether or not to purchase a product, they move through two phases. In the first phase consumers choose one retail store over other retail stores. In the second phase, consumers may prefer one store but choose another because of other factors affecting them. These may include word of mouth, information from a sales person or a promotional event at a competitor's store, hours of operation, location, or traffic-flow problems of the stores. Consumers sometimes may change their decision during the purchase stage and may return to the first three pre-purchase stages of the EBM model (Blackwell et al. 2001).

3) The Post-Purchase Stages

Post-purchase stages can be classified into *consumption* and *post-consumption* evaluation. The *Consumption stage* consists of how and when consumers use products. After the purchase is made and the consumer takes possession of the product, consumption can occur. Marketers need to know how consumers use products, how satisfied they are with the purchases and how likely they are to buy the particular product in the future. The final stage of the consumer decision-making model is the *Post-consumption evaluation*; the outcomes for a product are satisfied or dissatisfied consumers. The outcome is significant because, if consumers are satisfied with products, they will store this in their memory and carry out repeat purchases in the future. Blackwell et al. note that satisfaction occurs when consumers perceive performance to be as they expect, while

dissatisfaction occurs when consumers do not perceive performance to be as they expect (Blackwell et al. 2001). At this stage, consumers compare their actual experience with the perceptions prior to purchase which are based upon their expectations and the actual performance by the restaurant (Reid 1983, p.155). 'Failure to perform at or above the level anticipated by the consumer is likely to lead to negative post-consumption feelings.....These negative feelings produce dissatisfaction and reduce the level of repeat patronage' (Reid 1983, p.155). The most important evaluation of satisfaction is consumption: how consumers use products, whereas dissatisfaction may occur if consumers do not know how to use products in the correct way (Blackwell et al. 2001).

Blackwell et al. add *divestment* as the last stage in the EBM model, and note that recycling and environmental concerns play a role in consumers' divestment methods. Divestment here is relevant to the recycling, reuse, remarketing, and repackaging of products, for example, selling a used car to a second hand market. Divestment does not apply to this study because it is not relevant to the Thai food product.

3.1.5 Objectives of the Consumer Decision-Making Process (CDP) model

According to Blackwell et al. the CDP model provides the theoretical foundation for understanding consumer behaviours and has been used by large and small organizations. The CDP model represents a road map of consumers minds that can help marketers and managers to decide, develop, analyze, research or examine how consumers proceed through the consumer decision-making process, on marketing mix strategies, on the way they (marketers and managers) communicate and on the company's sales strategies. Moreover, the CDP model uses a schematic format to show the activities that take place when decisions are made by consumers. The CDP model identifies relationships between variables that affect consumer decision and how they affect the consumer decision-making process, such as the way consumers think about the product, evaluate the alternatives, and act on their evaluations (Blackwell et al. 2001).

3.1.6 International Consumer Behaviour Models

International consumer behaviour studies emerged in the academic literature during the 1960s within the comparative marketing framework. By the 1980s there was evidence of theory testing and model development. Sheth & Sethi (1977 cited in Wang 1996) developed the first cross-cultural consumer behavior model to describe 'how consumers living in different cultures perceive, evaluate and adopt products and services marketed by multinational companies'. In addition, empirical studies on country-of-origin, consumerism, consumer attitudes towards marketing practice and consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction contributed to international consumer research during the 1980s and early 1990s (Wang 1996). Although there have been many studies into consumer behaviour which have produced important models, Samli (1995) noted that 'it is not quite possible to analyse consumer behaviour in different cultures by using any of these models'. Samli attempted to develop an international consumer behaviour model which was tested using a scoring system based on environmental and cultural factors, all of which are part of the total process that triggers consumer attention. Nineteen variables were used in testing the model in three different cultures (American, Japanese, and Turkish). Some factors included in Samli's model will be useful for this study. However, the core of his model cannot be used directly for the consumer decision-making process for the adoption of Thai food by foreign consumers in Australia as Samli emphasized that his model is not designed to focus on each individual consumer.

3.2 New Product Adoption Models

The concepts of a new product can be classified into six categories which are presented in Section 3.2.1. This is followed by identification of the five main stages of, and factors affecting, the innovation-decision process in Sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.3, respectively. The differences between the diffusion process and the adoption process are discussed in Section 3.2.4. In this study the focus is on Rogers' (1995) innovation-decision process which is one part of the core model for this study.

3.2.1 The Concepts of the New Product Adoption Process

Booz, Allen & Hamilton (1982) cited in Kotler (2000 p.328) classified the concepts of a new product into six categories as follows:-

- *New-to-the-world products*: New products that create an entirely new market.
- *New product lines*: New products that allow a company to enter an established market for the first time.
- Additions to existing product lines: New products that supplement a company's established product lines (package sizes, flavors, and so on).
- *Improvements and revisions of existing products*: New products that provide improved performance or greater perceived value and replace existing products.
- *Repositionings*: Existing products that are targeted to new markets or market segments.
- *Cost reductions*: New products that provide similar performance at lower cost.

In this study Thai food is classified into the *Repositionings* category as an existing product that is targeted to a new market in Australia.

The term 'innovation' relates to any product or idea that consumers perceive as new to them (Kotler 2000). In this study 'innovation' means that some consumers in Australia may perceive Thai food as a new product to them. The innovationdecision process is an individual information-seeking process that decreases uncertainty when buying a new product (Rogers 1995). The consumer-adoption process focuses on the individual consumer's thinking process that starts from first hearing about an innovation or the new product, and continues to final adoption (Kotler 2000). In terms of the consumer-adoption process for this study adoption means that customers have decided to purchase and consume Thai food, and then become frequent customers.

The innovation-decision process is complicated and so time is of significance (Rogers 1995). The consumer needs time to pass through five stages: knowledge,

persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation (Rogers 1995). The innovation-decision process mainly focuses on the buying behaviour of an individual, rather than on a system or organization (Rogers 1995), although there are also innovation-decision processes which specifically apply to systems or organizations. The innovation-decision process is relevant to this study because respondents will be consumers who are not Thais, and so at some stage Thai food would have been a new product to them. The innovation-decision process is also relevant because this study will focus on the buying behaviour of individual consumers.

3.2.2 Consumer Adoptive Behaviour and Innovation-Decision Process Models

There have been many models which operationalize the new product adoption process, starting with Strong's AIDA (Awareness, Interest, Desire, and Action) model of 1925 (Engel et al. 1990; Samli 1995). Subsequent developments in new product adoption and consumer buyer behaviour include those of Rogers (1962; 1983; 1995), Andreason (1965), Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969), Walters and Bergiel (1989), Kotler (2000), and Schiffman et al. (2001). Different authors have used a range of terms to describe the process including the *new product adoption process* (Rogers 1962), the *innovation-decision process* (Rogers 1983; Rogers 1995), and the *new product adoption and the consumer-adoption process* (Kotler 2000). Samli (1995) described a diffusion process, which depicts how new products and services are adopted in different cultures. An adoption process involves stages through which an individual consumer passes in arriving at a decision to try or not to try, or to continue using or to discontinue using a new product (Schiffman et al. 2001).

There are five stages in Rogers' model of 1962: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption. Schiffman et al. (2001, p.503) noted that, while 'the traditional adoption process has been helpful to consumer researchers', it has a number of limitations: (1) it does not acknowledge that a need or problem recognition may occur before the awareness stage, (2) there is no provision made for rejection after consumers trial the product, (3) it does not acknowledge that the trial stage may come after the purchase stage, (4) it only acknowledges that evaluation occurs at

the evaluation stage whereas it may occur throughout the decision-making process, (5) there is no allowance for stages to occur in an alternative sequence in the model. Moreover, post-purchase evaluation should be included in the model because this stage can lead consumers to make a decision to discontinue use of the product.

It was because of these limitations that, according to Kotler (2000) and Schiffman et al. (2001), Rogers modified his early model to be a more general decisionmaking model, which he called the 'Innovation-Decision Process' (Rogers 1983); and 'A Model of Stages in the Innovation-Decision Process' (Rogers 1995). Rogers (1995) noted that, just as consumer needs can lead to innovation, innovation can lead to consumer needs. In this study, one part of the proposed model for consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia is partly based on Rogers' (1995) Innovation-Decision Process.

The five main stages in the Rogers' 1995 innovation-decision process, are *knowledge*, attitude toward the innovation (*persuasion*), *decision* to adopt or reject, *implementation* of the new idea, and *confirmation* of the decision.

Stage 1 – *Knowledge*

Knowledge is the first stage of the Innovation-Decision Process in Rogers' (1995) model. It occurs when an individual consumer obtains some information and achieves some understanding of how to use an innovation or a new product. Some prior conditions may occur before the knowledge stage, such as previous practice, felt needs/problems, innovativeness, and norms of the social systems (Rogers 1995). There is no clear answer in the research literature as to which occurs first: knowledge of a new idea or a consumer's need.

At the knowledge stage, an individual consumer wants to know about an existing new product and to understand how to use a new product in the correct way (Rogers 1995). In this study the consumer, for example, may need to learn how to eat Thai food in the correct way for the adoption and repeat purchase of Thai food in the future. Rogers (1995) breaks down *knowledge* in his Innovation-Decision Process model into three types:

1) awareness-knowledge: involves an individual seeking information about a new product and motivation of an individual consumer to learn more about the new product. This may also occur at the persuasion and decision stages in the innovation-decision process. Most companies try to create awareness-knowledge in their consumers, and mass media can still be the most effective method of communication with consumers. However, this study will measure whether word of mouth channels or mass media channels are more effective in persuading consumers to adopt Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

2) How-to knowledge: this is information that is necessary for consumers to use a new product. The company must have useful material to show consumers for them to understand how to use the new product in the correct way. If this is not provided, or is inadequate, rejection of the new product and discontinuance in buying other new products from the same company may occur. If companies concentrate on how-to knowledge when marketing a new product to consumers, the most important stage is when consumers start to trial an innovation or a new product. Thai food may be a new product for some consumers in Australia, so Thai food companies may need to provide information on how to use Thai ingredients or to eat Thai food correctly before consumers start to trial Thai food.

3) Principles-knowledge: this is information that explains the 'functioning principles underlying how the innovation works' (Rogers 1995, p.166). Principles-knowledge can help consumers to make a decision on whether to adopt or reject an innovation or a new product. It is possible for an individual consumer to adopt an innovation or a new product without principles-knowledge, but discontinuance may occur because of using the new product in an incorrect way.

Stage 2 – Persuasion

Persuasion is concerned with an individual consumer's favorable or unfavorable attitude towards an innovation, a new product, or in information-seeking in order to decrease uncertainty about consequences of using an innovation (Rogers 1995). At this stage 'Interpersonal networks with near-peers are particularly likely to convey such evaluative information about an innovation' (Rogers 1995, p.21). The consumer's perception and attitude towards the new product are important

and the perceived attributes of an innovation or a new product may be seen in terms of its relative advantage, compatibility and complexity, and are of importance at this stage (Rogers 1995). Mass media channels may be too common to confirm the individual's beliefs about an innovation or a new product, so individuals like to compare opinions and check the advantages and disadvantages with their near-peers (Rogers 1995). The individual consumer is easily motivated to adopt an innovation or a new product from consumers who have made a positive evaluation or are satisfied with an innovation (Rogers 1995). Marketers need to know what information or activities most individuals use for adoption of an innovation or a new product to satisfy their needs, and how individuals interpret the received information.

This study will investigate what factors or sources of information affect consumers in Victoria, Australia to make a decision to buy Thai food at the decision stage and to try Thai food at the implementation stage. Therefore, information from individual consumers about the knowledge and persuasion stages will be useful for investigation of whether individual consumers will adopt or reject Thai food at the decision stage.

Stage 3 - Decision

The decision stage is concerned with individual consumer activities which may lead to adoption or rejection of a new product. It is possible for an individual consumer to adopt after a previous decision to reject, and conversely, rejection can also occur after a prior decision to adopt (Rogers 1995). Thus, Rogers defines 'Adoption' as the stage when the consumer decides to regularly use the innovation or new product after trial. Likewise, Kotler (2000, p.354) defines 'Adoption' as 'an individual's decision to become a regular user of a product'. Roberts (1997, p.186) mentions that 'The final stage in the new product adoption process does not end at the first purchase but involves post-purchase evaluation and repeat purchases'. Therefore, 'Adoption' is a consumer's decision to buy, use, attain satisfaction with the product, repeat the purchase, and become a regular user of the new product (Rogers 1995; Roberts 1997; Kotler 2000). Rejection is a consumer's decision not to buy, use, or adopt an innovation or a new product (Rogers 1995). However, rejection can occur even after an individual consumer's decision.

makes a decision to adopt an innovation or a new product (Rogers 1995). Moreover, Eveland (1979), cited in Rogers (1995), observed that there are two different types of rejection: (1) Active Rejection when at first an individual consumer may consider adopting and trial the new product but then decides not to adopt after trial because of dissatisfaction with the new product; (2) Passive Rejection when an individual consumer has never considered whether to use or trial an innovation or a new product. Mostly, adoption will not occur before an individual has tried an innovation or a new product (Rogers 1995). Consequently, some companies provide free samples to consumers to try before they make a decision to buy, use, and adopt their products. However, there are some products that cannot be tried before buying, using, and adopting, for example, airline tickets or meals. Thus, an evaluation of ideas and feelings from other individuals about the new product is particularly likely to affect an individual consumer at the decision stage, and also possibly at the confirmation stage (Rogers 1995). However, Roger (1995, p.180) noted that Francis and Rogers 1960; Mason 1962 emphasized that 'a decision to adopt or reject is often not the terminal stage in the innovation-decision process'.

Stage 4 - Implementation

Implementation occurs when an individual consumer starts to use an innovation or There is still uncertainty about the innovation or the a new product or service. new product for the individual consumer at this stage, even if previous adoption has been satisfactory. The consumer will then make a decision on whether to continue or discontinue adoption of an innovation or a new product after consumption (trial). Re-invention may take place at this stage. Invention is 'the process by which a new idea is discovered or created', while the 'adoption of an innovation is the process of using an existing idea.' (Rogers 1995, p.174). Reinvention can occur for several reasons: (1) when the innovation or the new product is difficult to understand, (2) when an adopter has no full knowledge about the innovation or a new product e.g. re-invention of a geographically-based computer software system, (3) when an innovation or a new product has an abstract concept or a tool e.g. a computer software program, (4) when consumers want to apply the innovation or a new product to a different problem, or 'when an innovation is implemented in order to solve a wide range of users problems'

(Rogers 1995, p.178), (5) the innovation or the new product needs to be modified to make it more acceptable to individuals in the local system, and finally (6) when consumers are encouraged to modify an innovation or a new product. Reinvention is relevant to high-technology products e.g. computer software, so it is not relevant to a Thai food product purchased by a consumer in a Thai restaurant. However, it may be relevant to restaurants when they seek to modify or reinvent Thai dishes to suit Western tastes.

This study will only measure how individual consumers like or dislike Thai food attributes after they have tried Thai food at this implementation stage. It also will investigate what factors affect consumers' decisions to adopt or reject Thai food after they have tried it. Thus, outcomes at the implementation stage may lead consumers to continue adoption or discontinue adoption of Thai food at the next (confirmation) stage.

Stage 5 - Confirmation

Confirmation occurs when an individual reinforces the innovation-decision which has already been made. However, the individual may reverse the previous decision to adopt or reject an innovation or a new product if conflicting messages about the innovation are exposed (Rogers 1995). Usually, consumers will make a decision about whether they want to continue or discontinue to buy or adopt products at the confirmation stage, if they are satisfied with the new product after they have tried it again at the implementation stage. Therefore, repeat purchase would occur at the confirmation stage.

3.2.3 Factors Affecting the Innovation-Decision Process

Rogers (1995) identified four groups of factors which affect all five stages of the innovation-decision process. These are (1) *Prior conditions*: previous practice, felt needs/problems, innovativeness, norms of the social systems; (2) *Characteristics of the decision-making unit*: socioeconomic characteristics, personality variables, and communication behaviour, which affect the consumer at the knowledge stage; (3) *Perceived Characteristics of the innovation*: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, observability, which affect the consumer at the persuasion stage; and (4) *Communication channels*, which affect

all five stages of the innovation-decision process. Further, Rogers (1995) noted that the uncertainty associated with the decision process is a distinctive aspect of the innovation-decision process, compared to other types of decision-making processes.

Daghfous, Petrof and Pons (1999) noted that factors affecting the adoption process for a new product are diversified from one individual to another, depending on such individual characteristics as demographics (e.g. age, place of residence), socioeconomics (e.g. salary, social class), psycho-graphics (e.g. personality, openmindedness), and culture (e.g. value system, ethnicity). Their study focused on personal values, and the results show that an individual value has a significant impact on an individual's inclination to adopt a new product. However, their study found that 'only income, education level, professional status, age, and ethnicity variables seemed to have a significant link with the adoption behaviour of individuals.' Moreover, 'consumers with a stronger predisposition to adopt new products were generally found to be young and possessing a high professional status, income and educational level.'

Kotler (2000, p.355) divided factors influencing the adoption process into four groups: three of which are relevant to this study.

People differ in readiness to try new products: Rogers (1995) defined an early adopter as an individual who is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas or new products than the other members of their social system. Earlier adopters tend to be younger and have higher social status and higher income.

Personal influence plays a large role: Kotler (2000, p.356) noted that 'Personal influence is the effect one person has on another's attitude or purchase probability.' Personal influence is more important in risky situations, and greater in some situations and for some individuals than for others. Personal influence affects late adopters more than early adopters and is more significant in the evaluation stage than at other stages in the adoption process.

Characteristics of the innovation affect rate of adoption: five characteristics of the innovation affect the rate of adoption. The first, *relative advantage*, is concerned with 'the degree to which the innovation appears superior to existing products' (Kotler 2000, p.357). For example, the greater the perceived relative advantage of using the new product, the more quickly the new products will be adopted. The second, *compatibility*, is concerned with 'the degree to which the innovation matches the values and experiences of the individuals'. The third, *complexity*, is concerned with 'the degree to which the innovation is relatively difficult to understand or use'. The fourth, *divisibility*, is concerned with 'the degree to which the beneficial results of use are observable or describable to others'. 'The new-product marketer has to research all these factors and give the key ones maximum attention in designing the new-product and marketing program' (Kotler 2000, p.357).

The final group relates to how Organizations vary in readiness to adopt innovations and is not relevant to this study.

3.2.4 The Difference between the Diffusion Process and the Adoption Process The concepts of the diffusion process and the adoption process are closely related; both processes are concerned with the acceptance of an innovation or a new product by consumers (Kotler 2000; Shiffman et al. 2001). The diffusion process has been described as 'a macro process' (Kotler 2000, p.511; Schiffman et al. 2001, p.488) or 'the framework for exploring consumer acceptance of new products' (Schiffman et al. 2001, p.488). It is concerned with a period of time, is spread by two aspects of communication: mass media and word-of-mouth, to the consuming public or a target market, and concerns the types of messages that influence the adoption or rejection of new products (Kotler 2000; Schiffman et al. 2001). The elements of the diffusion process can be classified into four basics: the innovation, time, the channels of communication, and the social system (Schiffman et al. 2001). Rogers (1962) cited in Kotler (2000, p.355) defined the innovation diffusion process as 'the spread of a new idea from its source of invention or creation to its ultimate users or adopters'. In contrast, the adoption process is a 'micro process' that focuses on an individual consumer decision

passing through the adoption process stages of whether to try a new product or not, or to continue or discontinue using a new product (Schiffman et al. 2001). Adoption is the second major process in the diffusion process (Schiffman et al. 2001), and is 'an individual's decision to become a regular user of a product' (Kotler 2000, p.354). Kotler noted that 'the consumer-adoption process focuses on the mental process through which an individual passes from first hearing about an innovation to final adoption' (p.355).

Moreover, (Roberts 1997, p.9) noted that 'new product adoption is a form of buying behaviour, but existing new product adoption models focus on the diffusion of innovation rather than incorporating the extensive range of factors which affect buying behaviour'. The adoption process also provides a framework of types of information sources for consumers to determine which is the most important to them for deciding to try, buy, or use a new product at particular decision stages (Schiffman et al. 2001). However, a recent study of the consumer decision process for related innovation suggests that two more stages should be added between the trial and adoption stages. These are *adoption-direct product experience* (consequences) and *product evaluation* (confirmation) (Schiffman et al. 2001, p.502).

Kotler (2000) defined the consumer-adoption process as the process in which a customer learns about a new product, buys and tries, and adopts or rejects the new product. The consumer-adoption process is influenced by many factors beyond the marketer's control, including consumers who are willing to try new products, consumers' personal influences, and the characteristics of new products (Kotler 2000). Recently many marketers try to target new products to heavy consumers and early adopters, because both groups can be reached by specific media, tend to be opinion leaders, and are helpful in advertising the new product to other potential consumers (Kotler 2000).

One part of the core model of this study focuses on the Rogers' (1995) innovationdecision process. This study investigates how individual consumers learn about Thai food, and what sources of information affect an individual consumer to make a decision to try Thai food and adopt or reject it as they pass through the innovation-decision process. As this study will not focus on `a period of time to spread the communication channels' for exploring the consumer adoption of Thai food it will not investigate the diffusion process.

3.2.5 Consumers' Product Experience and Knowledge

As early as 1983, experience was identified as a major intrinsic influence on consumer behaviour in foodservice and restaurant marketing, where internal and external factors combine to provide the foodservice customer with a total experience (Reid, 1983). Reid noted that consumers dining in restaurants for the first time integrate their perceptions into an experience that influences their future decisions whether to dine in at the same place or not. In this case, the first impressions of customers always apply directly to the foodservice and restaurant Moreover, Bei and Widdows (1999) confirmed that consumers' industry. purchase experience is major factor in successive purchase decisions. However, in understanding pre-purchase decisions, prior knowledge must be taken into account as the primary influence. Mason and Bequette (1998) measure product experience in terms of familiarity and subjective product knowledge, maintaining that product familiarity refers to consumers' prior usage, ownership and exposure to information concerning the product. They constructed product experience scales at three levels (low, moderate, or high), based responses to scales. They confirmed that consumers with high experience are more able to accurately rate product attributes than those with lower experience.

Rudell (1979) confirmed that objective knowledge facilitates deliberation and use of newly acquired information, while subjective knowledge increases reliance on previously stored information. Neither objective nor subjective knowledge significantly relates to the amount of information acquired. Rudell defines subjective knowledge as including an individual's degree of confidence in his/her knowledge, and objective knowledge as what an individual actually knows. These knowledge types are related to customer information search and decision-making behaviour. In understanding prior knowledge of customers, Brucks (1985); Goff and Gibbs (1993) maintain that it is operationalized in subjective knowledge where respondents think they know, rather than in the objective knowledge of what they actually know. Park and Lessig 1981; Srull 1983; Rao and Sieben 1992 cited in Cowley and Mitchell (2003) found that subjective knowledge is consumer perception of their knowledge about a product, whereas Howard (1989, cited in Goff and Gibbs 1993, p.5) defines prior knowledge as 'knowledge in memory at any particular moment about each brand'.

Park and Lessig (1981); Brucks (1985); Park, Mothersbaugh and Feick (1994) point out that customer perceptions of knowledge can be classified into two types, objective and subjective. They identified objective knowledge as accurate product information and classification stored in customers' long-term memory, whereas subjective knowledge is about customers' perceptions of what or how much they know about a product. Park et al. (1994) describe product-related experiences as 'memory for relationships between the self and the product in terms of information search, product usage, and purchase experience'. However, Bettman and Park (1980) and Park and Lessig (1981) describe experience as the 'measure of consumer knowledge and familiarity'. Park et al. (1994) found that productrelated experience has a greater influence on subjective knowledge judgments than objective knowledge. They found that stored product class information is a more important determinant of objective than self-assessed knowledge, whereas product-related experience was a more important determinant of self-assessed knowledge, than objective knowledge. Implications of their findings are relevant to the subjective knowledge and objective knowledge used in the consumer knowledge constructs of this study.

In using self-assessed knowledge as a distinct construct, two factors need to be considered. First, subjective probability assessment and feeling-of-knowing, and second, mechanisms through which consumers' self-assessed and objective knowledge (Bettman and Park 1980; Park and Lessig 1981; Brucks 1985). Therefore, both independent objective knowledge and subjective knowledge influence the selection of consumer search (Brucks 1985). As a result, increased self-assessed knowledge (but not objective knowledge) is associated with a decrease in the utilization of salesperson recommendations. Furthermore, Park et al. (1994) found that, independent objective knowledge combined with lower self-assessed knowledge leads to a higher perceived importance of, and receptivity to, new information.

Although it is clear that self-assessed knowledge does not always accurately reflect objective knowledge, and that self-assessed knowledge and objective knowledge may have different effects on behaviours including information search and processing, several research issues remain unanswered. Little research has focused on the self-assessed knowledge construct and the way consumers make knowledge assessments. Also, little attempt has been made to model the relationships between self-assessed knowledge, objective knowledge and their respective antecedents.

In this study, product-related experience for the consumption of Thai food is measured using consumers' self-reports of how many times they have eaten Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Respondents' knowledge of Thai food is classified into both objective and subjective knowledge. Objective knowledge refers to 'what is actually stored in memory', while subjective knowledge refers to 'what individuals perceive that they know' (Brucks 1985, p.2). In his study, Brucks (1985) noted that Park and Lessig (1981) describe subjective knowledge as giving a better understanding of decision makers' systematic biases and heuristics than does objective knowledge. They maintain that measures of subjective knowledge can indicate self-confidence levels as well as knowledge levels. Consumers' selfconfidence affects decision strategies and tactics. For instance, a lack of confidence in one's knowledge might motivate increased search for information, independent of actual knowledge level. It has not been empirically demonstrated, however, that subjective knowledge is a better predictor of choice in decisionmaking strategies.

The relationship between consumer product experience and knowledge, and familiarity with the product has since been confirmed in several studies such as Brucks 1985; Alba and Hutchinson 1987; Mason and Bequette 1998; Bei and Widdows, 1999.

3.3 Consumer Food Behaviour Models

This section explains the definitions and types of food, followed by a review of the relevant consumer food behaviour and food-buying decision-process models, and

food preference and food choice models. These include factors affecting consumers to make a decision to buy foods which are relevant to consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Bareham (1995) noted that most of the food preference and choice models focus on a diversity of factors affecting consumers' food preference and food choice, but few have focused on all stages of the consumer decision-making process. Therefore, this section focuses on the factors affecting consumers to make a decision to buy foods, rather than on the core models of the consumer decision-making process.

3.3.1 Definitions and Types of Food

It is important to understand the definitions and meanings of certain terms relating to foods before consumer attitudes towards food can be understood (Khan 1981). 'Food' is about the previous knowledge and experience of consumers, and whether they like or dislike certain foods after they choose to try them. This knowledge and experience can make a consumer highly critical of food, and can also lead to consumer biases and beliefs. Consumers who have wider experience, knowledge, and appreciation of foods are more likely to accept a variety of foods than others (Khan 1981). Khan classified consumer food selection and preference patterns into four groups; *food selection, food preference, food acceptance*, and *food habit.* He observed that food selection is based on food preference, food acceptance leads to food preference, while food acceptance is based on food habits. Further, these four groups are based on selection of food items from choices available among acceptable foods (Khan 1981). Consumers' eating experiences start with food preferences and the development of attitudes toward food which involve consumers learning which foods will satisfy their needs (Khan 1981).

3.3.2 Consumer Food Behaviour and Food Buying Decision Process Models and Factors

It is important for food marketers to know their consumers' needs, attitudes, and behaviour toward foods, and to understand factors affecting a model of consumer food behaviour before studying food marketing management (Schaffner et al. 1998). There is much variation in the food-buying decision-process which is affected by the type of products and also by the consumers. Schaffner et al. classified consumer food behaviour and food-buying decision-process models into three action points, and described a variety of factors which affect consumers to make a decision for buying food at each of the three action points: (1) Pre-action point which concerns problem, search for information (stimuli, comparison), buying, preparing, eating, then post purchase; (2) Consumer action point which can be an individual or group that is influenced by attitudes, motives, knowledge, preference, hunger, individual habit and nutrition, household needs, physical/sensory comparison, need fulfillment, value for money, sensory perceptions, transport method, storage capacity, cooking/serving, group needs, aroma, appearance, touch, taste, social needs, fullness, safety (no illness), group approval; and (3) Product action point includes advertising, packaging, public relations, promotion, appearance, colour, aroma, shelf location, relative price, nutritional value, safety, packaging, brand, attractiveness, convenience, versatility, ease of storage, sensory properties, enjoyability, nutrition, pleasant after-taste, digestability, stomach filling.

The consumer food behaviour and food-buying decision-process model of Schaffner et al. (1998) is more focused on consumers who buy raw foods for cooking at home so is not used for the core model of this study. However, some factors relating to the three action points of their model are useful for this study. Schaffner et al. state that people from different countries, cultures, and social groups have different eating food habits and preferences. However, nowadays national cuisines are acceptable to different ethnic consumers in many countries. Even though people have basic nutritional needs and have different eating habits and preferences, there are many other factors that also influence consumer food buying behaviour, such as demographic characteristics (age, education, income, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, culture), social influences (society, enjoyment and pleasure), and psychological influences (attitudes, motives, habits, behaviour toward foods, specific knowledge, and regional preferences) (Schaffner et al. 1998).

Schaffner et al. noted that there are five basic attitudes toward food which are food and health, food and safety, food and work, food and value for money, and food and enjoyment.

3.3.3 Food Preference and Food Choice Models and Factors

Well-established food preference and choice models include those developed by Shepherd and Sparks (1999), Khan (1981), Randall and Sanjur (1981), and also include Shepherd's earlier model of some factors affecting food choice and intake (Shepherd 1985). MacFie and Thomson (1999) noted that food preference is not determined in a sensory laboratory and is not a direct function of sensory preference. Food preference can be measured by a wide range of factors and consumer tests of foods in various locations (MacFie and Thomson 1999). Some factors may be working against or reinforcing each other. Khan's (1981) model of factors influencing food preferences has been refined by many writers in relation to the food industry e.g.Bareham (1995); Shepherd & Sparks (1999).

Khan (1981) classified factors influencing food preferences into seven groups.

- *intrinsic factors* which can be attributed directly to food such as appearance, colour, odour, texture, temperature, flavour, quality, quantity, frequency, presentation of foods, temperature, and appropriateness.
- (2) *extrinsic factors* which are direct external influences on food preferences such as environment, situation, advertisement, time and seasonal variations.
- (3) *biological, physiological* and *psychological factors*. The important factors here are the major demographic factors that influences food preferences: the consumer's age, education, and occupation. In previous studies age, sex and marital status also affect food preferences in such areas as different food quality, and different personal eating habits.
- (4) personal factors which are concerned with level of expectation, priority, familiarity, influence of other persons, individual personality, appetites, moods, and emotions, meanings attached to foods.
- (5) Socioeconomic factors;
- (6) cultural, religious, and regional factors; and
- (7) educational factors.

Khan (1981) emphasized that his model classifies various factors, but it is not exhaustive. He also mentioned that there are numerous factors influencing food preferences, so it is not practical to measure all factors and it is extremely difficult

to study food preferences. However, food preferences can be useful and important indicators of food consumption (Khan 1981). Some aspects of Khan's model of factors influencing food preferences are useful and can be used for this study. In addition, Meulenberg and Viaene (1998) emphasized that socio-cultural changes in lifestyle are relevant for food consumption, and ethnic food is one of the major trends in food preferences.

Whilst the aforementioned models differ, they all emphasize three groups of factors: *individual characteristics*, *food characteristics*, and *socio-cultural influences* (Khan 1981; Randall and Sanjur 1981; Shepherd 1985; Bareham 1995; Schaffner et al. 1998; Shepherd and Sparks 1999; Cardello 1999). Marketing influences have been incorporated in food preferences and food choice models, but these models do not emphasize all of the components of a marketing mix. Most of these models have included characteristics of food in terms of sensory attributes and price, but have rarely noted place and promotion. In addition these models only include factors which affect food preferences and food choices; they do not include the consumer decision-making processes. Consumer food preferences, food choice and decisions relating to acceptability are determined and influenced by many factors (Schaffner et al. 1998; Cardello 1999; Imram 1999; Bogue et al. 1999).

Cardello (1999), Imram (1999) and Bogue et al. (1999) noted that consumer food preferences, food choices, decisions, the level of consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction, and consumer's perception and acceptance of food products are determined and influenced by many factors. These include characteristics of the food product known as sensory attributes (appearance, colour, flavour, aroma, taste, smell, and texture) and other factors such as cultural influences, psychosocial influences, body states, learning and memory from previous experience and expectations. Consumer behaviour is also influenced by information from packaging, labelling, nutritional content, images, attitudes, price, prestige, belief in health attributes, familiarity and brand loyalty. These sensory background, for example consumer with consumer attributes interact physiological, behavioural and cognitive factors, which affect the individual feeling of liking or dislike of food and also influence consumer perception within the consumer experience (Imram 1999). However, there is a strong relationship between food and colour which was established by Moir in early 1936 and by Duncker in 1939. Many researchers in food choice have confirmed the importance of colour in taste recognition and intensity, in flavour detection and recognition, and in food preference and food acceptability, and it can be used to enhance sales (Imram 1999). It can therefore be concluded that the first taste of food always comes with the eyes, and that visual sensory attributes are of critical importance for consumers to assess foods after their purchase and also can affect their repeat purchase, especially when foods have to be sold primarily through appearance rather than through packaging (Imram 1999).

3.3.4 Complex Factors Affecting Food Consumption

Khan (1981) classified the complex factors which involved food habits and food consumption into three sets. The first, *control elements*, consist of the type of food, frequency of use, the diet, methods of processing, storing, methods of preparation and serving combinations, eating patterns, persons who make decisions on food choices, and religious belief. The second, *consumer behaviour patterns*, depend on sociocultural factors such as education and religion. The third group of factors involves the effect of climate, geography, scientific and technological progress, and other factors that influence the availability of food.

Psychological factors such as attitudes, perception, and lifestyle, and *sociocultural characteristic factors* such as cultural origins, family, and social groups help marketers to describe how a consumer thinks and feels about products (Assael, Reed and Patton 1996; Schiffman et al. 2001). Consumer *attitudes* may be investigated and related to predicted consumer behaviour in order to provide insights into how the marketing effort can persuade consumers to buy new products for the first time, or to repeat a purchase (Walters and Bergiel 1989; Hawkins et al. 1992; Bareham 1995; Engel et al. 1990; 1995; Teare 1998; Kivela 1999a; Schiffman et al. 2001). Moreover, attitudes are important for consumers in order to make a decision to eat out (Cullen 1994). In this study it is expected that a positive attitude towards Thai cuisine will affect consumers' decisions to adopt and repeat the purchase of Thai food. Furthermore a negative attitude toward Thai cuisine may arise from previous experience of Thai food, for

example, consumers may not know how to eat Thai food in the correct way. This lack of knowledge may influence consumers to reject Thai food at the decision stage (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). Rogers (1995) noted that attitudes toward an innovation frequently intervene between the knowledge and decision stages.

Perception and acceptance of food products can be affected by many factors including sensory attributes (taste, colour, smell, appearance, texture, nutrition), attitudes, previous experience, price, quality, and quantity (Imram 1999).

Lifestyle analysis has also proved to be a valuable marketing tool in identifying promising consumer segments (Schiffman et al. 2001). Lifestyle is a pattern in which people live and spend time and money (Engel et al. 1995). Lifestyle characteristics can be used to identify what media e.g. magazines, newspapers, TV, radio, or internet are most likely to be seen or heard by the target group (Assael et al. 1996). Lifestyle can also be measured in relation to food consumption habits, for example, tendency to eat spicy foods (Samli 1995).

In terms of Sociocultural Influences, while people need food for physiological reasons, eating is also a cultural event. Culture here refers to cultural origins, family, and social groups which are passed on from one generation to another. Advertisements for new food products may be successful in one culture but not in another (Bareham 1995). Cultural influences have been described in many models of the consumer decision-making process, consumer buyer behaviour, international consumer behaviour, and consumer adoptive behaviour (Walters and Bergiel 1989; Hawkins et al. 1992; Engel et al. 1990; 1995; Samli 1995; Lawson et al. 1996; Assael et al. 1996; Kotler 2000; Schiffman et al. 2001), as well as in food preferences and food choice models (Khan 1981; Shepherd 1985; Bareham 1995; Schaffner et al. 1998; Cardello 1999). In recent studies, cultural background was investigated in food by Allen et al. (1998). In other studies, Kara et al. (1995) Kara et al. (1997) and Barcenas, Perez-Elortondo, Salmeron and Albisu (1998) noted that cultural factors are important for food consumption. Understanding consumers' perceptions of and preferences for food outlets and how they differ across cultures/countries is important for planning marketing strategies. In relation to this study, Australia is a multicultural country and Thai food is a new product for most consumers here, although Thai restaurants have been known in Australia more than two decades, so sociocultural influences may be significant.

3.4 Research Framework: A Model of Consumer Decision-

Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia

The research framework (proposed model) for this study, shown in **Figure 3.1** (p.82) is drawn from five earlier models of consumer behaviour (details in Section 3.1), new product adoption models (Section 3.2), and consumer food behaviour models (Section 3.3). The main core of the proposed model of consumer decision making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia is adapted from the models of Engel et al. (1995), Blackwell et al. (2001), Rogers (1995), Kotler (2000), and Schiffman et al. (2001). The proposed model has three main parts: pre-purchase evaluation, purchase and consumption, and post-consumption evaluation.

3.4.1 Pre-Purchase Evaluation

The first part of the proposed model is pre-purchase evaluation (Figure 3.1) and consists of six stages which have been designed for evaluation of factors affecting consumer decision making for the adoption of Thai food. These include:

1) Demographic/Individual Characteristics

Demographic factors such as gender, age, ethnicity, income, education and occupation help to identify a target market (Kara et al. 1995; Kara et al. 1997; Kivela 1997; Allen et al. 1998; Barcenas et al. 1998; Tomlinson 1998; Bogue et al. 1999; Clark and Wood 1999; McDougall & Levesque 2000). Blisard et al. (2002, p.3) emphasized that demographic changes in the next 20 years in the USA, such as more population, a growing number of women employed outside the home, more two income households, higher income, education, occupation, age, ethnic group, and region will influence food expenditures. These demographic changes will lead consumers to continue to demand new food products and new packaging, convenience, new delivery systems, safer and more nutritious foods, and there will be more dining out than before. Ethnic differences have also led to an increasing

number of studies in areas of ethnic food and restaurants by many researchers such as Collins and Shiriki 1996; Kuznesof, Tregear and Moxey 1997; McIlveen and Chestnutt 1999; Josiam and Monteiro 2004; Verbeke and Lopez 2005.

2) Experience of Thai Food

After establishing the demographics of respondents the second stage of prepurchase evaluation is the *previous/first experience* with Thai food, concerning consumers' product experience. Six aspects were designed for evaluation of how consumers' previous experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and in Australia affected them in the adoption of Thai food. Moreover, length of time eating Thai food in Australia, satisfaction with Thai food, most recent time eating Thai food, Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, and learning Thai cooking were also factors investigated for their effect on consumers in the adoption of Thai food.

3) Knowledge of Thai Food

Two main aspects of knowledge: objective and subjective knowledge were adapted from previous studies, reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.2.5. Firstly, objective knowledge was adapted to this present study in terms of consumers' knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food. This aims to measure whether consumers know the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food and how this knowledge affects them in the adoption of Thai food. Two items of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food: whether to take one Thai dish or to take all Thai dishes from a central plate to put on one's own plate, were adapted from the literature review of Thai food in Chapter 2, Section 2.2) Four items of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food in terms of whether Thai food is eaten with chopsticks, a knife and a fork, a spoon and a fork, or only a fork were also adapted from the literature review of Thai food (Section 2.2). Secondly, items on subjective knowledge were included in terms of consumers' background knowledge about the traditional Thai food. Six items including the traditional way of ordering, eating, Thai dish names, authenticity of appearance, aroma, and taste of Thai food were designed to measure the consumer's subjective knowledge.

4) Need Recognition

At the need recognition stage, three main aspects were investigated including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the four Ps marketing mix and the authentic Thai food needs.

Maslow's Hierachy of Needs

Five needs from Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Section 3.1.4) were applied to this present study to investigate the importance of these needs in affecting consumers to make a decision to eat Thai food. The first is *physiological need*, when consumers decide to eat Thai food because they are hungry; the second is *safety need* when consumers decide to eat Thai food because it is safe and healthy; the third is *social need* applied to eating out for Thai food because of getting together with friends; the fourth is *self esteem need* applied to eating out for Thai food because it is fashionable; and the last is *self-actualization need* applied to eating out for Thai food because of yetting to eating out for Thai food because of yetting to eating out for Thai food because it is fashionable; and the last is *self-actualization need* applied to eating out for Thai food because of yetting to yetting together with friends is fashionable; and the last is *self-actualization need* applied to eating out for Thai food because of yetting to yetting to yetting together with friends is fashionable; and the last is *self-actualization need* applied to eating out for Thai food because of yetting to yetting t

The 4Ps Marketing Mix

At the need recognition stage, the 4Ps marketing mix: product, price, place and promotion, reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4 were also designed to evaluate the importance of these factors in influencing consumers in deciding to eat out for Thai food. A total of fifteen items were used for measurement of the 4Ps marketing mix. Seven items: quality, variety, spiciness, nutritional value, appearance, aroma and taste of Thai food were used for measurement of the factor of 'product' (Thai food characteristics). Three items: reasonable price, value for money and portion size were used for measurement of the factor of 'price'. Two items: convenient location and restaurant decorated in Thai style, were used for evaluation of the factor of 'place'. Three items: wining a trip to Thailand, special gifts from Thai restaurant and special discount period, were used for evaluation of how consumers were satisfied with Thai food, considering their whole eating experience.

The Ethnic/Authentic Thai Food

In this present study the ethnic/authentic Thai food factor was also considered for investigation at the needs recognition stage, reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4. A total of five items were used for measurement of factors affecting consumers to feel they have eaten authentic Thai food. These include: Thai food is served by a Thai waitress/waiter; Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef; Thai restaurant is owned by Thais; Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style; and waitress/waiter is wearing a traditional Thai suit. In addition, in term of authentic Thai food is authentic Thai food is authentic Thai food is authentic Thai taste, was considered.

5) Sources of Information

Two main sources of information: word-of-mouth and mass media reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4, were designed to investigate factors influencing consumers to eat Thai food for the first time, to know about Thai food and the Thai restaurant, and also important sources of information affecting consumers to make a decision to eat Thai food. The factor of word-of-mouth includes eight items: Thai friends, friends, colleagues, neighbours, family/relatives, personal experience, persons who are satisfied with Thai food, persons who work in Thai restaurants. The factor of mass media includes eight items: Thai cooking book, brochures from Thai restaurant, food magazine, newspaper, yellow pages from telephone directory, television, radio and the internet.

6) Evaluation of Alternatives

At the evaluation of alternatives stage, an evaluation of whether consumers make a comparison of Thai food with other Asian foods before they decide to eat Thai food was investigated in this study. Further, seven Asian cuisines: Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese, Korean, Malaysian, Indian and Indonesian were used for evaluation of alternatives. Moreover, price that consumers expect to pay for a whole meal of Thai food, excluding beverages, is also evaluated at this stage and also compared to price of other food.

3.4.2 Purchase and Consumption Evaluation

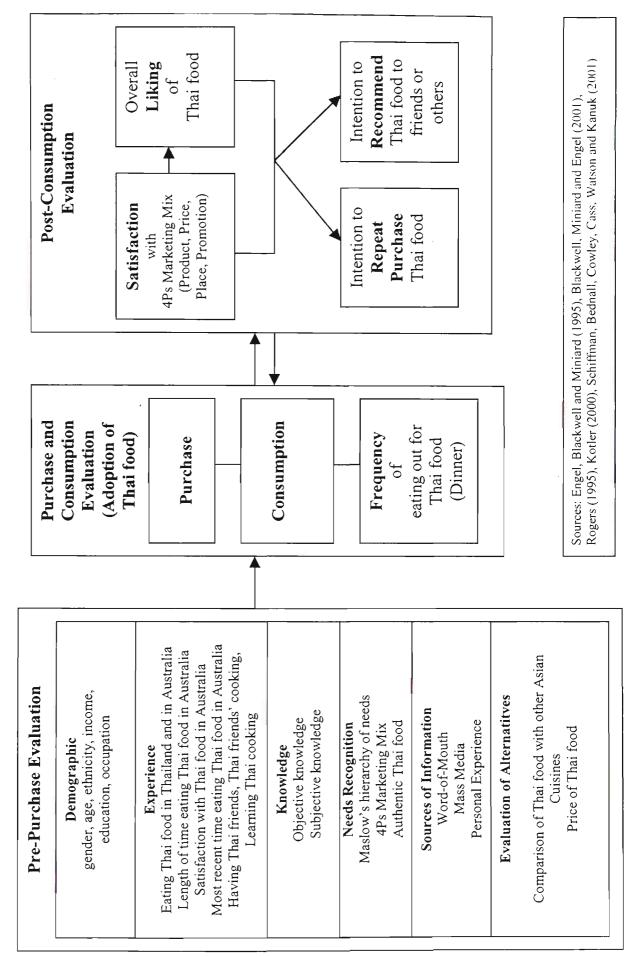
Following pre-purchase evaluation, the model allows for evaluation of the kinds of products purchased and by whom. After this, factors affecting customers during their consumption of Thai food at Thai restaurants are evaluated. The frequency with which customers eat out for Thai food and other foods are also evaluated at this stage.

3.4.3 Post-Consumption Evaluation

The third part of the model evaluates customer responses after they have consumed Thai food at restaurants in Victoria, Australia. This part analyses the overall satisfaction with the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place and promotion); overall customer liking for the food eaten. It also analyses their intention to repeat purchase and recommend Thai food to their friends.

Figure 3.1 The Theoretical Framework:

for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia **A Model of Consumer Decision-Making**



3.5 Research Questions

Seven main research questions were constructed according to the research aims, presented in **Chapter 1**, as follows:

Research Question 1

What factors affect consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia?

Research Question 2

Are there any significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (as measured by frequency of eating out for dinner) among different consumer groups based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, need recognition and evaluation of alternatives?

Research Question 3

Are there any differences between the opinions of Thai restaurant owners and their customers in relation to factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia?

Research Question 4

Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food between overall satisfaction in terms of the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) and overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food and intention to recommend Thai food to friends?

Research Question 5

Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out Thai food for dinner?

Research Question 6

Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different experiences of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste?

Research Question 7

Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste?

3.6 Hypotheses

In order to answer Research Question 2: Are there any significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (as measured by frequency of eating out for dinner) among different consumer groups based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, need recognition and evaluation of alternatives?, fifteen null hypotheses were developed as follows:

Demographics

Five null hypotheses (*Ho1 to Ho5*) were designed in order to investigate differences in the adoption of Thai food based on demographics: gender, age, ethnicity, income, education and occupation.

Hol: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between males and females among younger, middle and older age groups.

Ho2: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among Australian, European and Asian groups.

Ho3: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among lower, middle and higher income groups.

Ho4: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between groups with different levels of education.

Ho5: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among different occupational groups.

Experience of Thai Food

Ho6: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends.

Ho7: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of Thai friends' cooking and those who have no experience of Thai friends' cooking.

Ho8: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of learning Thai cooking and those who have no experience of learning Thai cooking.

Ho9: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Thailand.

Ho10: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Australia.

Knowledge of Thai Food

Holl: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of objective knowledge about it.

Ho12(a): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of subjective knowledge about it.

Ho12(b), The six independent variables of subjective knowledge about traditional Thai food do not significantly predict the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner).

Need Recognition of Thai Food

Ho13: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs.

Sources of Information of Thai Food

Ho14: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups using different sources of information.

Evaluation of Alternatives

Ho15: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups that make different degrees of comparison of Thai food with other cuisines.

In order to answer **Research Question 4**: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food between overall satisfaction in terms of the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) and overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends?, three null hypotheses were constructed as follows:

Ho16 There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and overall liking for Thai food.

Ho17 There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to repeat purchase Thai food.Ho18 There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to recommend Thai food to friends.

In order to answer **Research Question 5**: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out Thai food for dinner? one null hypothesis was constructed as follows:

Ho19 There is no significant relationship among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out Thai food for dinner.

In order to answer **Research Question 6**: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different experiences of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? five null hypotheses (Ho20 to Ho25) were constructed as follows:

Ho20 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends.

Ho21 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced their Thai friends' cooking and those who had not experienced Thai friends' cooking.

Ho22 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced learning Thai cooking and those who had not experienced learning Thai cooking.

Ho23 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced eating Thai food in Thailand and those who had not experienced eating Thai food in Thailand. *Ho24* There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand.

Ho25 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Australia.

In order to answer **Research Question** 7: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? one null hypothesis was constructed as follows:

Ho26 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the theoretical models of consumer behaviour, new product adoption and consumer food behaviour used for the core model of this present study. In order to identify factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food, previous research in the areas of food and restaurants were also reviewed. The next chapter presents the research design and methodology for this present study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to present the issues associated with research design and with the construction and evaluation of qualitative research (interview) and quantitative research (survey) questionnaires to develop a model of consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. These issues include selection of scales for measurement, sampling, sample size, pretest and pilot tests, recruitment of participants, data collection techniques and data analysis techniques. Finally, measurement of validity and reliability are discussed. This chapter includes three main sections.

- The *first* section outlines the theory of the research methods used in this study (Section 4.1).
- The *second* section discusses the methodology used for the qualitative component, involving selection of qualitative method and questionnaire development (Section 4.2).
- The *third* section discusses the methodology used in the quantitative survey component, involving selection of the sampling method and development of the survey instruments (Section 4.3).

4.1 Theory of Research Methods Used in this Study

The research method used in this study involves both qualitative and quantitative components, as this research investigates consumer behaviour. The use of mixed methods, combining both qualitative and quantitative components, in this research design is in accordance with a growing trend in the social and behavioral sciences (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Patton 2002). Tashakkori and Teddlie maintain that most research questions in social and behavioral sciences studies are best answered with mixed methods rather than using only either a qualitative or quantitative method. Patton (2002) further emphasizes that 'it is common that

quantitative methods and qualitative methods are used in a complementary fashion to answer different questions that do not easily come together to provide a single, well-integrated picture of the situation' (p.557). Sekaran (2000) points out that the use of a combination of methods is likely to reduce the biases and increase the validity and reliability of research data. Consequently, mixed methods were used in this study for both data collection and analysis.

Before deciding which research methods were appropriate for data collection it was important to understand the theory of relevant research methods and how they could be practical and useful in this particular study. Therefore, this section focuses on understanding the theory of research methods. A range of methods are used in data collection for social and marketing research (Oppenheim 1986; Hester 1996; Zikmund 2000). Hester classified research design into three major categories: exploratory research, descriptive studies and causal research designs, while Zikmund classified business research methods for primary data collection into survey, observation and experimental research.

Two categories of research methods potentially suited to this study, exploratory and descriptive research are discussed here.

The exploratory research method focuses on detection of ideas and insights to help researchers understand all aspects of a problem. Four kinds of data collection methods for exploratory research include:

- Search of the literature, focusing on secondary data sources;
- Focus groups or group interviews, focusing on primary data collection methods;
- Experience survey concentrating on primary data sources; and
- Case studies to conduct exploratory research on a subject or problem.

The focus of the descriptive studies method is on the collection of structured statistical data by utilizing either cross-sectional (all records cover the same calendar dates) or longitudinal (time series) collection methods. Data can be

analyzed by statistical testing techniques and results presented in tables, crosstabs, and graphs for understanding problems of interest.

Of the above two methods exploratory research was the most appropriate to begin this study. The initial literature search from textbooks and previous studies was undertaken to design the research model, interview questionnaire (Qualitative research) and survey questionnaire (Quantitative research). However, as Hester (1996) noted: 'Secondary data is unlikely to meet all of the information requirements for most research projects' (p.38), so for marketing research there is a need to collect primary data through observation, surveys and interviews. As the purpose of this study was to focus on marketing and consumer behaviour through data collected from owners and customers of Thai restaurants further clarification was needed. This required the collection of primary data by selfadministered surveys with interviews of Thai restaurant owners, and distribution of the survey questionnaires to their customers who already had experience with Thai food at Thai restaurants. Similar studies in consumer behaviour have used a self-administered questionnaire for primary data collection with customers (Kara et al. 1995; Kara et al. 1997).

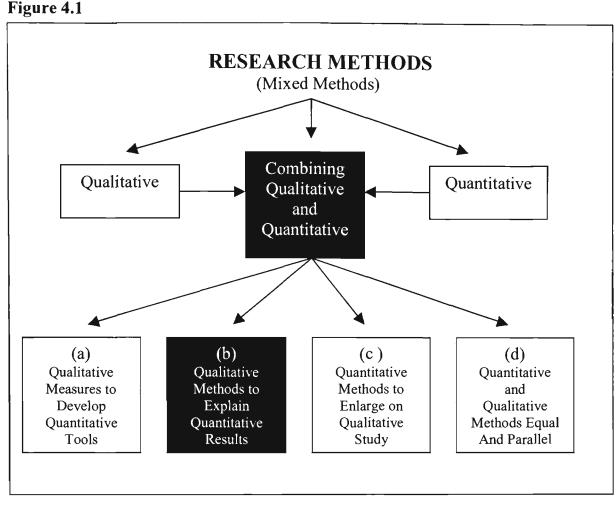
The purpose of survey research is to collect primary data based on communication by using verbal or written questions to obtain data including information about what people think about something (Zikmund 2000). The advantage of survey research method is that it is a 'quick, inexpensive, efficient, and accurate means of assessing information about the population' (Zikmund 2000, p.168).

Further to this, Zikmund (2000) classified survey research on a temporal basis into three types: cross-sectional, longitudinal, and panel studies. This study can be classified as cross-sectional because data were collected from customers who dined-in at Thai restaurants over a set period of time (about five months) from various areas around Victoria. A cross-sectional study was used so that data collection could be finished at a single point in time to investigate relationships between variables by cross-tabulation. Neither longitudinal studies nor panel studies were suited to this study because both are expensive and the time for data collection was limited.

Customers in Thai restaurants were approached after completing the meal in order to obtain more realistic information (Kara et al. 1995; Kara et al. 1997). A package that included a survey questionnaire, a cover letter explaining the purpose and importance of the study including contact details and a postage-paid return envelope was provided for each respondent.

The qualitative data collection consisted of semi-structured interviews and the quantitative data collection consisted of a set of self-report questionnaires. Analysis of qualitative data used descriptive analysis for closed-end questions and also for open-ended questions by converting qualitative information into categories for statistical analysis (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). Data accounting sheets and matrix tables techniques in accordance with Miles and Huberman (1994) were used in this analysis (see results in Chapter 5). Analysis of quantitative data involved statistical descriptive analysis (Chapter 6) and inferential analysis for testing the hypotheses (Chapter 7).

Figure 4.1 (below) provides an outline of the mixed method used in this study adapted from a mixed method compilation by Ulin et al. (1996) cited in Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p.44). Although Ulin et al. have classified mixed methods into four types, only one of these has been used in this study: (b) Qualitative Methods to Explain Quantitative Results (see highlighted boxes in Figure 4.1).



Sources: Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p.44) Note: Diagram adapted from text with black boxes highlighting aspects relevant to this study.

This study has focused more on quantitative than qualitative research, because target consumer behaviour has been the main focus, and interviews with owners of Thai restaurants have been used to support quantitative findings. Qualitative research was used for exploratory interviews with Thai restaurant owners to gain insights for comparing their opinions with their customer feedback (see results in Chapter 8). The objective of the qualitative research was to gather primary data through in-depth interviews with thirty owners of Thai restaurants in Victoria, whereas the survey questionnaire focused on the collection of quantitative data from customers in these restaurants to understand consumer behaviour related to Thai food. The following section presents a discussion of the qualitative research design and methodology used as a basis for the interview questionnaire.

4.2 Qualitative Research Design

As explained in Section 4.1, mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative) have been used in this particular study. As qualitative data can provide 'a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of processes occurring in local contexts' (Miles and Huberman 1984, p.15), this study used the indepth interview method for data collection, which involved interviewing thirty Thai restaurant owners in Victoria, Australia. Findings from these data were not only employed in the quantitative questionnaire design for distribution to customers, but were also used later for comparison with results from the quantitative survey. This section includes five main areas for discussion: sampling, sample size, and recruitment of participants (Section 4.2.1); data collection techniques (Section 4.2.2); interview questionnaire design (Section 4.2.3); data analysis techniques (Section 4.2.4); and validity and reliability of qualitative research (Section 4.2.5).

4.2.1 Sampling, Sample Size, and Recruitment of Participants

Two main aspects are discussed in this section: sampling techniques and sample size, and ways to recruit Thai restaurant owners to participate in this study.

Sampling and Sample size

Patton (2002) classifies sampling strategies for qualitative research into two main types: random probability sampling and purposeful sampling. There are two types (simple random sample and stratified random and cluster samples) within random probability sampling, whereas there are sixteen types in the purposeful sampling technique. However, Patton emphasized that:

There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what's at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources. The validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size. I recommend that qualitative sampling designs specify *minimum samples* based on expected reasonable coverage of

the phenomenon given the purpose of the study and stakeholder interests (Patton 2002, pp.244 - 246).

The subjects targeted were thirty owners or managers of Thai restaurants in Victoria. They were obtained by using a table of random numbers for selection from a total of 255 Thai restaurants in Victoria. All Thai restaurants in Victoria in 2001 were listed in alphabetical order in a database assembled from the Yellow Pages telephone directory, <u>www.citysearch.com.au</u>, and from the Association of Thai Restaurants in Australia. Targetted restaurants were selected from a wide area in accordance with accessability for the research. Some 'Thai' restaurants were not owned by Thais and tended to sell dishes from other cuisines, notably from the cuisines of the owner's country of origin. The latter restaurants were excluded and those selling only Thai food were selected for participation. Names of suburbs have been withheld to allow anonymity for the restaurant owners.

Recruitment of participants

A few problems were encounted in the initial recruitment of participants for the study. Although one hundred restaurant owners were sent formal letters of invitation to participate, the expectation of at least thirty percent response did not eventuate. Only two responses were received, one by telephone and another by fax. Interestingly, no restaurant owners of Thai nationality responded, just one Australian and one Malaysian. Due to this poor response the researcher assumed that because the letter was written in an academic style the Thai restaurant owners were either not interested, found the letter too difficult to understand or had time constraints and were frustrated at being expected to consider two pages of text when they were already overloaded at work (arriving at the restaurant at about 4.00-5.00 pm. before opening at 6.00 pm. and finishing around midnight). The researcher found two points useful in collecting data from Thai restaurant owners: *a direct contact* by telephone and choosing *the right time* for contact between 4.00 pm and 5.00 pm.

Potential participants were contacted directly by telephone and were screened to determine whether they sold only Thai food or included other Asian food in their menus. The researcher made telephone contact between 4.00 pm and 5.00 pm to

inform restaurant owners about the study and to ask them to participate, using their native Thai language in discussion. English language was used to communicate with only one respondent because the owner was a native of Vietnam. The response rate was very high at 95 per cent. Only one Thai restaurant owner declined to participate. Suitable respondents were then scheduled for personal in-depth interviews. It quickly became apparent that participants preferred to make appointments for interviews at their restaurants between 4.00 pm and 5.00 pm, before opening time. Allowing sufficient time for the interviews with the thirty selected restaurant owners within this narrow time frame meant that only one interview could be scheduled for each day.

Appointments were made within a week following the telephone call so that participants' interest would be sustained and thus they would not forget their appointments. A record of all telephone calls was kept. Each restaurant operator was telephoned until contact was made. For some restaurants it took up to eight telephone calls to make contact with the owners. During this period two restaurants that had changed to offer other cuisines, Chinese and Indian, were excluded from the population. Eventually, a total of thirty Thai restaurants was achieved for the qualitative data collection during the period September 2003 (16 respondents) to October 2003 (14 respondents).

4.2.2 Qualitative Data Collection Techniques

It is important to understand the theory of qualitative data collection techniques before designing the interview questionnaire. Figure 4.2 shows that data collection techniques for qualitative research can be classified into three major types: interviews, observations, and examining other documents (Wolcott 1994, 2001; Patton 2002). Two types of personal interviews: in-depth interviews (face-to-face) and telephone interviews are commonly used for qualitative data collection (McLennan 1999; Zikmund 2000). The in-depth interview was a more appropriate data collection method than telephone interviews to elicit information from the thirty Thai restaurant owners because the nature of the questions was complex and there were many of them. This accords with McLennan's finding (1999, p.5) that 'it is difficult to obtain detailed answers to complex questions by

telephone or mail survey, whereas personal face-to-face interviews will generally yield a greater depth of response'. Therefore, the researcher undertook in-depth interviews (face-to-face) using a tape recorder and taking notes for data collection.

The in-depth interview is a powerful method for qualitative data collection because it allows individual interaction between researcher and interviewee, and unclear questions can be clarified (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). In addition, the interview technique allows researchers to explain, gather and find out the meaningful and knowable from interviewees (Patton 2002). However, only a small number of interviews could be conducted for this study because of their time-consuming nature and the expense. The interviews with the owners of Thai restaurants in this study aimed to identify the particular variables or factors that affect customer decisions to dine-in at Thai restaurants, for comparison with the results of the survey questionnaire. Data on the general background of the owners and of the Thai restaurants, including the owners' opinions about Thai food in Australia were also gathered by means of the interviews.

The *Observation technique* was also considered to be an appropriate method because it was useful to observe how respondents interacted with the questions, and also to identify when they emphasized important answers from their voices.

Examining other documents was used in this study, but they did not provide enough data because there were rarely previous studies involving Thai restaurants that were relevant. Thus, primary data were obtained using the in-depth interview data collection technique.

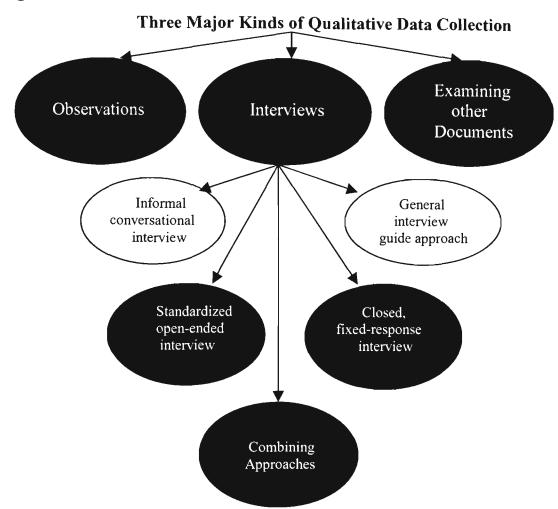


Figure 4.2

Source: Adapted from Patton (2002, pp. 4, 342-439) and Wolcott (1994, p.10) Qualitative data collection techniques used in this study are highlighted in black.

Patton (2002) also describes five interview types: informal conversation, general guided approach, standardized open-ended, closed fixed-response and combined approach. Patton emphasized that researchers need to keep in mind that all four types of interviewing strategies described above are pure types; in practice researchers may employ all those techniques or combine several of the strategies. Informal interviews glean information from informal conversations whereas a general guided approach follows basic, pre-determined lines of enquiry. Standardized open-ended interviews follow set questions in the same order for each interviewee and closed, fixed-response interviews, suited to questionnaires, determine categories in advance for respondents to select.

Informal conversational interview techniques were not employed in this present study because data analysis can be difficult to consolidate. Patton (2002) explains that use of these techniques demands much time to sort through the data, because the questions change over time as each new interview builds on the previous answers. Consequently, the combined approach used in this study draws from standardized open-ended and closed, fixed-response interview techniques. These techniques were used for the present study because, by applying both, the research questions could be answered directly. Moreover, Patton emphasized that these techniques are suitable for students or others who are not professional interviewers; they also make data analysis easier and facilitate gathering and comparison of results as every respondent answers the same questions.

In addition, these two interview techniques are highly focused, so interviewee time is used efficiently. The length of time for interviewing was important because almost all Thai restaurants in Australia run their businesses only for dinner and most would make an appointment for one hour before they started business at their restaurants. However, the weakness of the closed, fixed-response interview is that respondents must fit their experiences and feelings into the researcher's categories, so limiting their response choices. To solve this difficulty, respondents were told before they answered the questions that they could provide other responses if they were not provided on the 'Show Card'. A 'Show Card' here means all fixed response categories shown on A-4 paper size for each question (see Appendix 1).

4.2.3 Interview Questionnaire Design

The interview questionnaire was designed to elicit opinions about Thai food and customers from thirty Thai restaurant owners in Victoria. Patton (2002) discusses the three basic formats of the questionnaire for open-ended interviews:

- informal conversational interview (unstructured interviewing)
- general interview guide approach
- standardized open-ended interviews

However, recommendations by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) to combine qualitative unstructured (open-ended) questions and quantitative structured (closed-ended) strategies provide the advantages of both methods for obtaining a rich source of data. Open-ended questions were used to solicit unrestricted information from the interviewees, while closed-ended questions with preplanned response options included an 'other' response option.

The interview questionnaire (Appendix 1) used in this study focused on both standardized open-ended questions and structured closed-ended questions. The standardized open-ended interview technique 'consists of a set of questions carefully worded and arranged with the intention of taking each respondent through the same sequence and asking each respondent the same questions with essentially the same words' (Patton 2002, p.342). The questions were determined and worded in a completely open-ended format in advance. The closed, fixed-response interview technique was also adapted to construct the questions for the interviews. Questions and response categories were determined in advance to allow respondents to select among fixed responses exhibited on show cards. The advantages of these two techniques for construction of the interview questionnaire were discussed in the previous Section 4.2.2.

The interview questionnaire comprised five main parts (A-E). The first part (Part A) covered general questions about the background of the Thai restaurants and owners, including staff. The second part (Part B) contained questions aimed at eliciting Thai restaurant owners' opinions about the need for authenticity of Thai food in Australia, deciding what Thai dishes to offer on the menu and their image of Thai food in Australia. The third part (Part C) focused on the opinions of Thai restaurant owners in relation to the profiles of customers, sources of information, the comparison of Thai food to other 'Asian foods', how customers order Thai dishes, what price customers prefer to pay for Thai food, and factors influencing customers to eat more Thai food. Nine questions in this part used a 'Show Card' technique (see Appendix 1) to make the interviews easier and clearer to the interviewees. For the fourth part (Part D) open-ended questions were designed to find out the five most popular Thai dishes and desserts from the thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria. Lastly, in Part E open-ended questions were designed to

elicit the opinions of Thai restaurant owners about changes in Australian customer preferences for Thai food during the period 1998 to 2003; factors persuading people in Australia to know about and eat more Thai food; ways Thai food manufacturers and the Thai government could assist Thai restaurants overseas and other ways to make Thai food better known to foreigners.

Prior to using this interview questionnaire to elicit information from the thirty selected Thai restaurant owners in Victoria, it was pre-tested with two Thai restaurant owners in Melbourne to ensure content validity and clarity. The results of the pre-test revealed that the questionnaire was understandable for both respondents.

4.2.4 Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques

As mentioned in the previous section the questionnaire used as a basis for the interviews focused on both standardized open-ended questions and structured closed-ended questions. Consequently, linking qualitative and quantitative data was appropriate for interpretation of the results. The advantages of linking qualitative and quantitative data have been discussed by many authors. For instance, Sieber (1973 cited in Miles and Huberman 1994, pp.40-41) argued the benefits of combining qualitative and quantitative and quantitative methods as follows:

Qualitative data can help the quantitative side of a study during design by aiding with conceptual development and instrumentation. They can help during data collection by making access and data collection easier. During analysis they can help by validating, interpreting, clarifying, and illustrating quantitative findings, as well as through strengthening and revising theory.

Quantitative data can help with the qualitative side of a study during design by finding a representative sample and locating deviant cases. It can help during data collection by supplying background data, getting overlooked information, and helping avoid 'elite bias'. During analysis quantitative data can help by showing the generality of specific observations, correcting the 'holistic fallacy', and verifying or casting new light on qualitative findings.

Further, Rossman and Wilson (1984, 1991 cited in Miles and Huberman 1994, pp.40-41) provided three reasons validating the usefulness of this technique for this study:

• to enable confirmation or corroboration of each other via triangulation;

- to elaborate or develop analysis, providing richer detail; and
- to initiate new lines of thinking through attention to surprises or paradoxes, turning ideas around, providing fresh insight.

After reviewing fifty-seven mixed method evaluation studies, Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989 cited in Miles and Huberman 1994, p.41) emphasized that using different methods in different components could expand the scope and breadth of a study.

To benefit from combining these two methods Greene, Caracelli and Graham suggested that researchers need to consider the complementary differences across methods and the purposes for using them. It is important to evaluate the findings of the quantitative and qualitative research components whether they support each other, contradict each other or are simply unrelated.

The methods of qualitative data analysis used in this study have been drawn from four sources. Firstly, Qualitative data analysis methods compiled by Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) have been used in many qualitative research studies (Tesch 1990; Wolcott 1994; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Patton 2002). Miles and Huberman (1984, p.21) explain that qualitative data appear in 'words rather than in numbers'. However, more recently (1994) they have found that qualitative data are now in danger of overloading information due to extended text. Nevertheless, text will always need to be explained in matrix displays. They classified qualitative data analysis into three main parts: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. They mentioned the need for transcription, dictation, typing up and editing prior to data reduction, but they do not classify those as the process for data analysis (Miles and Huberman 1984; 1994). The first part, 'data reduction' refers to selecting and simplifying raw data and transforming data into codes. The second part, 'data display' refers to deciding on the rows and columns of a matrix, graph, chart, diagram, figure, and networks for qualitative data. Wolcott (1994, p.31) agrees with Miles and Huberman that 'For the findings-oriented researcher, graphic presentation offers an alternative to prose not only for conveying information but for dramatizing or emphasizing particular aspects of a study. Tables, charts, diagrams, and figures are one way to do it'. The third part, 'conclusion drawing and verification', draws out meanings and validity to further understand the matrix data.

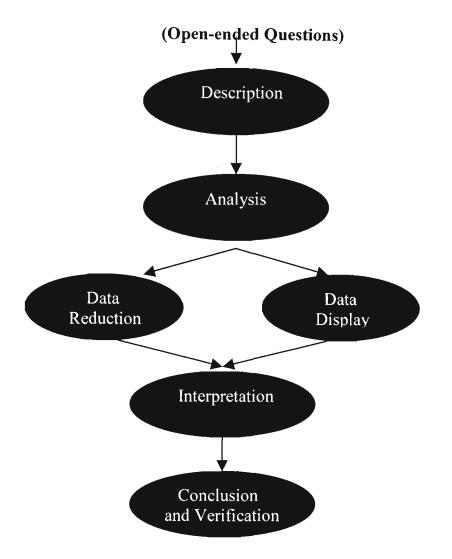
Secondly, Wolcott (1994; 2001) suggests that it may be useful to consider qualitative data analysis in terms of three sub-categories: description; analysis; and interpretation. However, Wolcott does not provide strategies for data reduction and display. 'Description' refers to what the researcher has observed and heard during interviews. The description provides the basis for the reader to evaluate the sufficiency of the research claims. At the analysis stage, Wolcott suggests that researchers select an analytic framework consistent with their requirements. 'Interpretation' refers to considering and depicting what the data mean, and identifying the implications of these findings.

In this present study the process of data analysis for open-ended questions from the interviews of the thirty Thai restaurant owners in Victoria has been adapted from Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994), Wolcott (1994; 2001), and Patton (2002), (see Figure 4.3 below).

Thirdly, Patton (2002, p.432) emphasized that 'no formula exists for that transformation'; and the challenge of qualitative analysis is to make sense of massive amounts of data and transform data into findings. In accordance with Patton mixed methods have been used for data analysis in this thesis.

'Qualitative findings may be presented alone or in combination with quantitative data. Research and evaluation studies employing multiple methods, including combinations of qualitative and quantitative data, are common. At the simplest level, a questionnaire or interview that asks both fixed-choice (closed) questions and open-ended questions is an example of how quantitative measurement and qualitative inquiry are often combined' (Patton 2002, p.5).

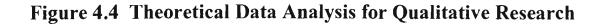
Figure 4.3

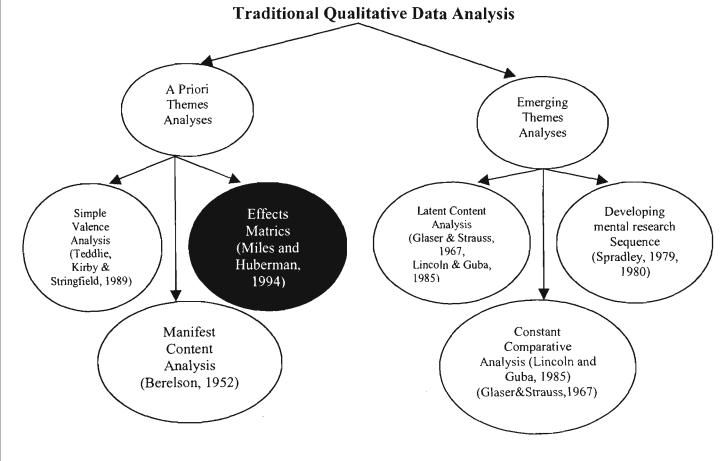


The Process of Data Analysis of Interviews

Sources: Adapted from Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994), Wolcott (1994; 2001), and Patton (2002).

Lastly, the fourth source used to complete the theoretical model for data analysis in this study has been adapted from Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) who explained qualitative data analysis by drawing from other studies. Their theory for qualitative data analysis is classified into two main types: traditional qualitative data analysis (Figure 4.4); and the alternative analytical strategies for mixed methods studies used in this study (Figure 4.5).

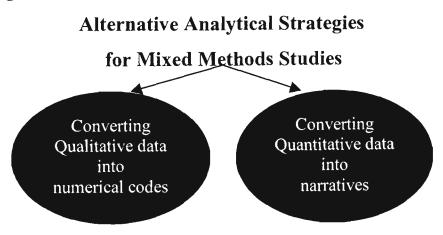




Source: Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998).

Note: The analyses shown in black have been used in this study (see Chapter 5).

Figure 4.5



Source: Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998).

Note: The analyses shown in black have been used in this study (see Chapter 5).

Based on the above four interpretations of mixed methodologies, the process of qualitative data analysis for this study began with the transcription of data from thirty tape recordings. These were used to locate and code themes, group data into categories, and compare passages in transcripts with incidents from field notes (Patton 2002). The open-ended responses were analyzed using content analysis, while closed-ended responses were analyzed statistically (Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998). Data accounting sheets and matrix tables adapted from Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) were used to analyze data for both the open-ended and closed-ended responses. The content analysis technique was used to classify the open-ended responses into patterns and themes (Patton 2002, p.442). Descriptive analysis (frequency and percentages) was used for the closed-ended responses by converting qualitative information into numerical codes for statistical analysis. Further, contrast tables analyses adapted from Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) were used to display results in a way that facilitated meaningful discussion. Results from the qualitative data in Chapter 5 (Section 5.2 and Section 5.3) were used for comparing results with the survey questionnaire.

4.2.5 Validity and Reliability of the Interview Questionnaire

In terms of the validity and reliability of qualitative data used in this study, no absolute formula for determining significance is available in the same way as for the measurement of quantitative data. Therefore, in accordance with Patton (2002, p.433) the results are presented in relation to the purpose of the study. Validity has been achieved through interpretation, and reliability was observed through significant agreement between respondents (Kirk and Miller 1986).

Wolcott (1994 pp.12-16) emphasizes that qualitative researchers need to focus their work on objectivity, reliability, validity, or replicability, and 'stay descriptive as long as possible'. According to Patton, 'the strategy of triangulating with multiple data sources, observations, methods, and/or theories, researcher can make substantial strides in overcoming the skepticism that greets singular methods, lone analysis, and single-perspective interpretations' (Patton 2002, p.556). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p.12) point out that triangulation methods often involve comparing and integrating data collected through

qualitative research with data collected through some kind of quantitative study. This practical approach of mixed methods analysis assuming potential compatibility and seeking to discover the degree and nature of compatibility has been part of this research. Validity and reliability of the quantitative aspects of this research are discussed in Section 4.3.5.

4.3 Quantitative Research Design

This section includes five main sections for discussion. Survey questionnaire design including types of questions, format of questions, scales for measurement, refining the questionnaire (observation, pre-testing, and pilot test techniques), and data analysis for the pilot test are discussed in Section 4.3.1. This is followed by sampling, sample size, and recruitment of participants (Section 4.3.2); response rate (Section 4.3.3); data analysis techniques (Section 4.3.4); valid and missing data in survey questionnaire responses (Section 4.3.5); content validity and construct validity of the survey questionnaire (Section 4.3.7).

4.3.1 Survey Questionnaire Design

An extensive search of the literature in the area of food and restaurants indicated that no research studies on Thai food in other countries, including Australia, have been reported that have incorporated the combination of consumer behaviour, new product adoption, and food behaviour models. No existing questionnaire was found to be suited to this specific study. It was necessary to design a new questionnaire suitable for the particular product, 'Thai food', and also suitable for surveying multicultural consumers in Australia. In order to test the proposed model and design a new survey questionnaire a model in Chapter 3 (Figure 3.1, p.81) and subsidiary questions in this chapter (Figure 4.6, p.110) designed by Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel (2001) was used as the basis. The proposed model was based on four theoretical models of 'consumer behaviour', 'new product adoption' and 'food consumer behaviour'. Factors affecting consumers' food choices were drawn from previous studies in the food and restaurant areas (details in Chapter 3). Following the compilation of a suitable survey based on this model, 111 Thai restaurant customers trialled it for the pilot test and 1009

respondents took part in the actual survey. The survey questionnaire was written in English because this language is spoken by the majority of customers in Thai restaurants in Victoria.

McLennan (1999) emphasized that the survey questionnaire should be designed so as to determine the data which are to be produced by the survey in order to meet the desired aims and objectives. In order to achieve the research aims for this study, described in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3), the survey questionnaire was designed particularly to answer seven research questions and test twenty-six hypotheses formulated as detailed in Chapter 3 (Sections 3.5 and 3.6). Design for the survey questionnaire was based on the research framework for this study (Figure 3.1), which was drawn from five theoretical models (Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001; Rogers 1995; Kotler 2000; Schiffman et al. 2001) in conjunction with analysis of the qualitative data (interviews with Thai restaurant owners) and previous studies described in Chapter 3.

• Types of Questions used in the Survey Questionnaire

The three main types of quantitative questions: behavioural, attitudinal, and classification used in this study were based on Hague and Jackson (1995). Firstly, behavioural questions were used to find out market size, market shares, awareness of and usage of Thai food in Australia. In this present study the behavioural questions were designed to determine factual information about what Thai food the randomly selected customers in Thai restaurants in Victoria had eaten, bought, used, seen, or read or heard about. These questions paid no regard to the respondents' opinions as customers. The behavioural questions were also designed to determine the eating behaviour of respondents, and the comparisons they made between other types of food and Thai food. Consumers were asked questions about whether they had ever eaten Thai food (either in Thailand or Australia) prior to their current dine-in experience. The questionnaire also investigated when customers had last eaten Thai food; approximately how many times customers had experienced Thai food before; and their wish to recommend Thai food to friends and also to eat more Thai food in the future. The questions were carefully structured to elicit accurate responses (Hague and Jackson 1995).

Secondly, *attitudinal questions* were designed to determine and rate the levels of people' opinions and beliefs about Thai food. Responses to these questions were measured for attitude using a seven-point Likert Scale to determine the opinions of respondents. In this study attitudinal questions were designed to find the rating level of respondents' opinions about Thai food in regard to: why people choose to eat Thai food, what people think of Thai food, how respondents rate the factors affecting them to know about and eat Thai food, what respondents like or dislike about Thai food and whether respondents agree or disagree with the statements in the questionnaire.

Lastly, *classification questions* were designed to build a profile of respondents (including gender, age, ethnicity, income, education and occupation) to determine how different groups decide to eat Thai food. Questions in this section were designed to match the classifications used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). Classification questions were used in the survey questionnaire to make comparisons between these groups. These questions were designed to elicit what the different groups thought about Thai food, their knowledge of Thai food, their need for Thai food, sources of information influencing them to know and eat Thai food, and how they evaluated alternatives before deciding to purchase Thai food.

• Format of Questions for the Survey Questionnaire

A combination of structured closed-ended questions (quantitative) and unstructured open-ended questions (qualitative) was designed for the survey questionnaire (see Appendix 2). Some questions provided 'other' response options with a blank space for encouraging respondents to write additional answers. Quantitative research design, focusing on structured closed-ended questions, was the main tool for gathering data whereas unstructured open-ended questions were used to elicit customer opinions. In accordance with Zikmund (2000, p. 284), several questions were constructed for measuring one concept in order to yield a more accurate measure than asking a single question. In addition, several items were constructed to measure for one factor. These items were adapted from previous studies which were discussed in the literature review in Chapter 3. According to Babbie (1990), ordering questions in a questionnaire can affect the response rate. Therefore, questions in the questionnaire in this study were designed in a logical sequence for respondents in order to elicit information about factors affecting their purchasing/adoption of Thai food, moving from the past to the present and then in to the future. Demographic questions concerning gender, age, education, occupation and income were placed at the end of the questionnaire because the answers to these questions might be sensitive, and might not motivate respondents to complete the questionnaire (Babbie 1990). In addition, many professional researchers suggest that demographic questions should be placed at the end of a questionnaire, and most respondents prefer checking boxes which is a simple way to answer the questions (Nardi 2003).

The format used for the above question types in relation to the model used in this study (Figure 4.6) involved forty questions. These questions were intended to determine customers' experience and knowledge of Thai food including needs recognition of Thai food; sources informing them about Thai food and Thai restaurants; factors affecting them in deciding to purchase and consume Thai food in Australia; how well they were satisfied; and their intention to purchase Thai food again in the future. In order to the answer the research questions and fix all questions in each of the stages of this study model, Figure 4.6 shows how the questions were constructed, adapting the theory underlying the core model in this study. The questions used in this study were mainly adapted from Blackwell et al. (2001). For each stage in the model subsidiary research questions are listed, with the questions from the survey questionnaire shown in parenthesis. Demographic questions were provided at the end of the questionnaire and a summary is shown in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 Development of Survey Questions

Stage 1 Previous Experience

- 1. Have consumers ever eaten Thai food in Thailand and Australia before dining in this restaurant? (Q.1+Q.2)
- 2. How long have consumers been eating Thai food in Australia? (Q.3)
- 3. How satisfied were consumers with Thai food the last time before dining in this restaurant? (Q.4)
- 4. The last time consumers ate Thai food was: (Q.5)
- 5. Do consumers have Thai friends (Q.30), experience with Thai friends' cooking (Q.31), experience with learning Thai cooking (Q.32)

Stage 2 Knowledge

- 1. The traditional Thai way of eating Thai food (Q.10+Q.11)
- 2. Background knowledge about traditional Thai food (Q.12a,b,c,d,e,f)

Stage 3 Need Recognition

- 1. What needs are important for consumers in Australia to make the decision to purchase Thai food? (investigate Q.16, Q.21, Q.23)
- 2. What factors affect consumers to feel they had authentic Thai food? (Q.24a)
- 3. What factors affect consumers to eat more Thai food? (O.24b)

Stage 4 Search/Sources of Information

- 1. Internal Search What other cuisines-related information is stored in consumers' memory? (Q.6)
- 2. External Search What specific information sources are used most frequently when search is undertaken? (Q.18, Q.19)
- 3. External Search What sources of information are important for consumers in Australia when they make a decision to eat Thai food? (Q.17)

First sources of information about Thai Food and Thai restaurant

- 1. Where did consumers first eat Thai food? (Q.7)
- 2. How did consumers first know about Thai food? (Q.8)
- 3. How did consumers first know about Thai restaurants in Australia? (Q.9)

Stage 5 Pre-Purchase Evaluation of Alternatives

- 1. Do consumers engage in alternative evaluation and comparison of Thai food with other cuisines? (Q.6a, If yes go to Q.2)
- 2. Which cuisine alternatives are included in the evaluation process? (Q.6b)
- 3. What price do consumers in Australia expect to pay for Thai food in
- comparison to other food? (Q.20)

Stage 6 Purchase

- 1. How do consumers in Australia buy Thai food? (Dine in, Take Away, Delivery)
- 2. Where do consumers in Australia buy Thai food? (Thai restaurant, etc.)
- 3. When do consumers in Australia buy Thai food? (Breakfast, Lunch, or Dinner) (Q.22a,b,c,g,h,i)

Stage 7 Consumption

- 1. What is the intended purpose for consumers in Australia to buy Thai food? (Q.15)
- 2. What is the normal frequency of eating Thai food and duration of consumption of Thai food? (Q.22)
- 3. How are household members, peers, and others involved in consumption of Thai food? (Q.14)
- 4. What factors are important for consumers when ordering Thai dishes at the restaurant? (Q.13)

Stage 8 Post-Consumption Evaluation

- 1. What degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction is expressed with respect to the 4Ps? (Q.25)
- 2. What reasons are given for satisfaction or dissatisfaction? (Q.26b)
- 3. Has perceived satisfaction or dissatisfaction been shared with other people? (Q.27)
- 4. Is there an intention to repurchase Thai food? (Q.28 and Q.29)

Source: Stages 1-2 adapted from Rogers (1995), Stages 3 to 8 adapted from questions in Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2001 (p. 94). Note: The questions in the survey questionnaire that relate to the stages of the model are shown in parenthesis e.g. (Q.3).

For testing the eight stages of the proposed model (Figure 3.1), 32 questions (Q.1 to Q.29 and Q.30 to Q.32) were used to determine consumer decision-making processes. A further eight questions (Q.33 to Q.40) were designed to ascertain the demographics of the respondents. The first and second stages were adapted from the model of Rogers (1995) and stages three to eight were adapted from Engel et al. (1995) and Blackwell et al. (2001).

The first stage, *Experience* (adapted from Rogers 1995) consisted of eight questions. Questions 1 to 5 were designed to evaluate respondents' background experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and Australia; how satisfied they were with Thai food; and how long it took them to repeat purchase Thai food. In addition, Questions 30 to 32 were designed to investigate whether Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, and learning Thai cooking affect respondents to dine out for Thai food.

The second stage, *Knowledge* (adapted from Rogers 1995) was divided into two main parts, objective and subjective knowledge (see Chapter 3). Questions 10 and 11 were designed to evaluate respondents' objective knowledge about the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food. Question 12 was designed to evaluate respondents' subjective background knowledge about traditional Thai food.

The third stage, *Need Recognition* (adapted from Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001) was covered by Questions 16, 21, 23, and 24. These questions were designed to evaluate which factors were important for respondents in deciding to eat Thai food.

The fourth stage, *Sources of information* (adapted from Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001) involved a total of six questions. These were designed to evaluate sources of information affecting respondents' knowledge of Thai food. Questions 7, 8, and 9 were designed to investigate which sources of information initially enabled respondents to know about Thai food and Thai restaurants. Questions 17, 18, and 19 were designed to elicit the ways in which sources of information affected respondents to make a decision to eat Thai food. The fifth stage, *Evaluation of alternatives* (adapted from Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001) consisted of two questions. Question 6 was designed to investigate whether respondents made a comparison of Thai food with other 'Asian foods' before deciding to dine-in at a Thai restaurant, and which cuisines they used for comparison. Question 20 was designed to evaluate what price respondents expected to pay for Thai food compared to other food.

The sixth stage, *Purchase* (adapted from Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001) is covered in Question 22. This question was designed to evaluate consumer behaviour in three main parts: I) how often respondents eat out (breakfast, lunch, or dinner) for Thai food compared to other food; II) how often respondents cook at home, dine-in, eat take-away, or eat home delivery for Thai food compared to other food; and III) how often respondents eat out for sociable and business reasons and how often respondents eat out with family/relatives, friends, colleagues and neighbours.

The seventh stage, *Consumption* (adapted from Engel et al. 1995; Blackwell et al. 2001) consisted of four questions designed to evaluate factors affecting respondents during actual consumption of food. Question 13 diagnosed what factors were important for consumers when ordering Thai dishes at the restaurant. Question 14 elicited whether their dining companions were household members, peers, or other. Question 15 was designed to evaluate what was the intended purpose for consumers in Australia to buy Thai food. Question 22 elicited respondents' behaviour in regard to their frequency of eating Thai food in comparison with other cuisines and reasons for eating out.

The eighth stage, *Post-Consumption* (adapted from Blackwell et al. 2001 and Schiffman et al. 2001) consisted of five questions (Q.25 to Q.29) designed to investigate post-consumption evaluation. Question 25 was designed to evaluate the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction expressed with respect to the 4Ps (Product, Price, Place, Promotion) of the marketing mix. Question 26 was designed to find out how customers like or dislike Thai food considering the whole eating experience, including reasons for what they like or dislike most about Thai food. Question 27 elicited perceived satisfaction or dissatisfaction and

whether this had been shared with other people. Questions 28 and 29 elicited the intention of customers to purchase Thai food again in the future.

The last stage in the survey questionnaire was designed to elicit customer *demographics* and explore their individual characteristics (Questions 33 to 40).

In the next section the scales used in the questions for measurement are discussed.

• Scales for Measurement

Four major types of scales: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio are widely used for measurement of response options in marketing research, and also in social and behavioural sciences (Hester 1996; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Zikmund 2000; Sekaran 2000; DeVellis 2003). In this current study nominal measures were used to classify characteristics of respondents, while ordinal and interval measures were used to measure respondents' opinions about Thai food. Ratio measures are similar to interval measures, differing only in the use of a zero point (Hester 1996; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998) but, in this study, as an absolute zero was not required ratio measures were not used.

In designing quantitative questionnaires suited to investigate attitudes and behaviours results, the widely recommended Likert scale has been used due to its ease of preparation and interpretation, and simplicity for respondents (Meilgaard, Civille and Thomas 1991; Laing, Presscott, Bell, Gillmore, Yoshida, Yamazaki, Allen and Best 1994; Allen et al. 1998; Zikmund 2000; Sekaran 2000; Schiffman et al. 2001). Added to this, the Likert scale has been widely proven to be applicable in diverse applications and a valid way of accurately measuring opinions, beliefs and attitudes (DeVellis 2003, p.79). A good Likert item should state the opinion, attitude, belief or other construct under study in clear terms. DeVellis (2003 p.79) noted that 'when a Likert scale is used, the item is presented as a declarative sentence, followed by response options that indicate varying degrees of agreement with, or endorsement of the statement'. In choosing the most appropriate version of a Likert scale for use in this study the researcher has drawn from the following authors. Firstly, Kivela, Reece and Inbakaran (1999b); Kivela et al. (2000) used a five-point Likert scale to analyse the importance of customer expectations in twenty-eight restaurants. Pallant (2002; 2005) advised the use of a Likert scale with as wide a range as possible, so the researcher designed a seven-point Likert scale. In this way the questionnaire can offer more score options for respondents to choose from, and yield more accurate data for analysis. McWilliams (1997) emphasized that hedonic (liking) rating scales can be used to investigate the degree of pleasure experienced with each sample of food, and so the hedonic (liking) scale was also selected as a suitable scale for measuring liking of Thai food. To measure intention to purchase a five-point scale was used in order to from elicit respondents whether they would recommend Thai food to their friends, and their intention to repeat purchase Thai food in the future.

The survey questionnaire was constructed to test the proposed model (Figure 3.1), and was tested before distribution to customers at Thai restaurants in Victoria. Pretesting, observational studies, and pilot testing techniques used for refining the survey questionnaire in this study are discussed below.

• Refining the Survey Questionnaire

McLennan (1999) points out that the process of testing is an important part of preparing and developing the survey questionnaire because problems can be identified and corrected before the full survey is conducted.

Three main types of testing techniques, observational studies, pre-testing, and pilot testing, were used for developing the survey questionnaire (McLennan, 1999).

Observational studies technique

The observational studies technique, adapted from McLennan (1999), was used for developing the questionnaire during pre-testing and pilot testing stages. Respondents were required to complete the second draft questionnaire in the presence of an observer. While completing the questionnaire respondents were asked to explain their understanding of the questions and the methods providing the information. Respondents were informed that the questionnaire was being pilottested and that it was not part of the actual survey. The researcher was also careful to ensure that the respondents were not given any assistance in completing the questionnaire. Observational studies help to identify problem questions, questions likely to be asked by the respondents and the time taken to complete the questionnaire. More opinions and comments were elicited from the respondents during observations at the pre-testing and pilot testing stages.

Pre-testing technique

According to Zikmund (2000), 'pre-testing a questionnaire on a small sample of respondents is a useful way to discover problems while they still can be corrected' (p.214). Therefore, the first pre-test of the questionnaire was an informal test with a total of fifteen Ph.D. research students and staff at Victoria University. The questionnaire was self-administered, and, after completion, respondents were asked questions in order to obtain feedback. Pre-testing was carried out to screen out problems in the design of the questionnaire and also to identify ambiguous questions, and respondent misunderstanding, that is whether the questions meant the same thing to all respondents (Zikmund 2000). Qualitative questions were also used at the first pre-testing stage, asking respondents for more variables which affected them in getting to know about, buying and being satisfied with Thai food.

Results showed that thirteen respondents revealed confusion over two similar questions. They also complained that there were too many items to choose from, which they found to be boring and time consuming. As a result, these were condensed into one question. Another eight questions needed to be refined to make them easier for respondents to read and understand. Seven respondents did not answer all the questions and did not use the provided scales. They just ticked the appropriate box and mentioned that they were not sure whether the questions were about general cuisine or only about Thai food.

The first draft questionnaire was thus not clear enough for respondents to understand the scales or to answer questions properly. The revised questions were reformatted to ensure that all questions related to the proposed model and were understandable to respondents. The questionnaire was pre-tested again with ten respondents conveniently drawn from the original 15. Some useful comments from respondents were received after the second pre-tested, and the second questionnaire was found to be understandable and in a better format than the first. Again, qualitative questions were used with the same respondents to explore for more variables and more questions and this yielded variables and useful questions to assist in the development of the pilot test questionnaire. Eventually, the revised questions were reformatted to ensure all questions fitted into the proposed model before the launch of the questionnaire for pilot testing with customers at two Thai restaurants in Melbourne.

Pilot testing technique

After the second pre-test the questionnaire was modified from a four single (A4 size paper) page format to one single page (A3 size paper) back-to-back book format. The pilot test questionnaire comprised 163 items. The questionnaire was commented on by professional researchers at Victoria University before the pilot test was launched. The survey questionnaire was pilot tested again in order to ensure that respondents could understand the questions, that the orders of questions flowed in a logical sequence, wording of questions and format were clear, and time taken to answer the questions was reasonable (McLennan 1999; Zikmund 2000; Pallant 2002; Nardi 2003). The pilot testing technique was also used to confirm the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, including information on the design, layout, wording, and measurement scales (Kivela et al.1999b).

Pilot testing is used for formally testing a survey questionnaire with a small sample of respondents similar to those in the final survey in order to maximize the validity of the results and ensure that consequent modifications to the survey questionnaire are appropriate (McLennan 1999; Zikmund 2000; Pallant 2002; Nardi 2003). McLennan suggests that a simple and small survey needs about 50 respondents, whereas a larger and more complex survey need about 200 or more respondents for a pilot test.

In this present study the pilot test was conducted over a one-month period from 12 July to 15 August 2003. Questionnaires were distributed to customers after they had finished their lunch or dinner in two Thai restaurants, for more realistic information (Kara et al. 1995; Kara et al. 1997). All respondents were screened to exclude Thai nationals before they filled in the questionnaire. Data were collected from a total of 115 respondents. In addition, an alternative method of pilot test data collection was prepared. Eighty-two questionnaires with prepaid

envelopes were distributed to people who had no time, or who refused to fill in the questionnaires on the spot. The total number of responses received by mail was eleven (response rate 13.41%). Five people declined to fill in the questionnaires on the spot and did not want to take the questionnaires to fill in at home. The total number of incomplete questionnaires was fifteen because the data were collected during lunch time on a weekday. Respondents had been in a hurry to go back to work, and some of them suggested that the questionnaire was too long to fill in during lunch time. Therefore, data from a total of 111 respondents were useable for analyses for the pilot test study using the SPSS program (Version 12).

• Findings of the Pilot Test Study

Useful data were gathered at the pilot tested questionnaire stage. Firstly, during data collection on the spot, respondents were asked whether they understood all questions after completing the questionnaires. As all participants understood the questions, results confirmed that the pilot-tested questionnaire was more understandable to respondents than the earlier pre-tested questionnaires.

Secondly, the average time it took respondents to complete the pilot test questionnaire was observed. The average times taken to fill in the first, second, third, and fourth pages were 3.85, 3.78, 3.05, and 2.2 minutes respectively. Hence, the average time to fill in the complete questionnaire was almost 13 minutes (12.88 minutes). This result was reasonable and acceptable because it was expected that it should not take more than fifteen minutes for filling in the survey questionnaire.

Thirdly, it was apparent that people were more likely to fill in questionnaires at dinner time rather than at lunch time. Collecting data at lunch-time, especially on Mondays, was difficult due to the time constraint on customers to get back to work. However, people were more relaxed and more willing to complete questionnaires on Saturday and Sunday at both lunch and dinner times. Despite this, and even though the time needed to fill in the questionnaire was only around thirteen minutes, five customers were unable to participate. As a result, an

alternative system was devised which provided an option for a questionnaire with prepaid envelopes.

Fourthly, there were two questions for which respondents unconsciously provided a biased answer. Respondents had forgotten the exact times and some could not answer how many times they had experienced Thai food before. Zikmund (2000) mentioned this kind of problem. However, the researcher wanted to evaluate whether respondents could provide the exact number of times that they had eaten Thai food and also wanted to use their answers in order to construct the answers for closed-end questions in the actual survey questionnaire. Respondents were asked 'Have you ever tasted Thai food in Thailand?', followed by an open-ended question 'If yes, how many times approximately?' Results showed that most of the respondents could not answer if they had tasted Thai food in Thailand more than fifty times. They could not remember the exact number of times. They just answered 'more than 50', 'more than 100', 'a thousand times', 'countless', 'many times'. Added to this, results showed that respondents who had tasted Thai food in Thailand less than thirty times could answer exactly, and wrote the exact number of times. Moreover, the second question was not clear as to whether respondents were being asked about experience with Thai food only in Australia, or including Thailand and other countries, or for the whole life experience. These two questions were modified to fix response options for respondents to select an answer (see Appendix 2, Q.1 and Q.2).

• Data Analysis for Pilot Test

The purpose of data analysis for the pilot test data stage was to use samples to check the reliability of the questionnaire before launching the actual survey for this study. Data from the completed questionnaires collected from 111 respondents were entered into the SPSS program for screening and cleaning the data using three steps suggested by Pallant (2002): checking for errors, finding the errors in the data file, and correcting the errors in the data file references. Data were examined for the frequencies for each of the items and all of the individual items and the scales to check for errors. Two ways were used at the pilot test stage: frequency statistics, which are used for checking categorical items; and

descriptive statistics which are used for checking continuous items (Pallant 2002). Reliability was also investigated at this stage. Results were used to compare with reliability of the actual survey questionnaire (see Section 4.3.7). The 111 respondents of the pilot tested study were excluded from the actual survey for this study. Sampling, sample size, and ways for recruitment of participants are discussed in next Section 4.3.2.

4.3.2 Sampling, Sample size, and Recruitment of Participants

This section consists of three main parts: sampling and sample size of the targeted population for this study, the strategy for recruitment of participants for increasing the response rate, and the response rate itself.

• Sampling

Two main types of sampling methods: probability sampling and nonprobability sampling are used in research studies (Babbie 1990, Zikmund 2000; Nardi 2003). In this study, a simple random sampling method, one of four types of probability sampling using a table of random numbers (Jaccard and Becker 2002), was used to select thirty Thai restaurants for interviews with the owners and to distribute 3,000 survey questionnaires to customers. In order to achieve an accurate simple random sample a complete list of all 255 Thai restaurants in Victoria was built up from Citysearch, 2001; Yellow Pages, 2001; and the Thai Restaurant Association of Australia. From this a random sample of thirty Thai restaurants was obtained. Thai restaurants which sell other Asian foods were excluded from this study. The targeted population were customers who were not Thais, and who already had experience with Thai food at Thai restaurants.

There were four main reasons for choosing this population for the customer sample. Firstly, from the researcher's experiences and observation of customers and Thai food sold in the supermarkets and Thai restaurants in Australia, it was found that Thai restaurants would have better potential for reaching this population, rather than supermarkets. Secondly, some of the questions in this study are not suitable to ask Thai people because Thai food is their native cuisine, leading to biased results for descriptive data analysis for the total respondents. Thirdly, generally Thai people rarely dine in at Thai restaurants. This may be because they can cook Thai food for themselves or for other reasons. Lastly, it was the researcher's intention to study why, how, and what people who are not Thais think about Thai food.

A study by Kivela et al. (1999b) identified four main restaurant categories (1) fine dining or gourmet restaurants that have target groups who have high incomes, (2) theme or ambience restaurants usually featuring authentic cuisine that target the middle market, (3) family or popular restaurants that target the lower middle market, and (4) fast-food restaurants that offer meals to be consumed on site or off-site for customers who require quick, convenient, economically priced meals, with fast service. Almost all Thai restaurants in Victoria fall into the second category of theme/ambience restaurants, and this is the category of Thai restaurants that was targeted in this study.

• Sample size

A sample size of respondents of more than 1,000, drawn from customers in thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria, was targeted. This number of targeted respondents was calculated from the formula that five respondents for each item in the questionnaire is enough in most cases (Tabachnick & Fidell 2001). In this study, the total of 163 items in the survey questionnaire was multiplied by five respondents for each item. Consequently, at least 1,000 respondents were needed to collect enough data for the inferential analysis.

• Recruitment of participants

The strategies for achieving a sufficient number of respondents to participate in this survey questionnaire and reducing the bias of responses and measurement errors in this study were adopted from Zikmund (2000) and Nardi (2003). The questionnaire was designed to be simple and easy for respondents to answer in a reasonable time through careful wording of questions, simple measurement scales and easy to use format (Zikmund 2000; Nardi 2003). Most questions were closed-ended in a matrix format, utilizing a Likert scale and grouping together statements that required responses on the same scale (Nardi 2003, p.68). An

attractive package of questionnaire, prepaid envelope and cover letter with logo and wording 'Thai Food Experience Survey' was presented to each customer (see Appendix 2). These questionnaires were delivered and explained personally to each customer after they had finished their meal. The researcher observed customers in two Thai fast-food restaurants and seven evening dine-in Thai restaurants to find out suitable times for administering the questionnaire prior to launching the pilot test, because it was intended that data collection would be from customers in Thai restaurants during actual meal periods. From these observations it was found that the best time to communicate with customers would be after they had finished their meals. This was because, at the beginning and during the meal, customers were not only stressed from hunger but there was also no space to put the questionnaires while plates, spoons, forks, tissues, and other food items were on the table. Most customers wanted to catch up and talk with their friends/relatives and discuss the menu together. Once the food arrived customers preferred to eat and continue chatting rather than filling in questionnaires. After customers had finished their meals the waitress/waiters cleared and cleaned the tables. At this time most customers ordered coffee or more drinks before asking for the bill. The researcher established that this relaxed time, when the table was clear, was most suited to polite communication with them. The researcher needed to concentrate in order to interrupt at an appropriate moment, but it was difficult to communicate with customers because they still kept chatting with their friends while drinking coffee. In addition, the inside of the restaurant was also noisy. The researcher therefore decided to wait until they had paid their bills and communicate with them outside the restaurants by giving them pre-paid envelopes in a questionnaire package to complete at home.

Moreover, a systematic sampling procedure (Zikmund 2000) was planned to collect data from every fourth customer entering the restaurant inviting them to participate as in similar previous studies (Kivela et al. 1999b; 2000). However, the researcher observed customers in a total of nine Thai restaurants and interviewed the owners/managers. From these observations, and also from discussions with Thai restaurant waitresses and a few owners, it was ascertained that almost all Thai restaurants are busy only on Friday and Saturday nights, closing on Mondays, and opening only for dinner. These reasons made the

researcher realize that for this study it would not be possible to collect data in a similar manner to that used by Kivela et al. as it would have taken more than six months or even a year to distribute 3,000 survey questionnaires to thirty restaurants. Further, a disadvantage of a systematic sampling procedure is that it may lose the first three potential customers or even the fourth customer if he/she does not agree to take the questionnaire. Hence, the earlier planned data collection technique needed to be changed from a systematic sampling procedure to convenience sampling with self-administered procedures.

The survey questionnaires were distributed direct to every customer who dined-in at Thai restaurants on the dates of the data collection (November 2003 to February 2004).

4.3.3 Response Rate

Response rates from previous studies reached a high 83.8% because data were collected directly from respondents (Kivela et al. 1999b; 2000). However, for the present study as most questionnaires were returned by mail, a response rate of around 30% was predicted as reasonable. Generally, response rates for questionnaires by mail are rarely more than 50% the first time around (Nardi 2003). Three thousand questionnaires were distributed to customers dining-in at thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria to attempt to reach a target of 1000 respondents for appropriate inferential analysis. There were one hundred customer samples in each restaurant. In a time frame of five months (November 2003 to March 2004) a total of 1,042 responses were received. However, a sample size of 1009 adult respondents was used, excluding thirty respondents (less than 18 years). The survey questionnaire in this study was considered as understandable to almost all respondents because only 3.2% of responses were incomplete.

4.3.4 Data Analysis Techniques of Quantitative Research

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program, version 12.0 was used for data analysis. For this study, statistical analysis of data and presentation strategies were dependent on the type of questions, number of

variables and scale of measurement used in the survey questionnaire, in agreement with Zikmund (2000) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998).

• Types of Data Analysis Techniques

Statistics for data analysis are classified into two main types, descriptive and inferential (Rowntree 1981; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Zikmund 2000; Tabachnick and Fidell 2001; Kerr, Hall, Kozub 2002; Antonius 2003). Descriptive statistics attempt to summarize observations and experience (Rowntree 1981), or describe samples of subjects in terms of variables or combinations of variables (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001). Inferential statistics use those observations as a basis for making estimates or predictions about what is likely to happen in the future (Rowntree 1981), or to 'test hypotheses about differences in populations on the basis of measurements made on samples of subjects' (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001, p.7).

The distinction between descriptive and inferential statistics depends upon samples and populations (Rowntree 1981, p.19). Tabachnick and Fidell noted that descriptive statistics are used to provide estimations of central tendency and the like in the population if reliable differences are found. These are called 'parameter estimates'. Generally, researchers are interested in both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze their data. Many assumptions of multivariate statistical methods are used only for inferential analysis. However, there are more limitations on inferential analysis than on descriptive analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell).

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p.115) *descriptive statistics*, graphs, or combinations of the two are not sufficient for most research purposes, particularly for estimation and testing of hypotheses. Testing hypotheses is based on estimations of how much error is involved in obtaining a difference between groups, or a relationship between variables. In this study, descriptive statistics include presentations of results through simple statistics and graphic displays. The main objective of these analyses has been to provide images and/or

summaries that can help the reader understand the nature of the variables and their relationships.

This study employs a commonly used method for descriptive data analysis and presentation: 'measures of central tendency'. Measures of central tendency summarizes a group of observations/scores into a single score. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) also explain that mode, mean, and median are all measures of central tendency and are single scores that represent groups of events/people. Mode is the most frequent score in a group. Mean is the average of scores (sum divided by number of scores). In other words, mean is the average of all scores in the distribution, it contains information regarding all members of the group. Median is the score at or below which 50% of the scores fall (it divides the group of scores into two equal halves). In other words, the median is the score in the middle of the distribution. Mode can be calculated for variables that are measured on nominal scales; median is used to measure ordinal (rank order) scales; mean is used to measure on an ordinal or higher (interval or ratio) scale.

It is important to understand the type of scales for measurement before choosing which statistics are suitable for data analysis. In analysis of this study three type of scales have been used for measurement: nominal, ordinal, and interval (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Zikmund 2000; Antonius 2003). In reporting results for questions in the interview questionnaire (Chapter 5) and the survey questionnaire (Chapter 6), frequencies, percentages, mean, median, mode, and standard deviation were used for descriptive analysis.

Because descriptive analysis is not suited to testing the hypotheses in this study *inferential statistics* have also been used. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) and Pallant (2005) classified statistical techniques into two major means of finding results: to explore differences between/among groups and to explore relationships between/ among variables. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) have developed 'The Quantitative Data Analysis Matrix' for gaining inferential statistics in this study. They maintain that there are two ways of finding out results for testing hypotheses: results for 'Differences Between Groups' and results for 'Relationship Between Variables'. In this study, when results for 'Differences

Between Groups' are required, in agreement with Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), an analysis of variance (ANOVA) has been used for *interval/ordinal* data. When results for 'Relationships Between Variables' are required, then Pearson correlation, multiple regression analysis and factor analysis have been used for *interval/ordinal* data.

1) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

An ANOVA analysis was suitable for testing the null hypotheses *Ho1* to *Ho12a*, *Ho13 to Ho15*, and Ho20 to *Ho24* (detailed in Chapter 3, Section 3.6), because it is an hypothesis-testing procedure that is used to evaluate mean differences between two or more populations (called independent variables) and one dependent variable (Gravetter and Wallnau 2004). These twenty null hypotheses aimed to find out the significant differences between groups for the adoption of Thai food 'frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner' at Thai restaurants. Moreover, a continuous dependent variable 'frequency of eating-out for Thai food for dinner' scores, using a five-point Likert scale from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often) was also appropriate for using ANOVA because Sekaran (2000, p.415) noted that 'parametric tests can be applied to interval and ratio data and also ordinal data where they are expressed in numeric form and "interval" features are present. This is the case for the data collected for a number of the questions in the survey questionnaire.

Antonius (2003) and Gravetter and Wallnau (2004) emphasized that one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is similar to a T-test, but is used for two or more groups, whereas T-tests are used for two groups. The T-test as a procedure of hypothesis testing is more appropriate when the sample is small (less than or equal to thirty individuals), but it can also be used for large samples, as the Tdistribution looks increasingly like a normal distribution as the number of respondents grows larger (Antonius 2003). In addition, Gravetter and Wallnau (2004) highlight that both ANOVA and T-tests 'are simply two different ways of doing exactly the same job' of using sample data to test hypotheses about populations for mean differences (p.397). Thus, ANOVA was used for testing the mean significant differences for two and more groups in the adoption of Thai food because 'ANOVA has a tremendous advantage over T-tests' and it provided the researcher with much greater flexibility in designing experiments and interpreting results (Gravetter and Wallnau 2004, p.397).

Three main types of analysis of variance (ANOVA) that can be used for testing hypotheses are one-way ANOVA between-groups, two-way between-groups ANOVA, and mixed between-within subjects ANOVA (Pallant 2002; 2005). In this present study, one-way ANOVA was used to test the null hypotheses *Ho2* to *Ho12a*, *Ho13 to Ho15*, and *Ho20* to *Ho25*) because there was one independent variable (factor) with a number of different levels of groups, and one dependent variable. Two-way between-groups ANOVA was used to test the null hypothesis *Ho1* because there were two independent variables (gender and age group), and one dependent variable. A mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was not used for testing hypotheses in this study because independent variables were not suited to this type of ANOVA analysis.

Therefore, using the SPSS program in accordance with Pallant (2002; 2005), five major tests of an ANOVA analysis were used for evaluating the results of the null hypotheses in Chapter 7 (Section 7.1, Section 7.4 and Section 7.5) including:

I) Test of Homogeneity of Variances: used for testing whether the variance in scores is the same for each of three groups. A significance value of Levene's test of more than .05 indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is not violated. This means that the significance value of ANOVA (p<.05) using Test of Between-Subjectives Effects can be used to interpret results in terms of the significant difference for the mean scores on the dependent variable for between or among groups. However, if Levene's Test found that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is violated (p<.05), an alternative test using Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welsh and Brown-Forsythe) is recommended.

II) Test of Between-Subjects Effects (ANOVA) provides between-groups and within-groups sums of squares, degrees of freedom (df), a significant F test, a significance value (p), and Partial Eta Squared. A F ratio is calculated which represents the variance between the groups, divided by the variance within the groups. A large F ratio indicates that there is more variability between the groups.

A significant F test means that the null hypothesis can be rejected, which states that the population means are equal. A significance value of less than or equal to .01 means that there is a significant difference somewhere among the mean scores on the dependent variable among groups. Nonetheless, the significance value does not tell which group is different from another group.

III) The Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test using Tukey HSD is used for measuring exactly where the differences are among the groups. With the large sample size (1009 respondents) used in this study, post-hoc comparisons with an appropriate alpha level of .01 have also been designed to protect against the possibility of an increased Type 1 error. A significance value of less than or equal to .01 was used in this study to indicate that the two groups being compared are significantly different from one another.

IV) Test of Mean Differences provides information about the number of respondents in each group, means, and standard deviation.

V) Lastly, *Partial Eta squared value* (Eta squared) is used for evaluating the actual differences in the mean scores of groups.

Eta squared = <u>Sum of squares between-groups</u> Total sum of squares

In this study the actual differences in the mean scores of groups were tested by using the Partial Eta square (Eta squared) value. In agreement with Cohen (1988), results of the Eta squared value are classified as .01 for a small effect, .06 for a medium effect, and .14 for a large effect.

2) Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was appropriate for testing the null hypotheses *Ho16*, *Ho17*, *and Ho18* in order to answer Research Question 4 (results in Section 7.2) and testing *Ho19* in order to answer Research Question 5 (results in Section 7.3), because it is an hypothesis-testing procedure that is used to evaluate and describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two continuous

variables. These three null hypotheses aimed to find out the significant relationship between overall satisfaction of the 4Ps Marketing Mix (Product, Price, Place, Promotion) and overall liking of Thai food, overall intent to repeatpurchase Thai food and overall intent to recommend Thai food to friends.

Two types of correlation analysis (parametric technique) used in research are bivariate correlation: Pearson product-moment coefficient (between two variables), and partial correlation (to explore the relationship between two variables, while controlling for another variable). Bivariate correlation: Pearson product-moment coefficient was designed to test the significant relationships between two variables with an interval level (continuous) variable. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) can only take on values from -1 to +1. The sign indicates whether there is a positive correlation or a negative correlation. A positive correlation (+1) means that one variable increases, so too does the other. If the correlation between two variables is positive and close to 1, the variables have a strong positive linear correlation. A negative correlation (-1) means that one variable increases, the other decreases. If the correlation between two variables is negative and close to -1, the variables have a strong negative linear correlation. Interpretation of the value of Pearson correlation used in this study followed the guidelines from Cohen (1988) as a correlation of r = 0 indicates no relationship at all; a correlation of r = 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation; a correlation of r = -1.0 indicates a perfect negative correlation; a correlation of r =.10 to .29 or r = -.10 to .29 indicates a small correlation; a correlation of r = .30 to .49 or r = -.30 to -.49 indicates a medium correlation; a correlation of r = .50 to 1.0or r = -.50 to -1.0 indicates a large correlation. Correlation analysis was used to test four null hypotheses as mentioned above and is described in Chapter 7 (Section 7.2 and Section 7.3).

3) Multiple Regression Analysis

There are three different types of multiple regression analysis: standard, hierarchical, and stepwise (Pallant 2005). *Standard multiple regression* is the commonly used for entering all the independent/predictor variables into the equation at the same time. Each independent variable is evaluated in terms of its predictive power, over and above that offered by all other independent variables.

In *hierarchical regression*, the independent variables are entered into the equation in the order specified by the researcher, based on theoretical grounds. In *stepwise regression* the researcher provides SPSS with a list of independent variables, and then allows the program to select which variables it will enter, and in which order they go into the equation, based on a set of statistical criteria. There are three different versions of this approach: forward selection, backward deletion, and stepwise regression. Standard Multiple Regression analysis was chosen as appropriate for testing the null hypothesis Ho12b (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6) because it is an hypothesis-testing procedure used to explore the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and a number of continuous independent variables/predictors (Pallant 2005). The null hypothesis Ho12b aims to investigate which of six independent variables of subjective knowledge about traditional Thai food is the best for predicting the dependent variable of 'frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner' (results in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.3).

4) Cluster Analysis

In order to classify individuals into mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive groups with high homogeneity within clusters and low homogeneity between clusters, a multivariate cluster analysis is used (Sekaran 2000, p.409). The purpose of using cluster analysis in this study was to use data from the sample to obtain information about specific, smaller subgroups (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1998). In another words, it was used for classifying respondents into groups so that each respondent was similar to others in the cluster with respect to some predetermined selection criterion. The respondents within clusters will be close together, and different clusters will be far apart (Hair et al. 1998, p.473). The final number of clusters to be formed by using this analysis is based upon practical considerations, previous research, and theoretical foundations because there is no standard procedure for determining the number of clusters (Hair et al. 1998).

5) Factor Analysis was used in this study for reducing 'a vast number of variables to a meaningful, interpretable, and manageable set of factors' (Sekaran 2000, p.409). The two primary uses for factor analysis are summarization and

data reduction. In summarizing the data, factor analysis derives underlying dimensions that, when interpreted and understood, describe the data in a much smaller number of concepts than the original individual variables. Data reduction can be achieved by calculating scores for each underlying dimension and substituting them for the original variables. (Hair et al. 1998, p.90).

Factor analysis is an interdependence technique in which all variables are simultaneously considered, each related to all others, and still employing the concept of the variate, the linear composite of variables. In factor analysis, the variates (factors) are formed to maximize their explanation of the entire variable set, not to predict a dependent variables(s). In this study, the measurement of construct validity for the survey questionnaire was tested by using factor analysis based on the actual data from the survey (details in Section 4.3.6).

4.3.5 Valid and Missing Data in Survey Questionnaire Responses

'Valid data' refers to answered questions, and 'missing data' refers to unanswered questions in the questionnaire. In analyzing the significance of both validated and missed answers, two methods were selected as suited to this study: 'exclude cases pairwise' and 'exclude cases listwise' (Pallant 2002; 2005). The option of 'exclude cases pairwise' was used for descriptive analysis (see results in Chapter 6). In this method responses are only excluded when necessary information has been omitted. The 'exclude cases listwise' option was used for the inferential analysis (see results in Chapter 7) because it provides the same number of responses for every item in each question. In this method responses are omitted when there are missing variables, so it can limit sample size because it deletes all respondents, even when missing only one item. However, this method was still suitable for use in this study because there was an adequate number of respondents and there was a low percentage of missing responses for each item (see Appendix 4). Consequently, there was no problem of a limited sample size for this study. In accordance with Pallant (2002; 2005) the 'replace with mean' technique was not used in this study because it has the potential of severely distorting the results of analysis.

In this study, the two methods using missing value analysis were employed to find out the percentage of missing values for each item by using descriptive statistical analysis in the SPSS program. Overall results showed that the majority (39/40) of questions showed a high percentage of valid responses (see Table 4.1). In other words, for almost all of the questions missing responses for each item were less than 5 percent of the total. Only one item in question 20 showed a significant level of missing data (30.2%). This question asked respondents what, in general, was the price they expected to pay for a whole meal for Thai food (breakfast). As there were no Thai restaurants that operated their business for breakfast in Victoria, this item was irrelevant, so the overall construction of the survey questionnaire in this study can be considered as having produced a high level of valid data (Appendix 4).

4.3.6 Validity of the Survey Questionnaire

In this study, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12.0 software program was employed to evaluate the construct validity and reliability of the survey questionnaire. Validity tests of the questionnaire were performed to ensure that the questions measured the right concept, while reliability tests were used to test the stability and consistency of the questionnaire items, using interval scales for their measurement (Sekaran 2000). Validity is discussed in this section, while reliability is explained in Section 4.3.7.

• Validity of the Survey Questionnaire

Sekaran (2000, p.207) emphasized that reliability is necessary but it is an insufficient measure of the quality of the questionnaire. A measure of responses may establish high stability and consistency, but it may not be the concept that one set out to measure. The questionnaire needed to be tested for validity in order to ensure the ability of the scales to measure the intended concept of this present study. Two types of validity test: *content validity* and *construct validity* were used to test the validity of the survey questionnaire (Sekaran 2000; Zikmund 2000; Nardi 2003). The criterion-related validity technique was not applicable as respondents were not selected on the basis of their differences.

I) Content Validity

In order to ensure that the survey questionnaire covered all items for the measurement of a concept for this study, content validity in the formulation of questions was obtained in three stages. These are observational studies, pretesting, and pilot testing techniques (McLennan, 1999). Firstly, the observational studies technique was used to observe and elicit opinions and comments from respondents during their completion of the questionnaires at both pre-testing and pilot testing stage. Secondly, the questionnaire was pre-tested by fifteen Ph.D. research students and staff at Victoria University. This stage aimed to ensure that the questions were clear and understandable to respondents and provided suitable answers (Zikmund, 2000). Further, the questionnaire was also pre-tested by experts who had Ph.D. degrees (a senior lecturer in business research methods and in psychological research and a senior lecturer and researchers in hospitality and marketing areas. They proof-read the questionnaire content and gave valuable feedback on simplification of the format and the appropriate number of respondents needed. The purpose of this stage was to ensure that 'the content of the scale appears to be adequate' and 'the measure provides adequate coverage of the concept' (Zikmund 2000, p.282). The survey questionnaire in this study was considered to be content valid at this stage in accordance with Zikmund (2000) and Kidder and Judd (1986 cited in Sekaran 2000) who noted that if the content of the scales and the measure of the concept are evaluated by a group of professional or experts judges then they will be accurate and adequate. Thirdly, the survey questionnaire was pilot-tested using 111 respondents from customers of two Thai restaurants in Melbourne. This stage focused on two main aims: (1) to measure the content validity of the survey questionnaire with the actual potential respondents before launching the final survey study, and (2) to measure the reliability of questions (interval scales) by using Cronbach's alpha technique.

Results from the pilot-test of the survey questionnaire indicated that all questions were suitable for measuring the concepts in the proposed model of the consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. The questionnaire items were developed based upon the concepts from theory and previous studies (see Chapter 2 and Chapter 3). Therefore, it was also confirmed

that the content of the theoretical items could considered to be valid. However, measurement of content validity of the questionnaire was considered as essential for testing the validity of measures (Sekaran 2000). Consequently, the construct validity technique was further considered to measure the questionnaire by using factor analysis.

II) Construct Validity using Factor Analysis Technique

In this study the measurement of construct validity for the survey questionnaire was tested by using factor analysis based on the actual data from the survey (Zikmund 2000; Sekaran 2000; Nardi 2003). The reason for using factor analysis was because it is an essential tool in scale development and allows one to determine the number of factors underlying a set of items so that procedures such as computing Cronbach's alpha can be performed correctly (DeVellis 2003, p.137). In addition, factor analysis is used to investigate whether items are measuring the same concept, to assess the validity of the questions and to identify and confirm items which are most appropriate for each of the factors or dimensions (Hair et al. 1998; Sekaran 2000; Bryman and Cramer 1994). Factor analysis also provides the nature of the latent variables underlying the items selected by respondents. Therefore, construct validity using the factor analysis technique was tested in this study to check for consistency, to reduce items into factors and to confirm whether or not the theorized dimensions emerged (Sekaran 2000, p. 309). Two main approaches for using factor analysis are exploratory and confirmatory (Pallant 2002; 2005). Exploratory factor analysis was used to explore the interrelationships among the set of variables and to reduce the number of variables by grouping them into factors. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to confirm specific hypotheses or theories concerning the structure underlying a set of items or variables.

In determining whether the data sets were suitable for factor analysis, five assessments were carried out.

- Scales of Measurement;
- Sample size;
- Bartlett's test of sphericity;

- Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), and
- Factor loading

I) Assessment of Scales of Measurement

The first assessment involved checking that the scales of measurement used were interval scales, because factor analysis requires continuous measurement scales and data variables with a reduced number of categories, and dichotomous scales should be avoided (Comrey and Lee 1992). In this study, there were seven questions (Q.12, Q.13, Q.16, Q.17, Q.23, Q.24, Q.25) using interval scales which were suitable for the measurement of factor analysis.

II) Assessment of Sample Size

The second assessment involved checking sample size. There is no absolute for how large a sample should be for using factor analysis because it depends on how many items/variables are used for the measurement. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Pallant (2002; 2005) emphasized that it is safe to proceed with factor analysis if there is an adequate sample size and if the ratio of cases to items or variables is also adequate. The larger the samples the better they are for using factor analysis because the correlation coefficients among the variables are more reliable for larger samples than for small samples. Added to this, Comrey and Lee (1992, p.216) emphasized that 'as the number of observations increases, the reliability of the obtained correlations goes up, although with diminishing returns'. A sample size of at least 300 respondents would be suitable for factor analysis, while a smaller sample size of at least 150 respondents would be adequate if solutions have several high loading marker variables above .80 (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001, p. 588). Although Nunnally (1978 cited in Pallant 2005) recommends using 10 respondents to each item, others suggest that 5 respondents for each item is enough (see discussion in Tabachnick & Fidell). Added to this, Tinsley and Tinsley (1987 cited in DeVellis 2003) suggest a ratio of about 5 to 10 respondents per item for up to 300 respondents. They suggest that when the sample is as large as 300, the ratio can be relaxed. Consequently, Comrey and Lee emphasize that a sample size of 1000 is more than adequate for most factor analytic purposes. In addition, they also classify a sample of 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good, and 1,000 as excellent for factor analysis, (p.217).

In this study, the sample of 1009 respondents gathered from the survey of customers at thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria may, according to Comrey and Lee's observations, be considered as excellent for testing the construct validity using factor analysis. Further, to ensure a ratio of at least five respondents per item, the data were checked for sample size sufficiency by calculation of the total number of respondents divided by the total items in each question. Results in Table 4.1 (see Ratio per item) show that, even without missing data, there was still sufficient a ratio of respondents per item for testing factor analysis for all these seven questions.

	Number of				
Factor Analysis	Respondents	KMO	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
(Questions)			Approx.Chi- square	df	Sig.
Question 12	988	0.889	6088.503	15	0.000
Question 13	980	0.677	1383.463	15	0.000
Question 16	983	0.647	459.822	10	0.000
Question 17	917	0.906	10322.690	120	0.000
Question 23	970	0.841	7089.914	105	0.000
Question 24	964	0.840	7028.786	66	0.000
Question 25	959	0.878	9476.129	105	0.000

 Table 4.1 Results of Factor Analysis

 (Sample Size, KMO, and Bartlett's Test)

Sources: Data drawn from the survey questionnaire (2003/04); see Appendix 2 Note : KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy.

III) Assessment of Bartlett's test of sphericity

The third assessment involved Bartlett's test of sphericity. Bartlett's test requires a significance level of p<.05 for factor analysis to be considered appropriate. In this study results show that the assessment of factorability of the data for these seven questions yielded a significance p=.000 (p<.05), (Table 4.1, above).

IV) Assessment of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)

The fourth assessment involved the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. The KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with .6 suggested as the minimum value for a good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell 2001). Results for the KMO are shown in Table 4.1, above. All KMO values were found to be >.60 which indicated that the data of this study had the significant values for the measurement of sampling adequacy.

V) Assessment of Factor Loadings

The last assessment involved factor loadings, which indicate the strength of intercorrelation among the items or the degree of the correlation between the variable and the factor. There is no statistical test that can establish the significance level of a rotated factor loading or how high the correlation between a data variable and a factor should be before it can be regarded as 'significant' for interpretive purposes (Comrey and Lee 1992, p.242). However, there is general agreement (Hair et al. 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell 2001; Pallant 2002) that the cutoff level of factor loadings of .30 is considered to be adequate to provide some interpretive value. Comrey and Lee (p.243) considered factor loading of .32 as poor; .45 as fair; .55 as good; .63 as very good; and .71 as excellent. Hair et al. (1998, p.111) noted that 'factor loadings greater than .30 are considered to meet the minimal level; loadings of .40 are considered more important; and if the loadings are .50 or greater, they are considered practically significant'. Results of seven questions in this current study showed that factor loadings were significant and considered to meet the minimal level (.30) for using factor analysis as follows: question 12 (.70); question 13 (.60); question 16 (.60); question 17 (.45); question 23 (.45); question 24 (.65); and question 25 (.55). The results of these seven questions from the survey questionnaire were therefore tested for construct validity and showed that data were suitable for factor analysis as in the above discussion.

In the next stage the techniques used for extracting the number of factors in this study and also for presenting the results for the seven questions (see Table 4.2 to Table 4.8, below) will be discussed.

In this study principal component analysis was employed instead of principal axis factoring analysis for factor extraction, because it is the most commonly used approach, simpler and easier to interpret data (Hair et al. 1998; Pallant 2002). Four techniques were considered to assist in determinating the number of factors to maintain in this study (Comrey and Lee 1992; Pallant 2002, 2005).

• First, Kaiser's criterion or the eigenvalue of 1.0 or more was retained for further investigation.

• Second, Catell's scree test (screeplot) which involves plotting each of the eigenvalues of the factors.

• Third, a rotation method was employed: varimax with Kaiser normalization technique, for extraction of the number of factors, because this method provides a clearer separation of the number of factors and it is considered to be simple to interpret data (Pallant 2002; 2005).

• Finally, in accordance with Pallant (2002 p.175) who emphasized that "it is up to the researcher to determine the number of factors that he/she considers best describes the underlying relationship among the variables'. This involves the need for finding a simple solution with as few factors as possible and the need to explain as much of the variance in the original data set as possible. Furthermore, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) emphasized that the researcher needs to trial different numbers of factors until a satisfactory solution is found. Therefore, this study also used a prior criterion (based on the theoretical concepts and previous studies) in order to select the number of factors to extract.

• Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis

As described earlier, results of tests of the data met the requirements for using factor analysis. This study used a prior criterion to select the number of factors to extract, based on the theoretical concepts of factors affecting consumer decision making for the adoption of Thai food. In this study, the form of factor analysis used was principal components analysis with varimax rotation. Six questions were measured for the construct validity, results are shown as below.

Results of Question 12

The total of six items of the subjective knowledge concept were tested for construct validity. Results (Table 4.2) revealed that there was one factor, with 79.07% of the variance explained. All six items had strong factor loadings above 0.85. Thus these were considered to be of practically significant value according to Hair et al. (1998) and an excellent value according to Comrey and Lee (1992).

 Table 4.2 Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis (Component Matrix)

Question 12	Component 1	
Knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food	.923	
Knowledge of the authentic aroma of Thai food	.914	
Knowledge of the authentic taste of Thai food	.893	
Knowledge of the traditional way of eating Thai food	.883	
Knowledge of the traditional way of ordering Thai food	.865	
Knowledge of the traditional Thai dish names	.855	

1 component extracted. Total % of variance explained = 79.07%

Results of Question 13

The total of six items relating to the important factors affecting customers when they order Thai dishes at Thai restaurants were tested for construct validity, and two concepts were tested for construct validity by using principal component factor analysis. Results (Table 4.3) revealed that there were two factors with a total 60.12% of the variance explained. All six items had strong factor loadings above 0.65, thus these were considered to be of practically significant value according to Hair (1998) and very good value according to Comrey and Lee (1992). Factor 1 identified three items of 'Recommendation by word-of-mouth' which had a factor loadings ranging from .674 to .885. Factor 2 identified three items of 'menu' which had a factor loadings ranging from .619 to .747.

Table 4.3 Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis(Rotated Component Matrix)

Question 13	Component	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
The way of ordering Thai food : Recommended by a waitress	.885	
The way of ordering Thai food : Recommended by an owner	.881	
The way of ordering Thai food : Recommended by friends	.674	
The way of ordering Thai food : Name of Thai dishes		.747
The way of ordering Thai food : Description of Thai dishes		.667
The way of ordering Thai food : Picture of Thai dishes		.619

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Total % of variance explained = 60.12%

Results for Question 16

The total of five items relating to the important factors affecting customers in deciding to eat Thai food were tested for construct validity. Results (Table 4.4) revealed three factors with a total of 74.42% of the variance explained. All five items had strong factor loadings above 0.60, thus these were considered to be of practically significant value according to Hair et al. (1998) and very good value according to Comrey and Lee (1992). Factor 1 identified two items of 'self-actualization needs' which had a factor loading ranging from .806 to .811. Factor 2 identified two items 'physiological needs' which had a loading ranging from .639 to .907. Factor 3 identified one item with a factor loading .888, called 'socialization needs'.

Table 4.4 Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis (Rotated Component Matrix)

Question 16	Component			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	
Because I want different eating experience	.811			
Because Thai food is fashionable	.806			
Because hungry		.907		
Because Thai food is nutritious & healthy		.639		
Because I want to socialize			.888	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 5 iterations. Total % of variance explained = 74.42%

Results of Question 17

The total of sixteen items relating to the important sources of information affecting customers to make a decision to eat Thai food were tested for construct validity, using principal components factor analysis. Thirteen items had strong factor loadings above 0.60, thus these were considered to be of practically significant value according to Hair et al. (1998) and very good value according to Comrey and Lee (1992). Two items (Thai friends and persons who are satisfied with Thai food) were classified as practically significant; and only one item (person who works in Thai restaurants) was classified as more important by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). Therefore, these sixteen items were included to use for factor analysis. Results (Table 4.5) revealed that there were three factors, total 65.98% of the variance explained. The first factor consisted of eight items with factor loading from .658 to .874, named 'mass media'. The second factor consisted of five items with factor loading from .480 to .834, called 'word-of-mouth'. The third factor consisted of three items with a factor loading from .451 to .732, called 'personal experience'.

Question 17	Component				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3		
Television ,	.874				
Radio	.871				
Internet	.847				
Yellow pages	.845				
Newspaper	.764				
Food magazine	.752				
Brochure (Thai restaurant)	.667				
Thai cookery book	.658				
Colleagues		.834			
Friends		.785			
Family/Relatives		.730			
Neighbours		.726			
Thai friends		.480			
Personal experience			.732		
Persons who are satisfied with Thai food		.478	.572		
Persons who work in Thai restaurants			.451		

Table 4.5 Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis (Rotated Component Matrix)

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 6 iterations. Total % of variance explained = 65.98%

Results for Question 24

The total of twelve items relating to the important factors affecting customers to feel that they had authentic Thai food and to repeat purchase of Thai food were tested for for construct validity. Results (Table 4.6) revealed two factors with a total of 60.85% of the variance explained. All items had strong factor loadings above 0.60, thus these were considered to be of practically significant value according to Hair et al. (1998) and very good value according to Comrey and Lee (1992). Factor 1 consisted of seven items which had a factor loading from ranging .670 to .807, called 'factors affecting repeat purchase'. Factor 2 consisted of five items with factor loading ranging from .734 to .812, called 'factors affecting an authentic Thai food'.

Table 4.6	Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis
	(Rotated Component Matrix)

Question 24	Component		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	
I knew more about Thai food	.807		
I knew more about Thailand	.803		
Thai foods were recommended to me	.773		
Thailand had a positive image for me	.771		
Thai restaurants were recommended to me	.767		
I knew how to cook Thai food	.674		
Thai foods had authentic Thai taste	.670		
Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style		.812	
Thai food is served by a Thai waitress/waiter		.803	
Waitress/waiter wears a traditional Thai suit		.786	
Thai restaurant is owned by Thais		.760	
Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef		.734	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Total % of variance explained = 60.85%

Results for Question 25

The total of fifteen items relating to the important factors affecting customers to make the decision to eat Thai Food were tested for construct validity by using principal components factor analysis. Results (Table 4.7) revealed four factors with a total of 72.72% of the variance explained. All items had strong factor loadings close to and above 0.60, thus these were considered to be of practically significant value according to Hair et al. (1998) and very good value according to Comrey and Lee (1992). The first consisted of seven items which had a factor loading ranging from .575 to .851 called 'product'; the second consisted of three

items (.912 to .943) called 'promotion'; the third consisted of three items (.569 to .855) called 'price'; the fourth consisted of two items (.609 to .754) called 'place'.

Table 4.7	Results of Construct Validity using Factor Analysis
	(Rotated Component Matrix)

Question 25: How satisfied have you been with Thai food, considering the	Component				
whole eating experience?	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	
Aroma of Thai food	.851				
Taste of Thai food	.791				
Appearance of Thai food	.782			Ĩ	
Quality of Thai food	.723				
Spiciness of Thai food	.689				
Variety of Thai food	.687				
Nutritional value of Thai food	.575				
Special gifts from Thai restaurant		.943		_	
Promotion: Win a trip to Thailand		.924			
Special discount period		.912			
Reasonable price			.855		
Value for money			.843		
Portion size			.569		
Decorated restaurant in Thai style				.754	
Convenient location				.609	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 6 iterations. Total % of variance explained = 72.72%

4.3.7 Reliability of the Survey Questionnaire Responses

There are four major methods, test-retest, parallel-form, internal consistency and split-half used for evaluating reliability of the responses (Sekaran 2000; Zikmund 2000; Nardi 2003). Both test-retest and parallel-form methods are established by testing for stability reliability. The test-retest method was not appropriate for measurement of reliability in this study because the nature of the data collection method, involving different customers every day at thirty Thai restaurants, made it impossible to administer the same questionnaire to the same respondents at two separate times to test for stability, as this method requires. In addition Zikmund (2000) emphasizes problems that may occur with the measures of test-retest method, as results from the second test may be influenced by the results of the first test and respondents' attitude may be changed over the period of time. The

parallel-form reliability method was also not selected as a test for use in this study because it requires the use of two alternative questionnaires (similar items and the same response format with only the wordings and the ordering of questions changed) with the same respondents at two different times (Sekaran 2000).

Another two methods (split-half and internal consistency) are established by testing for consistency reliability (Sekaran 2000). The split-half reliability method is suited for checking internal consistency when there is a large number of items in one question. This method was not employed for this study because the results of reliability may diversify, as it depends on how to split the items into two halves (Sekaran, 2000).

Therefore, the internal consistency reliability method was considered the most appropriate for this present study because it allows the use of Cronbach's alpha to test the consistency of respondents' answers to all the items in a measure (Sekaran 2000). Cronbach's alpha measures the internal consistency reliability for multipoint-scaled items and indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another, including how well they fit together as a set. In this case the reliability of a measure indicates error free (without bias) data and offers consistency in measurements across time and the various items in the instrument (Sekaran 2000).

This test computes in terms of average intercorrelations among items measuring the concept. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability (Sekaran 2000). A minimum value of .50 for Cronbach's alpha is considered adequate as an indication of reliability (Hair et al. 1998, Anderson and Black 1995 cited in Kivela 1999a). In addition, however, Sekaran indicates that the reliabilities where alpha is less than .60 are considered to be poor, those in the .60 to .70 range are acceptable, and those over .80 are good.

Cronbach's alpha statistic was used to test the reliability and internal consistency of each of the items and the scales used in the questionnaire. In this study seven of the questions needed to be checked for the reliability and internal consistency of the items, as interval scales were used for measurement. Results for the reliability of seven questions using Cronbach's alpha for testing are shown in Table 4.8.

	Pilot Test			Survey Questionnaire		
Question	Number of	Number of	Cronbach's	Number of	Number of	Cronbach's
No.	items	respondents	alpha	items	respondents	alpha
12	6	110	.94	6	988	.95
13	6	108	.50	6	980	.68
16	5	110	.49	5	983	.57
17	16	108	.90	16	917	.92
23	13	110	.76	15	970	.85
24	11	110	.75	12	964	.87
25	13	110	.74	15	959	.89

Table 4.8 Results of Reliability using Cronbach's alpha

Sources: Data drawn from the survey questionnaire (2003-04), see Appendix 2

Question 12 asked respondents to rate their background knowledge about traditional Thai food by using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from Very Good, Good, Fair, Poor, to Very Poor. This question contained six items for measuring the respondents' knowledge.

Question 13 asked respondents to rate the relative importance of a total of six items when they order Thai dishes at a restaurant. A seven-point Likert-type scale from Extremely Important to Extremely Unimportant was used to measure responses.

Question 15 asked respondents to rate the relative importance of sixteen items when they make a decision to eat Thai food. A seven-point Likert-type scale from Extremely Important to Extremely Unimportant was used.

Question 16 asked respondents to rate the relative importance of five items in relation to their needs when they make the decision to eat Thai food. A seven-point Likert-type scale from Extremely Important to Extremely Unimportant was used.

Question 23 asked respondents to rate the relative importance of thirteen items relating to a seven-point Likert-type scale from Extremely Important to Extremely Unimportant was used.

Question 24 asked respondents to rate their relative agreement with eleven statements. A seven-point Likert-type scale from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree was used.

Question 25 asked respondents to rate their relative satisfaction with fifteen items. A seven-point Likert-type scale from Extremely Satisfied to Extremely Dissatisfied was used.

It is interesting to note that results from this study were found to show that the value of coefficient alpha was increased as the number of respondents increased.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the research design and methodology of the study. Mixed methods (combining qualitative and quantitative research) were designed for data collection and analysis. Chapter 5 presents the results of the interviews with thirty Thai restaurant owners in Victoria, Australia.

CHAPTER 5

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS (DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS)

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter the findings obtained from analysis of qualitative interviews with the owners of thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria are discussed. In order to understand the factors affecting customers' adoption of Thai food, interviews were conducted with three purposes in mind. The first was to ascertain factors influencing customers to know about Thai food and eat at Thai restaurants. This provided a basis for the development of the quantitative questionnaire outlined in Chapter 4 for distribution to 3,000 customers dining-in at Thai restaurants. The second purpose was to elicit the opinions of Thai restaurant owners about customers' sources of information, prices for Thai food, authenticity, and factors influencing them to eat more Thai food. These opinions were used for comparison with the results of the quantitative survey. The third purpose was to ascertain the ways restaurant owners believe Thai manufacturers and the Thai Government could assist Thai restaurants to become more successful in Australia. Results are presented in five main sections according to the interview questionnaire (Part A to E). Firstly, Section 5.1 presents a profile of respondents (Thai restaurant owners), a profile of their staffs and the types of Thai restaurants in the sample. Secondly, Section 5.2 analyses Thai restaurant owners' opinions about the need for authenticity of Thai food in Australia, how they decided which Thai dishes to offer on their menu and their image of Thai food. Thirdly, Section 5.3, customer profiles, respondents' perceptions of customer knowledge of Thai food and reasons for choosing particular Thai restaurants are presented. This section also reports on how customers compare Thai food with other Asian foods and how much they expect to pay. Fourthly, Section 5.4 reports the five most popular entrée dishes and main course dishes ordered by customers at Thai restaurants. Lastly, Section 5.5, changes in customer preferences and effective ways to persuade them to eat more Thai food in the future are presented. This section also discusses the thirty Thai restaurant owners' opinions about how the Thai Government and Thai food manufacturers can assist Thai restaurants overseas. Respondents were also encouraged to contribute their own ideas on promoting Thai food to Westerners in Australia.

5.1 Profile of Thai Restaurant Owners and Staff

This section has on three parts. The first part presents a profile of respondents (Section 5.1.1), the second part provides a profile of staff (Section 5.1.2), and the third part gives a profile of Thai restaurants (Section 5.1.3) involved in the study.

5.1.1 Profile of Respondents (Thai Restaurant Owners)

All thirty respondents were Thai restaurant owners. Fourteen were males and sixteen were females. From the results of this study Thai restaurant owners can be classified into three types: (1) investor as the owner; (2) owner/chef; (3) owner/receptionist. Sixteen respondents were Thai restaurant owners who also worked as chefs in their own restaurants, and thirteen were owners who also worked as receptionists in their own restaurants. Only one of the owners who had invested in a Thai restaurant neither worked as a chef nor as a receptionist in the restaurant. Females tended to work as chefs, whereas males worked as receptionists.

All thirty owners were born overseas. Twenty-eight respondents were of Thai nationality. The other two respondents were Laotian and Vietnamese, who had invested in Thai restaurants and worked as chefs. More than two-thirds had been living in Australia for more than ten years. The majority (24 respondents) had never worked for Thai restaurants in any other country. The remaining five owners had experience of working for Thai restaurants in Thailand, and one person had worked in the USA for one year and in Germany for six months. Twenty-four respondents indicated that they had been working for Thai restaurants before they had invested in this restaurant.

5.1.2 Profile of Thai Restaurant Staff

A total of twenty-eight respondents indicated that the nationality of chefs at their restaurants was Thai, fourteen of these chefs was also the owners. Sixteen owners had sponsored overseas Thai students to be Permanent Residents to work as chefs for them. Some sponsored Thai chefs from Thailand. Most owners indicated that they employed overseas Thai students as kitchen hands and waiters/waitresses. More than half said they employed overseas Thai students as waiters/waitresses because they knew about Thai food and could provide detailed explanations to customers. A few owners mentioned that some customers dine-in at Thai restaurants because they want to obtain information about Thailand before they travel there, or they want to talk about Thailand when they have returned from holidaying there. However, about six owners said they also employ other nationalities as waiters/waitresses. One strongly preferred to employ Australians as waiters/waitresses because they could discuss Thai food more easily than overseas Thai students can. Overseas Thai students could not explain Thai food clearly to Australian customers even though they had knowledge about Thai food. Three owners preferred to employ overseas Thai students, but the locations of their restaurants were far from the city. They said that most overseas Thai students preferred to study near the centre of the city, making it difficult to find any who preferred to work for them.

5.1.3 Types of Thai Restaurants

Twenty-three respondents operated their businesses only for dinner, followed by seven operating for lunch and dinner, and none for breakfast. All of the restaurant owners interviewed targetted customers for dine-in and take-away, and less than half of them included home delivery.

In his study Kivela (1997) identified four types of restaurant: fine dining/gourmet; theme/atmosphere; family/popular; and convenience/fast-food restaurants. These four restaurant types were adopted in this present study for classifying the types of Thai restaurants in Australia.

Of the thirty Thai restaurant owners interviewed sixteen respondents described their restaurants as Thai Theme or Ambience, while three classified their restaurants as Fine Dining. Only one classified their restaurant as Fast-Food. None classified their restaurants as Family type. Interestingly, ten respondents did not classify their restaurants as any of the four types mentioned above. Seven of them identified their restaurants as between Fine Dining and Theme; and three classified their restaurants as between Theme and Family. Results from this present study indicate that most of these Thai restaurants in Australia target customers from the middle income level upwards. One respondent argued strongly that Thai restaurants in Australia cannot upgrade to Fine Dining restaurants because the Asian food image cannot compete with Italian or other western cuisines.

In the case of business people wishing to invest in Thai restaurants in Australia, seating capacity is an important consideration. Results from this study show that most of the Thai restaurant owners (23 respondents) chose to invest in Thai restaurants with between 50-100 seats whereas five invested in those with less than 50 seats, targeting take-away customers. Only two invested in restaurants with more than 100 seats targeting dine-in customers.

5.2 About Thai Food at Thai Restaurants in Australia

This section is presented in three main parts. The first part reports on whether Thai food should have an authentic or adapted taste to suit customers in Australia (Section 5.2.1). The second part discusses how Thai dishes are selected to be offered on the menu in Australia (Section 5.2.2). The third part describes the opinions of Thai restaurant owners about the image of Thai food in Australia (Section 5.2.3).

5.2.1 Authentic or Adapted Taste to Suit Customers in Australia

The question is 'Should Thai food in Australia have an authentic or adapted taste to suit customers who are not Thais?' In other words, can Westerners eat Thai food with an authentic Thai taste in the same way as Thai people? Respondents were asked 'Do you think Thai food should have an authentic or adapted taste to suit customers in Australia?' and 'How do you describe the Thai foods offered by your restaurant?' Results in Table 5.1 below show that nearly two-thirds of respondents gave as their opinion that Thai food should have an adapted taste to suit their customers in Australia by reducing the hot, spicy and strong taste, including adding sweetening. A quarter of respondents replied that Thai food in Australia should be adapted only by reducing the hot taste or chilli. Three respondents said that Thai food should have an authentic taste, as in Thailand, for their customers in Australia. One of them recommended strongly that truly authentic Thai food must be really hot and have a strong taste or be tasty. It is important to note that one respondent offers two menus. One menu offers Thai food adapted to suit Western customers. The other menu written in the Thai language, offers a variety of authentic Thai dishes targeting the overseas Thai student customer.

Inree Types of That Resta	lurants în Austrana	
Thai Restaurants	Thai Restaurants	Thai Restaurant
Type A:	Type B:	Type C:
'Fully Adapted'	'Modified Authentic'	'Truly Authentic'
Thai food should be	Thai food should be	Thai food should be
adapted by reducing the	authentic but adapted	authentic as in
hot, spicy, strong taste,	only by reducing hotness	Thailand—hot, spicy
and/or adding sweetening.	or chillies.	and with strong taste.
N=20 (64.5%)	N=8 (25.8%)	N=3 (9.7%)

Table 5.1	
Three Types of Thai Restaurants	in Australia

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part B-Question 1, 3, 4 and 5 (2003-04) Note: Full details are presented in Appendix 3.1 N =Number of respondents

N = Number of respondents

Results also indicated that all thirty respondents used authentic Thai recipes imported from Thailand. However, almost all of the respondents (Type A and B) said they needed to adapt the taste or reduce the hot spiciness or add sweeteners (eg. sugar) to suit their Western customers in Australia.

It is important to investigate these three different opinions from Thai restaurant owners in order to gain a better understanding of what Thai food should be like in Australia. The responses to two more open-ended questions provide insights into why respondents thought Thai food should have an authentic taste or have an adapted taste to suit customers in Australia. Type A and B restaurant respondents were asked 'Why do you think Thai dishes should be adapted to suit customers in Australia?, while Type C restaurant respondents were asked 'Why do you think Thai dishes should have an authentic Thai taste for customers in Australia? The process of qualitative data analysis (see Chapter 4, Figure 4.4) for these two openended questions was adapted from Patton (2002), Wolcott (1994; 2001), and Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994).

Firstly, description technique was used to transcribe what the author had seen and heard during the interviews (Wolcott 1994; 2001). Some answers from the descriptive data were not relevant to these two questions, but they provided possible answers to other questions. Secondly, a data reduction technique (Miles and Huberman 1984; 1994) was used to select and simplify the raw data from the description to answer those two questions, and then to transform the data into codes (Respondents Type A, B, and C). Thirdly, a data display technique (Miles and Huberman) was used to decide on the rows and columns of the matrix for the results. A matrix content analysis was appropriate to analyse the data for this present study because a lot of useful data were provided by each of the respondents, and a matrix content analysis table can provide greater clarity and understanding. Lastly, conclusion drawing and verification techniques were used to analyse what the data meant and to obtain a valid understanding from the matrix data analysis of the reasons why Thai food should have an authentic Thai taste for customers in Australia, and why Thai dishes should be adapted to suit customers in Australia. The matrix content analysis shows three types (A, B, and C) of restaurant respondents.

• Thai Restaurant Type A

Twenty Type A restaurant respondents indicated that Thai food should be adapted by reducing the 'hot and spicy taste', 'strong taste' or adding 'sweetening' because most believe that Westerners do not like or cannot eat 'hot and spicy' food with a strong taste as Thais do. Five respondents [4], [8], [13], [25], [29] explained the reasons for their belief that Thai food should be sweetened to suit the taste of Western customers in Australia. One respondent believed that the reason Australians expect a sweetened taste is because they are used to Chinese food which has been sweetened. Similarly, another respondent emphasized that many Thai chefs in Thai restaurants in Australia are cooking food that is sweeter than Thai people normally eat because they think Western desserts are sweeter than Thai desserts, so they need to sweeten Thai dishes. In this case the owner has mistakenly generalized his/her observation that Australian desserts are sweeter, and has made the assumption that main courses should be sweetened too. One respondent simply admitted that he followed the example of other Thai restaurants who sweetened Thai food.

• Thai Restaurant Type B

Type B restaurant respondents provided reasons for their view that Thai food should be authentic, but that it needs to be adapted only by reducing the 'hot and spicy' taste.

...these days, Western customers know more about Thai food, many Australians have traveled and eaten Thai food in Thailand. They prefer and expect to eat authentic Thai food as in Thailand, rather than food with an adapted taste. They also ask me whether I can cook the authentic Thai food the same as they experienced in Thailand. However, I believe that some Western customers cannot eat Thai food as hot and spicy as Thais do [23].

• Thai Restaurant Type C

Three respondents from Type C restaurant emphasized that Thai food should be authentic (the same as in Thailand) in Australia because:

customers who have experienced Thai food when visiting Thailand want to eat the real Thai taste as in Thailand when they returned to Australia [1].

these days Australians have known about Thai food for over 20 years. Many Australians have traveled and had experience of Thai food in Thailand. They ask for authentic Thai dishes as in Thailand. They prefer Thai food in Thailand more than in Australia [22].

our restaurant offers a variety of authentic Thai dishes targeting the overseas Thai student customers. If many westerners see many Thai people eating in our restaurant they will assume the food is delicious and authentic [9].

In summary, these three types of respondents provided strongly-held reasons why Thai food should have an authentic Thai taste or have an adapted taste to suit customers in Australia. The main reason for those opinions is that all Thai restaurant owners in Australia try to cook their foods to satisfy customers, especially Western customers. Respondents of Type B and Type C have quite similar opinions: Type B respondents think Thai food should have an adapted taste only by reducing the 'hot and spicy' taste, but it should retain other authentic Thai food, qualities, while Type C respondents were of the opinion that Thai food should have an authentic taste as in Thailand. Type A respondents had totally different opinions from respondents of Types B and C because they strongly believed that Westerners cannot eat authentic Thai food and so they modified the characteristics of Thai food to suit their Western customers in ways which are not acceptable to most Thai people. However, the results from the interviews cannot clarify whether Thai food should be authentic as in Thailand or adapted to suit Westerners. Results in this present study only showed the factors influencing Thai restaurant owners' opinion about why they think that Thai food should be authentic or adapted to suit their customers in Australia.

These results will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.3 in relation to customers' opinions about what would make them feel that they had eaten authentic Thai food, including whether they would eat Thai food more often if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

5.2.2 Reasons for Menu Choices

In order to investigate how Thai restaurant owners decide which dishes to offer their customers in Australia, they were asked 'How do you decide what dishes to offer on your menu?' A data account sheet analysis technique was used to calculate items provided by the thirty owners. A total of fourteen items (Appendix 3.2) was provided. The majority of the respondents (18) said that they decided which Thai dishes to offer on their menu by selecting popular and delicious dishes from central Thailand, for example, Green curry [12]. Twelve respondents said that they decided which dishes to offer on their menu from experience of working, tasting, observing, as well as following other Thai restaurants in Australia. Results from this current study and the author's experience of eating Thai food at many restaurants overseas confirm that most Thai dishes offered on Australian menus are selected from central Thailand because the flavours are not too strong.

The taste of popular Thai dishes from the central part of Thailand is not too strong, not too spicy, and the herbs are not too pungent [20].

Two respondents emphasized that some Thai dishes from other parts of Thailand are not appreciated by Western customers.

Generally, Thai food in this restaurant has been chosen from Thai dishes originating in the central part of Thailand. I used to have special Thai dishes from the north and south of Thailand, but these were not appreciated by customers. However, they were quite okay with my Papaya salad dish from the north-east of Thailand; and Sausage and Numprik-Ong dishes from the north of Thailand [14].

I think that Western customers cannot eat certain Thai dishes as in Thailand, for example, Gang Som, Phra [preserved fish], or shrimp paste [18].

As discussed in Chapter 2 the four major types of Thai food come from four parts of Thailand: central, north, north-east, and south. Results from this present study show that four respondents reported that apart from offering dishes from central Thailand, they also offered popular dishes from the north-east [9, 14] and the north [10, 14] because they themselves come from those parts of Thailand. One respondent emphasized that chefs also choose to prepare dishes that they like to eat.

I have collected menus from other Thai restaurants in Australia. I work together with the chefs to select dishes we like to eat. The taste of Thai food and dishes on the menus are decided from what the chefs like and which parts of Thailand the chefs come from because there are different kinds of Thai foods in the four different regions of Thailand [23].

In summary, Thai restaurant owners often decide which Thai dishes to offer their customers in Australia by following other restaurants providing popular Thai dishes from the central part of Thailand. Results also indicate that the tastes of Thai dishes from the centre of Thailand are not as strong, hot, and pungent as the dishes from other parts. However, a few dishes from the north-east and north of Thailand are provided at Thai restaurants because the owners come from those parts of Thailand. They found that two dishes, 'Papaya salad' from the north-east and 'Namprik-Ong' from the north, are also acceptable to Westerners. In this study none of the Thai restaurant owners provided dishes from the south of Thailand. From the author's experience of discussions with many Thais and Thai

restaurant owners overseas, this may be because dishes from the south taste hotter than dishes from other parts because coconut is not included to soften the chilli taste. Preserved ingredients such as fish and shrimp paste, added in north-eastern Thai dishes, are not acceptable to Westerners.

5.2.3 Four Images of Thai Food in Australia

This section focuses on the opinions of thirty Thai restaurant owners in Australia about the image of Thai food. In answer to the question, 'Do you think that Thai food has an image?' all respondents agreed that it has. In relation to this, respondents were asked: 'How would you describe the image? Results are presented in Table 5.2 below, which shows a total of nineteen items providing the image of Thai food in Australia as given by the thirty Thai restaurant owners. These items are classified into four categories: *characteristics of Thai Food*; *popular Thai dishes; Thai ingredients*; and *others*.

Table 5.2

<u> </u>	TINS TINI		
(A) Thai Food Characte		(B) Popular Thai Dishe	
	N		N
Hot and spicy	24	Tom Yum Goong	8
Unique and balanced taste	17	Green curry	4
Thai herbs as healthy	10	Pad Thai noodles	2
Appearance	2	Khao Pad (Thai fried-rice)	1
Sweet	2		
Distinctive aroma	1		
(C) Thai Ingredient	\$	(D) Others	
	N		N
Coriander	2	Thailand and Thai culture	3
Lemon grass	2	High price	1
Coconut milk	1		
Curry	1		
j	•		

Four Images of Thai Food in Australia

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part B-Question 8 and 9 (2003-04). Note: Full details are presented in Appendix 3.3 and Appendix 3.4

N = Number of respondents

(A) Thai Food Characteristics

The image of Thai food, as defined by its characteristics, contained six items. The majority of the respondents described the image of Thai food as hot and spicy, followed by a unique and balanced taste, Thai herbs as healthy, appearance and, finally, sweet and distinctive aroma. One respondent mentioned that 'hot and

spicy' is already a symbol of Thai food. However, it is interesting to note that the image of Thai food as 'hot and spicy' was described as both positive and negative. Ten respondents classified 'hot and spicy' as providing a good image, but three believed it did not provide a good image for Thai food. The remaining eleven did not give reasons for their comments. A matrix content analysis (Appendix 3.4) revealed restaurant owners' reasons for giving these responses. These comments from twenty-four respondents have been classified into four major groups: good image, good image but (qualification), not good image, and no comment.

The five restaurant owners mentioning that 'hot and spicy' provides a *good image* for Thai food reasoned that it is because:

- the taste of curry dishes are not delicious if they are not hot and spicy [1].
- it's different to their customers' usual cuisines [5].
- it's a different taste to other cuisines [17].
- most customers dine in Thai restaurants because they want to eat hot and spicy food [19].
- the image of spicy is good for Thai Food [30].

Five agreed that 'hot and spicy' is a *good image* but not all dishes have the same degree of hottress and spiciness so Westerners need to be made aware of this, especially as some, like the elderly and children, cannot tolerate hot spicy dishes.

We should tell customers that all the dishes are not hot and spicy [5, 7].

We should classify hot and spicy into three levels, for example, mild, medium and hot. Most westerners who have never tried Thai food would think all Thai dishes are hot and spicy. Actually, some Thai dishes are not hot and spicy [18].

The market can be small too, because children and elderly people cannot eat hot dishes [21].

We should educate Westerners/Australians to know that some Thai dishes are not spicy [21], [29].

Two of the twenty-four respondents commented that 'hot and spicy' is *not a good image* for Thai food because:

- we can target only people who want to eat hot dishes. We cannot target children's markets [15].
- Thai food in Australia needs to reduce hot spices. Most customers think Thai food has only 'hot and spicy' tastes [16].

Eleven respondents indicated that 'hot and spicy' including chilli is the image of Thai food, but they did not say whether it is a good or bad image for Thai food. These respondents have been classified as *no comment*. However, one respondent emphasized that the word 'spicy' is neither positive nor negative because most customers already intend to eat spicy food when they decide to dine in Thai restaurants. However, they may order different levels of spice in their food.

'Taste' was provided as the image of Thai food by nearly two-thirds of the respondents. Most described Thai food having a unique and balanced taste as positive, because the taste is different to that of other cuisines. Seven respondents agreed that balanced taste or harmony of tastes was a good image for Thai food [1, 11, 15, 17, 25, 26, 30]. They described Thai food as a balanced taste of sour, sweet, salty, and spicy in one dish. The taste of Thai food is not too strong and not too bland. Six respondents agreed in a positive way that the taste of Thai food is tastier and stronger than that of some other cuisines [4, 11, 17, 20, 25, 30]. The remainder mentioned 'tasty' as the image of Thai food, but they did not provide any positive or negative views.

'Thai herbs are good for flavour and health" was mentioned in a positive way for the image of Thai food by nearly one-third of the respondents. They said that most Thai dishes contain Thai herbs that are good for health and contribute flavours to the food.

Thai curry is combined with many Thai herbs to make for one curry paste [1].

Customers who have experienced eating Thai food in Thailand they know what is an authentic Thai food and they also know that most Thai dishes are combined with Thai herbs are good for their health [2, 9].

The advantage of Thai food is Thai herbs which are healthy for customers [7].

Thai food has harmony of tastes and Thai herbal flavours [11, 15, 17, 25, 28].

(B) Popular Thai Dishes

Rather than classifying the image of Thai food as 'hot and spicy', fifteen respondents envisioned Thai food as a particular dish. These dishes included Tom Yum Goong, Green curry, Pad Thai noodles and Thai fried-rice.

(C) Thai Ingredients

Further to mentioning dishes as an image of Thai food, six respondents believed that the image of Thai food was perceived in terms of ingredients. These included coriander, lemon grass, coconut and curry.

(D) Others

Less significantly, three respondents chose Thailand and Thai culture as the image of Thai food and one chose high price as conveying a positive image of Thai food.

In summary, the image of Thai food in Australia was classified into four categories: characteristics of Thai food, popular Thai dishes, Thai ingredients, and Thailand and high price. The majority of Thai restaurant owners described the image of Thai food in Australia as 'hot and spicy', followed by 'unique taste' and 'balanced taste', respectively. The image of 'hot and spicy' for Thai food was described as both positive and negative. These results may be useful for Thai restaurant owners to understand the range of opinions expressed by their counterparts who have various lengths of experience in Australia. With a wide range of conflicting opinions, it may be difficult for Thai restaurant owners in Australia to decide just how 'hot and spicy' customers would prefer Thai food to be.

5.3 Profile of Customers

This section focuses on analysis of the findings on the opinions of Thai restaurant owners in relation to customer profiles, sources of information, 'Asian foods' compared to Thai food, ordering Thai dishes, price for Thai food, and other important factors influencing customers to eat Thai food.

5.3.1 Demographics of Customers

Thirty respondent owners were asked the approximate percentages of the proportion of their customers in relation to gender, age, ethnicity, repeat customers and customers dining in their restaurant for the first time. From these open-ended questions customer profiles were analyzed by using a data accounting sheet reported in Appendix 3.5. Fifteen respondents indicated that the number of female customers were equal to the number of male customers. This was followed by thirteen respondents reporting that the number of female customers was more than the number of male customers, and only two respondents reported that the number of female customers was less than the number of male customers.

Respondents said that most customers tended to be in the age group 35-44 years (38.3%), followed by 25-34 (30.3%) and 45-54 (17.7%). A small proportion of customers was in the age group of 18-24 (7.4%), followed by 55-64 (5.0%) and 65 or over (1.3%). It is interesting to note that respondents emphasized that the reason why not many teenagers dine in Thai restaurants is that Thai food is too expensive.

Thai food is too expensive for them, usually they like to dine in Thai restaurants with their parents for only special occasions [3, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29].

One respondent further emphasized that most teenagers often prefer to drink at a pub or to spend their money on other things.

Teenagers prefer to dine out for a drink at a pub rather than for Thai food at the restaurant. They also like to save money for a car or clothes [22].

In contrast, one respondent emphasized that most of the customers in the over 55 years age group dine in Thai restaurants with their daughters or sons [24], while another said that:

...most of our customers are working people who have no children so they can spend money for their social life. Most Thai restaurants do not provide meals for children because they don't like to try new cuisines [21].

The majority of the respondents indicated the approximate proportions of their customers as mostly being Westerners (84.2%), followed by Asian (13.1%), and Thai (2.7%). Most respondents believed that about 81.3% of the customers returned to dine in at their restaurants, and only 16.5% were new customers. Only one respondent mentioned that the majority of their customers were new because the location of their restaurant was close to a town shopping centre where many people walk past.

5.3.2 Sources of Information

This section reports on restaurant owners' responses to a show card (Appendix 1) providing sixteen options for possible sources of information from which customers first got to know about Thai food and Thai restaurants, with the option for further comments (see Appendix 1). A structured questioning technique, incorporating an open-ended option, was used to elicit answers. To initiate the process, respondents were informed that they could give more details if their choices were not provided on the show card.

From the sixteen options provided on the show card, only five items were selected (see Appendix 3.6). These included friends, Thai friends, newspapers, Thai cooking book and television. An additional four items were provided by the respondents: traveling to Thailand, local Thai restaurants, promotion from Thai Government, and Australians married to Thais.

Results indicated that the majority of the respondents (21) believed that customers first got to know about Thai food from their experience of traveling to Thailand. This was followed by eighteen respondents who believed that customers received recommendations from friends who had experienced eating Thai food, while only a few thought their customers first got to know about Thai food from Thai friends.

Respondents were also asked 'How do you think your customers first got to know your restaurant?' The same show card was used for elicitation (Appendix 3.7),

and responses revealed that the majority of the respondents (21) identified that convenient location influences customers who live near by and walk past, as well as those who drive past, to visit their restaurants and experience Thai food. Twenty respondents reported that word-of-mouth, especially from customers' friends, is the most important way to introduce customers to their restaurants.

From the results shown in Appendix 3.6 and Appendix 3.7 it is clear that although the experience of traveling to Thailand was identified as the most frequent way customers experienced Thai food for the first time, word-of-mouth from friends who have experienced Thai food was also significant. 'Friends with experience of Thai food' was identified as an important influence to get customers to know about their restaurants as well as to experience Thai food for the first time, while Thai friends were not reported as a factor for customers to know about Thai food or Thai restaurants in Australia, probably because many have not had the opportunity to meet Thai people. The convenient location of Thai restaurants was emphasized as more important than mass media in influencing customers to know about Thai restaurants, but it rarely influenced them to know about Thai food for the first time.

As most customers were believed to have first experienced Thai food in Thailand, this indicates a clear relationship between traveling to Thailand and choosing Thai restaurants in Australia. This indicates strongly that, to avoid customers who have experienced Thai food in Thailand being disappointed, restaurants in Australia need to closely replicate the authentic tastes of Thai food.

5.3.3 'Asian Foods' compared to Thai Food

This section reports on customers' comparisons of Thai food with other 'Asian foods'. Structured questions, including an open-ended option, with a show card technique were used for the interviews (Appendix 1). Six 'Asian foods' (Chinese, Malaysian, Vietnamese, Indian, Japanese, Indonesian and Korean) were identified on a show card for respondents to select. Respondents were informed that they could suggest other 'Asian foods' if they were not shown on this card.

In Appendix 3.8 results show that the majority of the respondents (22) believed that their customers would compare Thai food with other 'Asian foods', while eight respondents believed that there was no comparison. Nearly two-thirds of the respondents believed that their customers would compare Thai food with 'Chinese food', followed by Indian food, Vietnamese food, Japanese food, Malaysian food, and Korean food, respectively. It is interesting to note that Indonesian food was not chosen as a customer comparison to Thai food.

During interview conversations, those who agreed their customers would compare Thai food with 'Chinese food' said that it was because it was the first well-known Asian cuisine in Australia [18] and Australians are more familiar with Chinese food than Thai food [2].

They also emphasized the reasons why their customers would compare Chinese and Thai foods and the differences between them as follows:

The ways of cooking:

The ways of Thai cooking are more complicated than Chinese. Thai cooking takes more time to prepare as it uses Thai herbs and spices and raw ingredients whereas Chinese food is much less complex [2]. Most Chinese food has no chilli, not many ingredients, and uses deep-fried floured meats, whereas Thai foods are hot and spicy using many herbs and other ingredients and no deep-fried floured meats [1].

The dishes:

Customers compare Thai dishes to Chinese and Vietnamese dishes because some stir-fry dishes use the same ingredients (ginger, garlic)---just the ways of cooking are different [9, 17, 20]. They compare Thai food with Chinese stir-fried, sweet and sour dishes [22].

The taste:

The taste of Chinese food is bland, whereas Thai food is tasty [1, 21, 27].

The price:

Customers compare Chinese and Vietnamese foods with Thai food because they are cheaper and the portion sizes are bigger than Thai food [2, 7, 12, 14, 17, 23, 26].

'Indian food' was chosen by ten Thai restaurant owners as the food that their customers would compare with Thai food. Five respondents gave reasons and agreed that customers would compare Thai curry dishes to Indian curry dishes [9,

17, 22, 26]. However, they also emphasized that the aroma and taste of Thai food is not as strong as Indian food [17]. Another respondent said Thai curry dishes are compared with Indian because they are both spicy [21].

'Vietnamese food' was selected by nine respondents as the food that customers would compare with Thai food. Four respondents further gave their opinion that customers would compare the stir-fry dishes, price, portion size and taste of Vietnamese food with Thai food [7, 17, 20, 23]. They also emphasized that Chinese, Vietnamese and Thai stir-fry dishes are similar, but Chinese and Vietnamese foods are cheaper and have bigger portion sizes than Thai dishes. However, they said that customers would prefer the taste of Thai food to that of Chinese and Vietnamese foods.

'Japanese food' was chosen by six respondents. Most of these agreed that their customers would compare Japanese food to Thai food in relation to the price, as Japanese food is also more expensive [12, 14, 17, 21]; and they also noted that the foods are more healthy and artistically presented [21] than Thai food.

'Malaysian food' was selected for the comparisons with Thai food by five respondents. Three agreed that Malaysian food is similar to Thai and Indian foods, and their customers would compare Thai curry dishes with Indian and Malaysian foods [1, 9, 22].

'Korean food' was chosen by only two respondents [9, 10] as food that their customers would compare with Thai food. However, they did not provide any reasons.

Interestingly, results show that Thai food was considered to be more expensive than Chinese and Vietnamese foods but cheaper than Japanese food. Thai curry dishes were classified as similar to Indian curries. The taste of Thai food was considered to be stronger than Chinese and Vietnamese foods but not as strong as Indian food. Chinese and Vietnamese foods were seen as similar in relation to taste and price. The Asian cuisines mentioned above were used further to develop the quantitative (survey) questionnaire in relation to investigating whether the actual customers used these cuisines to compare with Thai food before deciding to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants. Results are further discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.6.1.

5.3.4 Ordering Thai Dishes

This section reports on restaurant owners' responses to a show card providing six possible answers in relation to the question 'How do your customers order Thai dishes at your restaurant'.

- Recommended by waitresses or waiters
- Recommended by an owner
- Recommended by friends
- Picture of Thai dishes
- Name of Thai dishes
- Description of Thai dishes

A structured question, including an open-ended option, was used to elicit answers. Respondents were informed that they could provide more details if their choices were not provided on the show card. Two techniques were used: a data accounting sheet checklist analysis (Appendix 3.9) and a contrast table analysis (Table 5.3 below), adopted from Miles and Huberman (1984, 1994), to analyse the results.

Table 5.3Ways of Ordering Thai Dishes by Four Types of Customers

(A) if new customers:	N	(B) if regular customers:	N
Need recommendations by waitresses Need recommendations by owners	17 4	Need description on the menu Prefer to order dishes they usually eat	20 6
Discuss with friends	1	Need recommendations by waitresses	5
Need description on the menu	1	Discuss with friends	4
		Need recommendations by owners	3
(C) if customers have allergie	s: N	(D) if customers experienced food in T	hailand: N
Need description of Thai ingredients	2	Prefer to order Thai dishes as in Thailand	1

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 4 (2003-04) N = Number of respondents

Four distinct customer groups (new, regular, customers with allergies or experienced in Thailand) emerged from the interviews based on the ways they order Thai dishes at Thai restaurants in Australia (Table 5.3, above). Respondents described 'new' customers as those who were trying Thai food for the first time; 'regular' customers as those who have already experienced Thai food; customers with allergies as those who were allergic to certain foods; and 'experienced in Thailand' customers as those who had tried Thai food in Thailand.

Recommendations from waitresses are the most important for 'new' customers in relation to ordering Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia. Descriptions of Thai dishes on the menu are important to 'regular' customers, but less important for 'new customers'. 'Regular' customers read the description of Thai dishes on the menu, and they prefer to order dishes they have tried before. In general, regular customers read descriptions of the Thai dishes on the menu, while some follow recommendations from the waitresses/owners, or discuss their choice with their friends. Two respondents claimed that customers with allergies needed more information about Thai ingredients used in Thai dishes. Only one emphasized that customers who have travelled to Thailand and eaten Thai food before prefer to

order authentic Thai dishes, and called dishes by names that they knew from Thailand, such as Gang Dang instead of Red Curry. Interestingly, respondents did not believe that pictures and names of Thai dishes were important for customers' selection of Thai dishes in restaurants in Australia. From the author's experience and from the observations of four respondents in this present study, most Thai restaurants in Australia do not provide pictures of Thai dishes because they cost money. They prefer to follow the style of western menus. Added to this, they believed that customers would expect to see the appearance and presentation of the dishes exactly the same as in the pictures.

Results from this present study may be useful for Thai restaurant owners in understanding the needs of these four types of customers when ordering Thai dishes at their restaurants. Waitresses should pay particular attention to new customers, followed by customers with allergies who need more information about Thai dishes, specially the Thai ingredients added in the dishes. Regular customers may require quicker service in ordering Thai dishes because they already know what to order, and prefer to order dishes they have tried before.

5.3.5 Price for Thai Food

This section focuses on the opinion of Thai restaurant owners in relation to the price customers expect to pay for Thai food for breakfast, lunch, or dinner (excluding beverages). No responses were given for breakfast prices because Thai restaurants do not open for breakfast in Australia.

Table 5.4 below shows that nearly two-thirds of respondents indicated that customers expect to pay A\$6-10 for lunch. The remaining respondents suggested A\$11-15. The majority of the respondents (22) said customers expect to pay A\$16-30 for dinner. These results will be used further to compare with customers' opinions in Chapter 6 (Section 6.6.2).

Table 5.4

Price of Thai Food

For Lunch		For Dinner	
I think my customers	expect to pay:	I think my customers	expect to pay:
	Ν		Ň
A\$6-10	19	A\$16-20	10
A\$11-15	5	A\$21-25	6
		A\$26-30	6
		A\$11-15	5
		>A\$30	3

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 5 (2003-04). N = Number of respondents

5.3.6 4Ps Marketing Mix (Product, Price, Place and Promotion)

This section reports Thai restaurant owners' ranking of four important factors influencing customers to dine out at Thai restaurants (Thai food characteristics, price of Thai food, convenient location of Thai restaurants and special promotion). A closed-end question technique was use for respondents to rank the four most important factors for their customers in deciding to dine in at their restaurants. Frequencies and median were calculated to investigate results (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5

Ranking of Product, Price, Place and Promotion

	No.1	No.2	No.3	No.4	
	N	N	Ν	N	Median
Thai food characteristics	17	8	1	4	1.00
Price of Thai food	5	11	12	2	2.00
Location of Thai restaurants	4	11	8	7	2.50
Promotion	4	0	9	17	4.00

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 8 (2003-04).

N = Number of respondents.

Results show that 'Thai food characteristics' were considered by the thirty Thai restaurant owners as the most important factor influencing customers to dine-out at Thai restaurants. This was followed by 'price of Thai food'; 'convenient location of Thai restaurants'; and 'special promotion'. Two respondents further emphasized their opinions, observing that 'Thai food characteristics' is the most

important factor for influencing customers to eat Thai food in the long term, while special promotion is only effective over a short period [7, 30].

5.3.7 Factors Influencing Customer Decision to Eat Thai Food at Thai Restaurants

This section presents the opinions of Thai restaurant owners regarding the question; 'What factors do you think are important to your customers when they make a decision to eat Thai food at your restaurant?' Respondents were informed that they could give more details if their choices were not provided on two show cards showing possible answers to questions C-7.1 and C-7.2 (Appendix 1). A data accounting sheet analysis technique (Miles and Huberman 1994) was used to calculate the answers for each of the items (Appendix 3.10).

Table 5.6 Factors Affecting Customer Decision to Eat Thai Food (Based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs)

I think my customers make a decision to eat Thai at my restaurant because:	oou
Rank	ľ
No.1 They want a different eating experience	1
No.2 Thai food is nutritious and healthy.	16
No.3 = Thai food is fashionable.	1(
No.3 = They want to socialise.	1(
No.5 They are hungry	6

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 7.1 (2003-04) N = Number of respondents.

Results indicated that most Thai restaurant owners believed that 'a different eating experience' was the most important factor influencing their customers to eat Thai food at their restaurants, followed by the perception that Thai food is 'nutritious and healthy'. Following these choices, 'Thai food is fashionable' and 'They want to socialize' were considered to be equally important to customers in deciding to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants. 'They are hungry' was the least important. Respondents provided five new items as important, including 'quality of ingredients in Thai food', 'word-of-mouth', 'tasty and delicious', 'friendly owners/waitresses', and 'image of Thailand'.

In regard to restaurant owners' responses that customers decide to eat Thai food because it is 'nutritious and healthy', the following comments are of particular interest in illustrating opinions:

These days Australian customers are more concerned with nutritious and healthy food than Asian customers [2, 14, 28, 30]. Customers believe that Thai food is nutritious and healthy because Thai herbs are good for health and all Thai curries are combined with Thai herbs [11, 19, 25, 27, 29]. The quality of ingredients in Thai food is also important [2]. They also believe that Thai food is not oily or fatty [29]...so they like Thai food...

However, one respondent emphasized that customers want to know about the calories in each dish.

Customers always say the problem with Thai food is that they don't know how many calories are in the dishes [2].

These responses indicated that Thai restaurant owners are aware that their customers, especially Westerners, are concerned with their health when diningout. They perceive customers as believing that Thai food is nutritious and healthy because Thai herbs and many vegetables are used in the dishes.

The second show card contained thirteen options (quality, portion size, variety, spiciness, nutritional value, appearance, aroma, taste, reasonable price, value for money, convenient location, decorated restaurant in Thai style, special promotion) to further elicit answers from respondents regarding 'What factors do you think are important to your customers when they make a decision to eat Thai food at your restaurant?

Results presented in Table 5.7 show that all thirteen items were selected by respondents and that nearly two-thirds of respondents selected 'taste of Thai food', followed by 'quality of Thai food' as more important than the other eleven factors for their customers choosing to eat Thai food at their restaurants.

(A) The most important		(B) Important		
	Ν		N	
Taste	19	Reasonable price	11	
Quality of Thai food	17	Variety	10	
		Spiciness	9	
		Nutritional value	9	
(C) Slightly important		(D) Least important		
	N		Ν	
Portion size	8	Restaurant decorated in Thai style	6	
Appearance	8	Convenient location	5	
Aroma	8	Special promotion	5	
Value for money	8			

Table 5.7Factors Affecting Customer Decision to Eat Thai Food at Thai Restaurant(Based on 4Ps Marketing Mix)

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 7.2 (2003-04). N = Number of respondents. Details presented in Appendix 3.11.

5.3.8 Factors for Authentic Thai Food

This section reports the results of a closed-end question asking restaurant owners to grade four factors contributing to customers' feeling that their restaurants served authentic Thai food. Four possible answers were presented to respondents: Thai food is served by Thai waitress; Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef; Thai restaurant is owned by Thais; and Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style. A seven-point Likert scale of agreement levels (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) was used to measure results. The data were analyzed using SPSS and are displayed using a contrast table analysis (Miles and Huberman 1994) to enable ease of comparison (see Table 5.8, below).

(A) Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef. N=28 (93.3%) Mean = 6.20	(B) Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style. N=24 (80.1%) Mean = 5.37
(C) Thai food is served by Thai waitress.	(D) Thai restaurant is owned by Thais.
N=24 (80.1%)	N=14 (46.6%)
Mean = 5.30	Mean = 3.83

Table 5.8 Factors for Authentic Thai Food (Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if:)

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 8 (2003-04). N = Number of respondents.

Results in Table 5.8 above show that most respondents agreed that 'Thai food cooked by a Thai chef' (A) is the most significant factor for their customers to feel that they had had authentic Thai food. 'Thai restaurant decorated in Thai style' (B) and 'Thai food served by Thai waitress' (C) were also considered to have a positive effect on customers' feeling that they had had authentic Thai food, while 'Thai restaurant owned by Thais (D) was not as important.

During interview conversations, three respondents emphasized their opinion as strongly agreeing that their customers would feel they had experienced authentic Thai food if the food was cooked by a Thai chef because:

when I and my friends went to dine in at Japanese restaurants, we heard they were talking in Chinese so we were not sure that they would serve real, authentic Japanese foods [15].

I strongly agree. In my experience dining at Italian restaurants I would not feel those foods are Italian if the chefs are Vietnamese [16].

I strongly agree that Thai chefs could provide a good image for Thai food [17].

However, another four respondents [17, 20, 21, 22] believed that their customers did not know whether chefs were Thai or not, and were probably not even interested [17].

In contrast, three restaurant owners did not agree that customers were worried about whether chefs were Thai or not because:

'a few famous Thai restaurants in Australia are owned by Westerners, for example, David Thomson' [28]; 'some are owned by westerners who can cook Thai taste to suit their customers' [26]; and 'some owners are married to Australians [20].

However, it is of interest to consider that the restaurant owners (not being customers themselves) may not have thought this question through sufficiently and may have skewed opinions. For example, in casual conversation with an Australian-born customer the comment was made that:

Of course people care who cooks for them. Why would they prefer to eat Japanese food that was cooked by a Chinese person when they don't even think Chinese are good chefs in the first place? How could they trust them to know how to cook another [kind of dish]?

Lastly for 'Thai food is served by Thai waitress' (C) two respondents emphasized that most westerners returning from Thailand wanted to talk about Thailand with a Thai waitress or owners.

5.3.9 Factors for Repeat Purchase of Thai Food

This section reports the answers of thirty restaurant owners to seven options concerning factors influencing customers to eat more Thai food. A seven-point Likert scale of agreement levels (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) was used, and the results were analyzed using SPSS. A contrast analysis table is used to display data because it offers easier comparison of results.

Results in Table 5.9 below indicate that all respondents strongly agree that 'recommendation' of Thai foods and Thai restaurants was the factor that would most influence customers to eat Thai food more in the future. This was followed by agreement with the statement that 'if their customers knew more about Thailand and Thai food' they would eat Thai food more. Thailand having a positive image for customers and Thai food having authentic Thai taste were similarly rated as influencing customers to eat more Thai food. Interestingly, knowledge of Thai cooking was rated as not important.

Thai foods were recommended.	Thai restaurants were recommended
N=30 (100%)	N=30 (100%)
Mean = 6.30	Mean = 6.30
they knew more about Thailand.	they knew more about Thai food.
N=29 (96.6%)	N=28 (93.3%)
Mean = 5.80	Mean = 5.80
Thailand had a positive image.	Thai food had authentic Thai taste.
N=25 (83.3%)	N=24 (80.1%)
Mean = 5.53	Mean = 5.23
they knew how to cook Thai food. N=14 (46.6%) Mean = 3.90	

Table 5.9 Factors for Repeat Purchase of Thai Food (Customers would eat Thai food more if:)

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 9 (2003-04). N = Number of respondents.

5.3.10 Likes/Dislikes About Thai Food

This section focuses on the opinions of Thai restaurant owners in Australia in relation to their customers' likes and dislikes about Thai food. A data accounting sheet analysis method (Miles and Huberman 1994) was used to calculate respondents' choices of items (Appendix 3.12 and Appendix 3.13). A contrast analysis table (Miles and Huberman 1994) was compiled to analyze factors influencing customers in their likes and dislikes concerning Thai food (see Table 5.10 below). Items provided by respondents are classified into four categories: Thai food characteristics, Thai dishes, Thai ingredients and others.

Most customers like:		Most customers dislike:		
(A) Thai Food Characteristics:		(A) Thai Food Characteristics:		
	Ν			
balanced and unique taste	25	too hot and spicy	18	
Thai herbal as flavour/healthy	9	too sweet	3	
hot and spicy	8	too strong taste	2	
variety	3			
quality	2			
(B) Thai Dishes:		(B) Thai Dishes:		
Green curry	4	Hor-Mok	1	
Tom Yum Goong	3	watery curry	1	
Pla Sam Rod	1			
(C) Thai Ingredients:		(C) Thai Ingredients	:	
Ingredients (in general)	2	coconut milk	3	
Curry	1	dried shrimp/shrimp paste	2	
		fish sauce	1	
(D) Others:		(D) Others:		
Thai culture	4	oily or fatty	3	
fresh meats and many vegetables	2	creamy	2	
not oily or fatty	2	too expensive	1	
different taste to Western foods	1			

Table 5.10 Likes/Dislikes about Thai Food

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part C-Question 10 (2003-04) N = Number of respondents.

(A) Thai Food Characteristics

The majority of the respondents (25) indicated that most of their customers like the balanced and unique taste of Thai food, followed by Thai herbs and hot and spicy flavours. Eighteen respondents specified that most customers dislike Thai food if the taste is 'too hot and spicy', followed by 'too sweet' or 'too strong taste'.

(B) Thai Dishes

Eight respondents mentioned the three main Thai dishes most liked by their customers as 'Green curry', 'Tom Yum Goong' and Pla Sam Rod, respectively. However, Hor-Mok was noted as disliked due to its strong tasting ingredients and strange appearance, and curry dishes were complained about when they were too watery.

(C) Thai Ingredients

Twelve respondents mentioned that their customers like Thai ingredients in curry dishes because of their flavours and healthfulness. However, they found that most customers dislike the smell of dried shrimp/shrimp paste and fish sauce [2, 8]. Interestingly, a small percentage of elderly customers did not want coconut milk because they were afraid of cholesterol [18, 21, 26].

(D) Others

Interestingly, results revealed that three restaurant owners believed that a pleasant memory of Thai culture influenced customers' food choices to dine-in at Thai restaurants. These include an experience with friendly Thai people in Thailand, friendly Thai staff at Thai restaurants in Australia, the restaurant and food decorated in Thai style and waitresses wearing traditional Thai suits. Two restaurant owners believed that customers do not like oily and creamy dishes, preferring the quality of fresh meats and a wide range of vegetables.

One respondent mentioned that the different taste of Thai food, when compared with Western foods, may influence customer, liking of Thai food. He believed that customers may not like to dine-in at Thai restaurants because the food is expensive.

5.4 Popular Thai Dishes

This section reports on the most popular dishes sold at thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria. *Firstly*, respondents were asked how many entrée, main course and dessert dishes they provided on their menu. In response, respondents provided five categories for entrée, six for main course, and five for dessert dishes (see Table 5.11 below).

In Table 5.11 below, respondents indicated that they provide more main courses than entrée and dessert dishes on their menus. Most Thai restaurants provided 21-40 main course dishes, 6-20 entrée dishes and only up to four dessert dishes.

(A) Entrée dishes		(B) Main Course o	lishes
	Ν		Ν
a. 1-5 dishes	1	a. 10-20 dishes	3
b. 6-10 dishes	5	b. 21-30 dishes	9
c. 11-15 dishes	13	c. 31-40 dishes	8
d. 16-20 dishes	7	d. 41-50 dishes	2
e. more than 20 dishes	1	e. 51-60 dishes	2
		f. more than 60 dishes	3
(C) Dessert dis	hes		
	N		
a. 2 dishes	3		
b. 3 dishes	8		
c. 4 dishes	10		

Table 5.11Number of Thai Dishes on the Menu

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part D-Questions 1,3,5 (2003-04). N = Number of respondents.

Secondly, respondents were asked to identify the five most popular entrées, main courses, and dessert dishes ordered by their customers. The following Table 5.12 below shows the results.

(A) Entrées		(B) Main Courses	
	Ν		Ν
Tomyum Goong	27	Green curry	27
Spring Roll	19	Pad Graprow	13
Mixed Entrée	18	Pad Cashew nuts	13
Satay	15	Mussamun curry	11
Curry Puff	14	Panang curry	9
Fish Cake	9	Pad Thai noodles	9
Tom Kha Gai	9	Red curry	6
Goong hom pla	4	Pad Talae	3
Gai hor bai-thoey	3	BBQ Duck in red curry	2
Kratong thong	3	Pla sam-rod	2
(C) Desserts			
	Ν		
Ice-cream	15		
Banana fritter with ice-cream	11		
Bua-loy pueak	9		
Kao-tom-mad with ice-cream	7		
Coconut ice-cream	7		

Table 5.12 Popular Thai Dishes in Australia

Source: Data drawn from the results of the interviews, Part D-Questions 2, 4 and 6 (2003-04). N = Number of respondents.

(A) Entrée Dishes

Almost all of the respondents indicated that Tomyum Goong was the most popular entrée dish ordered by their customers. This was followed by Spring Roll, Mixed entrée, Satay, Curry puff, Fish cake and Tom kha gai. 'Tomyum Goong' soup is not only the most popular Thai dish ordered by customers in Australia, it is the most popular dish in Thai restaurants overseas. Quotations from several food connoisseurs revealed this fact:

Sorat Sac-Keow said it's hard to imagine a Thai menu without a version of Tom-yum Goong, the hot and sour prawn soup. This one was very good, with all the individual flavours of galangal (Thailand's perfumed ginger), lemon grass, chilli and coriander coming through in the broth to complement the prawns and mushrooms" (Heyward 1993, p.27).

David Dale said whichever you choose, the Tom-yum Goong will be terrific (Cadzow (1994).

Other popular Thai dishes are enjoyed throughout the world. For example, Forell (1995, p.35) recommended a range of foods suitable for international cuisine, including Thai spring rolls and sizzling satays, the red and green curries, the tread-noodle claypots, kaow-phat (Thai fried-rice), Seafood salad, Tod-mon gai or Thai fish cakes served with a topping of sliced beans and a little bowl of light, sweet and sour dipping sauce with diced cucumber and chopped peanuts.

(B) Main Course Dishes

Almost all the respondents indicated 'Green curry' as the most popular main course dishes ordered by their customers. This was followed by 'Pad Graprow', 'Pad Cashew-nuts', 'Mussamun curry', 'Panang curry' as well as 'Pad Thai noodles'.

(C) Dessert Dishes

Results showed an unexpectedly low level of popularity for Thai desserts in Australia. Half of the respondents said that ice-cream is the dessert ordered most often by their customers, followed by Banana fritter with ice-cream. Three Thai desserts: 'Bua-loy pueak', 'Kao-tom-mad with ice-cream' and 'Coconut ice-

cream' were selected as ordered by customers. With little choice of Thai desserts offered on the menu, customers were found to prefer Western ice-cream or desserts combined with Western ice-cream. The researcher's observations showed that most owners do not want to, or are not able to, prepare the more complicated Thai desserts which are more expensive than ice-cream. Restaurant owners find it easier and cheaper to buy ice-cream. However, one restaurant customer made the following comment to the present researcher about Thai desserts in restaurants:

I don't like ice-cream---Thai desserts are much more delicious. I don't know why Thai restaurants don't provide some of the lovely, delicate Thai sweets I have tasted in Thailand and in the homes of my Thai friends.

Unfortunately no studies have been found by the researcher that have investigated whether Western customers like Thai desserts.

5.5 Consumption of Thai Food in Australia

This section reports the responses of thirty Thai restaurant owners to five openended questions about the consumption of Thai food in Victoria (Section 5.5.1 to Section 5.5.5). These questions aimed to elicit opinions about:

- customer preferences for Thai food during the period 1998-2003;
- factors persuading Australians to know about and eat more Thai food;
- ways Thai food manufacturers in Thailand could help Thai restaurants overseas;
- ways the Thai Government could help Thai restaurants overseas;
- other ways to make Thai food better known to foreigners.

5.5.1 Customer Preferences for Thai Food

This section presents findings on changes in Australian customer preferences for Thai food from 1998 to 2003. Respondents were asked 'Do you think your customers' preferences for Thai food have changed over the past five years? If "Yes", in which ways'?

The majority of the respondents (23) maintained that customer preferences for Thai food have changed over the past five years. Five respondents said customer preferences had not changed because Thai food is unique and unlike other cuisines. Only two respondents could not reply to the question because their restaurants were new. Those who agreed that customer preferences for Thai food have changed over the past five years have been classified into two major groups, including positive change and negative change.

The following responses are of particular interest in regard to changes in customer preference for Thai food over the past five years.

Positive ways:

Respondents with positive views about changes in consumer preference for Thai food considered it to be more popular now. Twelve respondents noted that there is evidence for this by the establishment of many new Thai restaurants.

Thai food is more popular in Australia and customers tend to eat Thai food more and more because there are Thai restaurants in many surburbs throughout Australia [1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 27, 29] and Thai restaurants have increased from 20 (15 years ago) to about 250 at present (in 2003) [13].

Other respondents [5, 17, 21, 23, 26] noted that, as Australia has become a multicultural society, Westerners have experienced a wide range of cuisines and so have become familiar with the spicy characteristics of many Thai dishes.

Twenty years ago Western customers would not eat any spicy foods, but now Australia is a multicultural society, people have the chance to try many cuisines and are able to accept more spicy tastes than before.

Further, more customers have traveled and visited Thailand experiencing authentic Thai food for themselves.

Western customers know a lot about Thai food [22] and their way of eating Thai food is more authentic to Thai taste than before [9] because they have traveled, tried Thai food in Thailand and learnt Thai cooking [22, 23, 28].

Negative ways:

Respondents with negative views about changes in consumer preference for Thai food considered it to be declining from 1999 until the present.

Thai food became popular ten years ago, peaking about five years ago (in 1998). However, the popularity of Thai food has been going down from 1999 until now. Many Thai restaurants have closed business or sold to new investors. I think it may be time for new entrepreneurs to start better quality Thai restaurants because Thai food cannot achieve a peak preference in the short term. Success depends on the quality of Thai food being stabilized and not deteriorating. I think it is normal for any business cycle to peak and trough.

Actually, the cost of Thai food has been increasing, but we cannot go on increasing the price because the Australian economy is not so good [16].

Two respondents noticed that their customers have decreased in number since the Australian Government introduced Goods and Services Tax (GST). They also believed there is no standard for Thai food in Australia.

Sales of Thai food in Australia have decreased by about 10-30% since Australia introduced a 10% GST a few years ago [4, 12]. Maybe the economy in Australia and also around the world has slowed down. Nowadays, many Thai migrants are running businesses without knowledge of how to cook Thai food properly. This means that Thai food has no standard cooking style. Previously, Thai food was more popular in Australia and most customers wore formal suits to dine-in at Thai restaurants. Nowadays, Thai food is cheaper than before [12].

Another three respondents said there have been fewer customers than before, perhaps due to the Australian economy declining.

Customers preference depends on the economy in Australia. Business is quite slow because of the Australian economy [20, 22]. Consumers' dining-out is not like it was 5-7 years ago and they also prefer to pay less for food [9]. This may be because nowadays there is more advertising about investment in property than before, so people are more likely to invest in property than spend money on their social life [9, 20, 22].

One respondent [22] strongly emphasized that preferences for Thai food have been decreasing because it has been overly adapted to Western tastes, and many Thai restaurants in Australia are not owned by Thais.

Thai food is decreasing in popularity because it has been adapted to Western taste too much. Moreover, some Thai restaurant owners are not Thais so they don't have the same skills in Thai cooking as Thais do.

There were also comments about general food trends and how they applied to Thai food and Thai restaurants. One respondent emphasized that these days people prefer a more authentic Thai taste as well as quicker service, cheaper price, and a larger portion size rather than wanting a luxury service. For this reason people are more likely to dine-in at a café than in a formal or high-class restaurant.

5.5.2 Factors Persuading Australians to Know About and Eat More Thai Food

This section presents the opinions of thirty Thai restaurant owners in Victoria in relation to factors persuading Australians to know about and eat more Thai food in the future. Respondents were asked 'What do you think are the best ways to persuade more people in Australia to get to know about Thai food and eat more Thai food in the future?

A data accounting sheet analysis technique (Miles and Huberman 1994) was used to calculate the answers because respondents provided thirty disparate items which have been classified into five categories: promotion of Thai food, standards and variety of Thai food, standards of services and staff, value for money and word-ofmouth.

Firstly, over two-thirds of respondents agreed on three ways that 'promotion' is the best way to persuade people in Australia to know about and eat more Thai food in the future. The first way included: educating consumers about the nutritional value of Thai food through television, radio, magazines, newspapers and dropping restaurant menus in mail boxes; providing sample and trial nights through setting up a Thai restaurant association and exhibitions of Thai cooking; and providing special discount or gift vouchers. The second way to persuade Australians to eat more Thai food is for restaurants to control the standards of taste, quality and authenticity, and to provide a variety of Thai food. The third way is to provide a friendly Thai style of service, well-trained Thai chefs and staff and home deliveries. Apart from persuading people to eat more Thai food through promotion, four Thai restaurant owners felt that customers liked having a banquet option (a set menu) and were becoming more conscious about value for money and price suited to portion size. Interestingly, only two respondents emphasized word of mouth recommendations from customers' friends as important.

During interview conversations five respondents [2,11,15, 25, 29] further emphasized their opinions that Thai food should be promoted by providing information to Australians about Thai herbs being healthy.

The best ways to persuade people in Australia to eat more Thai food in the future is to educate people through promotion on television about the uniqueness of Thai food and benefits to health through use of Thai herbs, which can cure some kinds of sickness and are also low in fats.

Two respondents gave particularly reasoned responses worth noting here. The first one [9] emphasized the need for promotion of Thai food through events such as Thai festivals and Thai food exhibitions. These could include presenting a Thai food booth and showing people how to cook Thai food. Another way would be to promote knowledge about Thailand, and encourage people to travel and eat Thai food in Thailand so they will come back to dine-in at Thai restaurants in Australia. The second respondent [12] suggested that promotion on television is the best way to encourage people to dine-in at Thai restaurants, because they can see the food looking the same as it does on television. 'Although customers like "Win a trip to Thailand" programs, this is not the main reason customers dine at our restaurant. Most of them did not know about the program before dining here'.

Interestingly, two respondents [4, 23] suggested that 'discount' strategy is a positive way to persuade Australians to eat more Thai food in the future. However another two [17, 20] disagreed that discounting is positive. They were of the view that discounting lowered the image of Thai food and emphasized that:

Thai restaurants should not compete with each other by discounting the price too much, otherwise Thai restaurants will not be able to make enough profit to survive in the future. Most customers do not mind paying for Thai food because they come to dine-in for

enjoyment. Moreover, they would not feel like eating Thai food that is too cheap because the image of the food would be lowered.

One respondent [24] strongly emphasized his opinion about the need for authenticity of taste:

Owners and chefs in Thai restaurants should cook the food which not only customers can eat, but which the owners and chefs can eat too. Moreover, chefs should think that if we cannot eat it means that customers cannot eat it too. Nowadays, Westerners know more about Thai food and can even cook Thai food themselves.

These responses revealed a strong concern about the need to promote Thai food as healthy due to the range of herbs used in cooking. They suggested television as the best way to educate Australians about Thai cooking and to encourage them to dine-in at Thai restaurants, despite a declining economy.

5.5.3 Ways Thai Food Manufacturers could help Thai restaurants overseas

This section aims to summarize opinions from owners about ways in which Thai food manufacturers in Thailand can assist Thai restaurants overseas. Respondents were asked 'In what ways do you think Thai food manufacturers in Thailand can help Thai restaurants overseas?

Eleven items were provided by twenty-five respondents. These have been classified into three categories: promotion, standards of ingredients, and standards of price. *Firstly*, nearly two-thirds of the respondents believed that food manufacturers in Thailand should assist restaurants overseas by providing funds to promote Thai food because they have profited from their custom for a long time [1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 19, 21, 25, 26, 27]. They believed that the way to promote Thai food in Australia is through manufacturers providing brochures, posters, Thai cooking booklets for chefs, and offering customers free trips for two to Thailand. However, one respondent [13] emphasized that Thai manufacturers may not be interested at this point because:

A Thai Government report said that there are more than 7,000 Thai restaurants around the world. Also there are many Thai restaurants in Thailand. Therefore, if they want to help

they would have to spend a lot of money to promote all Thai restaurants. However, if we contact them they should not refuse to help. They should consider how and in what ways they can support Thai restaurants overseas. In fact, I think this job should be supported by the Thai Government Export Department through contacting and working with Thai food manufacturers in Thailand.

Another respondent [21] emphasized that the Tourism Authority of Thailand should work with Thai food manufacturers in Thailand to produce brochures promoting both Thailand and the quality of Thai food. Most customers like to pick up brochures or magazines about traveling to Thailand.

The second way manufacturers can assist Thai restaurants overseas is by standardizing ingredients. Nearly one-third of respondents recommended that Thai manufacturers in Thailand should control the standards of ingredients [2, 4, 5, 7, 9, 15, 18, 21, 22, 29]. They want the quality of ingredients to be the same as in Thailand, otherwise they cannot cook authentic Thai food for customers in Australia.

Thirdly, five respondents believed that the cost of Thai ingredients should not increase due to their need to make enough profit to run a business in Australia [16, 18, 20, 23, 28]. They said they could not charge high prices for Thai food because there is high competition from other Asian food providers, especially Chinese.

The researcher agrees that the Export Department and the Tourism Authority of Thailand should join with Thai food manufacturers in Thailand to organize promotion for Thai food overseas. However, without government support Thai food manufacturers may not be able to afford to assist Thai restaurants overseas by providing promotions around the world because the exchange rate of Thai baht is weak against the Australian dollar and other western currencies. Added to this, if Thai food is to be standardized, the researcher believes that the quality of ingredients is more important to pleasing customers than lowering food prices.

5.5.4 Ways the Thai Government could help Thai restaurants overseas

Although respondents believed that Thai food manufacturers in Thailand could assist Thai restaurants overseas, they also believed that the government should help. This section reveals the opinions of the thirty Thai restaurant owners about ways the Thai Government could assist businesses overseas. Responses from twenty-nine respondents have been classified into five categories: providing funds for promotion, educating Thai chefs for Thai cooking, controlling standards of ingredients, controlling the price of ingredients and protecting the Thai image in Australia. Interestingly, the help desired by respondents from the Thai Government closely resembled the help desired from the Thai food manufacturers. Two-thirds of respondents wanted the Thai Government to assist restaurants overseas by providing funds to promote Thai food and control standards of ingredients and prices.

With regard to standardizing Thai food in Australia, six respondents [3, 5, 6, 13, 20, 29] emphasized the need for the Thai Government to negotiate with the Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (DIMIA) about simple ways to get four-year visas for well-trained Thai chefs to work in Australia.

The Thai Government should train Thai chefs for Thai restaurants overseas and negotiate with the Australian immigration to provide visas for Thai chefs. It is very difficult to get four-year visas for Thai chefs nowadays because the Australian embassy thinks that Thai restaurant owners should employ Thais who are already in Australia. It costs about A\$3,000-5,000 as well as taking six months to get a Thai chef who can work in Australia. Nowadays, most of the owners need to be a chef or teach overseas Thai students to be temporary or assistant chefs. Most Thai students have no knowledge about Thai cooking and do not really enjoy being chefs in Thai restaurants. They work as chefs just for money while studying in Australia.

However, since undertaking these interviews in 2003 the situation has changed. The author attended a workshop run by the Thai department of skills development (16 November 2004) to train Thai chefs in Australia in the art of cooking authentic Thai dishes and desserts. About 100 Thai restaurant owners and chefs attended this workshop. Secondly, a meeting with the Thai department of export promotion visiting Australia (5 April 2005) revealed that an agreement for four-year visas for Thai chefs had now been negotiated with the DIMIA. However, a few restaurant owners in the meeting raised the problem of salaries and conditions that the DIMIA were proposing for these well-trained Thai chefs. They pointed out that high salaries and fringe benefits for chefs as well as guarantees for their ongoing employment for four years could place owners in a weak position if the chefs were found to have a poor work ethic or there was a clash of personalities. They were also worried that after going to the expense of bringing chefs here, the chefs may leave and go to work somewhere else if they had not signed the contract for fouryear visas.

The Thai department of export promotion had also organized the 'THAILAND'S BRAND RESTAURANTS' certificate to award to Thai restaurants overseas.

5.5.5 Other ways to make Thai Food better known to foreigners

This section reports on the opinions of Thai restaurant owners about other ways to make Thai food better known to people overseas in the future. Twenty-three respondents recommended three dominant human resources (Thai restaurant owners, Thai Government and Thai people) as important.

Thai restaurant owners were the first important human resource for making Thai food better known to foreigners in the future. Eight respondents suggested that Thai restaurant owners should maintain standards for Thai chefs, authentic Thai foods and service to satisfy customers and encourage them to repeat purchase regularly.

Thai restaurants should maintain standards for Thai chefs and authentic Thai taste because Thai food is an image for Thai people as well [2, 23]. The owners of Thai restaurants should keep in mind that it is costly to advertise for finding new customers whereas it is cheaper to keep regular customers [20]. Thai food would be more popular to Westerners if the owners concentrated more on the standard of preparing raw materials in the traditional way; having knowledge of hygene in handling meats; and controlling the quality of real authentic Thai food that is also suited to Thai customers [7, 12, 25]. They should also keep up good standards of service and cleanliness of premises, and efficiency of staff [7, 12, 14, 20, 26].

One respondent [2] strongly emphasized that it would be more successful for investors in Thai restaurants if they were able to work as chefs as well.

The Thai restaurant owners should be able to act as a chef. This Thai restaurant has been in this business for a long time because the owner is a chef. Thai food should be researched to determine the levels of calories, nutritional values, and herbs in each dish.

Another respondent [29] strongly suggested that Thai restaurants in Australia should not be competitive by reducing the prices and should keep uniform prices.

The Thai Government was the second important human resource for making Thai food better known to foreigners in the future. Eleven of the respondents expressed support for encouragement from the Thai Government to provide funds to promote Thai food and restaurants in Australia.

The Thai Government should support Thai restaurants in Australia by funding advertising for Thai food. It should also support Thai tourism because Westerners who have traveled to Thailand really think it's a beautiful country and are impressed with the people. They say that Thai people are lovely, kindly and friendly. Most would come to dine in Thai restaurants in Australia after they return. Therefore, Thai food and Thailand should go together, setting up a Thai Restaurant Association also helps to promote Thai food and Thailand because Thai restaurants overseas are the first point to promote traveling to Thailand. We should set up a Thai culture and Thai food Festival on Thai New Year to promote Thai food and Thailand. We should set up a Thai Festival at Victoria Street every month.

Thai people who live in Australia were the third important human resource to make Thai food better known to Australians in the future.

I really think Thai food would be better known to people in Australia if Thai people recommended Thai food to their Australian friends[16].

Results from Section 5.5 (the consumption of Thai food in Australia) will be of benefit to Thai restaurant owners in Australia in regard to improving their business performance. Findings suggest that many Thai restaurant owners may need to be trained in running a successful business within the constraints of Australian taxation and food safety laws. They need to learn how to control the standards of food and staff, as well as know how to provide a friendly Thai style service. The Thai Government can only support their needs through outside sources including funds for promotion, training for Thai chefs, and negotiating four-year visas for Thai chefs with the Australian immigration authorities. In general, the author has found that Thai people are more than willing to recommend Thai food and Thai restaurants to their Australian friends if the dishes in those restaurants are authentic because they see Thai food as a positive image for Thai people and their culture.

5.6 Chapter Summary

Results extrapolated from interviews with thirty Thai restaurant owners in Victoria, Australia, related to factors affecting their customers' adoption of Thai food, have produced five pertinent findings. The first finding profiles the Thai restaurant owners, their staff, and the types of Thai restaurants they owned. Three types of Thai restaurant owners were identified: investor (3.33%); chef (53.33%); and receptionist (43.33%). All were born overseas, the majority being of Thai nationality (93.33%) and experienced in working for Thai restaurants prior to opening their own businesses (80.00%). Interestingly, nearly half of the owners (46.66%) who did not work as chefs, sponsored overseas Thai students and chefs as Permanent Residents to work as chefs in their restaurants. Furthermore, the majority of owners (96.66%) preferred to employ overseas students to work as kitchen hands and waiters/waitresses, rather than local people. Most Thai restaurant owners only operated their business in the evening, targeting customers from middle income levels and upwards. They classified their restaurants as Theme and Fine dining.

The second finding was that all Thai restaurant owners preferred to use authentic Thai recipes imported from Thailand. Most (90.3%) said Thai food in Australia should be adapted to Australian taste preferences by reducing the hot and spicy, and adding sugar to soften strong flavours. Interestingly, only three of thirty (9.7%) owners said that Thai food should be authentic as in Thailand. Sixty percent of Thai restaurants owners offered popular and delicious dishes from central Thailand because their flavours are not as strong as those from other parts of the country. The remaining forty percent decided their menu based on working experience and observations of dishes served in other Thai restaurants in Australia. Three important factors emerged in relation to the Thai restaurant owners' perceptions of the image of Thai food being: 'hot and spicy'; 'unique and balanced taste'; and 'Thai herbs are healthy'.

The third finding includes the beliefs of Thai restaurant owners in regards to their customers' profiles and food preferences. Here, they believed that most of their customers were Western females aged between 25 and 44. Most believed that their customers first got to know about Thai food through 'recommendation from customers' friends who had experienced Thai food'. Further, they believed that 'customers' experience of traveling to Thailand' significantly influenced some seeking out Thai restaurants, whereas 'location of Thai restaurant' was important for customers' first visit to their restaurant. Most Thai restaurant owners (73.33%) believed that their customers compared Thai food with other 'Asian foods' including Chinese, Indian, Vietnamese, Japanese, Malaysian and Korean, respectively. Thai restaurant owners classified their customers into four types: new, regular, allergic, and those with previous experience in Thailand. They believed that these four factors influenced customers' ways of order Thai dishes at their restaurants. The Thai restaurant owners also believed that 'recommendations by waitresses' was the most important factor for new customers when ordering Thai dishes, with 'description on the menu' influencing regular customers, 'description of Thai ingredients' influencing customers with allergies, and 'authentic Thai dishes as in Thailand' influencing customers who had experienced Thai food in Thailand. With regard to price, Thai restaurant owners believed that their customers preferred to pay A\$6-10 for lunch and A\$16-30 for dinner.

Based on the 4Ps Marketing Mix theory in relation to factors affecting customers' decisions to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia, most Thai restaurant owners ranked *product* (Thai food characteristics of taste and quality) as the most important. This was followed by *price* as second, *place* as third, and *promotion* as the least important in influencing their customers to make a decision to eat at their restaurants.

In regard to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory, most Thai restaurant owners believed 'a different eating experience' was the most important factor influencing their customers to make a decision to eat Thai food at their restaurants. This was followed by 'Thai food is nutritious and healthy', 'Thai food is fashionable', 'they want to socialise', and 'they are hungry', respectively.

In providing authentic Thai food to their customers, most restaurant owners believed that a 'Thai chef' was the most important factor. This was followed by 'Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style' and 'Thai food is served by Thai waitress'. Interestingly, they did not rank 'Thai restaurant is owned by Thais' as important. In regard to customer repeat purchase, all restaurant owners believed that 'recommendation' of Thai food and Thai restaurant was the most important factor. This was followed by customers' knowledge of Thailand and Thai food, customers' positive image of Thailand and an authentic Thai taste of Thai food, respectively. Most Thai restaurant owners believed that the reason customers like Thai food is because the taste is balanced and unique, whereas those who dislike Thai food find it too hot and spicy.

The fourth finding summarizes the results of popular Thai dishes ordered by customers at Thai restaurant in Victoria, Australia. They indicated that the five most popular Entrees ordered by their customers are Tomyum Goong, Spring roll, Mixed entrée, Satay, and Curry puff. The five most popular main courses are Green curry, Pad graprow, Pad cashew nuts, Mussamun curry, and Panang curry. The five most popular desserts are Ice-cream, Banana fritter with ice-cream, Bualoy pueak, Kao-tom-mad with ice-cream, and Coconut ice-cream.

The last finding is of Thai restaurant owners' views of customer preferences for Thai food during the period 1998-2003. More than two-thirds of Thai restaurant owners believed that Thai food had become more popular due to customer familiarity with spicy tastes, whereas others believed that customer preference for Thai food had decreased due to a drop in the Australian economy, the introduction of GST, an in increase in non-Thai restaurant owners, and over-adaptation of dishes to Australian taste. Thai restaurant owners identified five main factors they believed would persuade more people in Australia to know about Thai food and eat more Thai food in the future. These include promotion of Thai food, improved standards and variety of Thai food, improved standards of services and staff, increased value for money, and more word-of-mouth recommendations. Thai restaurant owners also believed that food manufacturers in Thailand should join with the Thai Government (the Export Department and the Tourism Authority of Thailand) to promote Thai food and Thailand through the provision of funds for promotion, training more Thai chefs, controlling standards of ingredients, controlling the price of ingredients, and protecting the Thai image in Australia. Findings of these and the above opinions of Thai restaurant owners will be later used to compare with the results of opinions of their customers.

The following Chapter 6 records the findings on customers' opinions, extrapolated from the quantitative survey conducted among customers at Thai restaurants, using a descriptive analysis.

CHAPTER 6

QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS (DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS)

6.0 Introduction

A quantitative survey questionnaire was compiled, trialled and distributed to thirty Thai Restaurants in Victoria to obtain data for an analysis of customers' attitudes towards eating Thai food. In this chapter results of the quantitative survey questionnaire are discussed to obtain a valid 'descriptive analysis'. Even though descriptive statistics do not allow the testing of many hypotheses, they do provide useful information to researchers and should always be reported in any research study (Kerr et al. 2002). Accordingly, the quantitative research results based on a descriptive analysis are discussed in this chapter and those based on inferential analysis for testing hypotheses are discussed in Chapter 7.

The objective for undertaking a descriptive analysis was to report the results of all questions in the survey questionnaire according to research framework (Figure 3.1, p.82), as presented in Chapter 3, Section 3.4. In addition, analysis of the results also aimed to answer Research Question 1, *'What factors affect consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia?'* In order to answer the research question, tables have been used to show the number of responses, percentages of results, and mean/median/mode scores and standard deviations.

This chapter consists of ten sections that provide results for *demographics* profiles of respondents; *previous experience* of eating Thai food; respondents' *knowledge* of Thai food; *need recognition* for making a decision to eat Thai food; *sources of information* about Thai food and Thai restaurants; *evaluation* of eating alternatives; *consumer behaviour* for eating out in Australia; *consumption*; *post-consumption evaluation*, and a *chapter summary*.

6.1 Demographics (Profiles of Respondents)

The sample population for the quantitative survey consists of customers from thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria. A total of 1009 survey questionnaires was used in this study, 21% (N=212) completed at the restaurant and 79% (N=797) returned by mail.

Characteristics of all respondents from the participating Thai restaurants including *gender, age, ethnic groups, income, education, and occupation*, were obtained, and questions used in the questionnaire were constructed in accordance with the most recent Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) census 2001, to compare with the total population of Victoria. The corresponding ABS demographics of the Victoria population (age by gender) are shown in Table 6.1 and demographics of respondents are shown in Table 6.2.

 Table 6.1 Demographic Characteristics of Residents of Victoria (2001)

Age by Ge	ender						
Gender	0-14 years	15-24	25-44	45-64	65 or over	Total	%
Male	484264	321322	684975	520049	252896	2,263,506	49.08
Female	459449	311821	714970	529655	332696	2,348,591	50.92
Total	943713	633143	1399945	1049704	585592	4,612,097	100.00
Total (%)	20.46	13.73	30.35	22.76	12.70	100	

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001 Census Basic Community Profile and Snapshot, /www.abs.gov.au, 8 July 2003

NOTE: (1) Overseas visitors are excluded from this count.

(2) The median age of people in the 2001 Census was 35 years

With respect to *gender*, 60% of the respondents were female and 40% were male. However, this difference does not correspond with the Victorian population of 50.9% female and 49.1% male (ABS, 2001).

In terms of *age groups*, most respondents were in the age groups 25-34 years (30.9%) and 35-44 years (24.9%). Only 3% were in the age group 65 and over. These groups compare closely with the demographics of the Victorian population where ages 25-44 years comprise 30.35% and 45-64 years comprise 22.76%.

Table 6.2 (a) Age by Gender

		Gender		Total
		Male (%)	Female (%)	
Age groups	18-24	44 (11.5)	75 (13.1)	119 (12.5)
	25-34	107 (28.0)	188 (32.8)	295 (30.9)
	35-44	98 (25.7)	140 (24.4)	238 (24.9)
	45-54	63 (16.5)	105 (18.3)	168 (17.6)
	55-64	55 (14.4)	51 (8.9)	106 (11.1)
	65 or over	15 (3.9)	14 (2.4)	29 (3.0)
	Total	382 (100.0)	573 (100.0)	955 (100 <i>.</i> 0)

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 33 and Question 40

For *ethnic groups*, results showed that 68.5% of respondents were born in Australia, while 31.5% were born overseas.

Table 6.2 (b) Ethnic Groups

Q34: Were you born in Australia?	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Yes No	687 316	68.5 31.5
Total	1003	100

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 34

They were from 53 nationalities which have been classified into 12 ethnic groups; see Table 6.2 (c). More than half (59.1%) of the respondents identified themselves as of Australian nationality, followed by European (21.4%) and North East Asian (9.6%). When comparing results to ABS (2001) data, it was noted that 71.1% of the people in Victoria were born in Australia, while 23.4%

were born overseas. Those who were born in Australia had three most common ancestries identified which were Australian (33.0%), English (30.3%), and Irish (10.2%). In this study, the three main countries of those born overseas were: United Kingdom (4.5%); Italy (2.0%); and Greece (1.2%).

Q36: My ethnic background:	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Australian	593	59.1
European	215	21.4
North American	13	1.3
North East Asia	96	9.6
South East Asia	22	2.2
Western Asian	15	1.5
South American	5	.5
Middle East	4	.4
Mixed Western/Asian	4	.4
African	4	.4
East European	3	.3
New Zealander	21	2.1
Others	8	.8
Total	1003	100

Table 6.2 (c) Ethnicity

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 36

For *annual income* from all sources before tax, eight categories are shown as forming two major groups; see Table 6.2 (d); those earning less than \$70,000 (74.7%) and those earning more than \$70,000 (25.3%), indicating that there were more respondents from the lower income group (<\$70,000) eating-out for Thai food (dinner) than for the higher income group (>\$70,000). Referring to ABS figures (2001), the median weekly individual income for people aged 15 years and over was \$300-\$399 (\$15,600-\$20,748 per year).

Q39: My annual income from all sources before tax (A\$):	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Less than \$25,000	172	18.5
\$25,000-\$39,999	177	19.1
\$40,000-\$54,999	203	21.9
\$55,000-\$69,999	156	16.8
\$70,000-\$84,999	68	7.3
\$85,000-\$99,999	48	5.2
\$100,000-\$149,999	63	6.8
More than \$150,000	41	4.4
Total	928	100

Table 6.2 (d) Annual income

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 39

In terms of *education* Table 6.2 (e), 42.7% of respondents had a Bachelor's degree (42.7%), 22.3% had studied to secondary level, 17.6% TAFE held a certificate (17.6%), 12.4% a Master degree (12.4%), and only 3.6% held a Doctoral degree. When comparing with ABS data (2001), it was noted that the majority of people in Victoria (65.2%) had education outside the scope of standard classifications. About 20.6% held a diploma or certificate, 10.7% held a Bachelor's degree, and only 3.5% held a postgraduate degree.

Table 6.2 (e) Education

Q37: My highest level of Education	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Primary	2	.2
Secondary	222	22.3
TAFE certificate	175	17.6
Bachelor degree	425	42.7
Master degree	124	12.4
Doctoral degree	36	3.6
Others	12	1.2
Total	996	100

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 37

With respect to *occupation* Table 6.2 (f), just over one-third (37.9%) of the respondents worked in professional positions, 13.2% worked as managers, and 12.9% were students. With reference to ABS data (2001), of the 93.2% employed people, 30.6% were professional, 16.1% were intermediate clerical, sales and service workers, 12.2% were tradespersons and related workers, 9.5% were managers and administrators, and 8.2% were employed as labourers and related workers. This shows that in terms of occupation, professionals were the main customers of the sample of thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.

Table 6.2 (f) Occupation

Q38: My occupation	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Student	128	12.9
Administration	96	9.7
Manager	131	13.2
Professional	375	37.9
Skilled worker	80	8.1
Unskilled worker	8	.8
Self employed	101	10.2
Retired	47	4.7
Housework or House wives	16	1.6
Unemployed	1	.1
Others	7	.7
Total	990	100

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 38

For the testing of the five null hypotheses *Ho1* to *Ho5* (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6) based on the results of the different demographics of respondents for the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner), inferential analysis has been conducted and reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.1.

6.2 Previous Experience of Eating Thai Food

This section focuses on five main parts: *firstly*, an analysis of whether respondents had eaten Thai food in Thailand and Australia before dining-in at the current Thai restaurant (Section 6.2.1); *secondly*, an analysis of how long respondents had been

eating Thai food in Australia before dining-in at the current Thai restaurant (Section 6.2.2); *thirdly*, an analysis of previous satisfaction of respondents when eating Thai food prior to dining-in at the current Thai restaurant (Section 6.2.3); *fourthly*, an analysis of the length of time taken for respondents to repeat-purchase Thai food prior to dining-in at the current Thai restaurant (Section 6.2.4). *Finally*, respondents' experience of having Thai friends, eating Thai friends' cooking, and learning Thai cooking, is analysed (Section 6.2.5).

Frequency statistics (percentages) used to investigate the results for eight questions (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5 and Q30, Q31, Q32) are reported in this section.

6.2.1 Previous Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand and Australia

Results for two questions investigating, whether respondents had eaten Thai food in Thailand (Q1) and in Australia (Q2) before dining-in at the current Thai restaurant, are presented in this section.

In Table 6.3, results show that nearly half (44.7%) of the respondents had experience of eating Thai food in Thailand, while 55.3% had never had this experience. Almost all of the respondents (93.2%) had experience of eating Thai food in Australia, while for 6.8% it was their first experience.

Respondents were also asked more details about how many times they had eaten Thai food' in Thailand (Q1), and in Australia (Q2).

In Table 6.3, results show that 34.1% of respondents had experience of eating Thai food between 1-50 times in Thailand, while 68.9% had experience of eating Thai food in Australia. A small proportion of respondents had experience of eating Thai food more than 50 times; 9.7% in Thailand, and almost one-third (31.1%) in Australia.

Q.1: Have you ever eaten Thai food in Thailand?	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Yes	451	44.7
No	558	55.3
Total	1009	100
Q1: If Yes. How many times approximately?	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Less than 5 times	76	7.7
5-20 times	167	16.8
21-50 times	95	9.6
51-100 times	41	4.1
More than 100 times	56	5.6
No experience	558	56.2
Total	993	100
Q2: Have you ever eaten Thai food in Australia	Number of	Percentages
before dining in this Thai restaurant?	Respondents	(%)
Yes No (First experience with Thai food in	940	93.2
Australia)	69	6.8
Total	1009	100
<i>Q2: If Yes. How many times approximately?</i>	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Less than 5 times	95	10.0
5-20 times	257	27.0
21-50 times	235	24.7
51-100 times	160	16.8
More than 100 times	136	14.3
First time in Australia	69	7.2
	952	100

Table 6.3

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04),

Questions 1 and 2

For the testing of the two null hypotheses Ho9 and Ho10 (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6) based on the results of the different levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and Australia for the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating-out for Thai food), inferential analysis was conducted and reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.2.

6.2.2 Previous Experience: Length of Time Eating Thai Food in Australia

For Question 3, respondents were asked 'How long have you been eating Thai food in Australia? Results (Table 6.4) show that nearly two-thirds of the respondents had been eating Thai food in Australia for 1-5 years and about 20.8% for more than 5 years. Fewer than 10% of the respondents had been eating Thai food in Australia for less than 1 year, with about 7% eating Thai food in Australia for the first time at this Thai restaurant.

Table 6.4 Previous Experience: Length of Time of Eating Thai Food in Australia

Q3: How long have you been eating Thai food in Australia?	Number of	Percentages
	Respondents	(%)
A few days	5	0.5
About a week	6	0.6
About a month	14	1.4
About 2-3 months	15	1.5
About 4-6 months	31	3.2
About 7-12 months	26	2.6
More than 1 year to 5 years	613	62.3
More than 5 years	205	20.8
First time in Australia	69	7.0
Total	984	100

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 3

6.2.3 Previous Experience: Satisfaction with Thai Food in Australia

For Question 4, respondents were asked to rate how satisfied they were with Thai food the last time before dining in this Thai restaurant on a seven-point Likert scale from (7) Extremely satisfied to (1) Extremely dissatisfied.

Overall results show that more than two-thirds (83.6%) of the respondents were satisfied with Thai food before they dined-in this Thai restaurant, (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5 Previous Experience: Satisfaction with Thai Food in Australia

Q4: How satisfied were you with Thai food		
the last time	Number of	Percentages
before dining in this Thai restaurant?	Respondents	(%)
Extremely satisfied	296	30.1
Very satisfied	330	33.6
Somewhat satisfied	195	19.9
Neutral	66	6.7
Somewhat Dissatisfied	14	1.4
Very Dissatisfied	8	0.8
Extremely Dissatisfied	4	0.4
First time in Australia	69	7.0
Total	982	100

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 4

6.2.4 Previous Experience: Most Recent Time Eating Thai Food in Australia

For Question 5, respondents were asked when was the last time they ate Thai food. Respondents were asked to select only one answer from seven possible answers. The last choice was open-ended for respondents to write alternative answers. Results (Table 6.6) show that nearly one-third (33.3%) of the respondents ate Thai food 'up to a week ago; followed by 26.4% a month ago; and about 24.2% between 2-6 months ago.

Table 6.6

Trevious Experience: r eriou or rinne between re	ai entașeș		
Q5: The last time I ate Thai food was:	Number of	Percentages	
	Respondents	(%)	
A few days ago	166	16.8	
A week ago	163	16.5	
A month ago	261	26.4	
2-3 months ago	135	13.6	
4-6 months ago	105	10.6	
7-12 months ago	43	4.3	
More than 1 years to 5 years ago	46	4.6	
More than 5 years ago	2	0.2	
First time in Australia	69	7.0	
Total	990	100	

Previous Experience: Period of Time between Purchases

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 5

In summary, the majority of respondents had previous experience of eating Thai food in Australia for more than one to five years (62.3%) and a smaller number (20.8%) for more than five years. Most of them (83.6%) were satisfied with Thai food and repeated their purchase of Thai food within a week (33.3%), a month (26.4%), and 2-6 months (24.2%).

6.2.5 Previous Experience: Having Thai Friends, Thai Friends' Cooking and Learning Thai Cooking

In this section three questions were used to investigate the results of respondents' involvement with Thai friends (Q30), Thai friends' cooking (Q31), and learning Thai cooking (Q32).

Results (Table 6.7) show that less than one-third (29.8%) of the respondents had Thai friends, and only 20.4% noted that Thai friends had cooked Thai food for them. The majority (84.0%) of the respondents had never learnt Thai cooking.

Q30: Do you have any Thai friends?	Number of	Percentages
	Respondents	(%)
Yes	244	29.8
No	575	70.2
Total	819	100
Q31: Have Thai friends ever cooked Thai food for you?		
Yes	167	20.4
No	652	79.6
Total	819	100
Q32: Have you ever learnt Thai cooking?		
Yes	131	16.0
No	688	84.0
Total	819	100

Table 6.7		
Previous Experience:	Thai Friends and Thai	Cooking

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Questions 30-32

The three null hypotheses *H*o6 to *H*o8 (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6) were performed to investigate whether having Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, and learning Thai cooking affected respondents in relation to the adoption of Thai food 'frequency of eating-out for Thai food (dinner). The results of these tests utilising inferential analysis, are reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.2.

6.3 Objective and Subjective Knowledge of Thai Food

Two types of knowledge were analysed in this study, objective and subjective. Objective knowledge refers to 'what is actually stored in memory', while subjective knowledge refers to 'what individuals perceive that they know' (Brucks 1985, p.2). Section 6.3.1 presents results for respondents' objective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food and Section 6.3.2 presents results for respondents' subjective knowledge of traditional Thai food.

6.3.1 Objective Knowledge

In this section two questions (Q10 and Q11) were used to investigate the respondents' objective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food. Respondents were asked to select only one correct answer from two possible answers in Question 10 (see Table 6.8).

Results from Table 6.8 show that the majority of respondents (82.1%) selected the right answer (item 1). About 4.4% of the respondents did not select an answer from Question 10 and Question 11. Some of them wrote 'Don't know' on the response questionnaire. In Question 11 respondents were asked to select only one correct answer from four possible answers (see Table 6.8). Results showed that just over two-thirds (69.5%) of the respondents selected the right answer (item 2).

Results from these two questions (Q10+Q11) were used to group respondents into three groups: low, moderate, and high 'objective knowledge' based groups for testing the null hypothesis *Ho11* (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6). This hypothesis was further examined by inferential analysis and the results are reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.3.

Table 6.8 Objective Knowledge: Traditional Thai Way of Eating Thai Food

objective ikilowieuge. Traditional That way of Lating Tha	1.000	
Q10: The traditional Thai way of eating Thai food is:	N	Percent
(please $\sqrt{only one correct answer}$)		(%)
1) To take one Thai dish from a central plate to put on your own plate	828	82.1
of steamed rice, then eat before taking another Thai dish from a central plate.		
2) To take all Thai dishes from a central plate to put on your own plate	137	13.6
of steamed rice, then mix all of them before eating.		
3) Don't know	44	4.4
Total	1009	100
Q11: The traditional Thai way of eating Thai food is:	N	Percent
(please $\sqrt{only one correct answer}$)		(%)
1) Thai food is eaten with a spoon and a fork	701	69.5
2) Thai food is eaten with chopsticks	166	16.5
3) Thai food is eaten with only a fork	103	10.2
4) Don' know	21	2.1
5) Thai food is eaten with a knife and a fork	18	1.8
Total	1009	100

Source: Orginal data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04),

Questions 10 and 11. N= Number of respondents

6.3.2 Subjective Knowledge

In this section the respondents' subjective knowledge of traditional Thai food is reported. Respondents were asked to rate their own background knowledge about traditional Thai food from six items, each on a five-point Likert scale from (5) Very Good to (1) Very Poor. Results presented in Table 6.9 (mean scores) show two main factors: Traditional Characteristics of Thai food and Traditional Way of eating Thai food. Respondents had more background knowledge about traditional characteristics of Thai food (taste, aroma, and appearance) than they had on the traditional way of eating Thai food, Thai dish names, and ordering Thai food. However, respondents indicated their background knowledge as less than 'Good' for all items for the 'Traditional characteristics of Thai food' factor. Overall respondents also indicated that their background knowledge was less than 'Fair' for the 'Traditional way of eating Thai food' factor.

Table 6.9

Subjective Idio medge. I fautional						
Q12: Please rate your own	(5) + (4)	(3)	(2) + (1)			
background knowledge about				Total		
the traditional Thai food.	N	N	N	Ν	Mean	SD
(please $$ only one box for each item)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Traditional characteristics of Thai food						
1) The authentic <i>taste</i> of Thai food	539	260	200	999	3.47	1.14
	(53.9)	(26.0)	(20.0)	(100)		
2) The authentic aroma of Thai food	492	286	220	998	3.37	1.15
	(49.3)	(28.7)	(22.0)	(100)		
3) The authentic appearance of Thai food	400	303	294	997	3.13	1.17
	(40.1)	(30.4)	(29.5)	(100)		
Traditional way of eating Thai food						
4) The traditional way of eating Thai food	328	304	368	1000	2.93	1.15
	(32.8)	(30.4)	(36.8)	(100)	s 2,533	
5) The traditional Thai dish names	270	319	407	996	2.80	1.13
	(27.1)	(32.0)	(40.9)	(100)		8
6) The traditional way of ordering Thai food	249	269	480	998	2.70	1.17
	(24.9)	(27.0)	(48.1)	(100)		
Source: Date drawn from man ander to the our out of		~ (2002	04) Ourort	ion 12		

Source: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 12 N=Number of respondents Note: (5)=Very Good, (4)=Good, (3) = Fair, (2)=Poor, (1)=Very Poor

In summary, respondents tended to have more 'objective knowledge' than 'subjective knowledge'. This may be because objective knowledge is actually already stored in respondents' memories from their practical experience of eating Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia, while subjective knowledge is more concerned with what respondents perceive they know about the traditional Thai food.

The null hypotheses of *Ho12a* and *Ho12b* (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6) were performed based on subjective knowledge for testing the adoption of Thai food. Results are presented in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.3.

6.4 Need Recognition of Thai Food

This section focuses on the measurement of respondents' attitudes about need recognition for their making a decision to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants in Four main aspects from Questions 16, 21, 23, and 24 are discussed in Australia. this section. The first, an analysis in accordance with Maslow's hiererchy of needs: physiological (I am hungry); safety (Thai food is nutritious and healthy); social (I want to socialise); esteem (Thai food is fashionable) and self-actualisation (I want a different eating experience), is presented in Section 6.4.1. The second, an analysis of the importance of the 4Ps of marketing mix (Product, Price, Place, and Promotion) which affect respondents to make the decision to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants, is presented in Section 6.4.2. An analysis of the importance of fifteen items according to four factors (product, price, place, and promotion) which affect respondents to make the decision to eat Thai food, is also presented in this section. Finally, an analysis of the factors which affect respondents in feeling that they had authentic Thai food and the factors which affect respondents to eat Thai food more is presented in Section 6.4.3.

6.4.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

An analysis of the importance of five needs recognition which affect respondents to make the decision to eat Thai food in Australia is presented here. For Question 16, 'How important are the following needs when you make the decision to eat Thai food?', respondents were asked to select only one item from seven possible items using a seven-point Likert scale from 7 (Extremely important) to 1 (Extremely unimportant). The five needs included: physiological (I am hungry); safety (Thai

food is nutritious and healthy); social (I want to socialise); esteem (Thai food is fashionable); and self- actualisation (I want a different eating experience).

Results for Question 16 in Table 6.10 below, (mean scores) show that *physiological need* (5.16) 'I am hungry', was the most important factor for respondents in deciding to eat Thai food. This was followed by *safety need* (5.11) 'Thai food is nutritious and healthy' and *self-actualisation need* (5.02) 'I want a different eating experience'. The next most important factor was *social need* (4.69), 'I want to socialise'. Lastly, *esteem need* (3.26) 'Thai food is fashionable' was not rated as important for respondents to make the decision to eat Thai food in Australia.

Table 6.10 Maslow's Hierarchy of Need for Consumer Decision-Making to Eat Thai Food

to Lat Thai roou										
Q16: How important are the	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)			
following needs when you make										
the decision to eat Thai food?								Total	Mean	SD
(please $$ only one box for each].									
item)	N	N	Ν	N	N	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
1) I am hungry	144	274	308	187	39	16	22	990	5.16	1.30
	(14.5)	(27.7)	(31.1)	(18.9)	(3.9)	(1.6)	(2.2)	(100)		
2) Thai food is nutritious	94	301	344	178	51	17	11	996	5.11	1.18
and healthy	(9.4)	(30.2)	(34.5)	(17.9)	(5.1)	(1.7)	(1.1)	(100)		
3) I want a different	112	295	309	174	44	22	43	999	5.02	1.41
eating experience	(11.2)	(29.5)	(30.9)	(17.4)	(4.4)	(2.2)	(4.3)	(100)		
4) I want to socialise	59	231	287	264	82	39	28	990	4.69	1.34
	(6.0)	(23.3)	(29.0)	(26.7)	(8.3)	(3.9)	(2.8)	(100)		
5) Thai food is fashionable	9	39	118	350	171	121	182	990	3.26	1.46
	(0.9)	(3.9)	(11.9)	(35.4)	(17.3)	(12.2)	(18.4)	(100)		

Source: Orginal data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 16 Note : (7)=Extremely important, (6)=Very important, (5)=Somewhat important, (4)=Neutral,

(3)=Somewhat unimportant, (2)=Very unimportant, (1)=Extremely unimportant

N = Number of respondents

Factor analysis and cluster analysis were used to classify responses into three groups: physiological needs, self-actualisation needs, and social needs, for subsequent testing of the null hypothesis Ho13 (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6). Results are reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.4.

6.4.2 Marketing Mix (4Ps)

This section presents results of the ranking of the 4Ps of the marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion); and the importance of fifteen items according to the 4Ps marketing mix affecting respondents to make a decision to dine out for Thai food.

• Ranking the Importance of the Product, Price, Place, and Promotion

Question 21, ('Please rank (1-4) the following in order of importance when you decide to dine out for Thai food') was used to measure the ranking of the importance of 4Ps (product, price, place and promotion) for respondents when deciding to dine out for Thai food. The four factors were *Product* (Thai food characteristics); *Price* of Thai food; *Place* (convenient location of Thai restaurants) and special *Promotion*.

Results (median scores) in the Table 6.11 show that 'Thai food characteristics' (1.00) were most frequently ranked highly by respondents in deciding to dine out for Thai food at Thai restaurants. This was followed by 'Convenient Location of Thai Restaurants' (2.00); 'Price of Thai Food' (3.00), and 'Special Promotion' (4.00), respectively.

for Consumer Decision-Making to Dine Out for Thai Food Q21:Please rank (1-4) the following in order of Ranking by Frequency importance when you decide to dine out No.1 No.2 No.3 No.4 Total Median for Thai food. N Ν Ν Ν Ν (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) Thai food characteristics 707 166 78 42 993 1.00 (7.9)(100)(71.2) (16.7)(4.2)Convenient location of Thai restaurants 184 993 2.00 407 337 65 (18.5)(41.0) (33.9) (6.5)(100)Price of Thai food 85 388 471 48 992 3.00 (8.6) (39.1) (47.5) (4.8)(100)Special Promotion 23 30 93 989 4.00 843 (9.4)(100)(2.3)(3.0)(85.2)

Table 6.11 Ranking the Importance of 4Ps Marketing Mix for Consumer Decision-Making to Dine Out for Thai Food

Source: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 21

Note: Bold numbers show the most respondents ranked No. 1 to No. 4

N = Number of respondents

• Importance of 4Ps (Marketing Mix)

for Consumer Decision-Making to Eat Thai Food

For Question 23, 'How important are the following when you make the decision to eat Thai food?', respondents were asked to rate their opinion of fifteen items according to 4Ps marketing mix: product, price, place, and promotion on a seven-point Likert scale from 7 (Extremely important) to 1 (Extremely unimportant). Seven items (quality, variety, spiciness, nutritional value, appearance, aroma, and taste) were used to measure the *product factor*. Three items (reasonable price; value for money; and portion size) were used to measure the *price factor*. Two items (convenient location and restaurant decorated in Thai style) were used to measure the *place factor*. Three items (win a trip to Thailand; special gifts from Thai restaurant; and special discount period) were used to measure the *promotion factor*.

Results (Table 6.12) are explained in accordance with four main factors.

Firstly, items important for the Product factor 'Thai food characteristics' were rated as follows: taste (6.49); quality (6.48); aroma (5.77); variety (5.73); appearance (5.53); spiciness (5.48); nutritional value (5.29).

Secondly, items important for the Price factor (price for Thai food) were rated as follows: value for money (5.79), reasonable price (5.63), and portion size (5.37).

Thirdly, items important for the Place factor were rated as follows: convenient location (5.46) and restaurant decorated in Thai style (4.49).

Lastly, items important for the Promotion factor were rated as follows: special discount period (3.90); win a trip to Thailand (3.68); special gifts from Thai restaurants (3.43).

In summary, three main factors: Thai food characteristics; location of Thai restaurants and price of Thai food were identified as important for respondents to make a decision to eat Thai food in Australia. Thai food characteristics, in particular taste and quality, constituted the most important factor for respondents to make the decision to eat Thai food. Convenient location was more important than a restaurant decorated in Thai style. Value for money was most important for the price factor. Special promotion was not rated as an important factor for these respondents in deciding to eat Thai food.

Q23: How important are the	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)			
following when you make the						(-)		1		
decision to eat Thai food?								Total	Mean	SD
(please \checkmark only one box for each item)	Ν	N	N	N	N	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Product Factor										
1) Taste of Thai food	593	330	57	15	4	0	1	1000	6.49	0.73
	(59.3)	(33.0)	(5.7)	(1.5)	(0.4)	(0)	(0.1)	(100)		
2) Quality of Thai food	580	350	48	16	7	0	0	1001	6.48	0.73
	(57.9)	(35.0)	(4.8)	(1.6)	(0.7)	(0)	(0)	(100)		
4) Aroma of Thai food	219	430	269	65	15	0	0	998	5.77	0.91
	(21.9)	(43.1)	(27.0)	(6.5)	(1.5)	(0)	(0)	(100)		
5) Variety of Thai food	162	484	285	59	9	0	0	999	5.73	0.83
	(16.2)	(48.4)	(28.5)	(5.9)	(0.9)	(0)	(0)	(100)		
7) Appearance of Thai food	149	393	339	90	28	3	0	1002	5.53	0.97
	(14.9)	(39.2)	(33.8)	(9.0)	(2.8)	(0.3)	(0)	(100)		
8) Spiciness of Thai food	155	352	347	121	20	5	1	1001	5.48	1.00
	(15.5)	(35.2)	(34.7)	(12.1)	(2.0)	(0.5)	(0.1)	(100)		
10) Nutritional value of Thai food	146	311	305	176	50	6	6	1000	5.29	1.16
	(14.6)	(31.1)	(30.5)	(17.6)	(5.0)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(100)		
Price Factor				[·				
3) Value for money	227	421	283	54	11	2	2	1000	5.79	0.93
	(22.7)	(42.1)	(28.3)	(5.4)	(1.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(100)		
6) Reasonable price	168	386	372	57	8	3	2	996	5.63	0.90
11) Develop	(16.9)	(38.8)	(37.3)	(5.7)	(0.8)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(100)	6.07	0.00
11) Portion size	108	329	429	98	27	4	2	997	5.37	0.95
	(10.8)	(33.0)	(43.0)	(9.8)	(2.7)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(100)		
Place Factor			2.40		0.7		-	007	- 16	0.00
9) Convenient location	129	375	369	90	27	2	5	997	5.46	0.99
12) Decorated restaurant in	(12.9)		(37.0)	(9.0)	(2.7)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(100) 997	4.49	1.19
	43	109	384	301					4.49	1.15
Thai style	(4.3)	(10.9)	(38.5)	(30.2)	(10.1)	(3.6)	(2.3)	(100)		
Promotion Factor	- 4			220	1.40	0.2	100	004	2.00	1.54
13) Special discount period	54 (5-4)	71	220	320	140	83 (8.4)	106	994 (100)	3.90	1.56
14) Win a trip to Thailand	(5.4)	(7.1)	(22.1)	(32.2)	(14.1) 141	(8.4)	(10.7) 139	(100) 995	3.68	1.66
	76 (7.6)		124 (12.5)		(14.2)			(100)	5.08	1.00
15) Special gifts from	(7.6)	(5.3) 45	107	366	(14.2)	128	154	992	3.43	1.54
Thai restaurants	(3.7)	(4.5)	(10.8)				(15.5)		5.15	

Table 6.12 Important Factors (4Ps Marketing Mix) for Consumer Decision-Making to Eat Thai Foo

Source: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 23

Note: (7)=Extremely important, (6)=Very important, (5) Somewhat important, (4) Neutral,

(3)=Somewhat unimportant, (2) Very unimportant, (1) Extremely unimportant

N = Number of respondents

6.4.3 Important Factors for Authentic Thai Food and Repeat Purchase

This section focuses on two main parts. The results are presented in Table 6.13. The first part covers the investigation of respondents' opinions about which factors influenced them to feel that they had eaten authentic Thai food. The second part covers the investigation of respondents' opinions about the factors which affect them in deciding to eat more Thai food.

Firstly, respondents indicated agreement that they would feel they had eaten authentic Thai food if 'Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef' (6.05), followed by 'Thai restaurant is owned by Thais' (5.64), 'Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style' (5.12), 'Thai food is served by a Thai waitress/waiter' (5.10) and Waitress/waiter wears a traditional Thai suit (4.83).

Secondly, respondents indicated that they would eat Thai food more if 'Thai restaurants were recommended to me' (5.54), 'Thai foods had authentic Thai taste' (5.40) and 'Thai foods were recommended to me' (5.36). Respondents indicated that they less than slightly agreed with the following four factors affecting their inclination to eat Thai food more if they knew more about Thai food (4.82), Thailand had a positive image (4.48), they knew how to cook Thai food (4.46) and they knew more about Thailand (4.40).

In summary, two main factors: 'Recommendation' and 'Thai foods had authentic Thai taste' appeared to influence respondents to want to eat Thai food more. Two more factors, a 'Thai chef' and 'Thai restaurant owned by Thais', appeared to influence respondents to want to eat Thai food more because respondents indicated agreement that they would feel they had eaten authentic Thai food if Thai food was cooked by a Thai chef and Thai restaurant is owned by Thais. These results may assist the owner of a Thai restaurant or a marketer of Thai food in Australia by giving them a greater understanding of the factors that influence respondents to eat more Thai food. These factors are 'Recommendation' (word-of-mouth) and 'authentic Thai food'.

Q24: Please indicate how much	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)			
you agree or disagree with the										
following statements								Total	Mean	SD
(please \checkmark only one box for each item)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
would feel I had authentic Thai food if:										
) Thai food is cooked by	375	440	104	48	8	16	8	999	6.05	1.10
a Thai chef	(37.5)	(44.0)	(10.4)	(4.8)	(0.8)	(1.6)	(0.8)	(100)		
2) Thai restaurant is owned by	246	407	175	120	16	23	11	998	5.64	1.25
Thais	(24.6)	(40.8)	(17.5)	(12.0)	(1.6)	(2.3)	(1.1)	(100)		
3) Thai restaurant is	112	335	271	191	37	37	16	999	5.12	1.30
decorated in Thai style	(11.2)	(33.5)	(27.1)	(19.1)	(3.7)	(3.7)	(1.6)	(100)		
4) Thai food is served by	131	334	256	165	29	67	19	1001	5.10	1.43
a Thai waitress/waiter	(13.1)	(33.4)	(25.6)	(16.5)	(2.9)	(6.7)	(1.9)	(100)		
5) Waitress/waiter wears a	93	258	267	256	49	52	25	1000	4.83	1.39
traditional Thai suit	(9.3)	(25.8)	(26.7)	(25.6)	(4.9)	(5.2)	(2.5)	(100)		
I would eat Thai food more if:									_	
	_									
1) Thai restaurants were	197	402	217	127	16	22	9	990	5.54	1.20
recommended to me	(19.9)	(40.6)	(21.9)	(12.8)	(1.6)	(2.2)	(0.9)	(100)		
2) Thai foods had authentic	223	339	146	223	21	29	9	990	5.40	1.34
Thai taste	(22.5)	(34.2)	(14.7)	(22.5)	(2.1)	(2.9)	(0.9)	(100)		
3) Thai foods were	173	358	226	175	23	29	9	993	5.36	1.27
recommended to me	(17.4)	(36.1)	(22.8)	(17.6)	(2.3)	(2.9)	(0.9)	(100)		
						1				
4) I knew more about Thai food	77	279	232	280	41	55	22	986	4.82	1.3′
	(7.8)	(28.3)	(23.5)			1	(2.2)	(100)		
5) Thailand had a positive image	87	192	138	411	50	79	34	991	4.48	1.4′
for me	(8.8)	(19.4)	(13.9)	(41.5)	(5.0)	(8.0)	(3.4)	(100)		
6) I knew how to cook Thai food	72	201	200	325	60	93	39	990	4.46	1.50
	(7.3)	(20.3)	(20.2)	(32.8)	(6.1)	(9.4)	(3.9)	(100)		
7) I knew more about Thailand	51	160	234	367	63	83	29	987	4.40	1.3
	(5.2)	(16.2)	(23.7)	(37.2)	(6.4)	(8.4)	(2.9)	(100)		

Table 6.13

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 24 Note: (7)=Strongly Agree, (6)=Agree, (5)=Slightly Agree, (4)=Neutral, (3)=Slightly Disagree, (2)=Disagree, (1)=Strongly Disagree N = Number of respondents

6.5 Sources of Information About Thai Food and Thai Restaurants

This section focuses on two main issues. *Firstly*, the ways in which respondents first got to eat Thai food and to know about Thai food and about the Thai restaurants are investigated, utilising the responses from three questions (Q7, Q8, Q9), and the results are presented in Section 6.5.1. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used for analysis of the results. *Secondly*, the importance of sources of information for consumers in deciding to eat Thai food (Q17, Q18) and the sources from which they frequently search for information for dining out (Q19) are investigated, utilising the responses from these three questions, and the results are presented in Section 6.5.2. Mean scores were used for analysis of the results for Q17. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used for analysis of the results for Q18 and Q19.

6.5.1 Sources of Information for First Knowledge About Thai Food and Thai Restaurants

Results of three questions relating to sources of information when the respondents first ate Thai food (Q7), knew about Thai food (Q8), and know about Thai restaurants (Q9) are reported in this section.

For Question 7, 'The first time I ate Thai food was:' respondents were asked to select only one possible answer from seven items: at a Thai restaurant in Australia, at a Thai restaurant in Thailand, at a Thai restaurant overseas, at an Asian restaurant in Australia, when my Thai friends cooked Thai food for me, when my parents cooked Thai food for me, when I learned how to cook Thai food. The last choice was open-ended for respondents to write alternative answers.

Results (Table 6.14) show that for the majority of the respondents (65.3%) the first time they ate Thai food was 'At a Thai restaurant in Australia'. This was followed by 'when my Thai friends cooked Thai food for me' (10.0%); 'At a Thai restaurant in Thailand' (9.6%); and 'At a Thai restaurant overseas' (8.6%).

For Question 8, 'I first got to know about Thai food from:' respondents were asked to select only one possible answer from sixteen items. These sixteen items were grouped according to two main factors: word-of-mouth and mass media. Respondents were also given an open-ended choice for them to supply alternative answers.

The word-of-mouth factor included eight items: Thai friends; friends; colleagues; neighbours; family/relatives; personal experience; persons who are satisfied with Thai food; and persons who work in Thai restaurants. The mass media factor included eight items: Thai cookery book; brochures from Thai restaurant; food magazine; newspaper; yellow pages; television; radio; and the internet.

Table 6.14 shows a summary of the results for five main sources of information from which respondents first got to know about Thai food (Q8) as follows: friends (35.3%); personal experience (20.2%); family/relatives (13.6%); Thai friends (6.6%); and persons who are satisfied with Thai food (5.5%). Results from the open-ended choice showed three new sources of information (1.9%): when I lived, worked, or visited Thailand.

For Question 9, 'I first got to know about this Thai restaurant from:' respondents were asked to select only one possible answer from the same sixteen choices as in Question 8. Results (Table 6.14) show that five main sources of information from which respondents first got to know about the Thai restaurant in which they were dining were: friends (38.5%); pass the restaurant (11.9%); family/relatives (10.7%); personal experience (10.2%); and the restaurant close to home (7.3%). Results from the open-ended responses showed two new sources of information: passed the restaurant and the restaurant close to home, which rated as among the five main sources.

Summary of the Five Most Used Sources of Informatio	n	
for First Knowledge About Thai Food and Thai Resta		
Q7:The first time I ate Thai food was:	N	(%)
1) At a Thai restaurant in Australia	658	(65.3)
2) When my Thai friends cooked Thai food for me	101	(10.0)
3) At a Thai restaurant in Thailand	97	(9.6)
4) At a Thai restaurant overseas	87	(8.6)
5) When my parents cooked Thai food for me	27	(2.7)
Q8: I first got to know about Thai food from:		·
1) Friends	355	(35.3)
2) Personal experience	203	(20.2)
3) Family/Relatives	137	(13.6)
4) Thai friends	66	(6.6)
5) Persons who are satisfied with Thai food	55	(5.5)
Q9: I first got to know about this Thai restaurant from	1:	
1) Friends	355	(38.5)
2) Passed the restaurant	110	(11.9)
3) Family/Relatives	99	(10.7)
4) Personal experience	94	(10.2)
5) Thai restaurant close to home	67	(7.3)

Note: Summary results drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire: Questions 7, 8, 9

N = Number of respondents

Table 6 14

In summary, 'friends' was the most used source of information that introduced respondents to Thai food and the Thai restaurant for the first time. For most of the respondents the first time they ate Thai food was at a Thai restaurant in Australia. These results show two dominant groups of sources which affected the first time that respondents ate Thai food and got to know about Thai food and Thai restaurants in Australia. Those two main sources were 'word of mouth' by communication or 'recommendation' from their friends, and direct experience of Thai restaurants.

Important Sources of Information for Consumer Decision-Making to 6.5.2 Eat Thai Food

For Question 17, 'How important are the following sources of information when you make a decision to eat Thai food?', the items which respondents were asked to score were from two sources: word-of-mouth and mass media. Respondents were asked to select only one possible answer from the same sixteen choices as in Question 8. The last choice was open-ended for respondents to write alternative answers. The respondents were provided with a seven-point Likert scale from 7 (Extremely important) to 1 (Extremely unimportant) on which to score each of these items. Mean scores were used to compare the results for this question.

The results (Table 6.15) show that the five most important sources of information for respondents in deciding to eat Thai food in Australia were all from the 'word of mouth' factor. Personal experience (6.13) was the most important source for respondents to make a decision to eat Thai food in Australia, followed by persons who were satisfied with Thai food (5.33), friends (5.29), family/relatives (5.12) and colleagues (4.73). Respondents rated all eight items for the mass media factor as not important for them to make a decision to eat Thai food.

For Question 18, 'Please rank the five most important sources of information from Question 17', respondents were provided with the same sixteen items that were used in Questions 8, 9, and 17 from two main factors: word-of-mouth and mass media. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used to rank the five most important sources of information for respondents when they made a decision to eat Thai food.

Results (Table 6.15) show that personal experience (41.6%) was the most important source of information for respondents to make a decision to eat Thai food in Australia. This was followed by persons who are satisfied with Thai food (22.8%), friends (13.7%), family/relatives (12.9%) and colleagues (9.1%). The eight items from the mass media factor were not important sources of information for respondents in deciding to eat Thai food in Australia.

Table 6.15Summary of the Five Most Important Sources of Informationfor Consumer Decision-Making to Eat Thai Food

Sources of information	Question 17		Question 18	
	Mean	SD	Ranking	N (%)
1) Personal experience	6.13	1.02	1	418 (41.6)
2) Satisfied persons	5.33	1.27	2	229 (22.8)
3) Friends	5.29	1.19	3	138 (13.7)
4) Family/Relatives	5.12	1.29	4	130 (12.9)
5) Colleagues	4.73	1.29	5	91 (9.1)

Note : Original results for Question 17

Original results for Question 18

N = Number of respondents

The frequency with which respondents search for information for dining out from word of mouth or mass media was then determined utilising the responses from Question 19, 'I frequently search for information for dining out from:'. Respondents were asked to select only one possible answer from the two groups of items 'other people' (word-of-mouth) and 'mass media'. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used for analysis of the results.

Results presented in Table 6.16 below show that the majority (79.1%) of the respondents frequently search for information for dining out from other people (word-of-mouth).

Table 6.16Sources of Information for Dining Out

Q19: I frequently search for information for dining out from: (please $$ only one box	N	(%)
1) Other people (word-of-mouth)	689	(79.1)
2) Mass media	182	(20.9)
Total	871	(100)

Source: Orginal data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 19 N = Number of respondents

In summary, the results of these three questions (Q17, Q18, Q19) confirm that 'word-of-mouth' communication is more important for information sources than

'mass media' for these respondents when they make a decision to eat Thai food in Australia.

Further factor analysis and cluster analysis were used to classify sixteen variables in Question 17 into three groups: word-of-mouth, mass media and personal experience groups for testing the null hypothesis *H*014 (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6). Results are reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.5.

6.6 Evaluation of Eating Out Alternatives

In this section there are two main parts reporting the analysis of the results. The first is an analysis of whether respondents made a comparison of Thai food with other 'Asian food' and what 'Asian food' they used for a comparison before they decided to eat Thai food (Section 6.6.1). The second is an analysis of the *price* that respondents expect to pay for Thai food and 'other food' for breakfast, lunch, or dinner (Section 6.6.2). Frequency statistics (percentages) were used for analysis of the results.

6.6.1 Comparison of Thai Food with other 'Asian Food'

This section focuses on analysis of the comparison of Thai food with other 'Asian food' before respondents decided to eat Thai food. Respondents were asked, 'Before you decided to eat Thai food did you make a comparison with other Asian foods?. If respondents answered 'yes', they were required to select the 'Asian food' they used for comparison. Seven 'Asian food' alternatives were included in the evaluation process: Chinese food; Malaysian food; Vietnamese food; Indian food; Japanese food; Indonesian food and Korean food. In addition, an open-ended choice was included for respondents to write alternative answers. Respondents were allowed to select more than one alternative answer.

Results (Table 6.17) reveal that more than half (52.6%) of the respondents did make a comparison of Thai food with other 'Asian food' before they decided to eat Thai food. Nearly half (47.4%) of the respondents did not make a comparison. Results showed that Chinese food (21.9%) was the most popular alternative for respondents to make a comparison with Thai food. This was followed by Vietnamese (19.3%), Indian (17.0%), Japanese (15.7%), Malaysian (11.6%), Indonesian (8.2%), Korean (5.1%) and other cuisines (1.2%).

Table 6.17				
Comparison of	Thai Food	with other	'Asian	Foods'

Q6: Before you decided to eat Thai food	N	(%)
did you make a comparison with other Asian foods?		
Yes	531	(52.6)
No	478	(47.4)
Total	1009	(100)
Continued Q6: If yes. Please $$ those Asian food (s)		
you used for comparison (you may $$ more than one box)		
1) Chinese food	351	(21.9)
2) Vietnamese food	310	(19.3)
3) Indian food	272	(17.0)
4) Japanese food	252	(15.7)
5) Malaysian food	186	(11.6)
6) Indonesian food	132	(8.2)
7) Korean food	82	(5.1)
8) Other foods	19	(1.2)
Total	1604	(100)

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 6 N = Number of respondents

In summary, approximately equal proportions of the respondents did and did not make a comparison of Thai food with other Asian foods before they decided to eat Thai food. Thus, marketers may need to have knowledge of how Thai food differs from other 'Asian foods' available in Australia.

The results from Question 6 were used to form comparison-based groups for testing Hypothesis *H*015 (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.6). Inferential analysis was conducted on the results and is reported in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.6.

6.6.2 Comparison of the Price of Thai Food and 'Other Food'

This section focuses on an analysis of the *price* that respondents expect to pay for Thai food in comparison with 'Other food' for breakfast, lunch and dinner.

For Question 20, 'In general, when I eat out the price I expect to pay for a whole meal (excluding beverages) is:', respondents were asked to rate six items according to two main factors: price for Thai food and price for 'Other food'. The six items

included price for each of breakfast, lunch, and dinner for Thai food and also for 'Other food' for these three meals. Seven possible alternatives for the price of Thai food and the price of 'Other food' were provided, and respondents were asked to select only one answer (see Table 6.18).

Results (Table 6.18 and Figures 6.1-6.3) indicate that respondents expected to pay similar prices for a whole meal (excluding beverages) for Thai food and for 'Other food'. The majority selected a breakfast price range of \$6-10; and for dinner \$16-25. However, respondents expected to pay different prices for a whole meal (excluding beverages) for Thai food compared to 'Other food'. For lunch the price (Thai food) range was between \$6-15 with the emphasis on \$11-15, and for 'Other food' it was between \$6-15 with the emphasis on \$6-10.

Comparison of Price for That Food and "Other Food"										
Q20:In general, when I eat out		(2)	(2)		(5)		(7)			
the price I expect to pay for	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)			
a whole meal	\$1-5	\$6-10	\$11-15	\$16-20	\$21-25	\$26-30	\$30+			
(excluding beverages) is:								Total		
(please $$ only one box for each item)	N	N	N	N	Ν	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Price for Thai food										
Breakfast	127	393	134	38	8	4	0	704		
	(18.0)	(55.8)	(19.0)	(5.4)	(1.1)	(0.6)	(0.0)	(100)		
Lunch	15	309	348	145	36	17	5	875		
	(1.7)	(35.3)	(39.8)	(16.6)	(4.1)	(1.9)	(0.6)	(100)		
Dinner	2	33	196	309	258	113	72	983		
	(0.2)	(3.4)	(19.9)	(31.4)	(26.2)	(11.5)	(7.3)	(100)		
Price for other food							_			
Breakfast	147	451	203	51	13	2	9	867		
	(17.0)	(52.0)	(23.4)	(5.9)	(1.5)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(100)		
Lunch	30	374	319	131	39	12	5	910		
	(3.3)	(41.1)	(35.1)	(14.4)	(4.3)	(1.3)	(0.5)	(100)		
Dinner	5	38	155	245	235	153	109	940		
	(0.5)	(4.0)	(16.5)	(26.1)	(25.0)	(16.3)	(11.6)	(100)		

Table 6.18						
Comparison	of Price f	or Thai	Food a	and '	Other]	Food'

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 20 N = Number of respondents

Figure 6.1

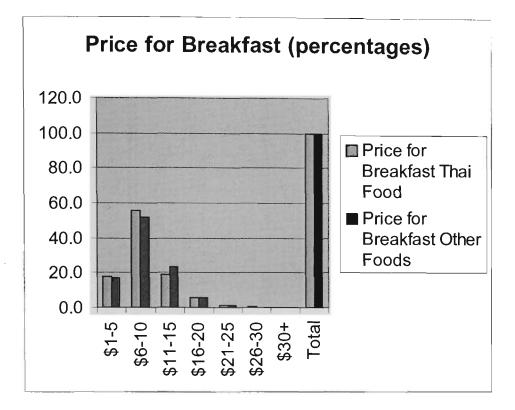
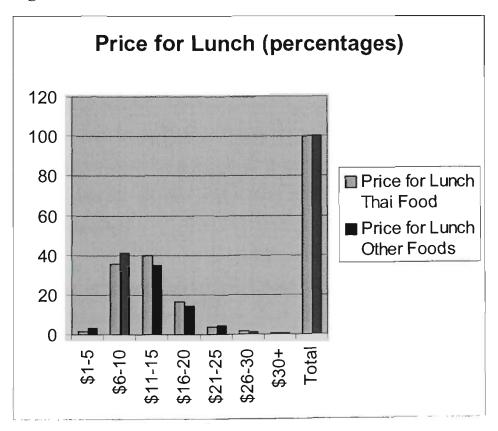
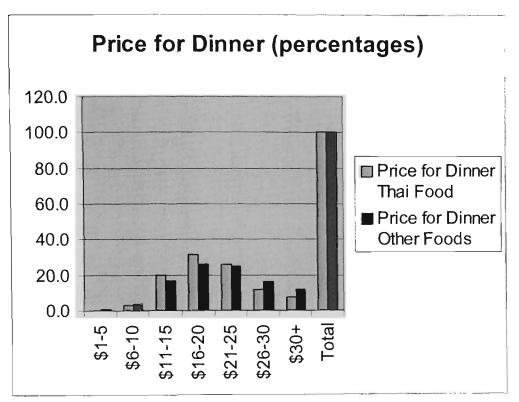


Figure 6.2







6.7 Consumer Behaviour for Eating Out in Australia

In this section the focus is on three main parts. Firstly, an analysis of the behaviour of the respondents in deciding to eat out (breakfast, lunch, or dinner) for Thai food compared to 'Other food' (Section 6.7.1). Secondly, an analysis of the behaviour of the respondents in deciding to cook at home, eat out, eat take-away or eat home delivery for Thai food compared to 'Other food' (Section 6.7.2). Thirdly, an analysis of the behaviour of the respondents in deciding to eat out with family/relatives, friends, colleagues and neighbours (Section 6.7.3).

6.7.1 Comparison of Eating Out for Thai Food with 'Other Food'

For Question 22, 'How often do you do the following?', respondents were asked to select only one of the possible choices. The last choice was open-ended for respondents to write alternative answers. Three items: breakfast, lunch, and dinner were used to measure how often respondents eat out for Thai food (Q22a, Q22b, Q22c) compared to 'Other food' (Q22d, Q22e, Q22f). Results are shown in Table 6.19.

Firstly, results of a comparison of the respondents' behaviour in deciding to eat out for Thai food and 'Other food' at *breakfast* in Australia, showed that a majority (89.3%) of the respondents never had Thai food for breakfast, while only 23.0% never had 'Other food'. Therefore, respondents eat out for Thai food at breakfast less than for 'Other food'.

Secondly, results of a comparison of the respondents' behaviour in deciding to eat out for Thai food and 'Other food' at *lunch* in Australia, showed that just over onethird (35.0%) of the respondents eat-out for Thai food at lunch once every 2-3 months, while 33.4% never had Thai food for lunch. The results for eating out for 'Other food' for lunch were 27.8% once a week, 26.5% a few times a week, and 20.0% once a month. Therefore, respondents eat out for Thai food at lunch less than for 'Other food'.

Thirdly, results of a comparison of respondents' behaviour in deciding to eat out for Thai food and 'Other food' at *dinner* in Australia, showed that, when they eat out for dinner, more than one-third (37.0%) of the respondents eat Thai food once a month, followed by 33.0% once every 2-3 months; and 15.2% once a week. The results for eating out for 'Other food' were 40.6% once a week, 22.9% a few times a week, and 21.3% once a month. Therefore, respondents eat out for Thai food at dinner less often than for 'Other food'.

In summary, respondents eat out at breakfast, lunch and dinner for Thai food less often than for 'Other food'.

6.7.2 Comparison of Ways of Eating Thai Food with 'Other Food'

An analysis of how often respondents cook at home, eat take-away and eat home delivery for Thai food compared to 'Other food' is discussed in this section, based on the answers to Questions 22g to 22l.

For Question 22, 'How often do you do the following?', respondents were asked to select only one of the six possible choices. Three items were used to measure how

often respondents cook Thai food at home, eat take-away Thai food and eat home delivery Thai food compared to 'Other food'.

Results for Q22g to Q221 are presented in Table 6.19 and are discussed in three main parts. *Firstly*, an analysis of how often respondents cook Thai food at home compared to 'Other food' shows that almost half (47.4%) of the respondents never cook Thai food at home; while 43.8% cook at home (not Thai food) a few times a week. *Secondly*, in an analysis of how often respondents eat take away Thai food compared to 'Other food', results show that almost one-third (31.1%) of total respondents never eat take-away Thai food; while 38.6% eat take-away 'Other food' once a week. *Thirdly*, an analysis of how often respondent eat home delivery for Thai food compared to 'Other food' shows that a majority (67.8%) of the respondents never, eat home delivery Thai food; while 38.3% eat home delivery 'Other food'.

In summary, respondents cook at home, eat take-away, and eat home delivery more often for 'Other food' than for Thai food.

6.7.3 Reasons for Consumer Behaviour for Eating Out in Australia

An analysis of how often respondents eat out for sociable and business reasons and how often respondents eat out with family/relatives, friends, colleagues, and neighbours is discussed in this section based on the answers to Questions 22m to 22r.

For Question 22, 'How often do you do the following?', respondents were asked to select only one item from six possible items. Two items were used to measure how often respondents eat out for sociable and business reasons. Four items were used to measure how often respondents eat out with family/relatives, friends, colleagues and neighbours.

Results (Table 6.19) show that over one-third (37.7%) of the respondents eat out once a week for sociable reasons and only 10.8% for business needs, while 40.1% of the respondents never eat out for business and only 2.8% of the respondents

never eat out for sociable reasons. Hence, the respondents in this study tended to be eating out for social reasons more often than for business needs. This is supported by the frequency with which respondents eat out with family/relatives, friends and colleagues for social reasons.

Almost one-third (32.8%) of the respondents eat out once a week with friends, 21.3% with family/relative, 15.5% with colleagues, and only 3.7% with neighbours. Of those eating out once a month more eat out with family (35.6%) than with friends (33.3%), colleagues (22.9%) or neighbours (6.1%). The majority (70.3%) of the respondents never eat out with neighbours.

In summary respondents tended to eat out more often for social reasons with friends, family/relatives, and colleagues respectively.

Table 6.19Consumer Behaviour for Eating Out in Australia

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Q22:	Never	Every	A few	Once	Once	Once	Other	
How often do you do the following?		day	times	a week	a month	every	(please	Total
(please $$ only one box			a week			2-3 months	specify)	
on the scale for each item)	N	Ν	Ν	N	Ν	N	N	N
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
a. Eat out for Thai food (Breakfast)	884	7	9	17	18	28	27	990
	(89.3)	(.7)	(.9)	(1.7)	(1.8)	(2.8)	(2.7)	(100)
b. Eat out for Thai food (Lunch)	330	4	22	68	105	346	113	988
	(33.4)	(.4)	(2.2)	(6.9)	(10.6)	(35.0)	(11.4)	(100)
c. Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)	14	5	33	152	371	331	96	1002
	(1.4)	(.5)	(3.3)	(15.2)	(37.0)	(33.0)	(9.6)	(100)
d. Eat out for other food (Breakfast)	225	20	60	162	204	247	61	979
	(23.0)	(2.0)	(6.1)	(16.5)	(20.8)	(25.2)	(6.2)	(100)
e. Eat out for other food (Lunch)	32	58	262	275	198	148	16	989
	(3.2)	(5.9)	(26.5)	(27.8)	(20.0)	(15.0)	(1.6)	(100)
f. Eat out for other food (Dinner)	15	17	226	402	211	96	22	989
	(1.5)	(1.7)	(22.9)	(40.6)	(21.3)	(9.7)	(2.2)	(100)
g. Cook Thai food at home	468	4	29	98	176	174	39	988
	(47.4)	(.4)	(2.9)	(9.9)	(17.8)	(17.6)	(3.9)	(100)
h. Eat Take away Thai food	310	2	18	107	236	272	53	998
	(31.1)	(.2)	(1.8)	(10.7)	(23.6)	(27.3)	(5.3)	(100)
i Eat Home delivery Thai food	660	4	9	35	102	142	22	974
	(67.8)	(.4)	(.9)	(3.6)	(10.5)	(14.6)	(2.2)	(100)
j. Cook at home (not Thai food)	51	374	435	68	33	30	2	993
	(5.1)	(37.7)	(43.8)	(6.8)	(3.3)	(3.0)	(.2)	(100
k. Eat Take away (not Thai food)	83	10	94	383	254	145	24	993
	(8.4)	(1.0)	(9.5)	(38.6)	(25.6)	(14.6)	(2.4)	(100)
l. Eat Home delivery (not Thai food)	382	4	38	129	232	181	32	998
	(38.3)	(.4)	(3.8)	(12.9)	(23.2)	(18.1	(3.2)	(100)
m. Eat out for sociable reasons	27	7	162	368	290	108	14	976
	(2.8)	(.7)	(16.6)	(37.7)	(29.7)	(11.1)	(1.4)	(100)
n. Eat out for business needs	391	6	51	105	194	205	24	976
	(40.1)	(.6)	(5.2)	(10.8)	(19.9)	(21.0)	(2.4)	(100)
o. Eat out with family/relatives	46	5	60	208	348	278	33	978
	(4.7)	(.5)	(6.1)	(21.3)		(28.4)	(3.4)	(100)
p. Eat out with friends	12	12	125	322	327	170	15	983
	(1.2)	(1.2)	(12.7)	· · · · ·	(33.3)	(17.3)	(1.5)	(100)
q. Eat out with colleagues	237	12	44	152	224	273	36	978
	(24.2)	(1.2)	(4.5)	(15.5)	(22.9)	(27.9)	(3.7)	(100)
r. Eat out with neighbours	688	3	15	36	60	145	31	978
	(70.3)	(.3)	(1.5)	(3.7)	(6.1)	(14.8)	(3.1)	(100)

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 22 N = Number of respondents

6.8 Consumption

This section has three main parts: *firstly*, an analysis of what factors are important for respondents when ordering Thai dishes at Thai restaurants (Section 6.8.1); *secondly*, an analysis of the involvement of household members, peers, and others when respondents dine-in at Thai restaurants (Section 6.8.2); and thirdly, an analysis of the intended purpose for respondents to dine-out on Thai food at Thai restaurants (Section 6.8.3).

6.8.1 Important Factors when Ordering Thai Dishes at Thai Restaurants

An analysis of what factors are important for respondents when ordering Thai dishes at Thai restaurants in Australia (Table 6.8.1) is discussed in this section. Mean scores were used for the purpose of analysis.

For Question 13, 'How important are the following when you order Thai dishes at the restaurant?', respondents were asked to rate only one answer from seven possible answers on a seven-point Likert scale from 7 (Extremely important) to 1 (Extremely unimportant). Six items was classified into two factors: 'Recommended by people' and 'Information about Thai dishes'. Three items: a waitress, an owner, and friend were used to measure the 'Recommended by people' factor. Three items: picture of Thai dishes; name of Thai dishes; and description of Thai dishes were used to measure the 'Information of Thai dishes' factor.

Results (Table 6.20) show that 'description of Thai dishes' (mean=6.06) was most important for the 'information of Thai dishes' factor for respondents when ordering Thai dishes at Thai restaurants. Mean scores for 'picture of Thai dishes' (4.31) and 'name of Thai dishes' (4.09) were lower, so were not classified as so important. All three items: friends (5.57), owner (5.12), and waitress (5.05) were classified as important for the 'recommended by people' factor for respondents when ordering Thai dishes at Thai restaurants.

Table 6.20
Important Factors for Consumers when ordering Thai Food
at Thai Restaurant

Q13:How important are the following when you order Thai dishes at	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)			
Thai restaurant?								Total	Mean	SD
(please λ only one box for each										
item)	N	Ν	Ν	Ν	N	N	N	Ν		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Information on Thai dishes						_				
Description of Thai dishes	352	443	147	50	9	1	3	1005	6.06	0.93
	(35.0)	(44.1)	(14.6)	(5.0)	(0.9)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(100)		
Picture of Thai dishes	43	127	304	286	135	47	49	991	4.31	1.37
	(4.3)	(12.8)	(30.7)	(28.9)	(13.6)	(4.7)	(4.9)	(100)		
Name of Thai dishes	31	111	249	328	140	73	64	996	4.09	1.41
	(3.1)	(11.1)	(25.0)	(32.9)	(14.1)	(7.3)	(6.4)	(100)		
Recommended by people										
Recommended by friends	156	426	303	88	16	3	10	1002	5.57	1.03
	(15.6)	(42.5)	(30.2)	(8.8)	(1.6)	(0.3)	(1.0)	(100)		
Recommended by owners	109	283	356	176	33	22	18	997	5.12	1.23
	(10.9)	(28.4)	(35.7)	(17.7)	(3.3)	(2.2)	(1.8)	(100)		
Recommended by waitresses	70	282	415	157	38	20	19	1001	5.05	1.16
	(7.0)	(28.2)	(41.5)	(15.7)	(3.8)	(2.0)	(1.9)	(100)		

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 13

Note: (7)=Extremely important, (6)=Very important, (5)=Somewhat important, (4)=Neutral (3)=Somewhat unimportant, (2)=Very unimportant, (1)=Extremely unimportant

N = Number of respondents

In summary 'Description of Thai dishes' was most important for the 'Information on Thai dishes' factor, while 'Friends' was most important for the 'Recommended by people' factor.

6.8.2 Involvement of Household Members when Dining Out for Thai Food

An analysis of the involvement of household members, peers and others when respondents dine-in at a Thai restaurant is discussed in this section. This question was intended to investigate the actual situation of who was with respondents during their consumption of Thai food at a Thai restaurant. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used to analyse results for Question 14 as shown in Table 6.21.

For Question 14, 'Who did you come with today?', respondents were asked to select only one of four possible items: only my self, my partner, my

family/relatives, and my friends. The last choice was open-ended for respondents to write alternative answers.

Results (Table 6.21) reveal that 'friends' (35.5%) were the most involved when respondents dined-in at Thai restaurants, followed by partner (29.0%) and family/relatives (25.3%). Only 8.2% of the respondents dined-in at the Thai restaurant by themselves. Two more groups were identified by respondents: work colleagues (1.1%) and business associates (0.9%).

Table 6.21Household Members Affecting Consumer Decision-Making in Dining Outat Thai Restaurants

Q14: Who did you come with today?	Number	Percentages
(please $\sqrt{only one box}$)	of respondents	(%)
1) My friends	357	(35.5)
2) My partner	292	(29.0)
3) My family/relatives	254	(25.3)
4) Only myself	82	(8.2)
5) Other (work colleagues) 6) Other (business	11	(1.1)
associates)	9	(0.9)
Total	1005	(100)

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 14

In summary, respondents tended to dine out at a Thai restaurant with their friends, partner and family/relatives rather than by themselves or with business associates and colleagues.

6.8.3 Reasons for Dining Out for Thai Food

For Question 15, 'Reasons for dining-out for Thai food today?', respondents were asked to select only one possible answer from eight items: regular weekly dineout with family, regular weekly dine-out with friends, special occasions, to experience Thai food, 'I don't know how to cook Thai food', 'I don't feel I want to cook at home', business meeting or 'there is a special promotion on'. The last choice was open-ended for respondents to write alternative answers. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used to analyse results as shown in Table 6.22 and Table 6.23.

Table 6.22Reasons for Dining Out for Thai Food

Q15: Reasons for dining-out for Thai food today? (you may $$ more than one box)	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
1) I don't feel I want to cook at home	255	22.2
2) Special occasions e.g. birthday, on a date	228	19.8
3) To experience Thai food	190	16.5
4) Regular weekly dine-out with friends	174	15.1
5) Regular weekly dine-out with family	115	10.0
6) I don't know how to cook Thai food	57	5.0
7) Business meeting	43	3.7
8) There is a special promotion on	15	1.3
9) Others: see results Table 6.23	72	6.4
Total	1149	100

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 15

Table 6.22 shows that 'I don't feel I want to cook at home' (22.2%) was the most important reason for respondents to dine out for Thai food at Thai restaurants, followed by 'special occasions' (19.8%); 'to experience Thai food' (16.5%); 'regular weekly dine-out with friends' (15.1%); and 'regular weekly dine-out with family (10.0%).

In this study more than seventeen additional reasons (6.4%) were found for respondents to dine out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia; see Table 6.23.

Table 6.23	
Other Reasons for Dining Out for Thai Food	

Q15: Reasons for dining-out for Thai food today?	Number of	Percentages
(you may $\sqrt{more than one box}$)	Respondents	(%)
1) Love Thai food	12	1.0
2) On holiday or visiting Victoria	12	1.0
3) Regular fortnightly/monthly dine-out	10	1.0
with friends	12	1.0
4) Convenient location	7	0.6
5) I am hungry	7	0.6
6) Just for dinner	4	0.4
7) I like the restaurant	3	0.3
8) Felt want to eat-out	3	0.3
9) Casual dining/Spur of the moment	2	0.2
10) Away from home for business	2	0.2
11) Night out	2	0.2
12) Irregular dine-out	1	0.1
13) Be with husband/wife	1	0.1
14) Diet	1	0.1
15) Felt like lighter food	1	0.1
16) To practice speaking Thai language	1	0.1
17) To try a new restaurant	1	0.1
Total	72	6.4

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 15 Results drawn from the answers of open-ended

In summary, the five dominant reasons for respondents to dine out for Thai food at Thai restaurants were: they don't feel they want to cook at home, followed by special occasions for birthday and on a date, to experience Thai food, regular weekly dine-out with their friends and regular weekly dine-out with their family.

6.9 Post-Consumption Evaluation

This section has four main parts: firstly there is an analysis of how satisfied respondents were with Thai food characteristics, price of Thai food, location of Thai restaurants and promotion (Section 6.9.1); secondly there is an analysis of how respondents like or dislike Thai food considering their whole eating experience (Section 6.9.2); thirdly there is an analysis of 'other comments' from respondents about what they most like or dislike about Thai food (Section 6.9.3);

and finally there is an analysis of the intention of respondents as to whether they would repeat purchase Thai food in the future (Section 6.9.4).

6.9.1 Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with Thai Food

For Question 25, 'How satisfied have you been with Thai food, considering the whole eating experience?' respondents were asked to rate each item only once on a seven-point Likert scale from 7 (Extremely Satisfied) to 1 (Extremely Dissatisfied).

Fifteen items were classified into four factors: Thai food characteristics; price of Thai food; location of Thai restaurant and promotion.

- The '*Thai food characteristics*' factor included seven items: 'quality, variety, spiciness, nutrition, appearance, aroma, and taste'.
- The '*Price of Thai food*' factor included three items: 'portion size, reasonable price, and value for money'.
- The '*Place of Thai Restaurant*' factor included two items: 'convenient location' and 'restaurant decorated in Thai style'.
- The '*Promotion*' factor included three items: 'promotion: win a trip to Thailand', 'special gifts from Thai restaurant' and special discount period'.

In Table 6.24 mean scores were used for the purpose of analysis, and results show that for all seven items from *'Thai food characteristics'* respondents were very satisfied. The majority of respondents were satisfied with the taste (6.19), quality (6.15) and aroma (6.00) of Thai food.

Results for the '*Price of Thai food*' factor show that respondents were satisfied with portion size (5.91), value for money (5.74), and reasonable price (5.71).

Results for the '*Place of Thai restaurant*' factor show that respondents were more satisfied with convenient location of Thai restaurant (5.70) than with the restaurant decorated in Thai style (5.19).

The three items for the *Promotion factor*: special discount period, win a trip to Thailand, and special gifts from Thai restaurants were rated as 4 (neutral) by most respondents.

In summary, product, price, and place provided the greatest satisfaction with Thai food, rather than promotion.

Table 6.24 Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with 4Ps (Marketing Mix)

Satisfaction Dissatisfaction		<u> </u>	141110	<u> </u>	<u> </u>					
Q25: How satisfied have you been with										
Thai food, considering the										
whole eating experience?	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	Total	Mean	SD
(please \checkmark only one box for each item)	N	N	N	N	N	N	Ν	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Product Factor										
1) Taste of Thai food	352	523	100	17	8	0	0	1000	6.19	0.74
	(35.2)	(52.3)	(10.0)	(1.7)	(0.8)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(100)		
2) Quality of Thai food	291	594	104	12	2	0	1	1004	6.15	0.68
	(29.0)	(59.2)	(10.4)	(1.2)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(0.1)	(100)		
4) Aroma of Thai food	247	559	145	44	6	0	0	1001	6.00	0.79
	(24.7)	(55.8)	(14.5)	(4.4)	(0.6)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(100)		
5) Variety of Thai food	233	556	175	26	8	0	0	998	5.98	0.76
	(23.3)	(55.7)	(17.5)	(2.6)	(0.8)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(100)		
7)Appearance of Thai food	195	543	197	58	8	0	0	1001	5.86	0.82
	(19.5)	(54.2)	(19.7)	(5.8)	(.8)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(100)		
8)Spiciness of Thai food	216	545	147	70	17	3	2	1000	5.86	0.93
	(21.6)	(54.5)	(14.7)	(7.0)	(1.7)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(100)		
10) Nutritional value	144	448	224	170	12	2	2	1002	5.53	1.01
	(14.4)	(44.7)	(22.4)	(17.0)	(1.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(100)		
Price Factor										
3) Value for money	178	489	253	53	23	2	1	999	5.74	0.92
	(17.8)	(48.9)	(25.3)	(5.3)	(2.3)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(100)		
6) Reasonable price	161	498	262	49	25	2	1	998	5.71	0.91
	(16.0)	(49.9)	(26.3)	(4.9)	(2.5)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(100)		
11) Portion size	208	573	170	35	14	3	0	1003	5.91	0.83
	(20.7)	(57.1)	(16.9)	(3.5)	(1.4)	(0.3)	(0.0)	(100)		
Place Factor										
9) Convenient location	200	443	238	97	19	2	1	1000	5.7	0.98
	(20.0)	(44.3)	(23.8)	(9.7)	(1.9)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(100)		
12) Restaurant decorated	91	338	271	266	19	5	4	994	5.19	1.06
in Thai style	(9.2)	(34.0)	(27.3)	(26.8)	(1.9)	(0.5)	(0.4)	(100)		
Promotion Factor	-	<u> </u>								
13) Special discount	49	90	122	637	41	10	39	988	4.27	1.14
Period	(5.0)	(9.1)	(12.3)	(64.5)	(4.1)	(1.0)	(3.9)	(100)		
14) Wining a trip to Thailand	52	94	84	669	32	14	43	988	4.24	1.17
	(5.3)	(9.5)	(8.5)	(67.7)	(3.2)	(1.4)	(4.4)	(100)		
15) Special gifts from	41	69	86	696	39	16	42	989	4.15	1.54
Thai restaurants	(4.1)	(7.0)	(8.7)	(70.4)	(3.9)	(1.6)	(4.2)	(100)		
Source: Original data drawn from respo	<u> </u>				. (2002	04) (Jugatia	- 25		

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 25

Note: (7)=Extremely satisfied, (6)=Very satisfied, (5)=Somewhat satisfied, (4)=Neutral

(3)=Somewhat dissatisfied, (2)=Very dissatisfied, (1)=Extremely dissatisfied

N = Number of respondents

6.9.2 Like/Dislike Thai Food

An analysis of the degree to which the respondents like or dislike Thai food, considering the whole eating experience is explained in this section. Other comments from respondents about what most respondents like or dislike about Thai food will be discussed in Section 6.9.3.

For Question 26, 'Considering your whole eating experience, please rate how you like Thai food', respondents were asked to rate only one item from seven possible items on a seven-point Likert scale from 7 (Extremely Satisfied) to 1 (Extremely Dissatisfied). Frequency statistics (percentages) and mean scores were used to investigate the results.

In Table 6.25, results showed that 43.1% of the respondents indicated that they liked Thai food extremely, considering their whole eating experience, while 39.3% liked Thai food very much and 14.7% somewhat liked Thai food. Overwhelmingly, no respondents indicated that they disliked Thai food very much or disliked Thai food extremely. Overall, the results (mean=6.22) show that respondents liked Thai food very much.

Table 6.25 Like/Dislike Thai Food

Q26: Considering your whole eating experience, please rate how you										
like Thai food.	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	Total	Mean	SD
(please circle only one number)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Like or Dislike Thai food	427	389	146	27	2	0	0	991	6.22	0.81
	(43.1)	(39.3)	(14.7)	(2.7)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(100)		

Source: Orginal data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 26

Note: (7)=Like Extremely, (6)=Very much Like, (5)=Somewhat Like, (4)=Neutral

N = Number of respondents

⁽³⁾⁼Somewhat Dislike, (2)=Very much Dislike, (1)=Dislike Extremely

6.9.3 What Customers Like/Dislike about Thai Food

Respondents were asked for more comments about what they most like and dislike about Thai food. Results are presented here.

Results for what respondents *like* most about Thai food, presented in Appendix 5, show that a total of 474 of the respondents provided 45 reasons for what they like most about Thai food. Most frequently mentioned aspects included the delicious taste (17.8%), flavour (14.5%), and spiciness (13.6%).

Table 6.26

What was Most Liked about Thai Food

Q26: Any other comments: What you like most about		
Thai food.	Number of	Percentage
	Respondents	(%)
Taste delicious	84	17.8
Flavour	68	14.5
Spiciness	64	13.6
Variety	31	6.5
Aroma/fragrance of the herbs and curry	28	5.9
Healthy, nutritional, and low fat	27	5.7
Fresh vegetable&meats	24	5.1
Its different taste to other asian foods, Its unique taste	20	4.2
Use of fresh herbs	19	4
Quality	9	1.9

Note: More reasons on what respondents like most about Thai food are shown in Appendix 5

Results for what respondents *disliked* most about Thai food presented in Appendix 6, show that a total of 107 respondents provided thirty-three reasons for what they dislike most about Thai food. Most frequently mentioned aspects included too spicy (32.8%), price expensive (13.2%) and unauthentic dishes made for western tastes e.g. too sweet (8.5%).

Q26: Any other comments: What you dislike most		
about Thai food.	Number of	Percentage
	Respondents	(%)
Too spicy	35	32.8
Price expensive	14	13.2
Too sweet, in Aussie style, unauthentic dishes made for		
western tastes	9	8.5
The size of the dishes for the price we paid was small	7	6.6
A little oily & fatty	6	5.7
The menu does not tell the level of spicy	3	2.9
Not enough variety on vegetarian menus	3	2.9
No Thai restaurants near home	2	1.9
Coconut milk in everything (fat of coconut milk)	2	1.9
Too many deep fried entrée	2	1.9

Table 6.27 What was Most Disliked about Thai Food

Note: More reasons on what respondents dislike most about Thai food are shown in Appendix 6

6.9.4 Intention to Repeat Purchase Thai Food

In this section there are three main parts. Firstly there is an analysis of whether respondents would recommend Thai food to their friends; secondly there is an analysis of whether respondents would eat or buy Thai food in the future and thirdly there is an analysis of when respondents will eat or buy Thai food again in the future.

Firstly, respondents were asked to rate their intention 'Would you recommend Thai food to your friends?' on a five-point Likert scale from 5 (Definitely would recommend) to 1 (Definitely would not recommend). This question aimed to investigate whether respondents' satisfaction or dissatisfaction is shared with their friends. Frequency statistics (percentages) were used to analyse the results.

Results (Table 6.28) show that the majority of the respondents intended to recommend Thai food to their friends.

Table 6.28	
Intention to Recommend	Thai Food to Friends

Q27: Would you recommend Thai food to your friends?	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	Total	Mean	SD
(please $$ only one box)	N	N	N	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Recommend Thai food to friends	779	114	87	12	10	1002	4.64	0.77
	(77.7)	(11.4)	(8.7)	(1.2)	(1.0)	(100)		

Source: Orginal data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 27

Note: (5) Definitely would recommend, (4) Probably would recommend

(3) Might or might not recommend, (2) Probably would not recommend,

(1) Definitely would not recommend

N = Number of respondents

Secondly, respondents were asked to rate their intention 'Would you eat/buy Thai food in the future?' on a five-point Likert scale from 5 (Definitely would eat/buy) to 1 (Definitely would not eat/buy).

Results (Table 6.29) show that the majority of the respondents intended to eat/buy Thai food in the future.

Table 6.29Intention: Buy Thai Food in the Future

Q28: Would you eat/buy Thai food in the future?	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	Total	Mean	SD
(please $$ only one box)	N	N	N	N	N	N		
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Intention to buy Thai food in the future	852	63	74	10	3 :	1002	4.75	0.66
	(85.0)	(6.3)	(7.4)	(1.0)	(0.3)	(100)		

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 28

Note: (5) Definitely would buy, (4) Probably would buy,

(3) Might or might not buy, (2) Probably would not buy,

(1) Definitely would not buy.

N = Number of respondents

Thirdly, respondents were asked 'When will you eat/buy Thai food again?' by selecting only one item from six alternative items.

Results (Table 6.30) indicate that slightly more than one-third (36.4%) of the respondents intended to eat/buy Thai food again within one month, 31.9% within one week and 16.4% within 2-3 months, respectively.

ntention: When to Buy Thai Food Again						
Q29: When will you eat/buy Thai food again? (please √ only one box)	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)				
Next few days	93	(9.4)				
Next week	314	(31.9)				
Next month	359	(36.4)				
Next 2-3 months	162	(16.4)				
Next 4-6 months	43	(4.4)				
After 6 months	14	(1.4)				
Total	985	(100)				

Table 6.30 Intention: When to Buy Thai Food Again

Source: Original data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 29

In summary 'Thai food characteristics' including taste, quality, and aroma of Thai food were identified as more satisfying for more respondents than were other factors. Also, most respondents were very satisfied with the 'Price of Thai food' including overall portion size, value for money, and reasonable price. With respect to the 'Place of Thai restaurant' factor, respondents were more satisfied with a convenient location for the Thai restaurant than for it to be decorated in the Thai style. For three items for the 'Promotion' factor: special discount period, win a trip to Thailand, and special gifts from Thai restaurants, the majority of respondents had a 'neutral' view rather than being satisfied nor dissatisfied. Further, the respondents showed a very positive response to Thai food by intending to repurchase within a relatively short period of time (one month) and to recommend Thai food to their friends in the future.

6.10 Chapter Summary

A quantitative survey of 1009 customers at thirty Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia, have been analysed using a descriptive analysis of nine major categories. *The first* category of customer characteristics (gender, age, ethnic groups, income, education, and occupation) showed most responses were from Australian born female customers, most of these being from age groups 25-44 years. The majority were earning less than A\$70,000 per year and had a Bachelor's degree or TAFE certificate. Their occupations included professional, manager, student, self-employed, and administration, respectively.

The second category of customers' previous experience of eating Thai food showed that most (93.2%) had experience in Australia, while less than half (44.7%) had experience in Thailand. Most customers had 1-5 years experience of eating Thai food in Australia and were satisfied with Thai food and intended to repeat purchase within a week (33.3%) or month (26.4%). Results also indicated that most customers had no Thai friends, no experience with Thai friends cooking, and had never learnt Thai cooking before dining in at their current Thai restaurant.

The third category of customers' objective and subjective knowledge of Thai food indicated that customers had more of the former than the latter. Their objective knowledge of traditional ways of eating Thai food was good, but their subjective knowledge of the characteristics of traditional Thai food was lacking.

The fourth category of factors affecting customers to make a decision to eat Thai food based on Maslow's Hierarchy of needs theory, showed three important factors affecting customers to make a decision to eat Thai food. These included physiological needs (I am hungry), safety needs (Thai food is nutritious and healthy), and self-actualisation needs (I want a different eating experience), respectively. With respect to the 4Ps marketing mix theory, customers ranked product (Thai food characteristics) as the most important factor in deciding to This was followed by convenient location of Thai dine out for Thai food. restaurant, price of Thai food, and special promotion, respectively. With respect to the product factor (Thai food characteristics), the taste and quality of Thai food were important in customers making a decision to eat out for Thai food. In the case of price factor, value for money was deemed the most important. The place factor revealed convenient location as more important than a restaurant decorated in Thai style, and the promotion factor was rated as the least important. Results showed that Thai chefs were most important for customers' feeling that they were being served authentic Thai food, followed by restaurants being owned by Thai nationals. Further, results in this study suggest that recommendation and authentic Thai taste are important factors in customers' decisions to repeat purchase.

The fifth category showed that word-of-mouth from friends was the most important source of information for customers to first know about Thai food and Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. This was followed by customers' personal experiences of the particular restaurants. Further, results showed that the five most important sources of information for customers in deciding to eat out for Thai food were personal experience, other satisfied persons, friends, family, and colleagues, respectively.

The sixth category revealed that just over half of the customers made a comparison of Thai food with other 'Asian food' before deciding to eat out for Thai food. Most customers compared Thai food with Chinese, Vietnamese, Indian, Japanese, and Malaysian foods, respectively. Accordingly, customers choosing to eat out for Thai food, prefer to pay A\$6-15 for lunch and A\$16-25 for dinner.

The seventh category indicated that customers eat out for Thai food less than for 'Other food'. Further, customers also cook at home, eat take-away, and eat home delivery for Thai food less than they do for 'Other food'. Results indicated that customers eat out for social reasons rather than for business needs.

The eighth category found that 'Description of Thai dishes' and 'recommended by friends' was most important for customers when ordering Thai food at Thai restaurants. Most customers were found to dine in at Thai restaurants with their friends, partners and families. Their reasons for dining at these restaurants were: not wanting to cook at home; wanting to celebrate special occasions; wanting to experience Thai food; and dining out every week with friends and family.

Lastly, the *ninth* category established that the vast majority of customers like eating Thai food very much. Although many were satisfied with the taste, quality, and aroma of Thai food, some had problems with aspects including spiciness, cost, lack of authenticity, and over-sweetness catering for mistaken perceptions of Australian preferences. Most were satisfied with the portion size of the dishes, value for money, and reasonable prices offered. They liked convenient location of restaurants, and restaurants decorated in Thai style. However, they were ambivalent about the provision of special discount periods, wining trips to Thailand, or special gifts from the restaurants. Most customers intended to recommend Thai food to their friends and to buy Thai food within the next week (41.3%), month (36.4%), and 2-3 months (16.4%).

The following Chapter 7 further analyses the above quantitative results, using inferential analysis for testing the twenty-six null hypotheses to answer Research Questions 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

CHAPTER 7

QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS (INFERENTIAL ANALYSIS)

7.0 Introduction

The principal aims of this chapter are:

- to report the testing of the fifteen null hypotheses (*Ho1* to *Ho15*) in order to answer Research Question 2: Are there any significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (as measured by frequency of eating out for dinner) among different consumer groups based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, needs recognition, and evaluation of alternatives? (Section 7.1);
- to test the three null hypotheses (*Ho16* to *Ho18*) for Research Question
 4: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food between overall satisfaction in terms of the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) and overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food and intention to recommend Thai food to friends? (Section 7.2);
- to test one null hypothesis (*Ho19*) for Research Question 5: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner? (Section 7.3);
- to test six null hypotheses (*Ho20* to *Ho25*) for Research Question 6: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different experiences of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? (Section 7.4);
- to test the null hypothesis (*Ho26*) for Research Question 7: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? (Section 7.5).

Researchers going beyond descriptive analysis to another level to test their hypotheses and apply the tools of inferential statistics, which are a necessary part of conducting research (Zikmund 2000; Gravetter and Wallnau 2004; Antonius Following discussion of the survey questionnaire results using 2003). descriptive analysis in Chapter 6 this chapter tests the null hypotheses discussed in Chapter 3, in order to provide a basis for an inferential analysis where responses to the adoption of Thai food are regrouped for testing the null hypotheses. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) (details in Section 4.3.4) has been used to test the null hypotheses in order to answer Research Questions 2, 6 and 7 about differences in the adoption of Thai food in term of 'frequency of eating-out for Thai food for dinner' and 'authentic Thai taste', based on different consumer groups. Cluster and factor analysis (details in Section 4.3.4) were employed to classify respondents into groups. In Section 7.1 an analysis of standard multiple regression (details in Section 4.3.4) was also used to investigate which variable in a set of six aspects of subjective knowledge about traditional Thai food is the best predictor of an outcome for frequency of eating out for Thai food. An analysis of correlation (details in Section 4.3.4) has been used to test null hypotheses about significant relationships between two variables in order to answer Research Question 4 and Research Question 5.

7.1 The Adoption of Thai Food among Different Groups (Based on Frequency of Eating Out for Thai Food)

This section analyses results for the adoption of Thai food based on fifteen different groups. In order to answer Research Question 2 (see Section 7.0), the fifteen null hypotheses (*Ho1* to *Ho15*) were constructed. Results from the descriptive analysis (Section 6.7.1) showed that the majority of respondents eat out for Thai food for dinner more often than for breakfast or lunch. Consequently, the answers to Question 22, (How often do you do the following: 'eat out for Thai food for dinner?) were used for measuring the dependent variable 'adoption of Thai food'. For ease of measurement, the seven-point Likert-scale was collapsed into a five point scale as follows:

1 = Never

2 = Rarely (less often than every 2-3 months) (where these respondents nominated a frequency less often than "once every 2-3 months", but more often than "never")

- 3 = *Sometimes* (once every 2-3 months)
- 4 = Often (once a month)
- 5 = Very often (every day + a few times a week + once a week)

Analysis of variance ANOVA (details in Section 4.3.4) was conducted to explore whether there were significant differences in the mean scores of the dependent variable 'the adoption of Thai food' (frequency of eat-out for Thai food for dinner) across two or more than two groups. The six independent variables, based on differences in respondent groups, were used in the proposed model 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia', as follows:

• **Demographics-based groups**: gender, age, ethnicity, income, education, occupation.

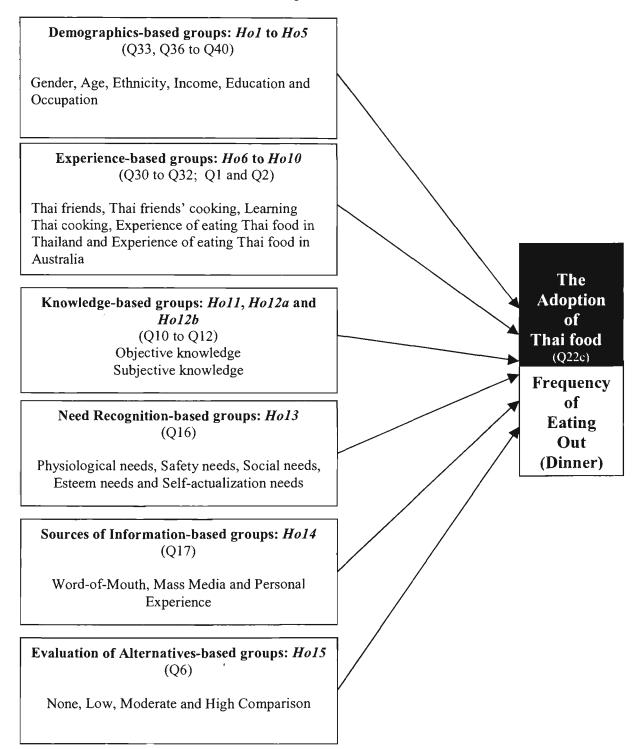
(five hypotheses, Section 7.1.1).

- **Experience-based groups**: Thai friends; Thai friends' cooking; learning Thai cooking; experience eating Thai food in Thailand and in Australia; levels of experience of eating Thai food in Australia. (five hypotheses, Section 7.1.2).
- **Knowledge–based groups**: objective and subjective knowledge. (two hypotheses, Section 7.1.3).
- Need Recognition-based groups: physiological, social, and self-actualization needs. (one hypothesis, Section 7.1.4).
- Sources of Information-based groups: word-of-mouth, personal experience, and mass media. (one hypothesis, Section 7.1.5).
- Evaluation of Alternatives-based groups: none, low, moderate, and high comparison. (one hypothesis, Section 7.1.6).

The above independent variable based groupings were found to be the most suited to comparison with the dependent variable of customer frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner in Victoria, Australia (Figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1 : A Diagram for Testing Hypotheses (*Ho1* to *Ho15*) for the *Adoption* of Thai food in Australia

Independent Variables-Based Groups



7.1.1 Demographics

Tests of the five null hypotheses (*Ho1* to *Ho5*) for the identification of significant differences in the adoption of Thai food among the five demographic groups (gender and age, ethnicity, income, education and occupation) were undertaken as follows:

• Gender and age groups (Ho1)

The null hypothesis, *There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between males and females among younger, middle and older age groups*, was tested to investigate the impact of gender and age on the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner).

Before analysing the results, cluster analysis was used to classify respondents according to age from six groups into three groups. Cross-tabulation analysis was further used to check the number of cases before naming them as Group 1: younger ages (18-34 years); Group 2: middle ages (35-54 years); and Group 3: older ages (55 to 65 or over), see Table 7.1.

	Cluster Number of Case				
Age groups	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Total	
18-24	120			120	
25-34	297			297	
35-44		239		239	
45-54		169		169	
55-64			107	107	
65 or over			29	29	
Total	417	408	136	961	

Table 7.1Age groups by Cluster analysis and Cross-tabulation

Group 1=Younger age group; Group 2=Middle age group; Group 3=Older age group

Two-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then conducted to explore whether there was a significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable, 'frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner', between males and females across the three different age groups. Table 7.2 reveals results of the assumptions underlying analysis of variance. The significance of p=.499

(Sig. value more than .05) from the test of the null hypothesis indicates that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across the independent variable (groups). Thus it can be concluded that there is no violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption.

 Table 7.2 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

 (Gender and Age Groups)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)							
F	df1	df2	Sig. (p)				
.872	5	942	.499				

Results (Table 7.3, below) reveal that the interaction effects are not significant (gender*age based 3 groups: p=.366). This indicates that there is no significant difference in the effect of age on the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for dinner) for males and females. There is no statistically significant difference at the p<.01 level for *males and females* in the adoption of Thai food [F(1, 942) = 6.219, p=.013]. The actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.4) between males and females is very small (Eta squared= .007). There is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food among the three *age groups* [F(2, 942)=10.575, p=.000]. In spite of reaching statistical significance the actual difference in mean scores between the groups (Table 7.4) was classified as a small effect of size (Eta square = .022, presented in Table 7.3).

7.3 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Gender and Age Groups)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Type III		,			
	Sum of		Mean			Eta
Source	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Corrected Model	24.976(a)	5	4.995	5.757	.000	.030
Intercept	9214.191	1	9214.191	10619.65 0	.000	.919
Gender	5.396	1	5.396	6.219	.013	.007
Age based 3 groups	18.350	2	9.175	10.575	.000	.022
Gender*Age based 3 groups	1.746	2	.873	1.006	.366	.002
Error	817.331	942	.868			
Total	13551.000	948				
Corrected Total	842.307	947				

R Squared = .030 (Adjusted R Squared = .025)

Table 7.4 Test of Mean Differences(Gender and Age Groups)

Dependent V	ariable: Eat out for Thai food	(Dinner)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
	Age based on three			
	groups		Std.	
Gender		Mean	Deviation	N
Male	Younger ag <mark>es</mark> (18-34 years)	3.90	.939	150
	Middle ages (35-54 years)	3.76	.901	160
	Older ages (55-65 & over)	3.41	.955	70
	Total	3.75	.940	380
Female	Younger ages (18-34 years)	3.62	.959	262
	Middle ag <mark>es</mark> (35-54 years)	3.67	.915	242
	Older ages (55-65 & over)	3.27	.913	64
	Total	3.60	.941	568
Total	Younger ages (18-34 years)	3.72	.960	412
	Middle ages (35-54 years)	3.71	.909	402
	Older ages (55-65 & over)	3.34	.935	134
C. B. S.	Total	3.66	.943	948

Note: Results based on two-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a five-point Likert scale for evaluation: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Very often

Further, Post-hoc comparisons (Table 7.5) using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for the younger age group (M=3.72) and the middle age group (M=3.71) were strongly significantly different to the mean score for the older age group (M=3.34). The mean scores of younger and middle age groups were not significantly different for the adoption of Thai food. The older age group tended to dine out for Thai food less often than both younger and middle age groups.

Table 7.5 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD) (Age based on three Groups)

	. 0				A /
Dependent	Variable:	Eat out	for Thai	food	(Dinner)

 Age based on three groups 	(J) Age based on three groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Younger ages (18-34 years)	Middle ages (35-54 years)	.015	.065	.971
	Older ages (55-65 & over)	.382(***)	.093	.000
Middle ages (35-54 years)	Younger ages (18-34 years)	015	.065	.971
	Older ages (55-65 & over)	.367(***)	.093	.000
Older ages (55-65 & over)	Younger ages (18-34 years)	382(***)	.093	.000
	Middle ages (35-54 years)	367(***)	.093	.000

*** The mean difference is significant at the <.001 level.

In summary, results indicate that there is no significant difference in the effect of age on the adoption of Thai food for males and females. There is also no significant difference between males and females for their frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. There is a similarity in the adoption of Thai food between younger and middle ages. The older age group tended to eat out for Thai food for dinner less often than the younger and middle age groups.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho1), There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between males and females among the younger, middle and older age groups was partially rejected.

• Ethnic groups (Ho2)

The null hypothesis (Ho2), *There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among Australian, European and Asian groups*, was tested to investigate the impact of ethnicity on the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner). Before analysing the results, a total of twelve ethnic groups from the descriptive analysis (Section 6.1.1) was condensed into three ethnic groups as follows:

Group 1: Australian = 614 respondents

(593 Australians combined with 21 New Zealanders)

Group 2: *European* = 218 respondents (215 Europeans combined with 3 East Europeans) Group 3: *Asian* = 133 respondents (96 North East Asians combined with 22 South East Asians and 15 Western Asians)

Four ethnic groups were excluded because their numbers were too small to form groups for testing the hypothesis. These groups were: North American, South American, Middle Eastern, and African with 12, 3, 2 and 3 respondents, respectively. In Table 7.6 the significance p=.806 (Sig. value more than .05) confirms that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

Table 7.6 Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Ethnicity-based on three groups)Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic df1 df2 Sig. (p							
.215	2	958	.806				

In Table 7.7 (below), results show that there is no statistically significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among these three ethnic groups [F(2, 958)=2.016, p=.134]. The eta squared value (.004) indicates a very small effect of size.

Table 7.7 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Ethnicity-based on three groups) Dependent Variable: Fat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Dependent variable	. Latout for I	nai 1000 (L				
	-					Partial
	Sum of		Mean			Eta
	Squares	Df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Between Groups	3.570	2	1.785	2.016	.134	.004
Within Groups	848.207	958	.885			
Total	. 851.777	960				

The actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.8) among the groups is very small: European (M=3.78) followed by Asian (M=3.64) and Australian (M=3.63).

Table 7.8 Test of Mean Differences (Ethnicity-based on three groups)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Ethnicity-based on three groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Australian	3.63	.933	612
European	3.78	.946	217
Asian	3.64	.967	132
Total	3.67	.942	961

Note: Results based on one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a five-point Likert scale for evaluation: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Very often

The Post-hoc multiple comparisons test using the Tukey HSD (Table 7.9) confirms that there are no significant differences (mean scores) for the adoption of Thai food among these three ethnic groups

Table 7.9Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)
(Ethnicity-based on three groups)

(I) Ethnicity three		Mean Difference		
groups	(J) Ethnicity three groups	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Australian	European	146	.074	.120
	Asian	004	.090	.999
European	Australian	.146	.074	.120
	Asian	.142	.104	.356
Asian	Australian	.004	.090	.999
	European	142	.104	.356

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

In summary, results from this study reveal that ethnicity does not affect customers in the adoption of Thai food in Australia. In other words, these three ethnic groups had a similar frequency of eating out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.

Therefore, the null hypothesis Ho2, There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among Australian, European and Asian groups was accepted.

• Income groups (*Ho3*)

The null hypothesis: *There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among lower, middle and higher income groups* was tested to investigate whether income had an impact on respondents in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner). Cluster analysis was used to reclassify respondents' differences in income from the original eight groups into three groups. Results are shown in Table 7.10 (below) classified according to respondents' annual income: Group 1 'lower income' earning less than \$40,000; Group 2 'middle income' earning between \$40,000 to \$84,999; and Group 3 'higher income' earning more than \$84,999.

Table 7.10Income Groups by Cluster analysis and Cross-tabulation

Annual Income (A\$)	Cluster Number of Case			
(from all sources before tax)	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Total
Less than \$25,000	172			172
\$25,000 - \$39,999	177			177
\$40,000 - \$54,999		203		203
\$55,000 - \$69,999		156		156
\$70,000 - \$84,999		68		68
\$85,000 - \$99,999			48	48
\$100,000 - \$149,999			63	63
More than \$150,000			41	41
Total	349	427	152	928

Group 1=Lower Income; Group 2=Middle Income; Group 3=Higher Income

Results in Table 7.11 reveal that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated (p=.067) because the significance value was more than .05.

Table 7.11 Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Income-based three groups)

Dependent variable:	Eat out for Tha	i food (Dinner)	
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
2.709	2	920	.067

In Table 7.12 (below) results show that there is no statistically significant difference at level <.01 for the adoption of Thai food among the three different income groups [F(2, 920)=4.313, p=.014]. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups was very small. The eta squared (.009) indicates a very small effect of size.

Table 7.12 Test of Between-Subjects Effects(Income-based three groups)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	7.502	2	3.751	4.313	.014	.009
Within Groups	800.052	920	.870			
Total	807.554	922				

Dependent variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Mean scores (Table 7.13, below) show that respondents in the higher income group (M=3.83) are more likely to dine out for Thai food than those in the middle income group (M=3.69) and lower income group (M=3.57), respectively.

Table 7.13 Test of Mean Differences

(Income-based three groups)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Income based on three groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Lower Income	3.57	.986	345
Middle Income	3.69	.907	426
Higher Income	3.83	.875	152
Total	3.67	.936	923

Note: Results based on one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a five-point Likert scale for evaluation: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Very often

The Post-hoc comparisons (Table 7.14, below) using the Tukey HSD test indicate that there is no statistically significant difference (mean score) at the level p<.01 among these three income groups for the adoption of Thai food.

Table 7.14Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)
(Income-based on three groups)

Dependent Variable: E	Eat out for Thai food (I	Dinner)		
(I) Annual Income	(J) Annual Income	Mean		
based on three	based on three	Difference		
groups	groups	(I-J)	Std. Error	<u>Sig. (p)</u>
Lower Income	Middle Income	117	.068	.192
	Higher Income	261	.091	.012
Middle Income	Lower Income	.117	.068	.192
	Higher Income	144	.088	.234
Higher Income	Lower Income	.261	.091	.012
	Middle Income	.144	.088	.234

In summary, results indicate that income does not affect respondents in the adoption of Thai food.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho3): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among lower, middle and higher income groups was accepted.

• Education groups (Ho4)

The null hypothesis (Ho4): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between groups with different levels of education investigated whether education had an impact on respondents' decision to eat out for Thai food for dinner more often. Before analysing data, cluster analysis was used to classify respondents' differences in education from the original five groups into three new groups. Then, cross-tabulation analysis was used to check the number of cases from the original groups in the three new groups before naming them (see Table 7.15). The three new groups were classified as Group 1: education below Bachelor's degree (secondary and TAFE certificate); Group 2: Bachelor's degree; and Group 3: Postgraduate degree (Master and Doctoral degree).

 Table 7.15

 Education Groups by Cluster Analysis and Cross-tabutation

Highest Level of Education		Cluster Nun	nber of Case	
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Total
Secondary	222			222
TAFE certificate	175			175
Bachelor degree		425		425
Master degree			124	124
Doctoral degree			36	36
Total	397	425	160	982

Group 1=Certificate; Group 2=Bachelor degree; Group 3=Postgraduate degree

Results shown in Table 7.16 (below) confirm that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated (p=.235) because the significance value was more than .05.

Table 7.16 Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Education-based on three groups)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
1.450	2	972	.235

Chapter 7 Quantitative Research Results (Inferential Analysis)

Results in Table 7.17 (below) indicate that there is no statistically significant difference at the p<.01 level in the frequency of 'Eat Out Thai Food for dinner' for the three different education-based groups [F(2, 972)=3.005, p=.050]. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups was very small (see Table 7.18). The Eta squared (.006) indicated as a very small effect of size.

Table 7.17 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Education-based on three groups)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	5.294	2	2.647	3.005	.050	.006
Within Groups	856.290	972	.881			
Total	861.584	974				

Table 7.18 Test of Mean Differences

(Education-based on three groups) Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	2000		
Education based 3 groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Under Bachelor	3.64	.972	393
Bachelor	3.65	.920	423
Postgraduate	3.84	.904	159
Total	3.68	.941	975

Note: Results based on one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a five-point Likert scale for evaluation: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Very often

Further, Post-hoc comparisons (Table 7.19) using the Tukey HSD test confirmed that there were no statistically significant differences (mean score) among these three groups.

Table 7.19Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)
(Education-based on three groups)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

(I) Highest				1.0
Level	(J) Highest Level	Mean Difference		
Qualification	Qualification	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Under Bachelor	Bachelor	004	.066	.998
	Postgraduate	202	.088	.058
Bachelor	Under Bachelor	.004	.066	.998
	Postgraduate	197	.087	.062
Postgraduate	Under Bachelor	.202	.088	.058
	Bachelor	.197	.087	.062

In summary, results in this study indicated that level of education does not affect respondents for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

Therefore, the null hypothesis Ho4: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between groups with different levels of education was accepted.

• Occupation groups (Ho5)

This part focuses on an analysis of differences in occupation-based groups according to the null hypothesis (Ho5): *There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among different occupational groups*. Before analysing data to test the null hypothesis, cluster analysis was used to reclassify respondents into seven occupational groups from the original nine groups. Then, cross-tabulation analysis was used to check the number of cases from the original groups in the seven new groups (see Table 7.20).

			TwoSte	p Cluster	Number			Total
Occupation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Student							128	128
Administration				96				96
Manager		131		8				131
Professional					375			375
Skilled worker						80		80
Unskilled worker			8					8
Self employed	101							101
Retired			47					47
Housework or Housewives			16					16
Total	101	131	71	96	375	80	128	982

Table 7.20 Occupation (Cluster Analysis and Cross-tabulation)

Results (Table 7.21) showed that there was minor violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption because the significance value (p=.041) was less than .05.

Table 7.21 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

(Occupation-based on seven groups)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)Levene Statisticdf1df2Sig. (p)2.1996968.041

However, the assumption of homogeneity of variance does not affect, or only slightly affects, the validity of results when the sample sizes are large (Weinberg and Abramowitz 2002). Added to this, Gravetter and Wallnau (2004, p.423) mentioned that it is impossible or impractical to have an equal number of subjects in every condition, therefore ANOVA analysis still provides a valid test when the samples are large. Moreover, Pallant (2005) noted that violations of normality or equality of variance should not cause any major problems if there are over 30 respondents and more than the number of dependent variables in each cell. In addition, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p.329) noted that a sample size of at least 20 in each cell should ensure a normal distribution. The total of 1009 respondents in this study was a large enough sample size, and definitely produced over 30 respondents in each cell. Stevens (1996) recommends setting a more stringent significance level, alpha value at p<.01, for evaluating the mean difference between group results if there was some violation of the assumption. Pallant (2005, p.218) suggests alternative ways by using results of significance from Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch and Brown-Forsythe) when the assumption of the homogeneity of variance is violated.

In comparing results of significance, Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.22) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.23) reveal the same results of significance (p=.000). As shown in Table 7.21, above, the homogeneity of variances assumption is violated (p=.041). Therefore, results in this present study confirm the recommendations from the above mentioned authors and reveal that the assumption of the homogeneity of variance does not affect the validity of the results with a large sample size.

Table 7.22 Robust Tests of Equality of Means(Occupation-based on seven groups)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
Welch	5.282	6	298.292	.000
Brown-Forsythe	5.886	6	624.997	.000
a Asymptotically E	distributed			

a Asymptotically F distributed.

Therefore, results of significance can be used from either Robust Tests of Equality of Means or Test of Between-Subjects Effects. In this study, Test of BetweenSubjects Effects was used to measure results. In Table 7.23 (below), results show that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food among the seven occupation based groups [F(6, 968)=6.195, p=.000].

Table 7.23 Test of Between-Subjects Effects(Occupation-based on seven groups)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	31.320	6	5.220	6.195	.000	.037
Within Groups	815.655	968	.843			
Total	846.974	974				

However, the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.24) between the groups indicates a small effect of size (Eta squared=.037).

Table 7.24 Test of Mean Differences

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Self employed	3.91	.842	100
Manager	3.73	.849	131
Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	3.13	1.048	70
Administration	3.53	.988	95
Professional	3.74	.875	374
Skilled worker	3.69	.902	78
Student	3.61	1.040	127
Total	3.67	.933	975

Note: Results based on one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a five-point Likert scale for evaluation: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Very often

Further, the Post-hoc multiple comparisons test (Tukey HSD) was used to test the significant differences of mean scores. Results of this test, shown in Table 7.25, reveal that there were significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) between respondents who work as unskilled worker/retired/house work group and respondents who work as self-employed, manager, professional, skilled worker and student group. There were no significant differences in the adoption of Thai food among respondents who work as unskilled workers, retired people, housework and

⁽Occupation-based on seven groups)

those who work in administrative positions. There were also no significant differences in the adoption of Thai food among respondents who were selfemployed, managers, professional, skilled workers and students. Administration was not significantly difference to any other occupations for their adoption of Thai food.

In summary, results in this study indicated that the occupation factor partly affects respondents in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

Therefore, the null hypothesis Ho5: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among different occupational groups was partially rejected.

Table 7.25 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD) (Occupation-based on seven groups)

		Mean Difference	Std.	
(I) Occupation	(J) Occupation	(I-J)	Error	Sig. (p)
Self employed	Manager Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	.177	.122	.772
	Administration	.781(***)	.143	.000
	Professional	.384	.132	.056
		.167	.103	.674
	Skilled worker	.218	.139	.702
	Student	.304	.123	.170
Manager	Self employed	177	.122	.772
	Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	.604(***)	.136	.000
	Administration	.207	.124	.637
	Professional	010	.093	1.000
	Skilled worker	.041	.131	1.000
	Student	.127	.114	.926
Unskilled worker	Self employed	781(***)	.143	.000
Retired	Manager	604(***)	.136	.000
Housework	Administration	398	.145	.087
	Professional	615(***)	.120	.000
	Skilled worker	564(**)	.151	.004
	Student	478(**)	.137	.009
Administration	Self employed	384	.132	.056
	Manager	207	.124	.637
	Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	.398	.145	.087
	Professional	217	.105	.379
	Skilled worker	- 166	.140	.900
	Student	080	.125	.995
Professional	Self employed	167	.103	.674
	Manager	.010	.093	1.000
	Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	.615(***)	.120	.000
	Administration	.217	.105	.379
	Skilled worker	.051	.114	.999
	Student	.137	.094	.772
Skilled worker	Self employed	218	.139	.702
	Manager	041	.131	1.000
	Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	.564(**)	.151	.004
	Administration	.166	.140	.900
	Professional	051	.114	.999
	Student	.086	.132	.995
Student	Self employed	304	.123	.170
	Manager	127	.123	.926
	Unskilled worker/Retired/Housework	.478(**)	.114	.009
			.137	.995
	Administration	.080		C CONTRACTOR CONTRACTOR
	Professional	137	.094	.772

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

** The mean difference is significant at the <.01 level. *** The mean difference is significant at the <.001 level

7.1.2 Experience of Thai Food

In this section tests are reported of the five null hypotheses (*Ho6* to *Ho10*) for the measurement of the dependent variable 'adoption of Thai food', based on five different experience groups (independent variables) including: Thai friend, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, experienced eating Thai food in Thailand, and different levels of experience of eating Thai food in Australia.

• Thai Friends (Ho6)

This part focuses on an analysis of whether Thai friends affect respondents in the adoption of Thai food according to the null hypothesis (Ho6): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends.

Results in Table 7.26 confirm that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated because the significance value was more than .05 (p=0.242).

Table 7.26 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

(Thai Friends) Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Le out lot Thui toou (D		1	
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
1.370	1	995	.242

In Table 7.27 (below), results show that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends [F(1, 995)=23.674, p=.000].

Table 7.27 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Thai Friends) Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) (Dinner)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	20.725	1	20.725	23.674	.000	.023
Within Groups	871.052	995	.875			
Total	891.777	996				

However, the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.28, below) between the groups was small. The Eta squared (.023) indicates a small effect of size (see Table 7.27).

Table 7.28 Test of Mean Differences(Thai Friends)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Do you have any Thai friends?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes	3.89	.938	299
No	3.57	.935	698
Total	3.67	.946	997

In summary, respondents who have Thai friends are likely to eat out more often for Thai food than respondents who have no Thai friends. Thus, the results from this study indicated that Thai friends affected these respondents in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho6): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends was rejected.

• Thai Friends' Cooking (Ho7)

This part analyses whether Thai friends' cooking affects respondents in the adoption of Thai food in order to answer the null hypothesis Ho7: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of Thai friends' cooking and those who have no experience of Thai friends' cooking.

Table 7.29 shows that the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated because significance value was less than .05 (p=.000).

<u>ig. (p)</u> .000

Table 7.29 Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Thai Friends' Cooking)Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

1	Lut out for Thai food (
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	s
	13.566	1	966	

Having noted that, with the large sample size for this present study. the assumption of homogeneity of variance does not affect, or only slightly affects, the validity of results (Weinberg and Abramowitz 2002; Pallant 2005), an alternative test, Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welsh and Brown-Forsythe), may be used when the assumption of the homogeneity of variance is violated (Pallant 2005, p.218). However, results from the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.30) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.31) both reveal the same significance value (p=.000). This confirms that ANOVA analysis still provides a valid test when the samples are large. Therefore, the significance value results from the Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.31) was used in order to test the null hypothesis (Ho7).

Table 7.30 Robust Tests of Equality of Means(Thai Friends' Cooking)

	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	39.716	1	336.259	.000
Brown-Forsythe	39.716	1	336.259	.000

a Asymptotically F distributed.

In Table 7.31 (below), results show that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of Thai friends' cooking and those who have no experience of Thai friends' cooking [F(1, 966)=33.917, p=.000]. However, the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.32) between the groups was classified as small. The Eta squared value (.034) indicates a small effect of size (see Table 7.31).

Table 7.31 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Thai Friends' Cooking)

Eat out for Thai 1000	Sum of		Mean	_		Partial Eta Squared
	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	
Between Groups	29.391	1	29.391	33.917	.000	.034
Within Groups	837.104	966	.867			
Total	866.495	967			1	

Table 7.32 Test of Mean Differences (Thai Friends' Cooking) Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Have Thai friends ever cooked Thai foods for you?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes	4.02	.835	196
No	3.59	.954	772
Total	3.67	.947	968

In summary, experience of Thai friends' cooking did affect respondents in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Results in this study indicated that respondents who had experience of Thai friends' cooking eat out for Thai food for dinner at Thai restaurants more often than customers who had no experience of Thai friends' cooking.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho7): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of Thai friends' cooking and those who have no experience of Thai friends' cooking was rejected.

• Learning Thai Cooking (Ho8)

The test of the null hypothesis Ho8: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of learning Thai cooking and those who have no experience of learning Thai cooking is discussed here. The results in Table 7.33 show that the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated (p<.05). However, with the large sample size for this study the assumption of homogeneity of variance does not affect the validity of results because results of the significance value from the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.34) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.35) both reveal the same significance value (p=.000). This confirms that an ANOVA analysis still provides a valid test when the samples are large. Therefore, a decision was made to use the Test of Between-Subjects Effects for analysing results (Table 7.35).

Table 7.33 Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Learning Thai cooking)Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
18.516	1	996	.000

Table 7.34 Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Learning Thai Cooking)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Statistic(a)		df2	Sig.
Welch	23.198	1	244.749	.000
Brown-Forsythe	23.198	1	244.749	.000

a Asymptotically F distributed.

Results (Table 7.35, below) show that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of learning Thai cooking and those who have no experience of learning Thai cooking [F(1, 996)=18.795, p=.000].

Table 7.35 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Learning Thai Cooking)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) Partial Eta Sum of Mean Df Squared Squares F Square Sig. (p) **Between Groups** 16.524 1 16.524 18.795 .000 .018 Within Groups 875.696 996 .879 Total 892.220 997

However, the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.36) between the groups was small. The Eta squared value (.018) indicates a small effect of size. Mean scores (Table 7.36) show that respondents who had experience of learning Thai cooking (M=3.96) eat out for Thai food (dinner) more often than respondents who had no experience of learning Thai cooking (M=3.61).

Table 7.36 Test of Mean Differences

Have you ever learnt Thai cooking?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes	3.96	.821	158
No	3.61	.958	840
Total	3.67	.946	998

In summary, from these results the experience of learning Thai cooking did affect the frequency of eating out for Thai food for these respondents in Victoria, Australia.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho8): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of learning Thai cooking and those who have no experience of learning Thai cooking was rejected.

• Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand (Ho9)

In this section differences in the experience of eating Thai food in Thailand are analysed to test the null hypothesis *Ho9*: *There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Thailand*. Before analysing results of the null hypothesis (*Ho9*) cluster analysis was used to reclassify respondents' differences in terms of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand from the original six groups into four groups. Cross-tabulation analysis then was used to check the number of respondents before the groups were given names. Results are shown in Table 7.37 (below). Group 1, 'No Experience', for respondents who had no experience of eating Thai food in Thailand before dining in at the current Thai restaurant; Group 2, 'Low Experience', for respondents who had eaten Thai food in Thailand less than 5 times; Group 3, 'Moderate Experience', for 5 to 50 times; and Group 4, 'High Experience', for more than 50 times.

Table 7.37 Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in T	Thailand
Cluster Analysis and Cross-tabulation	

	Cluster Number of Case			Total	
	1	2	3	4	
No Experience	558				558
Less than 5 times		76			76
5-20 times			167		167
21-50 times			95		95
51-100 times				41	41
More than 100 times				56	56
Total	558	76	262	97	993

In Table 7.38 results show that the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated because significance value was less than .05 (p<.000). However, the significance value from Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.39) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.40) both reveal the same results of

significance value (p=.000). This confirms that an ANOVA analysis still provides a valid test when the samples are large. Therefore, a decision was made to use Test of Between-Subjects Effects to analyse the results in this study (Table 7.40).

Table 7.38 Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Experience in Thailand)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
8.029	3	982	.000

Table 7.39 Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Experience in Thailand)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
Welch	17.792	3	228.243	.000
Brown-Forsythe	16.018	3	387.647	.000

a Asymptotically F distributed.

Results in Table 7.40 (below) show that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and those who have no experience of eating Thai food in Thailand [F(3, 982)=14.386, p=.000].

Table 7.40 Test of Between-Subjects Effects(Experience in Thailand)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	37.394	3	12.465	14.386	.000	.042
Within Groups	850.821	982	.866			4
Total	888.215	985				

However, the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.41) between the groups was classified as close to a moderate effect. The Eta squared value (.042) indicates a small effect of size (see Table 7.40).

Table 7.41 Test of Mean Differences(Experience in Thailand)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
No Experience	3.54	.985	556
Low Experience	3.53	.954	74
Moderate Experience	3.81	.859	259
High Experience	4.14	.764	97
Total	3.67	.950	986

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

The Post-hoc multiple comparisons test (Tukey HSD) was used to test the significant differences of mean scores between groups. Results (Table 7.42, below) reveal that there were significant differences in the adoption of Thai food between respondents in the No Experience group and the Moderate Experience group at p<.01 level, and with the High Experience group at p<.001 level. There were significant differences in the adoption of Thai food between respondent differences in the adoption of Thai food between respondent groups with Low Experience and High Experience at p<.001 level.

Table 7.42 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)(Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand based on four groups)

(I) Experience of Eating-		Mean		1
Out for Thai Food in	(J) Experience of Eating-Out	Difference		
Thailand	for Thai Food in Thailand	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
No Experience	Low Experience	.014	.115	.999
	Moderate Experience	266(**)	.070	.001
	High Experience	603(***)	.102	.000
Low Experience	No Experience	014	.115	.999
	Moderate Experience	280	.123	.103
	High Experience	617(***)	.144	.000
Moderate Experience	No Experience	.266(**)	.070	.001
	Low Experience	.280	.123	.103
	High Experience	337	.111	.013
High Experience	No Experience	.603(***)	.102	.000
	Low Experience	.617(***)	.144	.000
	Moderate Experience	.337	.111	.013

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

** The mean difference is significant at the .01 level.

*** The mean difference is significant at the .001 level.

In summary, results indicated that levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand do affect respondents to eat out more often for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Higher experience respondents are more likely to eat out more often than lower experience respondents.

Therefore, the null hypothesis Ho9: There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Thailand was rejected.

• Experience of Eating Out for Thai Food in Australia (*Ho10*)

In this section differences in levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Victoria, Australia are analysed to test the null hypothesis (Ho10): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food for dinners in Victoria, Australia.

Cluster analysis was used to reclassify respondents' differences in terms of experience of eating Thai food in Australia from the original six groups into three groups. Cross-tabulation analysis then was used to check the number of respondents before the groups were given names. Results are shown in Table 7.43 (below). Group 1, 'Low Experience', for respondents who had experience of eating Thai food in Australia for less than 5 times; Group 2, 'Moderate Experience', for 5 to 50 times; and Group 3, 'High Experience', for more then 50 times.

	Cluste	Cluster Number of Case		Total
	1	2	3	
First time in Australia	69			69
Less than 5 times	95			95
5-20 times		257		257
21-50 times		235		235
51-100 times			160	160
More than 100 times			136	136
Total	164	492	296	952

Table 7.43 Experience (times) Eaten Thai Food in AustraliaCluster Analysis and Cross-tabulation

In Table 7.44 results show that the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated (p<.05). However, results from the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.45, below) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.46) both reveal the same significance value (p=.000). This confirms that an ANOVA analysis still

provides a valid test when the samples are large. Therefore, the Test of Between-Subjects Effects was used to analyse the results (Table 7.46, below).

Table 7.44 Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Experience in Australia)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
22.546	2	942	.000

Table 7.45 Robust Tests of Equality of Means(Experience in Australia)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
Welch	62.933	2	394.564	.000
Brown-Forsythe	52.560	2	432.407	.000

a Asymptotically F distributed

Results (Table 7.46, below) show that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<.001 level for the adoption of Thai food among the three groups with low, moderate, and high experience of eating Thai food in Victoria, Australia [F(2, 942)=60.088, p=.000].

Table 7.46 Test of Between-Subjects Effects(Experience in Australia)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	96.234	2	48.117	60.088	.000	.113
Within Groups	754.327	942	.801			
Total	850.561	944				

The actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.47) between the groups was classified as a large effect of size (Eta squared = .113).

Table 7.47 Test of Mean Differences(Experience in Australia)Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Low experience	3.23	1.129	162
Moderate experience	3.56	.881	488
High experience	4.12	.762	295
Total	3.68	.949	945

Further, Post-hoc multiple comparisons using the Tukey HSD to test the significant differences of mean scores (Table 7.48) confirm that there were significant differences for the adoption of Thai food among respondents with low, moderate, and high experience of eating out for Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

Table 7.48 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)(Experience in Australia)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) Tukey HSD

(I) Experience		Mean		
(times) eaten Thai	(J) Experience (times) eaten	Difference		
food in Australia	Thai food in Australia	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Low Experience Moderate Experience		323(***)	.081	.000
	High Experience	884(***)	.088	.000
Moderate Experience	Low Experience	.323(***)	.081	.000
	High Experience	561(***)	.066	.000
High Experience	Low Experience	.884(***)	.088	.000
	Moderate Experience	.561(***)	.066	.000

*** The mean difference is significant at the .001 level.

In summary, results in this study reveal that respondents with higher experience of eating out for Thai food tended to eat out for Thai food more often than those with moderate and low experience of eating out for Thai food, respectively.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho10): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food for dinners in Victoria, Australia was rejected.

7.1.3 Knowledge of Thai Food

In this section results are reported of the tests of the three null hypotheses (*Holl, Hol2a* and *Hol2b*) based on different groups of objective and subjective knowledge for the adoption of Thai food.

• Objective Knowledge (Ho11)

This part investigates whether objective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food had an impact on the adoption of Thai food. This analysis was conducted to test the null hypothesis (*Holl*): *There is no significant difference in*

the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of objective knowledge about it. Before analysing the results the respondents were classified into three objective knowledge-based groups: low, moderate, and high. Objective knowledge scores were calculated using Microsoft Excel Software by combining the number of correct answers from Questions 10 and Question 11.

In order to measure respondents' knowledge about the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food, respondents were asked to select only one correct answer from two items provided in Question 10, and to select only one correct answer from four items provided in Question 11 (details in Section 6.3.1). The possible answers were classified on nominal scales for measurement. Respondents were given a score of two if they selected the correct answers for both questions (Question 10 and Question 11), score of 1 for one correct answer to either question, and a score of 0 (zero) for incorrect answers to both questions. Respondents who answered 'Don't know' were given a score of 0 (zero). Respondents who obtained a total knowledge score equal to two were categorised as having high objective knowledge, a score of one as moderate objective knowledge, and a score of 0 (zero) as low objective knowledge, respectively.

Results (Table 7.49) show that more than half of the respondents had high objective knowledge, just over two-thirds (36.4%) had moderate knowledge; and only 6.1% had low knowledge.

Objective Hulomleuge Da	iite Orou	23				
	Low	Moderate	High			
	Knowledge	Knowledge	Knowledge	Total	Mean	SD
	N	N	N	N		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Objective Knowledge	61	367	581	1009	2.52	0.61
	(6.0)	(36.4)	(57.6)	(100)		

Table 7.49Objective Knowledge-based on three Groups

Source: Objective knowledge drawn from Question 10 & 11 (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.1) N = Number of respondents

Further, an ANOVA analysis was used to analyse data in order to test the null hypothesis (*Ho11*) mentioned above. Table 7.50 results confirm that the

homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated because the significance value was more than .05 (p=.191).

Table 7.50 Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Objective Knowledge)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)						
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)			
1.660	2	999	.191			

Therefore, the Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.51, below) was used to test that there were no statistically significant differences at p<.01 level for the adoption of Thai food among low, moderate, and high objective knowledge groups [F(2, 999)=.446, p=.640].

 Table 7.51 Test of Between-Subjects Effects
 (Objective Knowledge)

 Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Sum of	Dí	Mean			Partial Eta
	Squares	Df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Between Groups	.801	2	.400	.446	.640	.001
Within Groups	897.195	999	.898			
Total	897.996	1001				

The actual mean scores (Table 7.52) among these three groups was very small.

Table 7.52Test of Mean Differences(Objective Knowledge)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

		Std.	
	Mean	Deviation	N
Low Knowledge	3.77	.938	61
Moderate Knowledge	3.65	.982	363
High Knowledge	3.67	.927	578
Total	3.67	.947	1002

Furthermore, results from a Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.53) verify that there was no significant difference among these three objective knowledge groups for the adoption of Thai food.

Table 7.53 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)

(Objective Knowledge) Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Tukey HSD				
(I) Objective				
Knowledge-				
based on three	(J) Objective Knowledge-	Mean Difference		
Groups	based on three Groups	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Low Knowledge	Moderate Knowledge	.123	.131	.616
	High Knowledge	.099	.128	.717
Moderate Knowledge	Low Knowledge	123	.131	.616
Ŭ	High Knowledge	024	.063	.925
High Knowledge	Low Knowledge	099	.128	.717
	Moderate Knowledge	.024	.063	.925

In summary, results from this study indicate that objective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food factor did not affect respondents to eat out for Thai food (dinner) more often than respondents who have less objective knowledge.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho11): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of objective knowledge about it was accepted.

• Subjective Knowledge: *Ho12(a)*

The null hypothesis Ho12(a): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of subjective knowledge about it was investigated to see whether background knowledge of traditional Thai food (subjective knowledge) had an impact on respondents to adopt Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

Subjective knowledge-based groups (Table 7.54) were classified into three groups: low, moderate and high by using cluster analysis 'K-Means Cluster' from the results of Question 12 (see Section 6.3.2). Cross-tabulation analysis was then used to check the number of respondents before classifying them into three groups: low, moderate and high subjective knowledge groups.

Table 7.54

Subjective Knowledge Based on three Groups

	Low	Moderate	High			
	Knowledge	Knowledge	Knowledge	Total	Mean	SD
	N	N	N	Ν		
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
Subjective Knowledge	257	409	322	988	2.07	0.76
	(26.0)	(41.4)	(32.6)	(100)		

Source: Subjective knowledge drawn from Question 12 by Cluster analysis (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.2), N = Number of respondents

In Table 7.55 results show that there is violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption as the significant value was less than .05 (p=.000). However, as mentioned before, the assumption of homogeneity of variance does not affect or slightly affect the validity of results when the sample sizes are large (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001; Weinberg and Abramowitz 2002; Gravetter and Wallnau 2004; Pallant 2005). With the large sample size, a total 981 respondents excluding missing data, there were more than 250 respondents in each group, so there was no major problem for the analysis of the results.

Table 7.55 Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Subjective Knowledge)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
7.850	2	978	.000

Results from the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.56) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.57) both reveal the same significance value (p=.000). Therefore, the Test of Between-Subjects Effects was used to analyse results in this present study.

Table 7.56 Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Subjective Knowledge)

Eat out for Tha	i tood (Dinner))		
	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
Welch	45.530	2	585.563	.000
Brown- Forsythe	48.102	2	832.269	.000

a Asymptotically F distributed.

Results in Table 7.57 indicate that there was a statistically significant difference at level >.001 for the adoption of Thai food among groups with low, moderate and high subjective knowledge of Thai food [F(2, 978)=49.678, p=.000].

Table 7.57 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Subjective Knowledge)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) Sum of Mean Partial Eta Squares Df Square F Squared Sig. (p) Between Groups 2 81.706 40.853 49.678 .000 .092 Within Groups 804.258 978 .822 Total 885.963 980

The actual mean scores (Table 7.58) among these three groups are classified as indicating a moderate effect of size (Eta square=.092).

Table 7.58 Test of Mean Differences (Subjective Knowledge)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Low Knowledge	3.24	1.000	256
Moderate Knowledge	3.69	.868	406
High Knowledge	4.00	.876	319
Total	3.67	.951	981

Further, the Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.59) confirms that there was significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with low, moderate and high subjective knowledge of Thai food.

Table 7.59 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD) (Subjective Knowledge)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) Tukey HSD

		Mean		
		Difference		
(I) Subjective Knowledge	(J) Subjective Knowledge	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Low Knowledge	Moderate Knowledge	445(***)	.072	.000
	High Knowledge	758(***)	.076	.000
Moderate Knowledge	Low Knowledge	.445(***)	.072	.000
	High Knowledge	313(***)	.068	.000
High Knowledge	Low Knowledge	.758(***)	.076	.000
	Moderate Knowledge	.313(***)	.068	.000

*** The mean difference is significant at the <.001 level.

In summary, the results revealed that respondents with high subjective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food dine-out for Thai food at Thai restaurants more often than those who have moderate and low subjective knowledge, respectively. This means that subjective knowledge of the traditional Thai food factor affects respondents in the adoption of Thai food.

Therefore, the null hypothesis Ho12(a): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of subjective knowledge about it was rejected.

o Subjective Knowledge: Ho12(b)

Standard Multiple Regression Analysis

Further standard multiple regression analysis (details in Section 4.3.4) was used to investigate which of the six independent variables of subjective knowledge about traditional Thai food is the best predictor of the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner). The testing of the null hypothesis Ho12(b): The six independent variables of subjective knowledge about traditional Thai food do not significantly predict the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) is also reported in this section.

Table 7.60 shows results of the mean, standard deviation, and number of respondents of a dependent variable (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) and six independent variables of subjective knowledge of Thai food.

Table 7.60 Frequency of Eating Out for Thai Foodand Subjective Knowledge

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
<i>Dependent Variable:</i> Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)	3.67	.951	981
Six Independent Variables:			
Knowledge of the traditional way of ordering Thai food	2.69	1.161	981
Knowledge of the traditional way of eating Thai food	2.93	1.149	981
Knowledge of the traditional Thai dish names	2.79	1.134	981
Knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food	3.12	1.168	981
Knowledge of the authentic aroma of Thai food	3.36	1.151	981
Knowledge of the authentic taste of Thai food	3.46	1.140	981

N = Number of respondents

As Pallant (2002; 2005) points out, there are three steps in analysing results using the standard multiple regression technique. These are: checking the assumptions, evaluating the model and evaluating each of the independent variables.

Step 1: Checking the assumptions

Before using the standard multiple regression technique to analyse results, assumptions of multiple regression were tested as follows:

a) sample size

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) provided a formula for calculating sample size requirements by taking into account the number of independent variables.

Formula of sample size = N > 50 + 8m

(m=number of independent variables)

Therefore, in this study 98 respondents were needed for each independent variable. This indicated that the sample size (Table 7.60) of this study was large enough, as the standard multiple regression required.

b) Outliers, have been checked by Mahalanobis Distance tests (Table 7.61) using the multiple regression program. The extreme score is 57.704.

				Std.	_
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Deviation	Ν
Predicted Value	3.02	4.24	3.67	.317	981
Std. Predicted Value	-2.068	1.793	.000	1.000	981
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.038	.220	.072	.024	981
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.02	4.25	3.67	.317	981
Residual	-3.206	1.973	.000	.897	981
Std. Residual	-3.565	2.194	.000	.997	981
Stud. Residual	-3.575	2.201	.000	1.001	981
Deleted Residual	-3.225	1.985	.000	.903	981
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.597	2.205	.000	1.002	981
Mahal. Distance	.786	57.704	5.994	5.425	981
Cook's Distance	.000	.060	.001	.003	981
Centered Leverage Value	.001	.059	.006	.006	981

 Table 7.61 Outliers (Residuals Statistics)

a Dependent Variable: Frequency of Eating-Out for Thai Food for Dinner

Critical values for evaluating Mahalanobis distance values in this present study were adopted from Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Pallant (2002, 2005). There are six independent variables (Table 7.60, above), therefore the critical value is 22.46. Table 7.62 shows there are five cases outliers excluding the critical value and it is not unusual to find a number of outlying residuals with large samples (Pallant 2002; 2005). Pallant noted that it is not important to take any action if there are only a few cases of outliers, therefore these five cases were not deleted from the file. This was confirmed by results of the regression standardized residual plot (see Figure 7.2).

			Case Number	identity	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Highest	1	271	162	57.70385
		2	1008	1969	57.70385
		3	854	727	40.15504
	Ì	4	380	1380	34.70590
		5	119	1473	33.69537
	Lowest	1	14	1479	.78438
		2	991	1541	.78581
		3	982	100	.78581
		4	959	106	.78581
		5	952	170	.78581

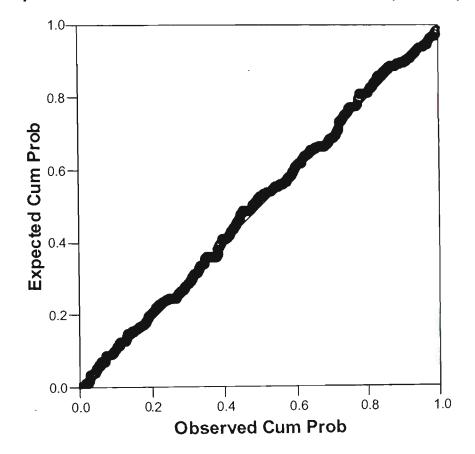
Table 7.62 Outliers (Extreme Values)

c) Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Figure 7.2 shows a normal plot of the regression standardized residual. This indicates that data are appropriate for using the Multiple Regression analysis because the residuals have a straight-line (from bottom left to top right) relationship with predicted dependent variable scores.

Figure 7.2

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

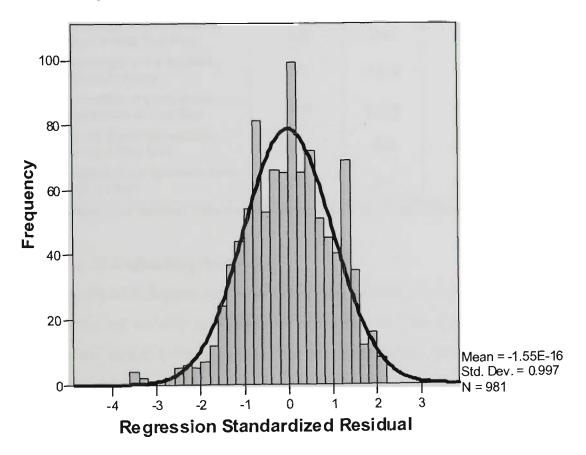


Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai Food (Dinner)

d) The Histogram shown in Figure 7.3 confirms that the data are suitable for using the Multiple Regression analysis because the residuals are normally distributed about the predicted dependent variable scores.

Figure 7.3

Histogram



Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai Food (Dinner)

e) Collinearity diagnostics in Table 7.63 show results of Tolerance and VIF. Generally, cut-off points for determining the presence of multicollinearity are a tolerance value of less than .10 and a VIF value of above 10. In this present study the tolerance value for each independent variable is more than .10 and these are also supported by VIF values which are below 10. Therefore, results indicate that there is no violation of the multicollinearity assumption.

7.63 Coefficients

	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity	Statistics
	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
Model 1 (Constant)		29.022	.000		
Knowledge of the traditional way of ordering Thai food	031	533	.594	.268	3.725
Knowledge of the traditional way of eating Thai food	.020	.342	.732	.261	3.828
Knowledge of the traditional Thai dish names	.072	1.413	.158	.349	2.864
Knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food	.160	2.334	.020	.194	5.161
Knowledge of the authentic aroma of Thai food	.070	.905	.366	.151	6.602
Knowledge the authentic taste of Thai Food	.065	.948	.343	.192	5.210

a Dependent Variable: Frequency of Eating-Out for Thai Food (Dinner)

Step 2: Evaluating the model

Results of R Square shown in Table 7.64 indicate how much of the variance in the dependent variable (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) is explained by the model (which includes the six independent variables). In this study the value of R Square is .111 and when expressed as a percentage multiplied by 100, this means that the model explains 11.1 percent of the variance in frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner.

Table 7.64 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.333(a)	.111	.105	.899

a Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge of the authentic taste of Thai food, Knowledge of the traditional way of ordering Thai food, Knowledge of the traditional Thai dish names, Knowledge of the traditional way of eating Thai food, Knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food, Knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food, Knowledge of the authentic aroma of Thai food.

b Dependent Variable: Frequency of eating out for Thai food (Dinner)

Further, to assess the statistical significance of the result (Table 7.65) for testing the null hypothesis that multiple R in the population equals 0, the model in this study reaches statistical significance [F(6, 974)=20.240, p=.000].

Table 7.65 ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)
1	Regression	98.218	6	16.370	20.240	.000(a)
	Residual	787.745	974	.809		-
	Total	885.963	980			

a Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge of the authentic taste of Thai food, Knowledge of the traditional way of ordering Thai food, Knowledge of the traditional Thai dish names, Knowledge of the traditional way of eating Thai food, Knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food, Knowledge of the authentic aroma of Thai food

b Dependent Variable: Frequency of eating out for Thai food (Dinner)

Step 3: Evaluating each of the independent variables

This section evaluates which of the six independent variables (subjective knowledge) included in the model contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner). Results (Table 7.63, above) show that only one independent variable: knowledge the authentic appearance of Thai food (p<.05) is making a significant contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner). Further, the beta coefficient value used standardized coefficients rather than unstandardized coefficients because Pallant (2002; 2005) emphasized that these values have been converted to the same scale so that the results can be compared for each of the different variables. Results (Table 7.65, above) indicate that the independent variable: knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food was the largest beta coefficient (Beta=.160). This means that this independent variable makes the strongest contribution to explaining the dependent variable. In other words, knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food was the best factor affecting customers in deciding to eat out for Thai food more often at Thai restaurant in Victoria, Australia.

Appendices 7.1 to 7.6 show partial regression plot of six independent variables of subjective knowledge and the dependent variable of eating out for Thai food for dinner. Results confirm that the independent variable: knowledge about the

authentic appearance of Thai food (Appendix 7.4) was the best predict or for the dependent variable of frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho12b): The six independent variables of subjective knowledge about traditional Thai food do not significantly predict the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner), was partly rejected.

7.1.4 Need Recognition of Thai Food

In this section the results are reported of the data analysis for testing the null hypothesis (Ho13): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs'.

Responses to the survey question relating to needs recognition of Thai food (Q16), were subjected to factor analysis to confirm the number of factors for need recognition. Data obtained from factor analysis was then used as a basis for cluster analysis.

The results shown in Table 7.66 confirm that factor analysis was appropriate to analyse these data because the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value was .647, exceeding the recommended value of .6 and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity yielded a statistical significance value <.05 (.000).

Table 7.60	KMO	and	Bartlett's	lest	

Kaiser-Meyer-C Adequacy.	Olkin Measure of Sampling	.647
Bartlett's Test	Approx. Chi-Square	456.840
or opnonony	Df	10
	Sig	.000

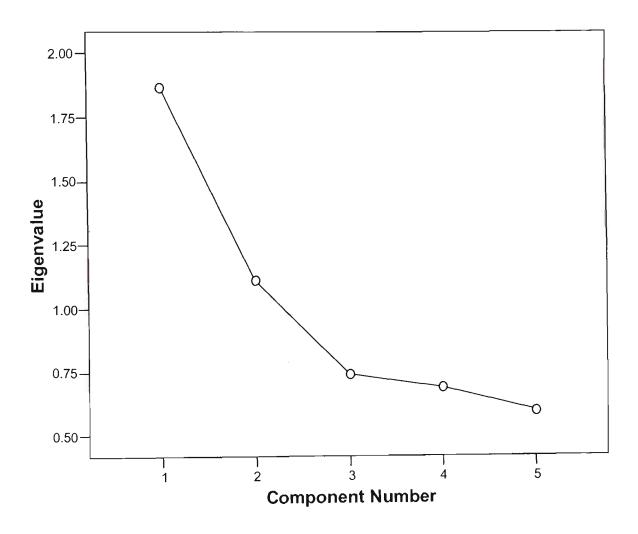
A principal component analysis (PCA) with the VARIMAX rotated component analysis factor matrix was used, and results shown in Table 7.67 reveal that the total amount of variance extracted was the same in the rotated solution (VARIMAX) as it was in the unrotated solution (PCA); 74.36% for three components. Three components with eigenvalues explain the variance of 27.50% for factor 1; 25.22% for factor 2; and 21.65% for factor 3, respectively.

Table 7.67 Total Variance Explained	Table 7.67	Total	Variance	Explained
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Com-						
ponent	Initial Eigenvalues		Rotatio	red Loadings		
		% of	Cumulative		% of	Cumulative
	Total	Variance	%	Total	Variance	%
1	1.867	37.341	37.341	1.375	27.497	27.497
2	1.111	22.223	59.564	1.261	25.218	52.715
3	.740	14.797	74.361	1.082	21.646	74.361
4	.688	13. 7 53	88.114			
5	.594	11.886	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 7.4 presents a Scree Plot of the factor analysis. An inspection of the Scree Plot reveals a clear break after the third component. Therefore, it was decided to retain three components for further investigation.



Scree Plot

After the three factors had been determined, the Varimax rotation technique was used further to determine the actual strongly inter-correlated to the factors (see Table 7.68). A factor loading of .65 was used in this question which is considered as very good (Comrey and Lee 1992); as more important (Tabachnic and Fidell 2001; Hair et al.1998). Factor 1 was named '*self-actualization needs*' and combined two items: 'Thai food is fashionable' and 'I want a different eating experience'. Factor 2 was named '*Physiological needs*', and combined two items:

'I am hungry' and 'Thai food is nutritious and healthy'. Factor 3 was named 'social needs'.

	Component			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	
Because I want different eating experience.	.816			
Because Thai Food is fashionable.	.801			
Because of hunger.		.901		
Because Thai Food is nutritious & healthy.		.660		
Because I want to socialize.			.898	

Table 7.68 Rotated Component Matrix (a)

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Results shown in Table 7.69 confirm that there is no violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption with a significance of more than .05 (p=0.752).

Table 7.69 Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Need Recognition)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
.285	2	974	.752

Results in Table 7.70 show that there was a significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among the three groups of respondents: physiological, social, and self-actualization needs [F(2, 974)=8.695, p=.000]. The actual mean scores among these three groups are classified as a small effect of size (Eta square=.017).

Table 7.70 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Need Recognition)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

						Partial
	Sum of		Mean			Eta
	Squares	Df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Between Groups	15.136	2	7.568	8.695	.000	.017
Within Groups	847.708	974	.870			
Total	862.843	976				

Table 7.71 Test of Mean Differences(Need Recognition)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Physiological needs	3.85	.974	253
Social needs	3.68	.907	438
Self-actualization needs	3.51	.936	286
Total	3.67	.940	977

Further, the results of the Post-hoc multiple comparisons test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.72) confirm that there was a strongly significant difference at a level of <.001 (p=.000) in the adoption of Thai food between physiological needs and self-actualization needs groups. Results revealed that respondents with physiological needs eat out for Thai food more often than respondents with self-actualization needs. There was no significant difference p<.01 level in the adoption of Thai food between the social needs group and the self-actualization needs group. There was also no significant difference p<.01 level in the adoption of Thai food between the physiological needs group.

Table 7.72 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD) (Need Recognition)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai Food (Dinner) Tukey HSD

		Mean		
(I) Need Recognition	(J) Need Recognition	Difference		
based on 3 Groups	based on 3 Groups	(I-J)	Std. Error	<u>Sig. (p)</u>
Physiological needs	Social needs	.165	.074	.064
, 3	Self-actualization needs	.335(***)	.081	.000
Social needs	Physiological needs	165	.074	.064
	Self-actualization needs	.170	.071	.044
Self-actualization needs	Physiological needs	335(***)	.081	.000
	Social needs	170	.071	.044

*** The mean difference is significant at the <.001 level.

Therefore, results indicate that the null hypothesis (Ho13): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs, must be rejected.

7.1.5 Sources of Information

Differences in *sources of information* for the adoption of Thai food were analysed to test the null hypothesis (Ho14): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups using different sources of information.

Factor analysis was employed to confirm the number of factors for responses to the survey question relating to the sources of information (Q17). Data obtained from factor analysis were then used as a basis for cluster analysis to group the factors into clusters. The results shown in Table 7.73 confirm that factor analysis was appropriate to analyse these data because the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value was .908, exceeding the recommended value of .6 and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity yielded a statistical significance value <.05 (.000).

Table 7.73 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-C	Dikin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.908
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	10077.126
	Df	120
	Sig.	.000

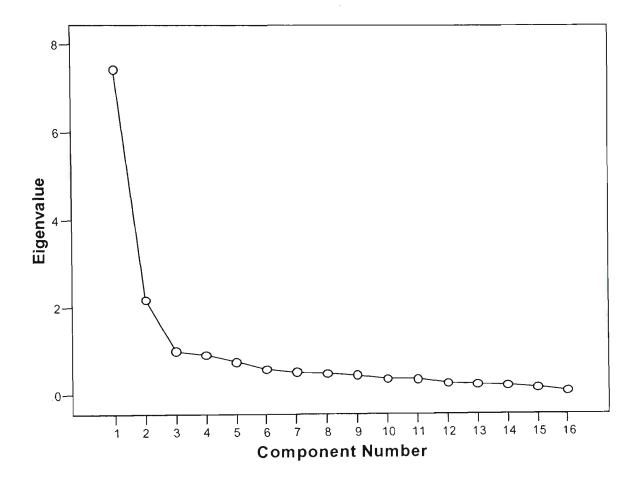
A principal component analysis (PCA) with the VARIMAX rotated component analysis factor matrix was used, and results shown in Table 7.74 reveal that the total amount of variance extracted was the same in the rotated solution (VARIMAX) as it was in the unrotated solution (PCA): 66.40% for three components. Three components with eigenvalues explain the variance of 34.08% for factor 1; 21.11% for factor 2; and 11.21% for factor 3, respectively.

Compo-					ation Sums c	
nent	Initial Eigenvalues (PCA)		Loadings (VARIMAX)			
	-	% of	Cumulative		% of	Cumulative
	Total	Variance	%	Total	Variance	%
1	7.436	46.473	46.473	5.453	34.084	34.084
2	2.185	13.658	60.131	3.378	21.109	55.193
3	1.004	6.272	66.403	1.794	11.210	66.403
4	.921	5.755	72.158			
5	.754	4.713	76.871			
6	.594	3.710	80.581			
7	.522	3.261	83.842			
8	.488	3.049	86.891			
9	.443	2.768	89.659			
10	.361	2.254	91.913			
11	.354	2.214	94.126			
12	.264	1.647	95.773			
13	.232	1.452	97.226			
14	.206	1.290	98.516			
15	.157	.979	99.495			
16	.081	.505	100.000			

Table 7.74 Total Variance Explained

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 7.5 presents a Scree Plot of the factor analysis. An inspection of the Scree Plot reveals a clear break after the third component. It was decided, therefore, to retain three components for further investigation.



Scree Plot

After the three factors had been determined the Varimax rotation technique was used further to determine the actual strongly inter-correlated to the factors (see Table 7.75). A factor loading of .45 used in this question which is considered as fair (Comrey and Lee 1992), but as more important by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Hair et al. (1998). Factor 1 was named 'mass media' and was combined from eight variables: television, radio, internet, yellow pages, newspaper, food magazine, brochure from Thai restaurant, and Thai cooking book. Factor 2 was named '*word-of-mouth*' and was combined from five variables: colleagues, friends, family/relatives, neighbours, and Thai friends. Factor 3 was named '*personal experience*' and was combined from three variables: personal

experience, persons who are satisfied with Thai food, and persons who work in Thai restaurants. Regarding item 'persons who are satisfied with Thai food' was classified into factor 3 because of a higher factor loading on factor 3 (.572) than that of factor 2 (.478); details in Chapter 4, p.136.

		Component	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Television	.874		
Radio	.871		
Internet	.847		
Yellow pages	.845		
Newspaper	.764		
Food magazine	.752		
Brochure (Thai restaurant)	.667		
Thai cookery book	.658		
Colleagues		.834	
Friends		.785	
Family/Relatives		.730	
Neighbours		.726	
Thai friends		.480	
Personal experience			.732
Persons who are satisfied with Thai food		.478	.572
Persons who work in Thai restaurants			.451

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Results shown in Table 7.76 confirm that there is no violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption, with significant value more than .05 (p=0.062).

Table 7.76 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.792	2	910	.062

Results in Table 7.77 show that there was a significant difference at <.01 level in the adoption of Thai food among the three groups of respondents: word-of-mouth, mass media, and personal experience groups [F(2, 910)=5.465, p=.004].

The actual mean scores (Table 7.78) among these three groups are classified as small effect size (Eta square=.012, Table 7.77).

Table 7.77 Test of Between-Subjects Effects

(Sources of information) Eat out for Thai Food (Dinner)

Partial Sum of Eta Mean Squares df Squared Square F Sig. (p) **Between Groups** 9.475 2 4.738 5.465 .004 .012 Within Groups 788.910 910 .867 Total 798.386 912

Table 7.78 Test of Mean Differences

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν
Personal Experience	3.77	.884	403
Word-of-Mouth	3.54	.941	315
Mass Media	3.68	1.006	195
Total	3.67	.936	913

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Further, the results of the Post-hoc multiple comparisons test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.79) confirm that there was a strongly significant difference at level <.01 (p=.003) in the adoption of Thai food between Personal Experience and Word-of-mouth groups. Results indicated that respondents in the Personal Experience group eat out for Thai food for dinner more often than those in the Word-of-Mouth group. There was no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between the Mass Media group and the Personal Experience group and also the Word-of-Mouth group.

Table 7.79 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) Tukey HSD

TURCYTIOD				
(I) Sources of		Mean		
Information based on	(J) Sources of Information	Difference	Std.	
three Groups	based on three Groups	(I-J)	Error	Sig. (p)
Personal Experience	Word-of-Mouth	.231(**)	.070	.003
	Mass Media	.092	.081	.493
Word-of-Mouth	Personal Experience	231(**)	.070	.003
	Mass Media	139	.085	.229
Mass Media	Personal Experience	092	.081	.493
	Word-of-Mouth	.139	.085	.229

** The mean difference is significant at the <.01 level.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho14): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups using different sources of information was rejected.

7.1.6 Evaluation of Alternatives

This section analyses the adoption of Thai food based on four differences in comparison of alternative cuisines: none, low, moderate, and high comparisonbased groups. This part of the analysis presents the results for the null hypothesis (Ho15): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups that make different degrees of comparison of Thai food with other cuisines.

Respondents with differences in comparison of alternative cuisines were classified into four groups: none, low, moderate, and high comparison-based groups. These four groups were generated from the data obtained for Question 6 by the number of alternatives used for evaluation. Respondents were asked 'Before you decided to eat Thai food did you make a comparison with other Asian foods? Respondents who answered 'No' were classified as *No comparisons group*. Respondents who answered 'Yes' were required to select from seven Asian foods (Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese, Korean, Malaysian, Indian, and Indonesian cuisines). Respondents were allowed to select more than one alternative cuisine for comparison. An open-ended alternative was provided for respondents to write other alternative cuisines that they used for comparison with Thai food. Descriptive results for Question 6 were discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.6.1.

Three new groups were generated from respondents who did make a comparison of Thai food with other Asian foods before they decided to eat Thai food as follows:

• Low Comparisons group: Respondents who used one to two cuisines for comparison.

- *Moderate Comparisons group:* Respondents who used three to four cuisines for comparison.
- *High Comparisons group:* Respondents who used five or more cuisines for comparison.

Table 7.80 results confirm that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated because the significance value was more than .05 (p=.549).

Table 7.80Test of Homogeneity of Variance
(Evaluation of Alternatives)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
.704	3	998	.549

Therefore, the Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.81) was used for measuring the significance value. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference for the adoption of Thai food among No, Low, Moderate and High Comparison groups. [F(3, 998)=2.439, p=.063]. The effect of size, calculated using eta squared, was .007, indicating a small effect.

Table 7.81Test of Between-Subjects Effects
(Evaluation of Alternatives)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

						Partial
	Sum of		Mean			Eta
	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Between Groups	6.536	3	2.179	2.439	.063	.007
Within Groups	891.460	998	.893			
Total	897.996	1001				

The actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.82) between the groups was classified as having no effect.

Table 7.82Test of Mean Differences(Evaluation of Alternatives)

Eat out for Thai food (Dinner)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
No Comparison	3.61	.940	482
Low Comparison	3.64	.978	211
Moderate Comparison	3.77	.949	206
High Comparison	3.83	.890	103
Total	3.67	.947	1002

Further, the Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.83) was used to investigate whether there was significance value between groups. Results confirm that there was no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between groups.

Table 7.83 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD) (Evaluation of Alternatives)

Dependent Variable: Eat out for Thai food (Dinner) Tukey HSD

	(J) Comparison of			
(I) Comparison of	Alternative	Mean	-	
Alternative Cuisines	Cuisines based on four	Difference		
based on four Groups	Groups	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
No Comparison	Low Comparison	027	.078	.985
	Moderate Comparison	159	.079	.180
	High Comparison	217	.103	.148
Low Comparison	No Comparison	.027	.078	.985
	Moderate Comparison	132	.093	.484
	High Comparison	190	.114	.338
Moderate Comparison	No Comparison	.159	.079	.180
	Low Comparison	.132	.093	.484
	High Comparison	058	.114	.957
High Comparison	No Comparisori	.217	.103	.148
	Low Comparison	.190	.114	.338
	Moderate Comparison	.058	.114	.957

In summary, the results reveal that the level of comparison of Thai food with other cuisines does not influence respondents to adopt Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho15): There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups that make different degrees of comparison of Thai food with other cuisines was accepted.

7.2 Post-Consumption Evaluation Correlations Analysis based on 4Ps Marketing Mix

The aim of this section is to investigate the three null hypotheses (Ho16, Ho17, Ho18) in order to answer Research Question 4: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food between overall satisfaction in terms of the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) and overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends?).

The three null hypotheses were:

Ho16 There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and overall liking for Thai food.

Ho17 There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and the intention to repeat purchase Thai food.

Ho18 There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and the intention to recommend Thai food to friends.

Pearson correlation analysis is appropriate for investigation of the significance relationship between two variables (details in Section 4.3.4). Interpretation of the value of Pearson correlation used in this study followed the guidelines from Cohen (1988).

- A correlation of r = 0 indicates no relationship at all;
- A correlation of r = 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation;
- A correlation of r = -1.0 indicates a perfect negative correlation;
- A correlation of r = .10 to .29 or r = -.10 to .29 indicates a small correlation;
- A correlation of r = .30 to .49 or r = -.30 to -.49 indicates a medium correlation;
- A correlation of r = .50 to 1.0 or r = -.50 to -1.0 indicates a large correlation.

In this present study, the independent variable 'overall satisfaction' was computed into four factors according to the 4Ps marketing mix: product, price, place, and promotion, from Question 25 as follows:

- Overall satisfaction of *product* was computed using results from seven variables (quality, variety, spiciness, nutritional value, appearance, aroma and taste of Thai food).
- Overall satisfaction of *price* was computed using results from three variables (portion size, reasonable price, and value for money).
- Overall satisfaction of *place* was computed using results from two variables (convenient location and restaurant decorated in Thai style).
- Overall satisfaction of *promotion* was computed using results from three variables (wining a trip to Thailand, special gifts from Thai restaurant, and special discount period).

7.2.1 Correlations of Overall Satisfaction with 4Ps Marketing Mix and Overall Liking for Thai Food

Results of testing the null hypothesis (Ho16): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and overall liking for Thai food are presented in this section.

Table 7.84 shows results of the mean scores for the independent variables from Question 25: overall satisfaction of product, price, place and promotion. Results from Question 26, in which respondents were asked to rate how much they like Thai food considering their whole eating experience, were used for measurement of the dependent variable using the seven-point Likert scale from (1) Dislike Extremely to (7) Like Extremely,

Overall Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Product	5.94	.620	978
Price	5.72	.886	978
Place	5.43	.869	978
Promotion	4.22	1.063	978
Like Thai Food (whole eating experience)	6.22	.811	978

Table 7.84 Descriptive Statistics	Table 7.84	Descriptive	Statistics
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Results for the test of the null hypothesis (*Ho16*): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and liking for Thai food, are shown in Table 7.85. Results reveal that there is a medium positive significant relationship between both product (r=.469), price (r=.318) and the dependent variable 'liking for Thai food'. There is a small positive significant relationship between place (r=.210) and 'liking for Thai food'. There is no relationship between promotion (r=.081) and 'liking for Thai food'. Results indicate that product is the most significant relationship to liking for Thai food, followed by price and place, but not promotion.

Overall Satisfaction		Product	Price	Place	Promotion	Like Thai Food (whole eating experience)
Product	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1	.561(**)	.456(**)	.237(**)	.469(**)
	Sig. (z-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
Price	Pearson Correlation	.561(**)	1	.521(**)	.219(**)	.318(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
Place	Pearson Correlation	.456(**)	.521(**)	1	.348(**)	.210(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
Promotion	Pearson Correlation	.237(**)	.219(**)	.348(**)	1	.081(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.011
Like Thai Food (whole eating experience)	Pearson Correlation	.469(**)	.318(**)	.210(**)	.081(*)	1
o	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.011	

Table 7.85Correlations between Overall Satisfaction with
4Ps Marketing Mix and Liking for Thai Food

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a Listwise Number of respondents = 978

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho16): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and overall liking for Thai food was partially rejected.

7.2.2 Correlations Overall Satisfaction with 4Ps Marketing Mix and Intention to Repeat Purchase Thai Food

Results of testing the null hypothesis (Ho17): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to repeat purchase Thai food are presented in this section.

Table 7.86 shows results of the mean scores for the independent variables from Question 25: overall satisfaction with product, price, place and promotion. Results from Question 28 'Would you eat/buy Thai food in the future were used for measurement of the dependent variable using the five-point Likert scale from (1) Definitely would not eat/buy Thai food to (5) Definitely would eat/buy Thai food.

Overall Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Product	5.94	.620	986
Price	5.72	.883	986
Place	5.43	.867	986
Promotion	4.23	1.06	986
Intention to repeat purchase Thai food in the future	4.75	.654	986

Table 7.86 Descriptive Statistics

Results for the test of the null hypothesis (Ho17): There is no relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and the intention to repeat purchase Thai food, are shown in Table 7.87. Results reveal that there is a small but positive and significant relationship between product (r=.152), price (r=.100) and the dependent variable 'intention to repeat purchase of Thai food in the future'. Results indicate that product and price were both significantly correlated with intention to repeat purchase Thai food.

Table 7.87 Correlations of 4Ps Marketing Mixand Intention to Repeat Purchase Thai Food in the Future

Overall Satisfaction		Product	Price	Place	Promotion	Intention to Repeat purchase of Thai food in the Future
Product	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1	.560(***) .000	.458(***) .000	.242(***) .000	.152(***) .000
Price	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.560(***)	1	.530(***)	.222(***)	.100(**)
Place	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.458(***) .000	.530(***) .000	1	.347(***) .000	.004
Promotion	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.242(***) .000	.222(***) .000	.347(***) .000	1	.003 .936
Intention to repeat purchase Thai food in the future	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.152(***) .000	.100(**) .002	.004 .893	.003 .936	1

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

a Listwise Number of respondents = 986

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho17): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to repeat purchase Thai food was partially rejected.

7.2.3 Correlations of Overall Satisfaction with 4Ps Marketing Mix and Intention to Recommend Thai Food to Friends

Results of testing the null hypothesis (Ho18): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to recommend Thai food to friends are presented in this section.

Table 7.88 shows results of the mean scores for overall satisfaction with the 4Ps marketing mix, and also the results of the mean scores from Question 27 'Would you recommend Thai food to your friends? A five-point Likert scale from (1) Definitely would not recommend Thai food to (5) Definitely would recommend Thai food was used for measurement of the dependent variable 'Intention to recommend Thai food to friends'.

Overall Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν
Product	5.94	.619	986
Price	5.72	.884	986
Place	5.43	.867	986
Promotion	4.22	1.066	986
Intention to Recommend Thai Food to friends	4.64	.774	986

Table 7.88 Descriptive Statistics

Results for the test of the null hypothesis (*Ho18*) are shown in Table 7.89. They reveal that there is a small but positive and significant relationship between both product (r=.246) and price (r=.152) with the dependent variable 'intention to recommend Thai food to friends'. Thus, these results indicate that both product and price factors were significantly correlated to intention to recommend Thai food to friends, characteristics and price of Thai food affected respondents to recommend Thai food to their friends.

Table 7.89Correlations of 4Ps Marketing Mix and
Intention to Recommend Thai Food to Friends

Overall		Developed				Intention to Recommend Thai food to
Satisfaction		Product	Price	Place	Promotion	friends
Product	Pearson Correlation	1	.560(***)	.458(***)	.243(***)	.246(***)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
Price	Pearson Correlation	.560(***)	1	.529(***)	.224(***)	.152(***)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
Place	Pearson Correlation	.458(***)	.529(***)	1	.347(***)	.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.156
Promotion	Pearson Correlation	.243(***)	.224(***)	.347(***)	1	.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.082
Intention to Recommend Thai food to friends	Pearson Correlation	.246(***)	.152(***)	.045	.055	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.156	.082	

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

a Listwise Number of respondents = 986

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho18): There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to recommend Thai food to friends was partially rejected.

7.3 Post-Consumption Evaluation Correlations Analysis of Liking, Repeat Purchase, Recommendation and Frequency of Eating Out for Thai Food

The aim of this section is to investigate the null hypothesis (Ho19) in order to answer Research Question 5: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner?

The null hypothesis was constructed as follows:

(Ho19) There is no significant relationship among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner.

Results (Table 7.90) show the mean scores for overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food.

Table 7.90 Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Overall Liking for Thai food (whole eating experience)	4.79	.482	980
Intention to Repeat Purchase (Buy Thai food in the future)	4.75	.650	980
Intent to Recommend Thai food to friends	4.64	.772	980
Frequency of Eating out for Thai food (Dinner)	3.67	.943	980

Results for the test of the null hypothesis (*Ho19*) are shown in Table 7.91. They reveal that there is a small but positive and significant relationship between these

three independent variables: liking for Thai food (r=.179); intention to repeat purchase of Thai food (r=.138); intention to recommend Thai food to friends (r=.170) with the dependent variable 'frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner'. Results also indicate that there is a small positive significant relationship between liking for Thai food with intention to repeat purchase for Thai food (r=.289), but a medium positive significant relationship with intention to recommend Thai food to friends (r=.410). In addition, results show that there is a large significant relationship between intention to repeat purchase Thai food and intention to recommend Thai food to friends (r=.756). Thus, overall results indicate that these four factors (liking, repeat purchase, recommendation and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) are interrelated. In other words, overall, customers' liking for Thai food leads them to repeat purchase Thai food in the future and also makes them recommend Thai food to their friends, and these customers regularly eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants.

		Like Thai food (whole eating experience)	Intention to Repeat purchase Thai food	Intention to Recommend Thai food to friends	Frequency of Eating Out for Thai food (Dinner)
Like Thai food (whole eating experience)	Pearson Correlation	1	.289(**)	.410(**)	.179(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
Intention to Repeat purchase Thai food	Pearson Correlation	.289(**)	1	.756(**)	.138(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
Intention to Recommend Thai food to friends	Pearson Correlation	.410(**)	.756(**)	1	.170(**)
menus	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
Frequency of Eating Out for Thai food (Dinner)	Pearson Correlation	.179(**)	.138(**)	.170(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	

Table 7.91 Correlations among Liking, Repeat purchase,Recommendation and Frequently Eating Out for Thai Food

** Correlation is significant at the <0.01 level (2-tailed).

Listwise Number of respondents = 980

Therefore, the null hypothesis of Ho19 There is no significant relationship among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner was rejected.

7.4 Post-Consumption Evaluation

(Experience-based Groups and Authentic Thai Taste)

In order to answer **Research Question 6**: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different experiences of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? results of the tests of the five null hypotheses (Ho20 to Ho25) are reported in this section.

• Thai Friends (Ho20)

The null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends was tested to investigate the impact of Thai friends on repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste. In Table 7.92 the significance p=.227 (>.50) confirms that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

Table 7.92Test of Homogeneity of Variances
(Thai friends)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
1.461	1	984	.227

Results (Table 7.93) reveal that there was a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between those who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends [F(1, 984=6.959, p=.008]. The eta squared value (.007) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.94) between the two groups is small.

Table 7.93 Test of Between-Subjects Effects

(Thai friends) Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	12.493	1	12.493	6.959	.008	.007
Within Groups	1766.465	984	1.795			
Total	1778.957	985				

Table 7.94Test of Mean Differences(Thai friends)

(Thai friends)

Q30: Do you have any	e 	Std.	
Thai friends?	Mean	Deviation	N
Yes	5.57	1.336	301
No	5.33	1.341	685
Total	5.40	1.344	986

In summary, results reveal that the factor of Thai friends does slightly affect customers to repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho20): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends was rejected.

• Thai Friends' Cooking (Ho21)

The null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced their Thai friends' cooking and those who had not experienced Thai friends' cooking was tested to investigate the impact of Thai friends' cooking on repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had authentic Thai taste. In Table 7.95 the significance p=.109 (>.50) confirms that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

Table 7.95 Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Thai friends' Cooking)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Levene			
Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.572	1	956	.109

Results (Table 7.96) reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between those who had experienced their Thai friends'cooking and those who had not experienced Thai friends'cooking [F(1, 956=10.182, p=.001]. The eta squared value (.010) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.97) between the two groups is small.

Table 7.96 Test of Between-Subjects Effects(Thai friends' Cooking)

	· -	-	5	-	-		
Thai food had	an	au	thent	tic T	⁻ hai	taste	-

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	18.160	1	18.160	10.182	.001	.010
Within Groups	1705.072	956	1.784			
Total	1723.232	957				

Table 7.97Test of Mean Differences
(Thai friends' Cooking)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Q31: Have Thai friends ever cooked Thai foods for you?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν
Yes	5.68	1.318	196
No	5.34	1.340	762
Total	5.41	1.342	958

In summary, results reveal that the factor of Thai friends'cooking does slightly affect customers to decide to repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (*Ho21*): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced their Thai friends' cooking and those who had not experienced Thai friends' cooking was rejected.

• Learning Thai Cooking (Ho22)

The null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced learning Thai cooking and those who had not experienced learning Thai cooking was tested to investigate the impact of learning Thai cooking on repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste. In Table 7.98 the significance p=.836 (>.50) confirms that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

Table 7.98Test of Homogeneity of Variances(Learning Thai Cooking)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.043	1	985	.836

Results (Table 7.99) reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between those who had experienced learning Thai cooking and those who had no such experience [F(1, 985=7.699, p=.006]]. The eta squared value (.006) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.100) between two groups is small.

Table 7.99 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Learning Thai Cooking)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste Sum of Mean Squares df Square F Sig. (p) Between Groups 1 13.796 7.699 .006 13.796 Within Groups 1.792 1765.124 985 Total 986 1778.920

Table 7.100Test of Mean Differences(Learning Thai Cooking)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Q32: Have you ever learnt Thai cooking?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes	5.67	1.406	156
No	5.35	1.326	831
Total	5.40	1.343	987

Partial Eta

Squared

.006

In summary, results reveal that the factor 'experience of learning Thai cooking' slightly affected customers to repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho22): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced learning Thai cooking and those who had not experienced learning Thai cooking was rejected.

• Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand (Ho23)

The null hypothesis: *There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced eating Thai food in Thailand and those who had not experienced eating Thai food in Thailand was tested.* In Table 7.101 the significance p=.555 (>.50) confirms that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

 Table 7.101
 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

 (Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand)

 Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

		lasie	
Levene Statistic	df1	d f 2	Sig.
.348	1	988	.555

Results (Table 7.102) reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between those who experienced eating Thai food in Thailand and those who had no such experience [F(1, 988=14.552, p=.000]. The eta squared value (.014) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.103) between the two groups is small.

Table 7.102 Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand) Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	25.892	1	25.892	14.552	.000	.014
Within Groups	1757.907	988	1.779			
Total	1783.799	989				

Table 7.103 Test of Mean Differences (Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand) Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Q1: Have you ever eaten Thai food in Thailand?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes	5.58	1.332	440
No	5.26	1.335	550
Total	5.40	1.343	990

In summary, results reveal that the factor 'experience of eating Thai food in Thailand' slightly affected customers to repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

Therefore the null hypothesis (Ho23): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced eating Thai food in Thailand and those who had not experienced eating Thai food in Thailand was rejected.

• Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand (Ho24)

The null hypothesis (Ho24) There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Thailand was tested. In Table 7.104 the significance p=.000 (<.50) indicates that the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated.

Table 7.104 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Thai food	had	an authentic	Thai taste
1110111000			

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
8.011	2	422	.000

However, an ANOVA analysis provides an alternative result to using Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.105), when the homogeneity of variances assumption is found to be violated.

	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig. (p)
Welch	5.634	2	207.985	.004
Brown-Forsythe	6.161	2	311.137	.002

Table 7.105 Robust Tests of Equality of Means

a Asymptotically F distributed.

In comparing results of significance, Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.105, above) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.106, below) reveal that there are similar results of significance (p=.004). Therefore, results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with low, moderate, and high experience of eating Thai food in Thailand [2, 422=5.504, p=.004]. The eta squared value (.025) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual differences in mean scores (Table 7.107) among these three groups are small. The Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.108) confirms that there is a significant difference in the adoption of Thai food at level p=<.01 among groups with low, moderate and high levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand .

Table 7.106	Test of Between-Subjects Effects				
	(Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand)				

						Partial
	Sum of		Mean			Eta
	Squares	Df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Between Groups	19.307	2	9.654	5.504	.004	.025
Within Groups	740.142	422	1.754			
Total	759.449	424				

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Table 7.107Test of Mean Differences
(Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Low experience (1-20 times)	5.39	1.412	237
Moderate experience (21-50 times)	5.78	1.072	93
High experience (more than 50 times)	5.85	1.321	95
Total	5.58	1.338	425

Table 7.108 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD) (Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Thailand)

Dependent Variable: Thai food had an authentic Thai taste Tukey HSD

(I) Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in Thailand	(J) Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in Thailand	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Low experience (1-20 times)	Moderate experience (21-50 times)	393	.162	.042
	High experience (more than 50 times)	460**	.161	.010**
Moderate experience (21-50 times)	Low experience (1-20 times)	.393	.162	.042
	High experience (more than 50 times)	068	.193	.935
High experience (more than 50 times)	Low experience (1-20 times)	.460**	.161	.010**
	Moderate experience (21-50 times)	.068	.193	.935

** The mean difference is significance at the <.01 level.

In summary, results reveal that the factor 'times experienced eating Thai food in Thailand' slightly affected customers to repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho24): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Thailand was rejected.

• Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Australia (Ho25)

The null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food for dinner in Australia was tested. In Table 7.109 the significance value p=.065 (>.05) confirms that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

 Table 7.109
 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

 Image: Comparison of the second second

(Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Australia)

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste						
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig. (p)			
2.741	2	930	.065			

Results (Table 7.110) reveal that there is no a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out Thai food for dinners in Australia [F(2, 930=1.081, p=.340]. The eta squared value (.002) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.111) between the two groups is small. The Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.112) confirms that there is no significant difference among groups with low, moderate, and high levels of experience of eating Thai food in Australia.

Table 7.110 Test of Between-Subjects Effects

(Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Australia) Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	3.893	2	1.947	1.081	.340	.002
Within Groups	1674.579	930	1.801			
Total	1678.472	932				

Table 7.111 Test of Mean Differences

(Levels of Experience of Eating Thai Food in Australia) Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν
Low experience (First time)+(1-20 times)	5.47	1.273	414
Moderate experience (21-50 times)	5.32	1.376	228
High experience (more than 50 times)	5.36	1.409	291
Total	5.40	1.342	933

Tukey HSD				
(I) Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in Australia	(J) Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in Australia	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (p)
Low experience (First time)+(1-20 times)	Moderate experience (21-50 times)	.149	.111	.371
	High experience (more than 50 times)	.109	.103	.537
Moderate experience (21-50 times)	Low experience (First time)+(1-20 times)	149	.111	.371
	High experience (more than 50 times)	040	.119	.940
High experience (more than 50 times)	Low experience (First time)+(1-20 times)	109	.103	.537
	Moderate experience (21-50 times)	.040	.119	.940

Table 7.112 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)

Dependent Variable: Thai food had an authentic Thai taste Tukey HSD

In summary, results reveal that the factor 'times experienced eating Thai food in Australia' did not significantly affect customers to repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste. Results from the mean scores indicate that these three groups (low, moderate, and high) would all eat Thai food more if the food had an authentic Thai taste.

Therefore, the null hypothesis: (Ho25) There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food for dinner in Australia', was accepted.

7.5 Post-Consumption Evaluation (Subjective Knowledge and Authentic Thai Taste)

In order to answer Research Question 7: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste?, results of tests of the null hypothesis (Ho26): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste, are presented in this section.

In Table 7.113 the significance p=.023 (<.50) indicates that the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated. However, results from the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 7.114, below) and Test of Between-Subjects Effects (Table 7.115) both reveal the same significance value (p=.000). This confirms that an ANOVA analysis still provides a valid test when the samples are large. Therefore, the Test of Between-Subjects Effects was used to analyse the results (Table 7.115, below).

Table 7.113	Test of Homogeneity of Variances
	(Subjective Knowledge of Eating Thai Food)
Thai food had ar	authentic Thai taste

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.					
3.808	2	968	.023					

Table 7.114 Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Subjective Knowledge of Eating Thai Food)

	, ,	
Thai food ha	d an authentic	Thai taste

	Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	17.694	2	581.870	.000
Brown-Forsythe	19.167	2	836.582	.000

a Asymptotically F distributed.

Results (Table 7.115) reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with low, moderate and high subjective knowledge [F(2, 968=19.714, p=.000]. The eta squared value (.039) indicates that there is a small effect of size because the actual difference in mean scores (Table 7.116) between two groups is small.

Table 7.115 Test of Between-Subjects Effects(Subjective Knowledge of Eating Thai Food)

						Partial
	Sum of		Mean			Eta
	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig. (p)	Squared
Between Groups	68.227	2	34.113	19.714	.000	.039
Within Groups	1675.061	968	1.730			
Total	1743.287	970				

Thai food had an authentic Thai taste

Table 7.116	Test of Mean Differences
	(Subjective Knowledge of Eating Thai Food)
	n authentic Thai taste

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Low Knowledge	4.95	1.426	252
Moderate Knowledge	5.51	1.262	399
High Knowledge	5.60	1.290	320
Total	5.39	1.341	971

Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test using Tukey HSD (Table 7.117) reveals that the low subjective knowledge group has a significant difference to both moderate and high subjective knowledge groups for repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste. There is no significant difference between both moderate and high knowledge groups.

Table 7.117 Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Test (Tukey HSD)

Dependent Variable: Thai food had an authentic Thai taste	;
Tukey HSD	

		Mean		
(I) Subjective Knowledge	(J) Subjective Knowledge	Difference	Std.	
(Cluster analysis)	(Cluster analysis)	(I-J)	Error	Sig. (p)
Low Knowledge	Moderate Knowledge	558(***)	.106	.000
	High Knowledge	648(***)	.111	.000
Moderate Knowledge	Low Knowledge	.558(***)	.106	.000
	High Knowledge	091	.099	.629
High Knowledge	Low Knowledge	.648(***)	.111	.000
	Moderate Knowledge	.091	.099	.629

*** The mean difference is significant at the .001 level.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho26): There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste was rejected.

7.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has used inferential analysis to test the results of the null hypotheses in order to answer Research Questions 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7. The results are summarized into five main categories. In order to answer Research Question 2, *the first* category summarizes results of the fifteen null hypotheses (*Ho1* to *Ho15*), using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to investigate whether there are any significant differences in the adoption of Thai food among different consumer groups (based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, needs recognition, and evaluation of alternatives). Results showed a significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between males and females among the younger, middle and older age groups. The older age group (55-65 & over) tended to eat out for Thai food for dinner less often than the younger (18-34) and middle aged (35-54) groups. Ethnic group, income, and education were not significant in affecting consumers in their adoption of Thai food between those who were unskilled, retired, and house-workers (group 1), and those who were self-employed, managers, professionals, skilled-workers or students (group 2). The first group were less likely to dine out for Thai food for dinner than the second group. People working in administration showed no significant difference to either of these two groups.

Results in this study indicated that Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, and learning Thai cooking experience influenced consumers to dine out for Thai food for dinner more often. Further, customers with greater experience in eating Thai food both in Thailand and Australia, dine out Thai food for dinner more often than customers with less experience. Objective knowledge about Thai food did not significantly affect consumers in their adoption of Thai food, while subjective knowledge was affect. Customers with higher subjective knowledge are more likely to dine out for Thai food than those with lower knowledge. Further to this, standard multiple regression analysis predicted that subjective knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food was the best indicator of customers' frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. Based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, customers with physiological needs dine out for Thai food more often than Based on their sources of information, those with self-actualization needs. customers with personal experience tended to dine out for Thai food more often than those influenced by word-of-mouth. However, they were not significantly difference to customers who were influenced by mass media. Based on customers' comparisons of Thai food with other ethnic cuisines, results show no significant differences.

The second category summarized results of the three null hypotheses (*Ho16* to *Ho18*, based on 4Ps Marketing Mix and customers' liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, and intention to recommend Thai food to friends), using Pearson's correlation analysis to answer Research Question 4. Based on customers' liking for Thai food, product showed the most significant relationship. This was followed by price and place, but not promotion. Based on customers' intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to friends, results indicate that both product and price are significant.

The third category summarized results of one null hypothesis (*Ho19*) based on liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends, and frequency of eating out for Thai food, using Pearson's correlation analysis to answer Research Question 5. Results indicated an interrelationship among four factors including the liking of Thai food, repeat purchase, recommendation, and frequency of eating out for Thai food.

The fourth category summarized results of six null hypotheses (*Ho20* to *Ho25*), using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to investigate whether there were any significant differences in repeat purchase among the experience-based customer group, if the food taste was authentic (Research Question 6). Results indicated that customers who had Thai friends, had experience of eating Thai friends' cooking, had learnt Thai cooking, or had eaten Thai food in Thailand, were more likely to repeat purchase Thai food if it had an authentic Thai taste. Further, levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand were found to affect customers to repeat purchase Thai food in Thailand were more likely to repeat purchase if the Thai food had an authentic taste than customers with lower experience. Levels of experience of eating Thai food whether it had an authentic Thai taste or not.

The fifth category summarized results of one null hypothesis (*Ho26*) based on levels of subjective knowledge and repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic taste or not, using an analysis of variance (ANOVA), in order to answer Research

Question 7. Results in this study indicated that levels of subjective knowledge affected customers to repeat purchase if the Thai food had an authentic Thai taste. Customers with higher subjective knowledge were more likely to repeat purchase when Thai food had an authentic Thai taste, than customers with lower subjective knowledge.

The following Chapter 8 will discuss the previous Chapters 5 and 6 in order to compare implications of findings, to understand the differences between opinions of Thai restaurant owners and their customers, in relation to factors affecting the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Further to this, results of Chapters 5, 6 and 7 are discussed in terms of both the proposed model and the theoretical framework for the thesis.

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION

8.0 Introduction

'In the discussion chapter the creative part of our brain is paramount, because we still have to compare the results of our own work with what we might have expected from existing theory to see what new ideas will emerge' (Evans 1995, p.96). Strategies for discussing a thesis can be classified into six categories: to compare expected results with those obtained; to analyze experimental error; to explain the results in terms of theoretical issues; to relate results to the experimental objectives; to compare results to similar investigations and to analyze the strengths and limitations of the experimental design (University of Toronto 2002). In accordance with these guidelines, three main areas of discussion are presented. Firstly, in Section 8.1 a comparison is made of the implications of findings from interviews with 30 Thai restaurant owners (Chapter 5) with the findings of the survey of 1009 customers (Chapter 6). Secondly, in Section 8.2 the validity of the results for the hypotheses is discussed in relation to findings of previous studies. In addition, the results presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, are integrated in terms of the proposed model and the theoretical framework issues that were reviewed in Chapter 3, and the seven research questions set out in Chapter 1 are addressed.

8.1 Discussion of Comparison of Interviews with Thai Restaurant Owners and Survey of their Customers

This section aims to discuss the answers to Research Question 3 Are there any differences between the opinions the Thai restaurant owners and their customers in relation to factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia? In determining the factors that affect consumers in the adoption of Thai food this part draws on the results obtained from both the qualitative interviews with owners of thirty Thai restaurants and the quantitative survey of 1009 of their customers. In comparing these results the aim

was to investigate whether Thai restaurant owners understand their customers' needs and the factors affecting them in deciding to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Important similarities and differences have been identified in relation to: customers' need recognition of Thai food, sources of information, evaluation of alternatives, consumption and what customers most like and dislike about Thai food.

8.1.1 Need Recognition

In comparing the opinions of Thai restaurant owners with their customers the three main components of need recognition of Thai food included: application of *Maslow's hierarchy of needs* for Thai food; *authentic or adapted* Thai food; and the **4Ps** *marketing mix* of Thai food.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Table 8.1) is the first aspect of the three forms of need recognition used in analysis of the adoption of Thai food. Needs were assessed by responses to the following choices: 'I am hungry' (physiological); 'Thai food is nutritious and healthy' (safety); 'I want to socialise' (social); 'Thai food is fashionable' (esteem) and 'I want a different eating experience' (self-actualisation).

Table 8.1

Comparison Need Recognition of That Food (Maslow's Hierarchy of Need		
Ranked by	Eating Thai Food because:	Ranked by
Restaurateurs		Customers
5	I am hungry	1
2	Thai food is nutritious & healthy	2
1	I want a different eating experience	3
3 =	I want to socialise	4
3 =	Thai food is fashionable	5

Comparison Need Recognition of Thai Food (Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs)

Sources: combined results from Section 5.3.7 and Section 6.4.1

In accordance with Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4), results from the interviews with Thai restaurant owners (Section 5.3.7) revealed that most believed the self-actualisation need ('I want a different eating experience') was the most important factor affecting their customers in deciding to eat Thai food at their restaurants. However, their customers (Section 6.4.1) rated

the physiological need factor ('I am hungry') as the most important. Both restaurant owners and customers ranked the safety need ('Thai food is nutritious and healthy') as the second most important factor. Thai restaurant owners ranked both social need ('I want to socialise') and esteem need ('Thai Food is fashionable') equally as the third most important factor, whereas customers ranked social need as the fourth and esteem need as the fifth most important factor.

Results from the interviews with Thai restaurant owners indicated that they understood some, but not all, of their customers needs in relation to Thai food. They understood their customers' need for Thai food to be nutritious and healthy for them, but they did not understand that the physiological need ('I am hungry') was the most important to their customers in deciding to eat Thai food at a Thai restaurant.

Authentic or Adapted Thai Food is the second aspect of need

recognition used in the analysis of Thai food in this study. Table 8.2 presents a comparison of the opinions of Thai restaurant owners and customers in relation to whether Thai food should be authentic, or adapted to suit customers who are not Thais in Australia. The results show that the opinions of the two groups were in conflict.

Table 8.2

Customers' Opinion
I would eat Thai food more often if Thai food had authentic Thai taste
Group C: Customers who disagreed. (59 respondents; 5.9%)
Group B: Customers who neither agreed nor disagreed. (223 respondents; 22.5%)
Group A: Customer who agreed. (708 respondents; 71.4%)

Sources: combined results from Section 5.2.1 and Section 6.4.3

Interestingly, three groups (types) of Thai restaurants emerged from the results of the interviews with the thirty Thai restaurant owners (Section 5.2.1). Thai restaurant Type A offers 'fully adapted Thai food'. Twenty (64.5%) owners believed that Thai food in Australia should be adapted by reducing the hot, spicy, strong taste, and/or adding sweetening. Type B offers 'modified authentic Thai food'. Eight (25.8%) owners said that Thai food in Australia should be authentic, but the spiciness needs to be reduced. Type C offers 'truly authentic Thai food'. Three (9.7%) owners believed that Thai food should be authentic as in Thailand (hot, spicy and with a strong taste).

However results from the survey revealed that 708 customers (71.4%) agreed that they would eat Thai food more often if its taste were authentic. A total of 223 customers (22.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed that they would eat Thai food more often if its taste was authentic. Only 59 customers (5.9%) indicated that they would not eat Thai food more often if its taste was authentic. These results indicated that the owners of Thai restaurants are not truly cognisant of customers' needs. The results are useful for conveying to Thai restaurant owners their customers' actual needs in term of their desire to eat authentic Thai food rather than adapted Thai food. Even customers who had not experienced authentic Thai food before expressed their intention and desire to eat Thai food that was authentic.

Even though the results in this study indicated that the owners of Thai restaurants did not realize that their customers intended to eat Thai food more if it had an authentic taste, they did suppose that their customers would feel they had eaten authentic Thai food if it was cooked by a Thai chef (93.3%), if the Thai restaurant was decorated in the Thai style (80.1%), and if Thai food was served by Thai waitresses (80.1%). Interestingly, the factor 'Thai restaurant is owned by Thais' was selected by less than half (46.6%) of the owners. In comparison, the majority of the customers at the participating Thai restaurants indicated that they would feel they had eaten authentic Thai food if the food was cooked by a Thai chef (91.9%), the restaurant was owned by Thais (82.9%), the food was served by a Thai waitress (72.1%) and the restaurant was decorated in Thai style (71.8%). In other

words, both agreed that three factors (Thai chef, restaurant decorated in Thai style and Thai food served by Thais) would influence customers to feel they had eaten authentic Thai food. Importantly, the factor 'Thai restaurant is owned by Thais was considered important to the majority of customers (82.9%) whereas less than half (46.6%) of the Thai restaurant owners indicated that they believed it would influence their customers to feel they had eaten authentic Thai food.

In summary, these results mean that the Thai restaurant owners did not fully understand what their customers wanted (in terms of adapted taste). They frequently miscalculated their customers' tastes. In addition, the results indicate that Thai restaurant owners should also consider that customers would prefer Thai food cooked by Thais.

• The 4Ps Marketing Mix is the third and final aspect of need

recognition of customers when purchasing Thai food. The 4Ps marketing mix included: *Product* 'Thai food characteristics'; *Price* 'Price of Thai food'; *Place* 'Convenient location of Thai restaurants'; and *Promotion* 'Special promotion' for customers in deciding to eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants.

Table 8.3			
Comparison	Ranking Important Fa	ictors of 4Ps Marketing Mi	ix

Ranked by	Items	Ranking by
Restaurateurs		Customers
1	Product: Thai food characteristics	1
3	Place: Convenient location of Thai restaurants	2
2	Price: Price of Thai food	3
4	Promotion: Special promotion	4

Sources: combined results from Section 5.3.6 and Section 6.4.2.

In comparing results (Table 8.3, above) revealed some similarities and also some differences of opinion between the Thai restaurant owners and their customers. Both ranked factor one 'Thai food characteristics' as the most important factor and factor four 'Special promotion' as the least important for customers in deciding to dine out for Thai food. For the other two factors 'Price of Thai food' was ranked second and 'convenient location of Thai restaurants' was ranked as the third most

important factor by the Thai restaurant owners for their customers in deciding to dine out for Thai food, while their customers believed the reverse to be true.

Interestingly, results in this present study indicated that the 'convenient location' factor affected customers more in deciding to dine out for Thai food than the price of Thai food. This means that consumers would consider dining-out somewhere close to them rather than trying to find out where they could get a cheaper price. However, customers would compare price between the same types of restaurants in the same areas. These findings could assist Thai restaurant owners to realize that they should consider the location of the restaurant in relation to their target markets.

In measuring the 4Ps marketing mix, a total of fifteen items was used; (taste, quality, aroma, variety, appearance, spiciness, nutritional value, value for money, reasonable price, portion size, convenient location, restaurant decorated in Thai style, special discount period, wining a trip to Thailand, and special gifts). A comparison of results from the interviews of Thai restaurant owners (Section 5.3.7) with those from the survey of customers (Section 6.4.2) revealed a similarity of opinion in that 'taste' of Thai food was chosen as the most important factor affecting customers' decisions. This choice was followed by the 'quality' of Thai food. A similarity of opinion was also revealed in that promotion (special discount period, win a trip to Thailand, special gifts) was ranked as the least important factor. This means that Thai restaurant owners understand what their customers need as assessed by the 4Ps marketing mix.

Although Thai restaurant owners did not understand the need of their customers to experience authentic Thai food, they did understand other factors regarding the effect of the 4Ps marketing mix on customers in the choice of their restaurant. This finding could benefit the restaurant owner or marketer in terms of their marketing plans to attract consumers and satisfy their needs in deciding to eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia. The results would also help business people who plan to invest in Thai restaurants to know the factors (Thai food characteristics; convenient location; price; special promotion) on which they should focus when developing their marketing plans. The result showing that 'convenient location of Thai restaurants' was the second important factor for respondents to eat out for Thai food could be useful for new investors prompting them to consider location carefully, because it is difficult to move or sell a business after spending money on setting up the restaurant if it is not successful.

8.1.2 Sources of Information

The three main sources of information relating to customer choices of Thai food and Thai restaurants include word-of-mouth, personal experience and mass media. Results in this study indicated that mass media was not rated as important as the other two factors in influencing customers to know about and then eat out at Thai restaurants.

When a comparison was made of the opinions of restaurant owners and those of their customers conflicting results were obtained (see Table 8.4). More than twothirds (21 respondents) of Thai restaurant owners believed that their customers first got to know about Thai food from their (the customers') experience of traveling to Thailand and from recommendations from their friends. However, their customers indicated that they first got to know about Thai food from their friends (35.3%), personal experience (20.2%) and family/relatives (13.6%), Thai friends (6.6%) and persons who were satisfied with Thai food (5.5%). These results reveal that experience of traveling to Thailand was not the reason that most customers knew about Thai food (as Thai restaurant owners believed). In fact, recommendations from friends was the key factor influencing customers to know about Thai food for the first time.

Table 8.4

Restaurateurs' Opinion			Customers' Opinio	n
I believe customers first got to know about Thai food from			I first got to know about Thai f	food from
	N	(%)		N (%)
Travelling to Thailand	21	(70.0)	Friends	355 (35.3)
Recommendation from friends	18	(60.0)	Personal experience	203 (20.2)
Thai friends	3	(10.0)	Family/Relatives	137 (13.6)
			Thai friends	66 (6.6)
		Persons who are satisfied	55 (5.5)	
			with Thai food	
I believe customers first got to know about			I first got to know about Thai r	restaurant
Thai restaurants from			from	
Convenient location	21	(70.0)	Friends	355 (38.5)
Customers' friends	20	(66.7)	Personal experience	204 (22.1)
			Family/Relatives	99 (10.9)
			Thai restaurant close to home	67 (7.3)

Comparison of Sources of Information

Sources: combined results from Section 5.3.2 and Section 6.5.1

More than two-thirds (21 respondents) of the Thai restaurant owners indicated that convenient location influenced customers to first know about their restaurants, followed by word-of-mouth from customers' friends. However, customers indicated that they first got to know about the Thai restaurant from their friends (38.5%), personal experience (29.4%) and family/relatives (10.7%).

In summary, this comparison of results indicates that Thai restaurant owners fully understood that mass media did not constitute the most important factor influencing their customers to know about Thai food, and also the location of restaurants. They were partly right that word-of-mouth from customers' friends and Thai friends did influence their customers to know about Thai food, and also that convenient location and customers' friends did assist their customers to know where the restaurants were. However, they assumed incorrectly that 'travelling to Thailand' was the main factor that enabled their customers to get to know about Thai food for the first time. These results would be useful for marketers of Thai food in demonstrating that *word-of-mouth from customers' friends* is one of the key dimensions for promoting Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Convenient location is also an important factor influencing customers to know about particular restaurants.

8.1.3 Evaluation of Alternatives

Two main factors influencing the evaluation of alternatives include whether customers compared Thai food with other 'Asian food', and how much customers expect to pay for Thai food.

• Comparison of Thai Food with other 'Asian Food'

This section discusses the similarities and differences between the opinions of Thai restaurant owners and customers in relation to Thai food compared to 'Asian food'. A contrast analysis (Table 8.5) reveals that the majority of Thai restaurant owners believed that their customers did compare Thai food with other 'Asian food' before they decided to dine-in at their restaurant, whereas just more than half (531 customers) actually said that they did so. However, there was close agreement as to the order of comparison: Chinese food as first cuisine, Vietnamese and Indian as second and third, Japanese and Malaysian as fourth and fifth and lastly, Korean and Indonesian.

Table 8.5

Restaurateurs' Opinion		Customers' Opinion	
	N (%)		N (%)
Yes, compared	22 (73.3)	Yes, compared	531 (52.6)
No, did not compare	8 (26.7)	No, did not compare	478 (47.4)
Ranking of other 'Asian food	ds' most often	Ranking of other 'Asian foo	ods' most often
compared with Thai food.		compared with Thai food.	
1 Chinese food		1 Chinese	food
2 Indian food		2 Vietnamese food	
3 Vietnamese f	food	3 Indian food	
4 Japanese food	d	4 Japanese food	
5 Malaysian food		5 Malaysian food	
6 Korean food		6 Indonesian food	
Note: Indonesian food was not identified by		7 Korean	food
Thai restaurant owners	-		

Comparison of Thai Food with other 'Asian Foods'

Sources: combined results from Section 5.3.3 and Section 6.6.1

These results indicate that most Thai restaurant owners had similar opinions to their customers in that they thought customers did compare Thai food with other 'Asian foods' before deciding to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants. This means that most Thai restaurant owners were aware that Thai food competes with other 'Asian foods'.

• Price of Thai Food

Apart from comparing cuisines before purchasing Thai food, customers also consider price. Results (**Table 8.6**) revealed that most Thai restaurant owners (80.0%) believed that customers expected to pay A\$6-15 for lunch, which was in agreement (Section 6.6.2) with customer expectations (75.1%). Moreover, results also showed that both restaurant owners and customers believed that price should be in the range of A\$16-25 for dinner.

Restaurateurs' opinion		Custo	mers' opinion	
	N	(%)		N (%)
Lunch			Lunch	
A\$ 6-10	19	(63.3)	A\$ 6-10	309 (35.3)
A\$ 11-15	5	(16.7)	A\$ 11-15	348 (39.8)
			A\$ 16-20	145 (16.6)
Dinner			Dinner	
A\$ 16-20	10	(33.3)	A\$ 16-20	309 (31.4)
A\$ 21-25	6	(20.0)	A\$ 21-25	258 (26.2)
A\$ 26-30	6	(20.0)	A\$ 11-15	196 (19.9)
A\$ 11-15	5	(16.6)	A\$ 26-30	113 (11.5)
A\$ 30>	3	(10.0)	A\$ 30>	72 (7.3)

Table 8.6Comparison of Price of Thai Food

Sources: combined results from Section 5.3.5 and Section 6.6.2

Results of this study may benefit the owner of a Thai restaurant when considering the price range for Thai food preferred by consumers in Australia. However, the expectation of consumers about the price of Thai food and 'Other foods' in Australia could change in the future.

8.1.4 Consumption (Menu Choices)

In relation to customer choices of Thai dishes, a comparison of results from interviews with Thai restaurant owners (Section 5.3.5) and from customer surveys (Section 6.6.2) revealed a similarity of opinion: 'description of Thai dishes' on the menu and 'recommendations by friends' were the most important factors when ordering Thai dishes at the restaurants. About two-thirds of restaurant owners (66.7%) believed that 'regular customers' need to read descriptions on the menu, while about half of the owners (56.7%) said 'new customers' need recommendations from waitresses when ordering Thai dishes at their restaurants. In comparison, the majority of survey customers selected 'description of Thai dishes' and 'recommendations from friends' as the most important factors in the selection of Thai dishes at restaurants. Moreover, 'picture of Thai dishes' and 'name of Thai dishes' were not chosen as important by either the Thai restaurant owners owners or their customers.

In summary, the results indicate that more than half of Thai restaurant owners held similar opinions to their customers. This means that they understood what their customers' needs were for deciding to order Thai dishes. Results in this study would be of benefit in encouraging Thai restaurant owners to focus on the 'description of Thai dishes' on the menu to improve their businesses in Victoria, Australia. Even though, results in this study showed that customers rated recommendations from their friends as the most important factor for them in deciding on their choice of Thai dishes at the restaurants, Thai restaurant owners and waiters should also consider asking their customers whether they need advice from them.

8.1.5 What was Most Liked and Disliked About Thai Food

Whether Thai restaurant owners understand what their customers most like and dislike about Thai food is discussed in this section. A total of 25 (83.3%) of the Thai restaurant owners (Section 5.3.10) believed that customers most like the 'balanced and unique taste' of Thai food. In addition, nine owners believed that 'Thai herbs are flavourful and healthy', and eight owners believed that 'hot and spicy' were the most liked characteristics. Results from the customer survey (see

Section 6.9.3) provided a range of items that were most liked about Thai food. A total of 24.1% of customers reported that they liked taste, followed by flavour (14.5%), spiciness (13.6%), and then quality and healthiness (12.7%).

When comparing what most customers dislike about Thai food, results showed that most Thai restaurant owners (60%) believed that most of their customers disliked Thai food if it was 'too hot and spicy'. Results from the customer survey were similar and also indicated that what most customers (32.8%) disliked about Thai food was that it was 'too spicy'.

8.2 Discussion of Factors Affecting Consumers

in the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia

This section aims to discuss the results in relation to Research Question 1, 'What factors affect consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia?' (results presented in Chapter 6). These results are also integrated with the results in related to Research Question 2 'Are there any significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (as measured by frequency of eating out for dinner) among different consumer groups based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, need recognition and evaluation of alternatives)?' (results presented in Chapter 7). Results of the interviews with Thai restaurant owners (presented in Chapter 5) are incorporated into the discussion. An attempt is made to link relevant results from previous studies to those of this present study in order to ascertain similarities and differences. Results will also be discussed in terms of the main model in relation to the research framework reviewed in Chapter 3, including nine aspects: demographics (profiles of respondents); experience of eating Thai food; respondents' knowledge of Thai food; need recognition for making a decision to eat Thai food; sources of information about Thai food and Thai restaurants; evaluation of eating out alternatives; consumer behaviour of eating in Australia; consumption and post-consumption evaluation.

8.2.1 Demographics

This section deals with the demographics of gender, age, ethnicity, income, education and occupation in relation to the five null hypotheses on differences in the adoption of Thai food in terms of frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. Three of these hypotheses were accepted, but two were partially rejected. The results are summarized in Table 8.7 below.

Table 8.7Summary Results of the Null Hypotheses (Demographics)

Hol	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between <i>males and females</i> among <i>younger</i> , <i>middle</i> and <i>older age</i> groups.	Partially rejected.
Ho2	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among Australian, European and Asian groups.	Accepted.
Но3	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among <i>lower</i> , <i>middle</i> and <i>higher income</i> groups.	Accepted.
Ho4	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between groups with different levels of <i>education</i> .	Accepted.
Ho5	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among different <i>occupational</i> groups.	Partially rejected

Most respondents were aged between 25 to 44 years and more responses were given by females (60%) than males (40%) (see Chapter 6, Section 6.1). Results of this study were consistent with the record of the census of Victoria in 2001, which reported that there were more females (50.9%) than males (49.1%) and most were aged between 25 to 44 years (38.8%). In comparison, a previous study

by Lea and Worsley (2005) conducted a survey of 500 respondents randomly selected from the Victorian population using the software package Australia. Most of those respondents were also females (52.3%) rather than males (47.7%), and the percentage of respondents in the age range 25-44 years was 34.4%.

This does not mean females eat out for Thai food more often than males. Thus, these figures were unable to provide the differences of frequency of eating out for Thai food at Thai restaurants between females and males and among different age groups. As a results, the null hypothesis *Ho1* was constructed and further inferential analysis (ANOVA) was needed to analyze these variables (results presented in Chapter 7, Section 7.1.1).

Results of the test of the **null hypothesis** *Ho1* reveal that the factor of **gender** did not affect the differences of frequency in eating out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia, but the factor of **age** did lead to small differences. In other words, for males and females there was similarity in the frequency of eating out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Respondents in the older age group (more than 55 years) eat out for Thai food less often than respondents within the younger age (18-34 years) and middle age (35-54 years) groups. The younger and middle age groups showed similar frequencies of eating out for Thai food. In agreement with Thai restaurant owners (results presented in Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1) responses from the customers indicated that young people were more likely to change their eating behaviour than older people.

In comparing these results to those of similar studies a survey of 1250 consumers conducted by Mangosi (2005) in Australia found that the frequency of eating out of ethnic food decreases with the age of the consumer, from five times a month in the 18-24 age group, to four times for the 25-34 segment and three times a month for people aged 65 plus. Another study, found that 'the adoption rate for ethnic foods is still higher among the young British, with older members of the British population staying away from ethnic foods and ethnic restaurants' (Chapman and Jamal 1991 cited in Jamal 1996, p.24). In addition, Jamal's (1996) study about

acculturation of the symbolism of ethnic eating among contemporary British consumers found that 'there existed gender and age differences in addition to generational differences in food consumption in contemporary British households' (p.19). Sloan (2001), cited in Verbeke and Lopez (2005, p.824) found that 'the most involved ethnic food consumer segments tend to be younger, working and living predominantly in major metropolitan areas, cities and suburbs'. 'It evokes memories of vacations to exotic locations or it reflects and strengthens friendships and openness to new cultures' (Verbeke and Lopez 2005, p.824).

The results of this present study are thus consistent with these previous studies in relation the effect of age on eating out for ethnic foods.

Demographic characteristics of respondents in terms of *ethnic groups* using descriptive analysis (Chapter 6) showed reliability and consistency with the census of Victoria in 2001 (details in Section 6.1), and previous studies (Lea and Worsley 2005). In this study, most customers at Thai restaurants in Victoria were born in Australia (68.5%). The study of Lea and Worsley (2005) also found that most of their respondents were born in Australia (74.3%).

Further, an inferential analysis (ANOVA) when testing the **null hypothesis** *Ho2* revealed that the factor of background **ethnicity** did not affect the frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Results revealed that the three broad ethnic groups: Australian, European and Asian, had a similar frequency of eating out for Thai food. In general, Australia is known as a multi-cultural country with many different ethnic groups, due to a mixed migration policy.

Results of this study will be useful for marketers of Thai food through Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia, by informing them that 'ethnicity' does not affect the frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. Results suggest that it would be a waste of time and money to design marketing strategies to suit different ethnic groups.

Results of the test of the null hypothesis Ho3 show that the factor of income did not affect respondents for the frequency of eating out for Thai food in Victoria, Australia. This may be because the product for this study, food, is not as expensive as other products, for example car or house. In addition, spending money for eating out for Thai food at the restaurant is not a daily event for customers in Victoria, Australia. Therefore, the decision to purchase Thai food has a lower risk than the decision to purchase many other products. Results in this present study confirm that the majority of Australian respondents did not eat out for Thai food for dinner every day (Chapter 6, Section 6.7.3), and some did eat out for Thai food for special purpose reasons (Chapter 6, Section 6.8.3). Only 0.5% of 1002 respondents eat out for Thai food every day, followed by 3.3% a few times a week, and 15.2% once a week. Most respondents (37%) eat out for Thai food for dinner once a month and nearly one-third (33%) once every 2-3 months. In addition, the majority of respondents earned less than A\$70,000 (74.7%) (see details in Chapter 6, Section 6.1).

Results of the test of the null hypothesis Ho4 indicate that there is no significant difference in frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner at Thai restaurants among three groups of respondents: under Bachelor, Bachelor and Postgraduate degree. This means that level of education did not affect respondents in the adoption of Thai food. For comparison purposes, no previous studies were found indicating whether level of education has an impact on frequency of eating out. However, studies in London, (Warde et al. 1997 cited in Lupton 2000) found that respondents who were with middle class and highly educated were more interested in a variety of choices relating to eating out, compared with working class, poorlyeducated and rural respondents (p.106). The above research, in conjunction with the findings of the present study and observations made by Devault (1991) of middle class Americans, and by Lupton (1996) of Sydneysiders with professional jobs and high incomes, suggests that seeking out variety and exotic or 'ethnic' cuisine, and taking an aesthetic approach to food, both in one's home-prepared diet and when eating out, is more a mark of social status for members of the metropolitan educated middle class, than for other groups (Lupton 2000).

These results may help owners of Thai restaurants to realize that marketing strategies for targeting consumers with different levels of education may be unnecessary.

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho5* indicate that the factor of **occupation** partly affected respondents in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. There were marginal differences in the adoption of Thai food between two occupational groups: Group 1: unskilled worker/retired/housework group and Group 2: respondents who work as self-employed, managers, professionals, skilled workers and students. In other words, respondents who were self-employed, managers, professionals, skilled workers and students. Respondents who were unskilled workers, retired, house-workers and administrators had a similar frequency of eating out for Thai food. Respondents who were unskilled workers, retired, house-workers and administrators had a similar frequency of eating out for Thai food.

In conclusion, two demographic factors (age and occupation) have been shown as slightly affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia, while gender, ethnicity, income and education had no effect. Younger and middle aged groups eat out for Thai food for dinner slightly more often than the older age group. Customers who are self employed, professionals, managers or skilled workers eat out for Thai food for dinner at Thai restaurants more often than customers who work as unskilled workers, are retired or who do housework. As shown in the literature review many authors in previous studies such as Kara et al. 1995; Kara et al. 1997; Kivela 1997; Allen et al. 1998; Barcenas et al. 1998; Tomlinson 1998; Bogue et al. 1999; Clark and Wood 1999; McDougall & Levesque 2000 have pointed out that demographic factors can help to identify a target market for products (details in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.1).

8.2.2 Experience

The five null hypotheses related to the experience of having Thai friends, eating Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, eating Thai food in Thailand and eating Thai food in Australia are discussed in this section. All these five null hypotheses have been rejected. Results are summarized in Table 8.8 below.

Table 8.8
Summary Results of the Null Hypotheses (Experience)

Ho6	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have <i>Thai</i> <i>friends</i> and those who have no Thai friends.	Rejected
Ho7	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of <i>Thai friends' cooking</i> and those who have no experience of Thai friends' cooking.	Rejected
Ho8	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents who have experience of <i>learning Thai cooking</i> and those who have no experience of learning Thai cooking.	Rejected
Но9	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of <i>eating out for Thai food in Thailand</i> .	Rejected
Ho10	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of experience of <i>eating out for Thai food in Australia</i> .	Rejected

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho6* indicate that *experience of having Thai friends* significantly affected respondents (customers) in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner). Respondents who had Thai friends were found to eat out for Thai food for dinner more often than respondents who had no Thai friends. Therefore, results suggest that having 'Thai friends' is the one important factor affecting customers in their frequency of eating out for Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Thus, the

challenge to marketers of Thai food in Australia will be to plan a marketing strategy to persuade Thai people to introduce Thai food and Thai restaurants to their Australian friends. However, it is also important to be aware that Thai people would prefer to eat authentic Thai food which is the same as in Thailand. There may thus be a conflict between whether Thai food in Australia should be authentic or adapted to suit western tastes. From the results of the interviews with Thai restaurant owners three main types of Thai restaurant emerged in this study (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1). The implications of this will be discussed in the next section under need recognition of authentic Thai food (Section 8.2.4).

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho7* indicate that the factor of *experience of eating Thai friends' cooking* significantly affected respondents in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia. Results in this study revealed that respondents who had experience of eating Thai friends' cooking ate out for Thai food for dinner more often than respondents who had no experience of Thai friends' cooking was also an important factor that affected the frequency with which respondents ate out for Thai food at Thai restaurants. Results suggest that Thai friends' cooking may affect respondents' familiarity with Thai food and their knowledge of how to eat Thai food in the correct way.

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho8* indicate that the *experience of learning Thai cooking* had a small effect on respondents' adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia. Respondents who had learned Thai cooking ate out for Thai food for dinner more often than respondents who had never had the experience of learning Thai cooking. This means that 'learning Thai cooking' was also an important factor leading consumers to eat out for Thai food more often. Results in this study suggest that the experience of learning Thai cooking led consumers to have more knowledge about Thai food and made them feel more familiar with Thai food. Normally, a Thai cooking school in Thailand would also teach how to eat Thai food in the correct way, as Thais do. Therefore, Thai restaurants in Australia may

be assisted by a Thai cooking school, or classes in Thai cooking offered by famous, qualified Thai chefs in Australia.

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho9* indicate that the factor of *experience of eating Thai food in Thailand* had a small effect on respondents' adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia. Results in this study suggest that experience of eating Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia in the future. This means that respondents who were satisfied with Thai food in Thailand would continue to eat Thai food more often in Australia.

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho10* show that the factor of experience of eating out Thai food for dinner in Australia had a large effect on respondents' adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Results suggest that respondents with high experience of eating Thai food in Australia eat out more for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia than respondents with moderate and low experience, respectively. This means that respondents who were satisfied with Thai food in Australia would continue to eat Thai food more often in Australia.

In conclusion, these five experience factors: experience of having Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, eating Thai food in Thailand, and levels of experience of eating out for Thai food for dinner in Australia significantly affected the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) of these customers at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.

8.2.3 Knowledge

A summary of the results of the three null hypotheses related to the objective and subjective knowledge of eating Thai food is presented in Table 8.9.

Table 8.9

Summary Results of the Null Hypotheses (Knowledge)

Ho11	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of <i>objective knowledge</i> about it.	Accepted
Ho12(a)	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with different levels of <i>subjective knowledge</i> about it.	Rejected
Ho12(b)	The six independent variables of <i>subjective knowledge</i> about traditional Thai food do not significantly predict the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner).	Partly Rejected

Results of the test of the *null hypothesis Ho11* indicate that *objective knowledge* of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food did not significantly affect respondents in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia. It is important to note that this may be because of the differences in behaviour in the ordering and eating of Thai food between Westerners and Thais. From the researcher's observations in Thai restaurants, most Westerners tend to order dishes for their own plate, and do not share dishes with their friends. A lack of objective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food does not appear to affect their purchase of Thai food.

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis:** *Ho12(a)* show that *overall subjective knowledge of background knowledge about traditional Thai food* significantly affected respondents in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia. The Eta square value was considered to indicate a large effect of size for significant differences among low, moderate, and high subjective knowledge of Thai food in the frequency of eating out for Thai

food for dinner at Thai restaurant in Victoria, Australia. Results indicate that respondents who had high subjective knowledge eat out for Thai food more often than respondents who had moderate or low subjective knowledge. This means that overall subjective knowledge was an important factor leading to respondents eating out for Thai food for dinner more often.

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho12(b)* using standard multiple regression (Section 7.1.3) confirm that knowledge about the authentic appearance of Thai food was the best predictor of consumers' adopting Thai food in Victoria, Australia. In other words, the factor; knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food, does affect customers to eat out for Thai food for dinner more often.

8.2.4 Need Recognition

A summary of the results of one **null hypothesis** *Ho13* (Chapter 7, Section 7.1.4) based on respondents' need recognition of Thai food is presented in **Table 8.10**. Results in this study show that there were significant differences among physiological needs, social need and self-actualization needs groups in their adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia.

Table 8.10Summary Results of the Null Hypotheses (Need Recognition)

Ho13	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups with physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self- actualization needs.	Rejected	
1			

The first aspect of need recognition in this study is discussed in accordance with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho13* indicate that, among respondents, there were significant differences among physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai

food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia. The post-hoc multiple comparisons test using Tukey HSD confirms that there was a strong significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between the physiological needs and self-actualization needs groups. Results indicate that respondents with physiological needs eat out for Thai food more often than respondents with self-actualization needs. There was no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents with social needs and self-actualization needs, nor was there a significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents with physiological needs and social needs. Results from this study may benefit marketers of Thai food. Both Thai restaurant owners in Victoria, Australia and food manufacturers in Thailand may find it useful to know that consumers in Victoria, Australia consider 'nutritious and healthy' food important when eating out for Thai food, and do not just consider social needs (Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1).

Results of this study are similar to the findings of Christopher (1994), who noted that consumers are very concerned about the health and safety of food, and hold the food industry responsible for higher standards. Moreover, Lupton (2000) emphasized that 'the value of "health", associated with that of "balance", was also dominant in the participants' food choices and preferences, strongly shaping their everyday family meal choices and for some, even influencing the types of meals they chose when dining out' (p.107). In addition, Reid and Bojanic (2006) emphasized that 'today's hospitality consumers are seeking products and services tailored to meet their specific needs' and 'they are more concerned about nutrition and safety' (p.96).

• Need Recognition of 4Ps Marketing Mix

The second aspect of need recognition in this study is discussed in relation to the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place and promotion). Interestingly, results for Question 23 supported the results for Question 21 (see Section 6.4.2). *Firstly*, results (Q21) show that *Thai food characteristics* constituted the most important factor for consumers in Australia in deciding to eat out for Thai food. Results (Q23) also indicate that all items concerning Thai food characteristics were important, especially *taste* and *quality* of Thai food. *Secondly*, results (Q21) show

that *convenient location* of Thai restaurants was the second most important factor for respondents in deciding to eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants. Results (Q23) also show that convenient location was more important than the restaurant being decorated in Thai style. Thirdly, results (Q21) show that price was the third most important factor for consumers in Australia in deciding to eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants. Results (Q23) show that value for money and reasonable price were more important than portion size. Lastly, results from Q21 and Q23 show that promotion was the least important factor considered by respondents when deciding to eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia. Thus, from the responses to Question 21 and Question 23 (Table 6.11 and Table 6.12) it could be concluded that consumers in Australia concentrated more on taste and quality of Thai food, followed by convenient location, value for money and reasonable In comparing results from Question 23 and Question 25, Thai food price. characteristics including taste, quality and aroma of Thai food were identified as more important and also satisfied respondents more than other factors did. Referring to the results for Question 23 in Section 6.4.2 it can be seen also that Thai food characteristics of taste, quality, and aroma of Thai food were given more importance by more respondents in deciding to eat Thai food than were other factors.

Quality of food has been found by many researchers to be the dominant factor in affecting consumers in deciding to eat out at restaurants. For instance, in Lewis's (1981) studies, data gathered from 400 respondents in five towns in New England showed that food quality was the main basis for consumer choice for all three types of restaurants (family/popular, atmosphere, and gourmet). Christopher (1994) noted that quality of food is an increasingly competitive market for cuisine. A study by Blisard et al. (2002) found that increases in income lead consumers to demand quality, convenience and variety more than quantity. Therefore, it is important to note that in food studies, 'appearance, flavour and texture' are classified as important as 'quality attributes' for a food product (Schutz and Wahl 1981 cited in Imram 1999). These findings are consistent with those of Josiam and Monteiro (2004) who studied Tandoori tastes: perceptions of Indian restaurants in America using 489 survey responses. They found that quality and

taste of food were important influential factors to both South Asian and White American groups in deciding to dine in at ethnic (Indian) restaurants. Another survey of 119 Belgians and 127 Hispanics living in Belgium, conducted by Verbeke and Lopez (2005), also found that 'taste and appearance were key attributes that determined Belgians' preference for ethnic foods' (p.823).

Most respondents were very satisfied with the *price of Thai food* including overall portion size, value for money and reasonable price; attributes which were seen as somewhat important to respondents in deciding to eat Thai food (see Section 6.4.2). With respect to the *place of Thai restaurant* factor, respondents were more satisfied with a convenient location for the Thai restaurant than for it to be decorated in the Thai style. Convenient location was also seen as more important than a restaurant decorated in Thai style when respondents make a decision to eat Thai food at the restaurant (see Section 6.4.2). For the three items of the *promotion* factor, such as special discount period, wining a trip to Thailand and special gifts from Thai restaurants, the majority of respondents had a neutral view, rather than being either satisfied or dissatisfied. These three items were also of neutral influence when respondents made the decision to eat Thai food (see Section 6.4.2). Therefore, the promotion factor was not important for respondents when deciding to eat Thai food in Australia.

• Need Recognition of Authentic Thai Food

The third aspect of needs recognition in this study is discussed in relation to authentic Thai food. Josiam and Monteiro (2004) found that 'Authentic cuisine' was rated as a very important influential factor in deciding to dine in at ethnic (Indian) restaurants in USA by both South Asian and White American groups.

In this study results show that the main factors which influenced customers in Australia to feel that they had eaten authentic Thai food were *Thai food is cooked* by a *Thai chef* and *Thai restaurant is owned by Thais*. Therefore, a marketer of Thai food in Australia may need to plan how to stimulate repeat purchases through word-of-mouth from previous customers to new customers. It may not be important to know about Thai food and Thailand for consumers in Australia

because the results of this study show that those factors only slightly influenced respondents to want to eat Thai food more.

It is interesting to note that knowledge of Thai food and a positive image of Thailand were not rated as important factors affecting respondents' inclination to eat Thai food more often. It is interesting to consider why this 'knowledge' factor is unimportant in this study compared to other previous studies. Five possible reasons could be: *Firstly*, most respondents in this study already had experience of eating Thai food for more than one to five years (see Section 6.2.2). *Secondly*, most respondents were already satisfied with Thai food (see Section 6.2.3). *Thirdly*, respondents prefer and consider quality and taste of food when dining out, rather than spending time to learn about Thai food (see Section 6.4.2). *Lastly*, food is not an expensive product to try and it is not complicated to learn how to eat, even as a new product for consumers, so it is not a high risk decision to try Thai food.

These results may be used to encourage Thai restaurant owners to sell more Thai food in Australia. Three dominant factors should be considered in encouraging customers to eat Thai food more in the future: Thai chefs, Thai owners, and recommendation from customers' friends. This means that Thai food should be cooked by Thai chefs, Thai restaurants should be owned by Thais, and marketing should be done by word-of-mouth, with a strategy for customers to make recommendations to their friends who are satisfied with Thai food.

During the interviews with thirty owners of Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia, some owners mentioned that running Thai restaurants in Australia or other countries (not in Thailand) was quite a difficult task if you did not know how to cook Thai food. Availability of Thai chefs has been a really big issue for Thai restaurants overseas for long periods. This problem has been discussed and addressed by the Thai Government running a Thai cooking school in Thailand for people who want to work as Thai chefs overseas. However, there are still some difficulties in Thai chefs being granted working visas to go abroad because some countries want Thai restaurants to employ their local people.

Results from the interviews indicate that advertising in local newspapers was useful for the opening of new restaurants to enable local people to know where the restaurants were located. Distribution of take-away brochures to local people in their mail boxes was also considered useful in reminding customers of Thai restaurants. However, there was a very strong recommendation from the owners of Thai restaurants that word-of-mouth communication from existing customers to new customers was the best strategy for the Thai restaurant business in the long term.

8.2.5 Sources of Information

A summary of results of the **null hypothesis** *Ho14* (Chapter 7, Section 7.1.5) concerning sources of information influencing respondents to adopt Thai food is presented in **Table 8.11**.

Table 8.11Summary Results of the Null Hypothesis (Sources of Information)

Ho14	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups using different <i>sources of information</i> .	Rejected

Results of the test of the **null Hypothesis** *Ho14* indicate that there were significant differences among word-of-mouth, mass media and personal experience groups in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia.

Results in Section 6.5.1 concerning sources affecting respondents when they first decided to eat Thai food and learned about Thai food and Thai restaurants, together with results in Section 6.4.3, show that respondents indicated that they would eat Thai food more in the future if *Thai restaurants and Thai food were recommended to them.* There were no dominant items from 'mass media' influencing respondents to eat Thai food more in the future. However, a marketer of Thai food should also realize that *recommendation from friends* would not occur if the food was not of good *quality* and had a good *taste*. Further, results

from Section 6.4.3 showed there were three more dominant factors as indicated by respondents, that needed to be considered. These were: Thai food should have an authentic Thai taste, should be cooked by a Thai chef and Thai restaurants should be owned by Thais. The results of these three questions (Q17, Q18, Q19) confirm that word-of-mouth communication is a more important information source than mass media for these respondents when they make a decision to eat Thai food in Australia.

Results (Section 6.5.2) for the two questions, Q17 and Q18, are similar in terms of the five most important sources of information (personal experience; friends; family/relatives; persons who are satisfied with Thai food; and colleagues), that affect respondents when they make a decision to eat Thai food in Australia; all involve word-of-mouth communication rather than mass media. These results would be useful for a marketer of Thai food and Thai restaurant businesses in Australia and these have already been discussed in the summary (Section 6.5.1).

Results of the null hypothesis *Ho14* indicate that respondents with personal experience of Thai food eat out for Thai food for dinner more often than those who receive information by word-of-mouth. There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food between respondents learning about Thai food in the mass media, through personal experience and through word-of-mouth. These results confirm that personal experience was the most important factor influencing respondents to make a decision to eat Thai food, followed by persons who were satisfied with Thai food, friends and family/relatives.

The results for reasons for eating out in this study show that respondents tended to eat out more often for social reasons with friends, and then with family/relatives and colleagues, respectively. According to the results from Section 6.5.1 and Section 6.5.2 friends and family/relatives were shown to be important sources of information for how respondents first got to know about Thai food and about Thai restaurants in Australia. They were also important sources of information for respondents to make a decision to eat out for Thai food in Australia. It is interesting to consider why colleagues are less important than friends and family/relatives in affecting respondents' decision to eat out for Thai food. It may be because friends and family/relatives have more influence on respondents than colleagues. In addition, colleagues may be classified as someone whom respondents know in the work place but they may or may not be friends, even if they have been known for a long period of time. These results could be of benefit to the marketer of Thai restaurants in Australia by suggesting that they should concentrate on planning a marketing strategy for consumers who want to eat out for sociable reasons with their friends and family/relatives, rather than for business reasons.

8.2.6 Evaluation of Alternatives

Table 8.12 presents a summary of the results of the **null hypothesis** *Ho15* (Chapter 7, Section 7.1.6) based on respondents' evaluation of alternatives in relation to levels of comparison of Thai food with other Asian food before deciding to dine-in at Thai restaurants. Results show that there was no significant difference among the four groups of respondents (for none, low, moderate, and high levels of comparison with other Asian food) in the adoption of Thai food (frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner) in Victoria, Australia.

Table 8.12Summary Results of the Null Hypothesis (Evaluation of Alternatives)

Ho15	There is no significant difference in the adoption of Thai food among groups that make different degrees of <i>comparison of Thai food with other</i> <i>cuisines</i> .	Accepted
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Even though results from Chapter 6, Section 6.6, showed that over half (52.6%) of the total of 1009 respondents reported that they did compare Thai food to other Asian food, almost half of them did not make a comparison before they decided to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants. According to the interview results (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.3), twenty-two (73.33%) Thai restaurant owners believed that their customers would compare Thai food with other Asian food. They emphasized that the curry dishes of Indian and Malaysian cuisine are similar to Thai food. Chinese and Vietnamese foods are cheaper and offer bigger portion sizes than Thai dishes, but customers would prefer the taste of Thai food. Japanese food is more expensive than Thai food, but Japanese food is more healthy and artistic in presentation than Thai food.

However, results of the test of **null Hypothesis** *Ho15* revealed that there were no significant differences among these four groups of none, low, moderate, and high comparisons groups in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. Hence, comparisons of Thai food with other Asian food did not affect their frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. Therefore, the results of this study suggest to Thai restaurant owners that customer comparisons of Thai food to other Asian food do not lead their customers to eat out for Thai food at Thai restaurants less often.

8.2.7 Consumption

This section contains a discussion of three main aspects affecting respondents in the adoption of Thai food during their consumption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia (results presented in Chapter 6, Section 6.8).

The first aspect is the importance of two main factors for respondents (*information about Thai dishes* and *recommendations by other people*) when ordering Thai dishes at Thai restaurants. The first factor concerned information about Thai dishes and consisted of three variables (description, picture, and name of Thai dishes). Results in this study suggest that Thai restaurant owners in Victoria, Australia, definitely need to concentrate on the 'description of Thai dishes' on the menu because it was selected as the most important variable for respondents when ordering Thai dishes at Thai restaurants. 'Picture of Thai dishes' and 'Name for Thai dishes' were rated as less important. The second factor 'recommended by people' consisted of three items (friends, owners, and waitresses). All three were rated as important for respondents in ordering Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. 'Recommended by friends' was rated as the most important,

followed by recommended by owners and waitresses, respectively. These results indicate that the owners or waitresses in Thai restaurants need to consider whether their customers need their assistance in ordering Thai dishes.

The second aspect is the actual situation of who was with respondents during their consumption of Thai food at a Thai restaurant. Results in this study reveal that respondents tended to eat out for dinner at a Thai restaurant with their friends, partner, and family/relatives rather than by themselves or with business associates and colleagues. Results from this question (Q13) are similar to results from Questions 8 and 9 (Chapter 6, Section 6.5.1), showing that word-of-mouth communication from friends and family/relatives are important sources of information for respondents to learn about Thai food and also about Thai restaurants. Moreover, these results also corroborate the results from Questions 17 and 18 showing that friends and family/relatives are also important sources of information for respondents in deciding to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia.

The results from this study indicate that consumers in Victoria, Australia like to enjoy Thai meals with someone who is close or who has a relationship to them, rather than for business purposes. Moreover, colleagues were not important for respondents in choosing to eat out for Thai food at the Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. These results agree with the findings of Martinez and Polo (1996) who studied 'Adopter' categories in the acceptance process for consumer durables. They found that word-of-mouth (internal influence) is much more important than mass media (external influence) in influencing consumer choice.

The third aspect is about the purpose for respondents in dining out for Thai food at Thai restaurants. Results indicate that the most important reasons for respondents to eat out for Thai food for dinners at Thai restaurants are as follows:

- they don't want to cook at home;
- special occasions;
- to experience Thai food;
- to dine out regularly every week with friends;

- to dine out regularly every week with family.

These results would be useful for a marketer of Thai food for Thai restaurants. They suggest that two main factors: special occasions and to experience Thai food, would be useful to consider for promotions that target existing customers to persuade their friends and family/relatives to dine out for Thai food at Thai restaurants.

8.2.8 Consumer Behaviour

Results presented in Chapter 6, Section 6.7 showed that respondents eat out at breakfast, lunch, and dinner for Thai food less often than for 'other food'. This may be because most Thai restaurants in Australia operate only for dinner from 6.00 pm till 11.00 pm, a small percentage open for lunch; and none for breakfast (interview results). The pattern is the reverse for Thai restaurants in Thailand. They mostly operate for three meals a day: breakfast, lunch, and dinner. There is thus a different way of eating out for Thai food for people in Australia compared to people in Thailand. In general, people in Thailand eat out or purchase take-away food for three meals a day, especially in business areas. This may be because eating out or purchasing take-away is not so expensive as in Australia. In general, people prefer to eat out for lunch at somewhere close to their working place, and spend less time than for dinner. Overall respondents may not eat out for Thai food at dinner quite so often because Thai food is not their 'usual' cuisine.

Results in this study also reveal that respondents more often cook at home, eat takeaway and eat home delivery for 'other food' than for Thai food. This may be because the ethnic background of the majority of respondents was Australian. In general, people would prefer to cook their own cuisines rather than other cuisines at home. People would also prefer take-away and home delivery foods from restaurants close to where they live. This may be because they are concerned about the time taken to transport food from the restaurant to their homes for take-away and home delivery foods, especially in relation to the temperature and the quality of the foods. Moreover, there may not be enough Thai restaurants to service and operate home delivery of Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

8.3 Post-Consumption Evaluation

The descriptive analysis results in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.3 indicate that most of the respondents (83.6%) were satisfied with Thai food from their previous experience of eating it before they decided to eat Thai food at the Thai restaurants where they completed the questionnaire. Moreover, most respondents indicated that they still had positive attitudes towards Thai food. Results from this study indicate that these respondents liked Thai food very much, and had sufficiently positive attitudes to recommend Thai food to their friends, and purchase Thai food in the future (Chapter 6, Section 6.9). Results of the three null hypotheses *Ho16*, *Ho17*, *Ho18*, using inferential analysis based on correlation, are discussed in Section 8.3.1; one null hypothesis *Ho19* is discussed in Section 8.3.2. Results of six null hypotheses *Ho20* to *Ho25* using an analysis of ANOVA are discussed in Section 8.3.3, and result of *Ho26* in Section 8.3.4.

8.3.1 Correlation between Satisfaction with 4Ps Marketing Mix and Liking, Repeat Purchase, and Recommendation of Thai Food to Friends

Correlation analysis, used to confirm the results of responses to Research Question 4: Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food between overall satisfaction in terms of the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) and overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food and intention to recommend Thai food to friends? revealed positive relationships. A summary of the results of three **null hypotheses (Ho16, Ho17, Ho18)**, is discussed and presented in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13Summary Results of the Null Hypotheses

Ho16	There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and overall liking for Thai food.	Partially Rejected
Ho17	There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to repeat purchase Thai food.	Partially Rejected
Ho18	There is no significant relationship between overall satisfaction with product, price, place, promotion and intention to recommend Thai food to friends.	Partially Rejected

Results in Chapter 7 (Section 7.2) showed positive significant relationships of both product and price with overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to friends as factors affecting consumer adoption of Thai food for dinner. This thus led to a partial rejection of the majority of the three null hypotheses, *Ho16*, *Ho17* and *Ho18*. There was no significant relationship between the place factor and the intent to repeat purchase and recommend Thai food to friends, but there was a significant relationship of overall liking of Thai food with these intentions. Promotion was not shown to have a significant relationship with any of the three dependent variables: liking, repeat-purchase, and recommendation.

8.3.2 Correlation between Liking, Repeat Purchase, Recommendation and Frequency of Eating Out for Thai Food

In this section the relationships among overall liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food is discussed. Correlation analysis was used to confirm the results of responses to Research Question 5: *Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner?* This revealed positive relationships.

A summary of the results of one **null hypothesis** *Ho19* based on the effect of relationships between overall liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to friends, and frequency of eating out for Thai food', is presented in Table 8.14 and discussed.

Table 8.14 Summary Results of the Null Hypothesis (Evaluation of Alternatives)

<i>Ho19</i> There is no significant relationship am liking for Thai food, intention to repert Thai food, intention to recommend T friends and frequency of eating out for for dinner.	eat purchase Thai food to
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Results in Chapter 7 (Section 7.3) showed significant positive relationships among liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner at Thai restaurants as factors affecting consumer adoption of Thai food for dinner, leading to a rejection of the null hypothesis (*Ho19*).

Results of this current study are partly consistent with those of Rashid (2003). He studied relationship marketing, using case studies of his personal experiences of eating out at an Indian restaurant. He had chosen this restaurant because it had been recommended to him by family and friends and emphasized that 'since our visit we have recommended it to our friends and given it free publicity through word-of-mouth' (p.748).

8.3.3 Experience-based Groups and Authentic Thai Taste

An analysis of ANOVA, used to confirm the results of responses to Research Question 6: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different experiences of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? revealed positive significances. Table 8.15 presents a summary of the results of six **null hypothesis** *Ho20 to Ho25*, based on respondents' experience in relation to Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and Australia.

Results in Chapter 7 (Section 7.4) showed significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between consumers who had Thai friends, had experienced their Thai friends' cooking, had experienced learning Thai cooking, had experienced eating Thai food in Thailand and had levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand and those who had not had these experiences. The importance of these factors affecting consumer adoption of Thai food, led to a rejection of the majority of the five null hypotheses, *Ho20 to Ho 24*. This means that Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking and eating Thai food in Thailand are major factors affecting consumers in Australia to prefer an authentic Thai taste.

However, results of the null hypothesis *Ho25* indicate that there is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food for dinner in Australia. In comparison, results of the null hypothesis *Ho24* and *Ho25*, indicated that the experience of eating Thai food in Thailand does affect customers wanting to experience an authentic Thai taste, whereas experience of eating Thai food in Australia does not.

Table 8.15Summary Results of the Null Hypotheses(Experience and Authentic Thai Taste)

<i>Ho20</i>	There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who have Thai friends and those who have no Thai friends.	Rejected
Ho21	There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced their Thai friends' cooking and those who had not experienced Thai friends' cooking.	Rejected
Но22	There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced learning Thai cooking and those who had not experienced learning Thai cooking.	Rejected
Но23	There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste between respondents who had experienced eating Thai food in Thailand and those who had not experienced eating Thai food in Thailand.	Rejected
Ho24	There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand.	Rejected
Ho25	There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour whether or not Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among groups with different levels of experience of eating out for Thai food in Australia.	Accepted

8.3.4 Subjective Knowledge-based Groups and Authentic Thai Taste

An ANOVA analysis, designed to analyse the results of responses to Research Question 7: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? revealed a positive significance. A summary of the result of the **null hypothesis** *Ho26*, based on respondents' subjective knowledge in relation to background knowledge about traditional Thai food, is presented in **Table 8.16**.

Results in Chapter 7 (Section 7.5) showed positive significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an authentic Thai taste among consumers in the low, moderate and high subjective knowledge groups, leading to a rejection by the majority of the null hypothesis *Ho26*. Results indicated that consumers who have moderate and high levels of knowledge of traditional Thai food prefer an authentic Thai taste more than consumers who have low knowledge. This means that knowledge of the traditional Thai food is one of the factors affecting consumers to prefer an authentic Thai taste and it leads them to repeat purchase Thai food.

Table 8.16Summary Results of the Null Hypothesis (Evaluation of Alternatives)

Ho26 There is no significant difference in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste.	
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8.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the results of the seven research questions. In comparing the opinions of Thai restaurant owners with those of their customers, the findings presented Chapters 5 and 6 were discussed. The findings of the twenty-six hypotheses were also discussed. The final chapter will present conclusions drawn from the seven research questions, including theoretical, methodological and practical implications. Limitations to the study and recommendation for further research will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.0 Introduction

Conclusions drawn from this research are used to develop 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia' in this chapter. The discussion includes both theoretical and methodological implications for further research, and practical implications and recommendations for the adoption of Thai food overseas. The main findings are summarized in relation to the seven specific aims as presented in Chapter 1.

9.1 Research Conclusions

In fulfillment of the main aim of this study (Chapter 1), this section presents a model of consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. This model differs from other models in that it was developed in relation to seven specific aims (Chapter 1) and twenty-six null hypotheses (Chapters 3, Section 3.6), to provide a full coverage of all stages and factors occurring in the decision-making of consumers in their adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. The preliminary conceptual framework for this model, consisting of three main parts (Figure 3.1), was the basis for investigation and for gaining answers to the seven major research questions (Section 3.5). A mix of qualitative interviews of Thai restaurant owners (Chapter 5), and quantitative survey questionnaire responses from customers following their consumption of Thai food, (Chapters 6 and 7) provided the data for analysis using descriptive and inferential methods (Chapter 4).

The main findings of this study presented in five parts. *Firstly*, Figure 9.1 (p.368) shows the important factors affecting consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia in order to answer Research Question 1 (Section 9.1.1) and Research Question 2 (Section 9.1.2). *Secondly*, the key findings of the differences between the opinions of Thai restaurant owners and

their customers in relation to factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants are concluded in order to answer Research Question 3 (Section 9.1.3). *Thirdly*, Figure 9.2 (p.372) shows the significant relationship between *overall satisfaction* (of 4Ps marketing mix) and *overall liking* (of Thai food), *intention to repeat purchase* and *intention to recommend* (Thai food to friends) in order to answer Research Question 4 (Section 9.1.4) and Research Question 5 (Section 9.1.5). *Fourthly*, Figure 9.3 (p.374) shows the important factors affecting consumer decision- making for *repeat purchase* (if Thai food has authentic Thai taste) in order to answer Research Question 6 (Section 9.1.6) and Research Question 7 (Section 9.1.7). *Finally*, the key findings of the study are assembled in Figure 9.4 (p.376) 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia' (explained in Section 9.1.8). Theoretical and Methodological implications are described in Section 9.2.1 and 9.2.2. Practical implications for 'Factors Affecting the Adoption of Thai Food Overseas' (explained in Section 9.2.3) are presented in Figure 9.5 (p.382).

9.1.1 Research Question 1

The first specific aim was to identify stages and factors affecting consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia in relation to the first research question: *What factors affect consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia*' To investigate this question the stages of consumer decision-making were identified and factors affecting customers in the adoption of Thai food determined, using a model adapted from five theoretical models (Engel et al. 1995; Rogers 1995; Kotler 2000; Blackwell et al. 2001; Schiffman et al. 2001) reviewed in Chapter 3.

A descriptive analysis of survey results (Chapter 6) confirmed the three main parts of the model: *pre-purchase evaluation* (demographics, experience, knowledge, need recognition, sources of information, evaluation of alternatives); *purchase and consumption evaluation (adoption of Thai food)*; and *postconsumption evaluation* (satisfaction, liking, repeat purchase and recommendation). The descriptive analysis also established the patterns of consumer behaviour when deciding to eat Thai food at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.

• Pre-Purchase Evaluation

In answering Research Question 1 six aspects of results at the pre-purchase evaluation stage were investigated. These included demographics, experience, knowledge, need recognition, sources of information and evaluation of alternatives.

Firstly, in relation to responses regarding *demographics*, the majority of respondents were between 25 and 44 years of age, born in Australia (68.5%) and tended to be of Australian and European backgrounds. They earned annual incomes of between \$25,000 and \$70,000, worked in professional and administrative positions, and were educated with a Bachelor's degree, certificate or diploma. Therefore, the majority of customers (respondents) were Western, young to middle age skilled professionals, with average education and income levels.

Secondly, in relation to responses regarding the *experience* of eating Thai food, most of the respondents (93.2%) had previously eaten Thai food in Australia, and almost half (55.3%), had eaten Thai food in Thailand. Only 6.8% of respondents were experiencing Thai food for the first time. The majority (62.3%) had been eating Thai food for from one to five years, and one-fifth (20.8%) for longer. Over three quarters of respondents (83.6%) were satisfied and repeat purchased Thai food within a month. However, less than one-third (29.8%) of the respondents had Thai friends, and even fewer had eaten from their Thai friends' cooking (20.4%) or had learned Thai cooking (16.0%). Therefore, even though few had Thai friends, or had learned Thai cooking, the vast majority of respondents, more than half of whom had eaten Thai food in Thailand, were satisfied, repeat customers.

Thirdly, in relation to responses regarding *objective and subjective knowledge* of Thai food, results revealed that the majority of respondents had objective knowledge (the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food), including use of spoons

and forks (69.5%) and taking food from a central plate (82.1%). However, subjective knowledge about traditional characteristics of Thai food (taste, aroma and appearance), and traditional ways of eating Thai food, Thai dish names, and the way to order Thai food, was weak. This indicates that although respondents were familiar with the social aspects of eating Thai food, they knew little about the unique characteristics of the food itself.

Fourthly, the results of four aspects of needs recognition in the adoption of Thai food, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the 4Ps marketing mix, authentic Thai food, and factors affecting respondents to repeat purchase Thai food, were conflicting. Results for Maslow's hierarchy of needs established that physiological need (I am hungry); safety need (Thai food is nutritious and healthy), and self-actualisation need (I want a different eating experience), were important, whereas social need (I want to socialise) and esteem need (Thai food is Results for the 4Ps marketing mix revealed that fashionable) were not. respondents ranked product (Thai food characteristics) as the most important, followed by convenient restaurant location, price, and lastly, special promotion. Product variables (taste, quality, aroma, variety, appearance, spiciness, and nutritional value) were shown, to affect respondents' decisions to eat out for Thai food positively with quality and taste being the most important variables. A restaurant decorated in the Thai style was favoured, but promotional discounts, prizes (wining a trip to Thailand) and gifts were not seen as important. Results for authentic Thai food, showed that recommendations (from restaurant and friends) and authentic Thai taste influenced respondents' decision to repeat purchase Thai food. Thai chefs and restaurants owned by Thai people positively affected respondents' confidence in the authenticity of the food. Overall, responses to this question indicate that customers eat in Thai restaurants because they are hungry, and trust that the food will not only be delicious, but nutritious and healthy, whilst offering a different eating experience. Because they desire an authentic food taste they prefer restaurants with Thai chefs and owners.

Fifthly, in relation to responses regarding *sources of information*, respondents gained dining out information from other people (word-of-mouth) rather than mass media. Word-of-mouth (58.5%) and personal experience (41.6%) were the most important sources of information. Word-of-mouth included: friends who were satisfied with Thai food (22.8%), friends (13.7%), family/relatives (12.9%) and colleagues (9.1%). The eight items from the mass media factor were not rated. Most of the customers (65.3%) had eaten Thai food for the first time at Thai restaurants in Australia, and first got to know about Thai food and Thai restaurants from their friends. **Therefore, word-of-mouth from satisfied friends and personal experience were the main sources of information**.

Lastly, in relation to responses regarding evaluation of alternatives, comparisons of Thai food with other Asian foods, and price are considered before choosing to dine out. More than half (52.6%) of the 1009 respondents compared Thai food with other Asian foods, ranking Chinese food (21.9%) as the first comparison, followed by Vietnamese (19.3%), Indian (17.0%), Japanese (15.7%), Malaysian (11.6%); Indonesian (8.2%), and Korean (5.1%). Overall, respondents expected to pay within a price range of A\$6-15 for lunch and A\$16-25 for dinner. These results indicate that customers expect prices that are comparable to those for other Asian foods.

• Purchase and Consumption Evaluation

The second area of evaluation used in answering Research Question 1 concerned purchase and consumption. It was found that respondents eat less Thai food than they do other foods in all forms, including take away, home delivery, and home cooking. Even so, most respondents eat out for Thai food once a month (37%) or once every 2-3 months (33%), which is not infrequent, considering the wide range of choices available to them and that Thai food is not their original cuisine. As they go to restaurants for social reasons rather than for business, they tend to eat out with friends and family/relatives. Most respondents (70.3%) never eat out with neighbours. Description of Thai dishes was very important for respondents making decisions to order specific Thai dishes in restaurants, whereas pictures and names of dishes were not so important. Recommendations from friends, Thai restaurant owners, and waitresses were important in their ordering of Thai dishes. However, when dining with friends who are experienced in consuming Thai food, they prefer their friends to recommend dishes, rather than the Thai restaurant owners and waitresses. One-third (35.5%) of respondents indicated that they were dining in at the current restaurant with their friends, followed by partner (29.0%) and relatives (25.3%). Only 8.2% were dining alone. A few (22.2%) respondents were dining out because they didn't want to cook. This was followed by: a special occasion (19.8%); to experience Thai food (16.5%); weekly dine-out meal with friends (15.1%); and weekly dine-out meal with family (10.0%). Therefore, even though respondents were found to eat out for Thai food less often than for other foods, despite having many Asian alternatives, they regularly repeat purchased Thai food, which was not their own cuisine. They ate out more often for social than for business reasons, and required clear descriptions of dishes on the menu, preferring recommendations of dishes from friends who were experienced and satisfied with Thai food, rather than from restaurant staff.

Post-Consumption Evaluation

The third and last area of evaluation used in answering Research Question 1 investigated post-consumption. This showed that respondents were satisfied with Thai food characteristics, price, and location, and intended to repeat purchase (84.7%) and recommend (89.1%) Thai food to friends. One-third intended to repeat purchase Thai food within a week, and over one-third within a month. Less than a quarter aimed to repeat purchase Thai food within 2-3 months, and a few (8.7%) did not intend to repeat purchase. Although respondents showed no interest in promotion, they were very satisfied with the taste, quality, and aroma of Thai food. They were also satisfied with the portion sizes, and value for money offered, preferring convenient location to restaurants decorated in Thai style. **Overall, most respondents enjoyed Thai food very much and had every intention of buying Thai food in the future and recommending it to their friends.**

9.1.2 Research Question 2

In fulfilment of the second specific aim, differences were found in the frequency of eating out for Thai food, based on Research Question 2: *Are there any significant differences in the adoption of Thai food (as measured by frequency of eating out for dinner) among different consumer groups based on demographics, experience, knowledge, sources of information, need recognition and evaluation of alternatives?* Inferential analysis of the survey results (Chapter 7, Section 7.1) showed some significant differences in factors affecting consumer adoption of Thai food for dinner, leading to a rejection of the majority of the fifteen null hypotheses relating to demographics, experience, knowledge, need recognition, sources of information of alternatives.

Firstly, in relation to the effects of *demographic* characteristics on the frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner, age and occupation showed significant differences, whereas gender, ethnicity, income and education did not. The younger and middle-aged groups were found to dine out for Thai food more often than the older-age group. Respondents who were self-employed, professionals, managers, and skilled workers, dined out at Thai restaurants more often than those who worked as unskilled workers, were retired or did housework.

Secondly, in relation to the effects of the respondents' experience of Thai food on frequency of eating out Thai food for dinner, results showed significant differences between the five experience-based groups. Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, and learning Thai cooking positively affected respondents in deciding to dine in at Thai restaurants more often. The experience of eating Thai food in both Thailand and Australia also positively affected their frequency of eating out for Thai food at Thai restaurants in Australia.

Thirdly, in relation to the effect of the respondents' objective and subjective *knowledge* on the adoption of Thai food, objective knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food did not significantly affect respondents in their eating-out of Thai food for dinner. However, subjective knowledge of the

traditional way of ordering, eating, Thai dish names, and authentic Thai food did affect their choice. **Respondents with high levels of subjective knowledge** tended to dine out for Thai food more often than those with moderate and low knowledge, respectively.

Fourthly, in relation to respondents' need recognition in the adoption of Thai food, the physiological need (hungry, nutritious and healthy) was relevant, affecting them to eat out for Thai food more often than their needs for social contact and self-actualisation.

Fifthly, in relation to the effect of the respondents' *sources of information* on the adoption of Thai food, the **personal experience factor affected them to eat out** for Thai food for dinner more often than word-of-mouth and mass media factors did.

Finally, in relation to the effect of respondents' *evaluation of alternatives* on the adoption of Thai food, consumers did compare Thai food with other 'Asian food'. However, the frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner did not differ across the four comparison groups (none, low, moderate and high), showing that **the comparisons with other 'Asian food' factor did not affect their frequency of eating out for Thai food in Victoria, Australia**.

To illustrate the relationship between the significant factors affecting consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in Research questions 1 and 2 (as outlined above), Figure 9.1 presents a detailed summary.

Figure 9.1 Pre-Purchase Evaluation and Consumption

Important Factors Affecting Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia

Demographic	7	
Age		
Occupation	Ν	
Experience	-	
Having Thai friends Thai friends' cooking Learning Thai cooking Eating Thai food in Thailand Eating Thai food in Australia		
Subjective Knowledge	$- \langle \rangle \rangle$	
Authentic Thai food:		
Appearance, aroma and taste	\setminus	
Needs Recognition	\neg \land \land	
Maslow's hierarchy of needs:		
Physiological need (hungry) Safety need (nutritious & healthy) Self-actualization (a different eating experience)		The Adoption of
<i>The 4Ps Marketing Mix:</i> Product: taste, quality, aroma, variety, appearance, spiciness, nutritional value.		Thai food
Price: Value for money, reasonable price Place: convenient location		Frequency of
Authentic Thai Food: Thai chefs and Thai owners		eating-out for Thai food (Dinner)
Sources of Information	╡ / /≰	
Word-of Mouth: satisfied persons, friends, family/relatives		
Personal Experience		
Evaluation of Alternatives	7//	
Price of Thai food		
Consumption Evaluation	1/	
Ordering Thai food at the restaurant: Description of Thai dishes and recommendation from friends who were satisfied with Thai food, restaurant owners and waitresses		

9.1.3 Research Question 3

The third specific aim, 'to identify differences and similarities between Thai restaurant owners' and customers' opinions in relation to factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia', revealed conflicting viewpoints in some areas. These findings were based on responses to Research Question 3: Are there any differences between the opinions of Thai restaurant owners and their customers in relation to factors affecting consumers in the adoption of Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia?

In particular, the viewpoints of Thai restaurant owners on authentic versus modified taste preferences were 'out of touch' in their predictions of customers' actual wants, as established in customer questionnaire responses. These misconceptions point to a lack of understanding by proprietors of the actual wants of customers eating out at their restaurants in Victoria, Australia. Eight aspects of respondent-based groups in relation to five stages of the model of the consumer decision-making process for the adoption of Thai food, revealed how these Thai restaurant owners understood their customers (Chapter 8).

Firstly, in relation to need recognition, three aspects, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 4Ps marketing mix and authentic Thai food, revealed differing results. Maslow's prediction of needs only partially explained customer responses. Hunger, nutrition, healthiness, and different eating experience were applicable, whereas socialization and fashion were not. In marketing mix theory, word-of-mouth and personal experience were found to be applicable, whereas mass media was not (Table 8.1). However, in contrast to these two theories, the authentic Thai food theory, formulated in this research (Chapter 3), was correct in all predictions. The majority of customers agreed that they would eat Thai food more often if the taste was authentic, whereas almost the Thai restaurant owners believed the reverse.

Secondly, in relation to sources of information affecting customers' knowledge of Thai food and Thai restaurants, results indicated that Thai restaurant owners fully understood their customer's behaviour. Results for both groups indicated that they were in agreement that customers found out about Thai food and restaurants from friends, personal experience and relatives.

Thirdly, in relation to customers comparing Thai food with other 'Asian food', and consideration of price, most Thai restaurant owners were fully aware that their customers compared Thai food with other 'Asian food', and considered the price before making a decision to dine in at Thai restaurants.

Fourthly, Thai restaurant owners were found to have fully understood their customers who believed that description of Thai dishes and recommendation from friends were important factors affecting them in deciding to order Thai dishes at restaurants.

Lastly, Thai restaurant owners were found to have fully understood that their customers mostly like Thai food because of its unique taste, flavour, spiciness, quality and health-giving properties. More than two-thirds of Thai restaurant owners believed that their customers dislike Thai food being too spicy, which is in agreement with almost two-thirds of customers who indicated that they dislike Thai food when it is too spicy.

These results are useful for forming the basis of further research into relevant marketing plans for Thai restaurants in Australia. Practical implications are outlined in Section 9.2.3.

9.1.4 Research Question 4

The fourth specific aim, 'to identify the effect of relationships between the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) on overall consumer satisfaction and liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to friends', revealed positive relationships. Correlation analysis was used to confirm the results of responses to Research Question 4: *Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food between overall satisfaction in terms of the 4Ps marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion) and overall*

liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food and intention to recommend Thai food to friends?

Results indicated that overall customer satisfaction with product (quality, variety, spiciness, nutritional value, appearance, aroma, and taste of Thai food) and price (portion size, reasonable price, value for money) lead customers to have a positive for liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to their friends. 'Place', (convenient location and restaurant decorated in Thai style) does not affect customers' intention to repeat purchase and recommend Thai food to friends, but it does affect their liking for Thai food. Promotion (wining a trip to Thailand, special gifts from Thai restaurant and special discount period) does not affect customers' for liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to repeat purchase and intention to repeat purchase and intention.

9.1.5 Research Question 5

The fifth specific aim, 'to identify the effect of relationships among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to friends', revealed positive relationships. Correlation analysis was used to confirm the results of responses to Research Question 5: *Are there significant relationships in the adoption of Thai food among overall liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase Thai food, intention to recommend Thai food to friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner?*

Results (Chapter 7, Section 7.3) of this study suggested that there are significant positive relationships among customers' liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to their friends and frequency of eating out for Thai food for dinner. In other words, when customers have a positive liking for Thai food, they will also intend to repeat purchase and to recommend Thai food to their friends. Furthermore, they will intend to be regular customers in the future. Therefore, the four main factors of *liking for Thai food*, *intention to repeat purchase*, *intention to recommend Thai food to friends* and

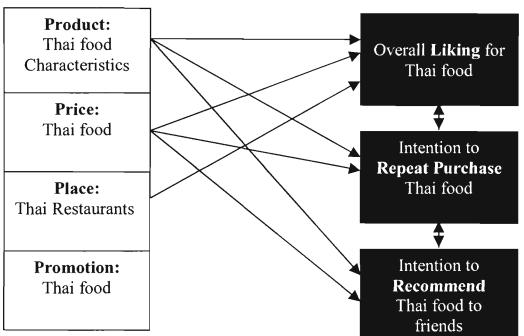
frequency of eating out for Thai food are significant factors affecting customers for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia.

To illustrate the relationship between the significant factors affecting the post-consumption stage of eating out for Thai food in Research Questions 4 and 5 (as outlined above), Figure 9.2 presents a detailed summary.

Figure 9.2 Post-Consumption Evaluation

(Significant Relationships between Overall Satisfaction of 4Ps Marketing Mix and Overall Liking, Repeat Purchase, Recommendation)





Results of Research Question 5 reveal significant relationships between the three aspects of post-purchase evaluation. Figure 9.2 also shows the significant relationships between liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to friends. Thus, customers who like Thai food are likely to repeat purchase and recommend Thai food to their friends.

9.1.6 Research Question 6

Significant differences were found among different consumer groups for repeat purchase behaviour, based on Research Question 6: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different experiences of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? The survey results (Chapter 7, Section 7.4) using ANOVA showed significant differences among experience-based groups of respondents (Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, experience of eating Thai food in Thailand, levels experience of eating Thai food in Thailand) for repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic taste. This led to a rejection of the majority of the five null hypotheses Ho20 to Ho24. This means that customers who have Thai friends, have experienced eating Thai friends' cooking and have learned Thai cooking prefer authentic Thai taste in contrast to those who have no Thai friends or experience of Thai friends' cooking, or of learning Thai cooking. Results of this study also confirm that customers who had more experience of eating Thai food in Thailand preferred an authentic Thai taste more than those with less experience. However, results of ANOVA indicate that there is no significant difference among groups of respondents across the three levels (low, moderate and high) of experience of eating Thai food in Australia in their intention to repeat purchase Thai food if it has an authentic Thai taste, so leading to an acceptance of the null hypothesis Ho25. Thus, there are five main factors of customers' experience affecting their repeat purchase behaviour if Thai food had an These include Thai friends, eating Thai friends' authentic Thai taste. cooking, learning Thai cooking, eating Thai food in Thailand and levels of experience of eating Thai food in Thailand.

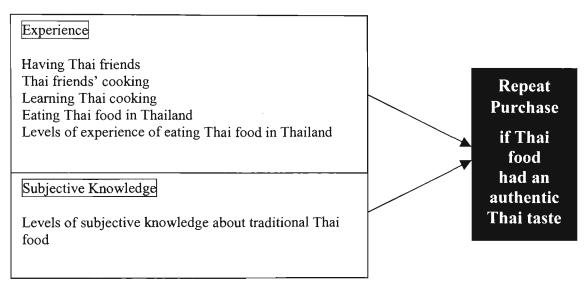
9.1.7 Results of Research Question 7

Significant relationships were found in repeat purchase behaviour, based on Research Question 7: Are there any significant differences in repeat purchase behaviour between consumer groups with different levels of subjective knowledge of whether Thai food had an authentic Thai taste? The survey results (Chapter 7, Section 7.5) using ANOVA analysis showed significant differences in respondents' subjective knowledge for repeat purchase if Thai food had an authentic taste, leading to a rejection of the null hypothesis (Ho26). Thus, customers with higher subjective knowledge would prefer to repeat purchase Thai food if it had an authentic Thai taste more than would those with a lower knowledge of Thai food.

To illustrate the relationship between the significant factors effective in the post-consumption stage of authentic Thai taste in Research Questions 6 and 7 (as outlined above), Figure 9.3 presents a detailed summary.

Figure 9.3 Post-Consumption Evaluation (Authentic Thai Taste)

Important Factors Affecting Consumer Decision-Making for Repeat Purchase if Thai Food has an Authentic Thai Taste



Subjective knowledge of traditional Thai food is also shown as a significant factor affecting consumers' repeat purchase intention concerning Thai food in the future if Thai food has an authentic Thai taste. Therefore, customers with higher knowledge about traditional Thai food, such as appearance, aroma and taste of Thai food, prefer an authentic Thai taste more than those who have less knowledge.

9.1.8 Modification of the Model used in this Study

As stated in Chapter 1 the aim of this research was to develop 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia'. In fulfilment of this aim, a suitable model (Figure 9.4, p.376) has been developed. This model is based on the preliminary model developed from existing literature (Figure 3.1, p.82) for use as the basis for the survey questionnaire design (Appendix 2), and modified in accordance with the five research questions 1, 2, 4 and 5 (Section 3.5) and testing of the nineteen hypotheses (*Ho1* to *Ho19*) (Section 3.6). The final, modified model includes three main parts (from the literature), adding the significant factors affecting consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food (tested in accordance with the research questions and hypotheses). This model provides a comprehensive basis for understanding how customers decide to adopt Thai food in Victoria, Australia, and includes three parts:

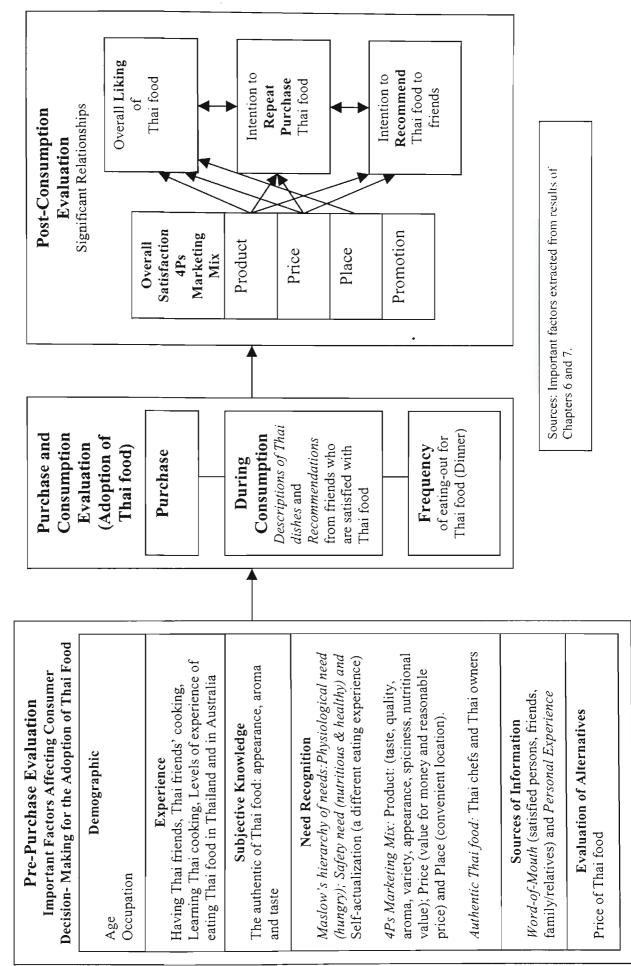
- Pre-Purchase Evaluation,
- Purchase and Consumption Evaluation, and
- Post-Consumption Evaluation.

• Pre-Purchase Evaluation

The first part of the model (Figure 9.4, p.376) summarizes the important factors affecting consumer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia. These include: *demographics* (age and occupation); *experience* (through Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, and eating Thai food in Thailand and in Australia); *subjective knowledge* (through appearance, aroma and taste); *need recognition* according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (physiological, safety and self-actualisation), the 4Ps marketing mix (of product, price and place), an authentic Thai food, *sources of information* (word-of-mouth and personal experience) and *evaluation of alternatives* (price of Thai food).

Figure 9.4

for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia **A Model of Consumer Decision-Making**



• Purchase and Consumption Evaluation

The second part of the model (Figure 9.4) follows on from the first part, presenting the three main stages of evaluation occurring in the adoption of Thai food: *Purchase*; *Consumption*; and *Frequency* (of eating out Thai food for dinner), prior to the post-consumption evaluation stage.

• Post- Consumption Evaluation

The third and final part of the model (Figure 9.4) presents the relationship between all aspects of *overall satisfaction* with product, price, place and promotion in relation to *overall liking* for Thai food, *intention to repeat purchase* Thai food, and *intention to recommend* Thai food to friends).

At the post-consumption evaluation stage, two aspects are identified in this study. The first aspect is summarized in Figure 9.2 (p.372) and shows, in response to Research Question 4, the relationships between the four independent variables of overall satisfaction with the independent variables of the 4Ps Marketing Mix (Product, Price, Place, Promotion), and the three dependent variables of post-consumption evaluation (overall liking of Thai food, intention to repeat purchase, intention to recommend Thai food to friends). The figure reveals how product and price significantly link to all dependent variables, whereas place only links to customers' liking of Thai food, and promotion has no significant relationship with any of the three dependent variables.

9.2 Research Implications

In undertaking this research based on the abovementioned models, theoretical, methodological and practical implications have emerged as important considerations for conducting further research into the adoption of Thai food, not only in Australia, but in other countries as well. The framework for the study and questionnaire design have particular implications for those wishing to do further research in areas involving consumer behaviour in purchasing foods from other cultures.

9.2.1 Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications of this research are that a combination of theories (details in Chapter 3) can present a complete model for consumer decisionmaking for the adoption of Thai food in Victoria, Australia, and can provide a strong basis for improving marketing skills and understanding the factors affecting customers' adoption of Thai food. The model developed in this study is based on five theoretical models (Engel et al. 1995; Rogers 1995; Kotler 2000; Blackwell et al. 2001; Schiffman et al. 2001, see Chapter 3). From these models the researcher designed the new model used in this study (see Figure 3.1, p.82), which contains three parts including pre-purchase evaluation, purchase and consumption evaluation and post-consumption evaluation. Implications in the use of this model are that researchers undertaking similar studies should undertake the holistic approach suggested by this model rather than the piecemeal approach so commonly used. In adopting the holistic approach outlined in this model the comprehensive questionnaire used in the consumer survey was able to establish a good understanding of the complex issues involved in customer decision-making in the adoption of Thai food.

Researchers need to firstly understand pre-purchase evaluations occurring prior to purchase and consumption. In gaining knowledge of demographics, experience, knowledge, need recognition, sources of information and evaluation of alternatives the researcher will have an understanding of customer profiles and customers' background experience. Post-consumption evaluation can be used to confirm the relationship between satisfaction, liking, intention to repeat purchase and intention to recommend Thai food to others. In pre-purchase evaluation the researcher created a category of objective and subjective knowledge which was very useful for understanding customer's background knowledge. In the same category, Maslow's hierachy of needs was useful to understand customer needs recognition. For post-consumption evaluation the 4Ps marketing mix was useful in determining the important factors affecting customers' decisions to eat out for Thai food. This research also has implications for questionnaire design. The comprehensive survey questionnaire (Appendix 2) based on all stages of the theoretical model of consumer decision-making, yielded highly useful information. Questionnaires used in previous studies have been narrower in scope, due to only focussing on a limited number of these stages, meaning that findings from these studies were unable to fully ascertain customer behaviour. By using a more comprehensive model (Figure 3.1, p.82) as the basis for designing the questionnaires, results have been able to yield more practical understanding of customer needs for use in improved marketing plans, in contrast to those offered by smaller, less comprehensive studies. Therefore, the broad model used in this study provides a relatively wide understanding of the factors affecting customers in deciding to adopt Thai food in Victoria, Australia. In addition, the modified model designed in this present study can be also used for a combination of descriptive (Chapter 6) and inferential (Chapter 7) analysis of consumer survey results.

9.2.2 Methodological Implications

The methodology used in this study can provide guidelines for the methodology used in similar research studies in the future, including: ways to approach interviewing of Thai restaurant owners and surveying their customers; recruitment of suitable respondents for customer surveys; questionnaire design and presentation; observation of customer responses to being asked to complete questionnaires and testing of construct validity using factor analysis.

Firstly, because Thai restaurant owners did not choose to reply to letters requesting interviews (details in Section 4.2.1), suggestions for initial recruitment for similar research studies include direct contact by telephone rather than by letters of invitation, and contacting Thai restaurant owners between 4.00 - 5.00 pm, before business starts.

Secondly, because the researcher encountered initial difficulty in collecting data from customers, particularly at the restaurant during actual consumption of food, a new approach was devised. It was found that distributing questionnaires outside the restaurant after customers had finished eating and paying their bill was successful. Moreover, this aspect of data collection was deemed successful due to the survey questionnaire and pre-paid A4 size envelope (unfolded) being carefully designed to look professional and to provide clear indications of requirements to gain respondents' confidence (see Appendix 2). This included a clear title and personal logo, on both the envelope and questionnaire, related to the title of the study. Importantly, it is recommended that introductory letters and envelopes include the logo and name of the university to confirm that data will be properly used.

Thirdly, the concise, easy to follow questionnaire design used in the collection of data for this research is recommended as most suited to eliciting information from customers dining out in restaurants. A short qualitative section allows for unforeseen information on customer needs.

Fourthly, experience gained in data collection strongly suggests that researchers should observe customers during their actual consumption at restaurants before distributing questionnaires. Having noted in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2 that a *systematic sampling* procedure was planned to collect data from every fourth customer entering each restaurant, the researcher's experience (during observation of customers dining out in nine Thai restaurants), suggested that this procedure was not appropriate (see reasons in Section 4.3.2). Consequently, the researcher changed from a systematic sampling procedure to convenient sampling, using self-administered procedures and handing out the questionnaires directly to every customer present on the date of distribution. Consequently, researchers are strongly advised to observe their target respondents carefully to determine the most suitable form of contact for questionnaire distribution.

Lastly, the researcher recommends that the questionnaire results should not only be tested for reliability and content validity, (both commonly used in market research), but also tested for construct validity of the questionnaire items by using factor analysis in both pilot tests and actual tests of data (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.6).

9.2.3 Practical Implications

The implications of using the modified model presented in Figure 9.1 are that understanding the demographic profiles of customers and their experience, knowledge, need recognition, sources of information, and evaluation of alternatives, encourages restaurant owners to find new and creative ways to cater for their customers, using this knowledge.

Incorporating the results from Research Questions 1 to 5 (Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8), a number of practical implications were found for improving consumer decisionmaking for the adoption of Thai food. Significantly, a new model (Figure 9.5) for long term market improvement and success emerged, incorporating the full participation of seven key organisations. The model includes: ongoing primary research into the changing patterns of factors affecting consumers in their adoption of Thai food (every 5-10 years); government support for the research and promotion of Thai food once a year internationally and education of farmers and food manufacturers in Thailand to improve quality production of basic food ingredients. Participating groups include the Thai restaurant association, Thai restaurant owners, Thai food wholesalers, and Thai food manufacturers. Figure 9.5 shows the seven organisations/groups required for the successful international adoption of Thai food in the future.

To illustrate the practical implications for significant factors effective in the adoption of Thai food overseas (as outlined in Section 9.2.3), Figure 9.5 presents a detailed summary.

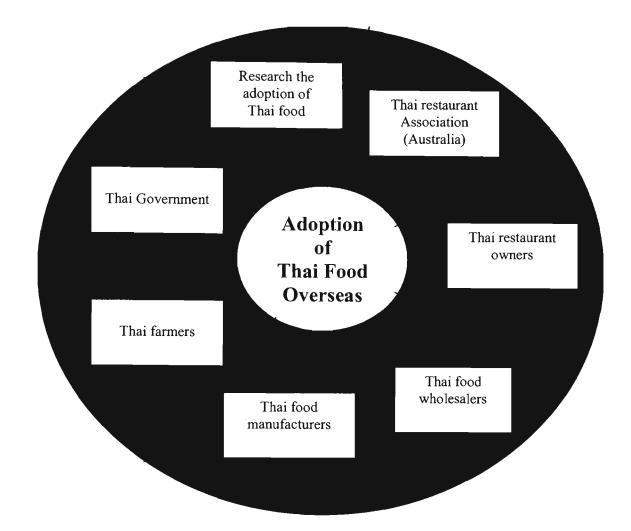


Figure 9.5 Factors Affecting the Adoption of Thai Food Overseas

Without incorporating all seven groups Thai food may not be able to be successfully produced long-term. It is therefore suggested that incorporating agreement between the above-mentioned groups would assist in the sustainable improvement of Thai food internationally, thus assisting the Thai food industry and export economy. Research results indicate a number of practical implications for these seven organisations/groups as follows:

• Thai Government

The most important organisation involved in supporting the marketing of Thai food abroad is the Thai Government. Its intention to franchise Thai restaurants (Section 1.4) across the world will require surveys of customer needs in each targeted country, to successfully market their products. As the export of Thai food is an important source of foreign income for Thailand (Section 1.4), and the

Thai Government stands to be the most significant beneficiary of this, it needs to be responsible as the primary supporter of a sustainable system. As the key factor in providing funding and cohesion to the relevant organisations shown in Figure 9.5 (p.382), the Thai Government needs to further develop its project of expanding the export of Thai food to the world. Although Thai food is already popular in many countries, with continuing support from the Thai Government the future of exporting Thai food/ingredients is more to likely be successful in the long term.

Several practical implications for government involvement have emerged from this study. Interviews with Thai restaurant owners (Chapter 5, Section 5.5.4) revealed that they need the Thai Government to 'provide funds for promotion; educate Thai chefs for Thai cooking; control standards of ingredients; control the price of ingredients and protect the Thai image in Australia'. In addition, the Thai Government needs to negotiate with the Australian Immigration Department to provide simple ways to obtain four-year visas for well-trained Thai chefs to work in Australia. Thai restaurant owners also need guidance in issues such as salaries and fringe benefits for well-trained chefs from Thailand and suitable contracts that protect all parties concerned (see Section 5.5.4).

As 'learning Thai cooking' was one of the factors affecting customers to decide to eat more Thai food, the Thai Government needs to sponsor Thai cooking teachers to provide classes in Australia that show how to prepare Thai food with an authentic Thai taste. It is therefore recommended that the Thai Government should continue to support Thai cooking in Thailand for producing quality Thai chefs for working in other countries. Lastly, the Thai Government needs to consider setting up an organisation responsible for researching and updating information every 5-10 years to advise the six parties concerned, of variations in customer needs.

• Proposed Research Organisation for the Adoption of Thai Food

Without understanding overseas customers' needs in their adoption of Thai food, this export may not continue to be favoured in the long term. In relation to the need for Thai Government support in marketing Thai food abroad, results from interviewing restaurant owners and surveying customers indicate that there needs to be further research to ascertain changes of customers experience of eating Thai food and/or changes in the economy affecting consumption in the future. Therefore, this study recommends that an organisation of research for the adoption of Thai food should update data by surveying customers and interviewing Thai restaurant owners every 5 to 10 years. Similar research should also be done in other countries before expanding the market or franchising Thai Study models developed in this research (Figure 3.1, p.82) and the food. interview (Appendix 3.1) and survey (Appendix 3.2) questionnaires can be used as the basis for researching consumer decision-making for the adoption of Thai food in particular markets in other countries, then developing the new model to suit each of these countries. It is important to emphasise that there is also a need to survey customers during their actual dining at Thai restaurants for realistic information in developing marketing plans. There is therefore a need to set up a new research organisation which is financed and supported by the Thai Government to ascertain customer preferences and needs; and to obtain up-to-date information.

• Thai Farmers

The third organisation implicated in improving the marketing of Thai food overseas (including Australia) is the Thai Farmers' Association. Farmers in Thailand would benefit directly from increased demand occurring through expansion of the food industry. Education showing farmers how to produce fine quality Thai ingredients, demanded by the more educated customers in Victoria, Australia, will improve sustainability of their production. As the results of this study showed that the quality of Thai food was one dominant factor encouraging customers to eat Thai food more often, enhancing the components of ingredients would increase the quality of ingredients for the Thai food industry. For example, Thai curry paste cannot be of good quality without quality ingredients from the farmers.

• Thai Food Manufacturers in Thailand

The fourth organisation implicated in improving the marketing of Thai food in Australia is the Thai food manufacturers in Thailand. In accordance with advice from Thai restaurant owners (Chapter 5, Section 5.5.3) there is a need to control standards of quality ingredients and price through working with the Thai Government Export Department and Tourism Authority. Furthermore, in relation to results from questions relating to *Maslow's hierarchy of needs* (Section 9.1.1), hunger was not the only factor affecting consumers in Victoria, Australia, in deciding to eat out for Thai food. They also consider whether food is nutritious and healthy, meaning that manufacturers in Thailand need to avoid producing products affected by additives and contaminants like flavour enhancing ingredients, preservatives, colouring, insecticide residue, artificial fertilisers and genetic modification, which may not be considered healthy by Thai restaurant customers. Thai food manufacturers should realize the importance of producing food products of an international standard before exporting them (Intrawityanunt 1999).

• Thai Food Wholesalers in Australia

Although there is no central organisation to advise Thai food wholesalers in Australia, they are implicated as significant participants in the marketing of Thai food to Thai restaurants in Australia. These wholesalers deal directly with Thai restaurant owners in Australia and Thai food wholesalers in Thailand, as well as Thai food manufacturers in Thailand. Therefore, results (see Section 5.5.3) suggest that Thai food wholesalers should take action when notified of any problem passed on to them by Thai restaurant owners/chefs about imported Thai ingredients so that they can improve their products in the future. It is recommended that such findings be reviewed regularly so that adjustments in primary manufacture can be made.

• Thai Restaurants in Australia

Without repeat customers at Thai restaurants, the future of Thai food would not be successful long term. Hence, the sixth group of participants directly implicated in the marketing and in influencing customers to decide to adopt Thai food is the Thai restaurants. A number of practical implications for Thai restaurant owners are considered from the results of Research Questions 1 to 7 (results in Chapters 5, 6, 7, and discussion results in Chapter 8) as follows:

Firstly, implications of inferential analysis using ANOVA (Section 7.1.1 and Section 8.2.1) in relation to results of *demographics* of respondents, suggest that Thai restaurant owners do not need to focus on advertising their restaurants to target markets based on gender, ethnicity or income, because there were no significant differences in the adoption of Thai food between these groups. Instead, it is suggested that they focus on targeting people who are self-employed, professionals, managers, skilled workers or students, because these types of workers dine-out more often at Thai restaurants than others. Also, results (Section 5.3.1, Section 6.1 and Section 7.1.1) revealed that most respondents were aged between 25-44 years. Younger customers (18-24 years), adults approaching middle age (45-54), and older customers (more than 55 years) were underrepresented in this study. Thai restaurant owners need to consider how to tap into this market more forcefully.

Secondly, implications in relation to results of respondents' previous *experience* of eating Thai food using inferential analysis using ANOVA (Section 7.1.2 and Section 8.2.2), revealed that Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, and eating Thai food in Thailand significantly affected customers to dine-out more often at Thai restaurants. Therefore, Thai restaurant owners should understand that Thai people, particularly those who live in Australia, influence their Western friends to eat out for Thai food more often than people who have no Thai friends. Thai restaurant owners should also be aware that experience of eating Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, and eating Thai food in Thailand also influenced their customers to eat out for Thai food more often. Moreover, results of descriptive analysis (Section 6.4.3 and Section 8.2.4) suggest that Thai restaurant owners should be aware that their customers show a greater intention to repeat purchase Thai food when it is authentic. Furthermore, results of inferential analysis (Section 7.4) confirm that customers' experience of having Thai friends, Thai friends' cooking, learning Thai cooking, and eating Thai food

in Thailand encouraged them to repeat purchase Thai food when the food had an authentic Thai taste. It is interesting to consider that Thai restaurants have been familiar to customers in Australia for more than two decades, but results of the descriptive analysis (Section 6.2.2), revealed that only 20.8% of respondents had been eating Thai food in Australia for more than 5 years.

Thirdly, implications in relation to results of respondents' knowledge using ANOVA analysis (Section 7.1.3) revealed that customers who perceived they had higher knowledge of the traditional Thai way of eating Thai food and ways of ordering and eating Thai food, were more likely to eat out for Thai food more often than those who perceived they had moderate and lower knowledge. It is important to assist new customers in learning that the way to eat Thai food should not be to 'take all dishes from a central plate to put on your own plate of steamed rice, then mix all of them before eating', when they order to share with friends. The correct way to eat Thai food is 'to take one Thai dish from a central plate to put on your own plate of steamed rice, then eat before taking another dish from a central plate' (Section 2.1.6). Mixing the food may change its authentic taste to be less delicious and less authentic. However, it is not necessary to change Western customers' behaviour of ordering and eating, because the way they order dishes for their own plate and do not share dishes with their friends does not affect the taste of Thai food. In accordance with a standard multiple regression analysis (Section 7.1.3), knowledge of the authentic appearance of Thai food was the strongest influence on customers choosing to eat out for Thai food. Therefore, it is suggested that Thai restaurant owners need to pay attention to the appearance of dishes before serving them to their customers.

Fourthly, three aspects of need recognition were implicated. The first, results of Maslow' hierarchy of needs from a descriptive analysis (Section 6.4.1), and inferential analysis of ANOVA (Section 7.1.4 and Section 8.2.4), suggest that efficient service, with the 'prompt service we know you're hungry' concept, should be kept in mind. Also, conveying the nutritious and healthy aspects of Thai herbs/ingredients to consumers may require alternative approaches to production and advertising. Enjoyment of a different eating experience of Thai

food should also be promoted. The second aspect, in results from 4Ps marketing mix (Section 6.4.2 and 6.4.3), shows that Thai restaurant owners need to control the standards of **taste and quality** of Thai food and to ensure good aroma, variety, appearance, spiciness, and nutritional value. Value for money and reasonable price are also important for customers in deciding to eat out at a Thai restaurant, as well as convenient location. Promotions such as special discounts, wining a trip to Thailand, and special gifts were not such important factors affecting customers in deciding to eat out for Thai food. However, recommendations from customers' friends who had experienced and been satisfied with Thai food were important in affecting repeat purchase of Thai food (Section 6.4.4). Alternatively, promotions for new Thai restaurants should be through local newspapers or brochures distributed to mail boxes in areas close to the restaurants in their first year of service.

The third aspect, results of the factors affecting respondents' feelings about having authentic Thai food and the effect on them in repeat-purchasing (Section 6.4.4), are of interest to Thai restaurant owners in Australia, giving them a greater understanding of the factors that lead their customers to repeat purchase Thai food. These factors were: customers' recommendation of Thai food to their friends; Thai food had an authentic Thai taste; Thai food was cooked by Thai chefs and Thai restaurant was owned by Thais. Thai restaurant owners need to be aware that their customers would repeat purchase Thai food more often if the dishes had **authentic Thai taste**, were cooked by **Thai chefs**, and the restaurant was **owned by Thais**. These results are similar to the opinions of eight Thai restaurant owners (Section 5.5.5).

Fifthly, implications of results of the descriptive analysis, sources of information (Section 6.5.1, Section 6.5.2, Section 6.8.2), are of interest to Thai restaurant owners in Australia. These revealed that two dominant factors: personal experience (such as Thai restaurant close to customers' house) and recommendation by word-of-mouth (satisfied customers, customers' friends and family) were important for customers in deciding to eat out for Thai food, whereas mass media was not. Most customers (65.3%) had eaten Thai food for

the first time at Thai restaurants in Australia, and first got to know about Thai food and Thai restaurants from their friends. Therefore, it is suggested that Thai restaurant owners need to pay attention to understanding their customers' needs (see the fourth implication mentioned above) in order to keep their customers, rather than spending a lot of money on promotions to attract new customers.

Sixthly, the implications of customers' evaluation of alternatives with other Asian cuisines are of interest to Thai restaurant owners. Results of the descriptive analysis (Section 6.6.1) suggested that **Thai restaurant owners do not have to be worried** even though nearly half (47.4%) of their customers do compare Thai food with other Asian cuisines, because results of an inferential analysis using ANOVA (Section 7.1.6) confirmed that customer evaluation of alternatives with other Asian cuisines did not affect customer adoption of Thai food, or cause them to eat out less often for Thai food. However, it is suggested that customers do expect prices to be comparable to those of other Asian cuisines. **Customers expected to pay for Thai food (excluding beverages) within a price range of A\$6-15 for lunch, and A\$16-25 for dinner**.

Seventhly, implications of the descriptive analysis (Section 6.8.1) of important factors for customers when ordering Thai food for their consumption at Thai restaurants, were that 'Description of Thai dishes' on the menu was very important for customers in ordering Thai food for their consumption at a Thai restaurant. Generally, a description of Thai dishes is already provided by most Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. However, Thai restaurant owners need to provide a clean menu, because a few customers complained and noted on the responses to the survey questionnaires that some restaurants provided a dirty menu, causing them to feel that they did not want to eat Thai food.

Eighthly, implications from results of the descriptive analysis (Section 6.9.3) of customers' likes and dislikes of Thai food, suggested that **Thai restaurants need** to consider more that what their customers most like about Thai dishes are quality ingredients promoting unique taste, flavour, spiciness, variety, fragrance of herbs and curry, healthfulness, and nutritious, fresh vegetables

and meats. The discussion in Section 8.2.4, would suggest that Thai restaurant owners need to understand consumers' perception and acceptance of a food product, that is, what they expected in terms of **appearance**, **flavour** and **texture** as important quality attributes for a food product.

Ninthly, implications in accordance with results of inferential analysis (Section 7.2) using correlations analysis, revealed overall customers' satisfaction with the 4Ps Marketing Mix, showing that product and price are significant in affecting customers' liking for Thai food, intention to repeat purchase for Thai food, and intention to recommend Thai food to their friends.

• Thai Restaurants Association in Australia

Lastly, implications of interest to the organisation involved in furthering the sales of Thai food in Australia, the Thai Restaurant Association, include the fact that promotions such as 'Wining a trip to Thailand' and other marketing promotions were not rated as important by most customers deciding to dine-in at Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. **Significantly, the characteristics of Thai food, price and location of restaurants were considered more important by their customers in making a decision to eat out for Thai food.** This means that it is important to research the opinions of customers to find out what they really think about Thai food and what factors affect them in deciding to adopt Thai food in order to improve marketing plans and persuade new customers to learn about Thai food and try it until they become regular customers in the future. Therefore, practical implications for the Thai Restaurant Association in Australia are to consider the results of research findings in this study to provide practical and valuable understanding about their customers, and so improve the businesses of Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia.

9.3 Limitations to the Study

The results of this study were valuable because this research has drawn upon a wide range of theoretical viewpoints and covered a large, balanced sample size in both restaurant owners and their customers. However, a limitation of this study is in assuming accurate representation of Australia in general (Victoria being a

major state). This research has been limited, in that other states have not been researched. Moreover, there is a limitation in relation to the availability of secondary data from journal articles of similar studies of ethnic food or ethnic restaurants, especially in Australia. As a result, it was difficult to compare results of the current study to other previous studies. This problem has been emphasized by a few researchers. For example, Josiam and Monteiro (2004, p.20) also noted that 'from an academic perspective, despite the increasing interest in ethnic foods, there is very little research in this area of customer perceptions of food and service in ethnic restaurants', Verbeke and Lopez (2005, p.838), in their publications about ethnic food attitudes and behaviour in Belgium, also emphasized that 'the lack of secondary data from similar studies in European countries' was one of the primary limitations of their study results.

9.4 Recommendations for Further Research

Due to the limitations of this study mentioned above there is an opportunity for further research using the 'Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia' (Figure 3.1, p.82), and questionnaires (Appendices 1 and 2), for testing Thai restaurant customers in other states of Australia to compare with this study. As the model and questionnaires were created to fully cover all important stages of consumer decision-making, they can also be used or adapted for researching factors affecting consumers in their adoption of Thai food in other countries. The questionnaire can also be adapted to suit other cuisines (see details in Chapter 3, Section 3.4 and Section 3.5).

In accordance with the experience gained in interviews it is suggested that in further research it is important to interview Thai restaurant owners to obtain information about how they understand their customers.

Interestingly, the researcher's personal experience indicates that Thai people rarely visit Thai restaurants in Victoria, Australia. They prefer to eat out for dinner and lunch for Thai food at only a small number of selected specialist Thai restaurants in Victoria. They consider that the food at Thai restaurants is not authentic because it has been adapted to accommodate overseas tastes. Further research into this area could be helpful to confirm why Thai people rarely to dine in at Thai restaurants. Is this occurring because Thai food in restaurants is expensive, or is it because the tastes of Thai food in Australia are not authentic?

From the discussion of the results in Chapter 8, Section 8.2.8, there may be interesting further research investigating the question 'Would consumers in Victoria or other states of Australia eat Thai food more often than 'Other food' if there were more Thai restaurants operating a home delivery service?'

Considering results of the descriptive analysis in Section 6.2.2 further research may be needed to find out why less than a quarter (20.8%) of respondents have been eating Thai food in Australia for more than five years, even though Thai restaurants have been operating in Australia for more than twenty years. Nearly two-thirds (62.3%) of the respondents have been eating Thai food in Australia for between one to five years. This may be because customers with experience of eating out at Thai restaurants for more than five years had more knowledge of authentic Thai food, so they did not continue eating Thai food at Thai restaurants that adapted the taste to suit Westerners.

Further research conducted among Thai restaurants in Thailand could well reveal an accurate understanding of Western clients' preferences in the eating of authentic Thai dishes. As Thai food has been available in Australia for more than two decades there are different levels of experience of eating Thai food among customers. Customers with a broader experience of eating Thai food tend to choose hotter and spicier foods than those with less exposure. Customers who have had experience of eating Thai food in Thailand, are married to Thais, have Thai friends, have experienced Thai friends' cooking or have learned Thai cooking want to eat more tasty and hot and spicy dishes than they did ten or twenty years ago. These issues are in need of further research to determine whether customers want Thai food to be 'authentic or adapted', or 'authentic by reducing the hot and spicy elements'.

9.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter concludes the thesis by summarizing the results of the seven initial research questions, thereby fulfilling the seven aims as presented in Chapter 1. In accordance with the primary aim of presenting 'A Model of Consumer Decision-Making for the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia', a comprehensive, three part model has been presented. Added to this, theoretical, methodological and practical implications have been given for researchers wishing to investigate customer adoption of Thai food overseas. Limitations to this research and recommendations for further research into the adoption of Thai food overseas have also been given.

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Appendix 1:

Interview Questionnaire and Show Card



Experience Survey

Restaurant name Maxseating capacity: Business hours : Breakfast Lunch Dinner Address :	Type of restaurant :	Date		Time
Address : Tel. Fax Mobile Web-site E-mail address Respondent name :	Restaurant name	÷1	Max.seating capa	ncity:
Tel Fax. Mobile Web-site E-mail address Respondent name : E-mail address PART - A	Business hours : Breakfast Lunch		Dinner	
Web-site	Address :			
Respondent name : PART - A 1. Are you? Owner Owner/Operation Manager Executive Chef Head Chef Chef 2. Have you ever worked for Thai restaurants in any other countries? I'Yes No I'Yes I'Yes I'No 11 Yes I which countries? Owner/Operation Manager Executive Chef Head Chef Chef 3. How long has this Thai restaurant in Australia? years years 4. How long has this Thai restaurant has been in operation? years years 5. Are there any other branches of this restaurant? Yes No I'Yes, where? 6. Who is responsible for menu planning? Owner Owner/Operation Manager Executive Chef Head Chef Chef	TelFax		Mobile	
PART - A I. Are you? Owner Owner/Operation Manager Executive Chef Head Chef Chef 2. Have you ever worked for Thai restaurants in any other countries? I'Yes No No For	Web-site	E-mail addr	ess	
1. Are you? □Owner □Owner/Operation □Manager □Executive Chef □Head Chef □Chef 2. Have you ever worked for Thai restaurants in any other countries? □Yes □No If Yes. In which countries? □Yes □No In which position? □Owner □Owner/Operation □Manager □Executive Chef □Head Chef □Chef 3. How long have you been working for Thai restaurants in Australia?	Respondent name :			
	 Are you? Owner Owner/Operation Manag Have you ever worked for Thai restaurants in any other of If Yes. In which countries? In which position? Owner Owner/Operation How long have you been working for Thai restaurants in How long have you been working for Thai restaurants in How long has this Thai restaurant has been in operation? Are there any other branches of this restaurant? Yes, where? Who is responsible for menu planning? Owner Owner/Operation Manager Executive? Who is responsible for cooking Thai foods? Owner Owner/Operation Manager Executive? What nationality is the chef? Thai What nationality are the waitresses/waiters? Thai What nationality are the waitresses/waiters? Thai How do you describe this restaurant (target groups who Theme or ambience restaurant (target groups who Theme or ambience restaurant (target lower middle mather Family or popular restaurant (target lower middle mather Family or popular restaurant (target lower middle mather Family or popular restaurant have? Less than 50 seats 50-100 seats 101-150 seats How many customers (approximately) come to dine at the Monday customers wednesday customers Thursday customers Have you ever advertised this restaurant? Yes If Yes. Where do you advertise? If Yes. Where do you get your customers to know about y What is your ethnic background? Were you born in Australia? Yes No 	Australia? Australia? Yes 1 e Chef 1 He chef 1 He chef 1 have high in targets the n urket) seats 1 his restauran Friday Saturday Sunday 0 No	□ Yes □ No □ Executive Chef □ No ead Chef □ Chef ead Chef □ Chef ease specify) ease specify) ncomes) niddle market) 51-200 seats □ M t each day? y nt?	Foryears Head Chefyears years years fore than 200 seats customers customers



Part C - About your customers

9. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? (1=Agree, 4=Disagree) (Show card)

a. Customers would eat Thai food more if Thai foods had authentic Thai taste.

b. Customers would eat Thai food more if Thai foods were recommended to them.

. Customers would eat Thai food more if Thai restaurants were recommended to them.

d. Customers would eat Thai food more if Thailand had a positive image for them.

e. Customers would eat Thai food more if they knew more about Thai food.

f. Customers would eat Thai food more if they knew more about Thailand.

g. Customers would eat Thai food more if they knew how to cook Thai food.

10.

Please specify what you think your customers most like about Thai food.	Please specify what you think your customers most dislike about Thai food.

Your customers profile

1.	Approximately what a	are the proportions	of your male and	female customers?
----	----------------------	---------------------	------------------	-------------------

Male____% Female____%

2. Approximately what proportions of your customers are in the following age groups?

18-24 years% 25-34 yea	rs%
------------------------	-----

35-44 years _____% 45-54 years _____%

55-64	vears	%	65 or over	%
	,			

3. Approximately what proportions of different ethnic groups visit this restaurant?

Australian	%	English	%	Irish	%
Italian	%	Greek	%	Chinese	%
Vietnamese	%	Other (please specify)			%

4. Approximately what proportion of customers are repeat customers at your restaurant?_____%

5. Approximately what proportion of your customers have not tried Thai food before?_____%

Next page

	Restaurants		Experience Survey
rt B – About Thai F	<u>voa at your resta</u>	<u>iurant</u>	
1. Do you think Thai food	l should have an auth	entic or adapted taste t	o suit customers in Australia?
1) Authentic	Adapted	Don't know	
2. Do you use authentic Th	hai recipes?		
[] Yes	🗆 No	🗋 Don't know	
3. How do you describe the	e Thai foods offered b	y your restaurant?	
Adapted taste to suit control	ustomers in Australia (go to Question 4)	□ Authentic Thai taste (go to Question 5)
4. Why do you think Thai	dishes should be adap	oted to suit customers in	n Australia?
		- Line of - Line T	
e - Miller de com el bole (Char)	·		
5. Why do you think That	dishes should have a	n authentic Thai taste f	or customers in Australia?
6. How do you decide wh	at dishes to offer on y	our menu?	
7. Do you think that Thai	food has an imaga?		
,		No (go to PART-C, ques	stion 1)
Yes (go to question)	(uon 8)	NO(gO(O(FAK)),Ques)	
· ··· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	4		
8. How would you describ	e that image?		
			Next pag

Experience Survey

2. Where do you think your customers first got to know your restaurant? (Indicate as per show card) 3. Which Asian foods do you think your customers would make a comparison with Thai food? (Indicate as per show card) 4. How do your customers order Thai dishes at your restaurant? (Indicate as per show card) 5. What do you think is the price your customers expect to pay for a whole meal (excluding beverage)? a. Thai food for Dreakfast \$ b. Thai food for Dinner \$ c. Thai food for Dinner \$ c. Thai food for Dinner \$ c. Thai food characteristics b. Price of Dinner \$ c. Convenient location of Thai restaurant customers in making a decision to eat Thai food at your restaurant? (Indicate as per show card) 7.1 and 7.2 What factors are important to your customers in making a decision to eat Thai food at your restaurant? (Indicate as per show card) 8. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? (I=Agree, 4=Disagree) (Show card) a. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is served by Thai waitresses/waiters b. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef. C. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is cooked by a Thai set. 3. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai exsuurant is owned by Thais. 3. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai exsuurant is owned by Thais. 3. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai exsuurant is owned by Thais. 3. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai exsuurant is decorated in Thai style.	. Where do you think your customers first got to know about Thai food? (Indicate as per show card)	
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 a. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is served by Thai waitresses/waiters b. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef. c. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai restaurant is owned by Thais. 		estaurant?
	a. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is served by Thai waitresses/waiters b. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef.	
	c. Customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if Thai restaurant is owned by Thais.	



Experience Survey

	v many entrée dishes do you have on the menu?		disnes
2. Plea	ase identify the 5 most popular entrée dishes order	red by your cust	omers.
No.	1	No.2	
No.	3	No.4	
No.	5	_	
3. H	ow many main course dishes do you have on the m	uenu?	dishes
4. Ple	ase identify the 5 most popular main course dishes	s ordered by you	ır customers.
No	1	No.2	
No	.3	No.4	
No	.5	-	
5 Ho	w many dessert dishes do you have on the menu?		dishes
	ease identify the 5 most popular dessert dishes ord		
	.1		
INO	.5		
	,		



Experience Survey

Part E – Your opinion about Thai Food in Australia
1. Do you think your customers' preferences about Thai food have changed over the past five years?
If Yes, in which ways?
2. What do you think are the best ways to persuade more people in Australia to get to know about
Thai food and eat more Thai food in the future?
3. In what ways do you think Thai food manufacturing in Thailand can help Thai restaurants overseas?
Next page



Experience Survey

Part E – Your opinion about Thai Food in Australia
4. In what ways do you think the Thai Government can help Thai restaurants overseas?
5. Is there anything else that you would like to say for making Thai food better known to foreigners
in the future?

Thank you for your co-operation

<u>Part C – About your customers</u>

- 1. Where do you think your customers first got to know about Thai food?
- 2. Where do you think your customers first got to know about your restaurant?

From :

- 1. Thai friends
- 2. Friends
- 3. Colleagues
- 4. Neighbours
- 5. Family/Relatives
- 6. Personal experience
- 7. Persons who are satisfied with Thai food
- 8. Persons who work in Thai restaurants
- 9. Thai cooking book
- 10. Brochures from Thai restaurant
- 11. Food magazine
- 12. Newspaper
- 13. Yellow pages
- 14. Television
- 15. Radio
- 16. Internet
- 17. Other (please specify)

Part C – About your customers

3. Which Asian foods do you think your customers would make a comparison with Thai food?

- 1. Chinese food
- 2. Malaysian food
- 3. Vietnamese food
- 4. Indian food
- 5. Japanese food
- 6. Indonesian food
- 7. Korean food
- 8. Other (please specify)

Part C - About your customers

4. How do your customers order Thai dishes at your restaurant?

- 1. Recommended by waitresses or waiters
- 2. Recommended by an owner
- 3. Recommended by friends
- 4. Picture of Thai dishes
- 5. Name of Thai dishes
- 6. Description of Thai dishes
- 7. Other (please specify)

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Part C – About your customers

5. What do you think is the price your customers expect to pay for a whole meal (excluding beverage)?

· · ·
1. Thai food for Breakfast §
2. Thai food for Lunch \$
3. Thai food for Dinner \$

Part C – About your customers

6. Please rank (1-4) the following in order of importance when your customers decide to dine out at your restaurant.

- 1. Thai food characteristics
- 2. Price of Thai food
- 3. Convenient location of Thai restaurants
- 4. Special promotion

Part C – About your customers

7.1 What factors are important to your customers in making a decision to eat Thai food at your restaurant?

- 1. They are hungry
- 2. Thai food is nutritious & healthy
- 3. Thai food is fashionable
- 4. They want to socialise
- 5. They want different eating experience

7.2 What factors are important to your customers in making a decision to eat Thai food at your restaurant?

- 1. Quality of Thai food
- 2. Portion size
- 3. Variety of Thai food
- 4. Spiciness of Thai food
- 5. Nutritional value of Thai food
- 6. Appearance of Thai food
- 7. Aroma of Thai food
- 8. Taste of Thai food
- 9. Reasonable price
- **10. Value for money**
- 11. Convenient location
- 12. Decorated restaurant in Thai style
- 13. Special promotion
- 14. Other (please specify)

Part C - About your customers

8. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

Your customers would feel they had authentic Thai food if:

1. Thai food is served by Thai waitresses/waiters

2. Thai food is cooked by a Thai chef

- 3. Thai restaurant is owned by Thais
- 4. Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style

9. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

Your customers would eat Thai food more if:

- 1. Thai food had authentic Thai taste
- 2. Thai food were recommended to them
- 3. Thai restaurants were recommended to them
- 4. Thailand had a positive image for them
- 5. They knew more about Thai food
- 6. They knew more about Thailand
- 7. They knew how to cook Thai food

Appendix 2:

Survey Questionnaire

Delivery Address: PO Box 14428 MELBOURNE CITY MC VIC 8001



Thai Food Experience Survey

Internal Mail Address: Pannakarn Leepaiboon Victoria Graduate School of Business Room 1058 Level 10 200 Flinders Street Campus

եկարեր կերեր կերերությունը կերեր

Victoria University of Technology Victoria Graduate School of Business Pannakarn Leepaiboon Reply Paid 14428 MELBOURNE CITY MC VIC 8801 PO Box 14428 Melbourne City MC 8001 Australia Telephone: (03) 9688 4000 Facsimile: (03) 9689 4069



Thai Food

Experience Survey

5 December 2003

Dear Sir/Madam

I am currently undertaking Ph.D. studies at Victoria University and am investigating the adoption of Thai Food in Australia.

It would be much appreciated if you could spend a few minutes to fill in the "*Thai Food Experience Survey*" attached questionnaire.

If you have any suggestions in relation to this "*Thai Food Experience Survey*" in Australia I would be pleased to hear about them.

If you have any queries in relation to this survey, please contact me on Tel. 9248 1078 Mobile 0422 801363 (Monday to Friday) or my supervisor, Associate Professor Linda Roberts on Tel. 9248 1320.

Your assistance in this matter is much appreciated and will assist Thai restaurants in gaining a better understanding of customer opinion of Thai Food in Australia.

Yours sincerely,

Pannakarn Leepaiboon Ph.D. Candidate Victoria University E-mail: <u>Pannakarn.Leepaiboon@research.vu.edu.au</u>

NOTE : You may take this questionnaire to fill in at home. Could you please return this questionnaire in the reply paid envelope provided. I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for your time.

<i>T</i> /	ai Foo	od 🦉		xperien	ce Sur	vey		
1. Have you ever eaten Thai I	rood in Thai	land?	🗆 Yes	□ No (please go	to question 2			
If Yes. How many times app	proximately?	□ Less than :		□21-50 □51-	•	e than 100	h	
2. Have you ever eaten Thai I	-							uection 6
If Yes. How many times app								destion ()
						re than 10	0	
3. How long have you been ea	About a							
About a week		2-3 months		ut 4-6 months		More than Other (spe	-	
4. How satisfied were you wi						·		ne number)
Extremely Satisfied :								
5. The last time I ate Thai Foo				,,,,	L		icly Dis	satisticu
A few days ago	A mont			months ago		More than	-	ago
A week ago		nths ago		l months ago		Other (spe	<u> </u>)
6. Before you decided to eat 7						′es □No	(go to d	question 7)
If Yes, please √ those Asian								
Chinese Food		nese Food		inese Food		Korean Fo		
Malaysian Food	Indian I			onesian Food		Other (spe	ciry	
7. The first time I ate Thai Fo		ase v only one		n my Thai friends	cooked Thai E	iood for me		
At a Thai restaurant in Thailar				n my parents cool				
At a Thai restaurant overseas				n I learned how to	o cook Thai Fo	od		
At an Asian restaurant in Aust		11		er (please specify)			1. 7. 2	
8. I first got to know about T	hai Food Iro		the are satisfied	with Thei Food	(m) Vall		Calanhar	ne Directory)
(b) Friends			who work in Tha		(n) Tele		retephot	ie Directory)
(c) Colleagues		(i) Thai Cook			(0) Rad			
(d) Neighbours (e) Family/Relatives		(J) Brochures (k) Food mag	from Thai resta	urant	(p) Inte (a) Oth	rnet er (please s	pecify)	
(f) Personal experience		(l) Newspape				(1		
9. I first got to know about th	is Thai resta	urant from : (please select t	ne answer from c	uestion 8)			
10. The traditional Thai way								
To take one Thai dish from a	central plate to	put on your own	plate of steame	d rice, then eat be	fore taking and	other Thai a	lish fron	1 a central
To take <i>all Thai dishes</i> from a	central plate to	o put on your ow	n plate of steam	ed rice, then mix a	II of them befo	re eating.		
11. The traditional Thai way								
Thai Food is eaten with chops				i Food is eaten wi		a fork		
Thai Food is eaten with a spo			Tha	i Food is eaten wi	th only a fork			
12. Please rate your own bac	kground kn	owledge about	the tradition	al Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	r Very Poor
Thai Food. (please √ only	one box for one traditional	way of ordering	Thai Food	0000				
		way of eating Th						
	The traditional	Thai dish names						
		<i>uppearance</i> of Th <i>aroma</i> of Thai Fo						
		aste of Thai Food						
13. How important are the fo	llowing whe	n you order Tl	hai dishes at t	he restaurant?	(please √ onl	y one box	for eacl	1 item)
	Extremely	Very	Somewhat		Somewhat	Ver	-	Extremely
	Important	Important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Unimpo	ortant	Unimportant
Recommended by a waitress Recommended by an owner								
Recommended by an owner Recommended by friends		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						
Picture of Thai dishes								
Name of Thai dishes Description of Thai dishes								
			· · · · ·					N

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Thai Food

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Experience Survey

14. Who did you come with today	/? (please √ or	nly one b	pox)						
Only myself My partner	My far	nily/relati	ves	My friends		ther (please s	pecify)		
15. Reasons for dining out for Th	ai Food toda	y? (you	may √			(prode t			
Regular weekly dine-out with fa	amily	To ex	perien	ce Thai Food		Busines	s meeting		
Regular weekly dine-out with fr				how to cook	Thai Food			promotion	
Special occasions e.g.Birthday,				want to cook		+	olease special	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
16. How important are the follow									
						tood: (please	\sim only one	$\frac{1}{2}$ box for each $\frac{1}{2}$,
Eating Thai Food because :	Extremely Important	Ver Import		Somewhat Important	Neutral	Somewhat Unimportar			Extremely Inimportant
1 am hungry									
Thai Food is nutritious &healthy I want to socialise									
Thai Food is fashionable			12-12						
I want a different eating experience									
L									
17. How important are the follow	ving sources a	of inform	nation	when you ma	ike a decisio	n to eat Tha	i Food?		
(please √ only one box for each item)	Extremely Important	Ver Import		Somewhat Important	Neutral	Somewhat Unimportan		2	Extremely nimportant
(a) Thai Friends				_					
(b) Friends									
(c) Colleagues						(2000)			
(d) Neighbours									
(e) Family/Relatives						·			
(f) Personal experience		_							
(g) Persons who are satisfied with Thai Food									
(b) Persons who work in Thai restaurants									
(i) Thai Cooking book									
(j) Brochure (Thai restaurant)			_						
(k) Food magazine									
(l) Newspaper									
(m) Yellow pages									
(n) Television									
(o) Radio									
(p) Internet									
(q) Other (specify)									
18. Please rank the 5 most import	rtant sources	of infor	mation	from questio	n 17.				
No.1No.2	N	lo.3		No.4		No.:	5		
19. I frequently search for inform	mation for di	ning out	from:	(please $\sqrt{\text{onl}}$	y one box)				
Other people (e.g. Thai frie	ends, friends,	family)		lass media (e.	.g. food maga	azines, news	papers, Tel	levision. In	iternet)
20. In general, when I eat out th									
pay for a whole meal (exclue	ding beverag	es) is :	1 to 5		11 to 15	16 to 20	21 to 25	26 to 30	30+
(please $$ only one box on the sca			(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)
Thai Food 1	for Breakfast							<u> </u>	4
Thai Food 1	for Lunch								
Thai Food									
	for Breakfast					<u> </u>			
Other food						1			
Other food 1						†			
21. Please rank (1-4) the following		f import	ance w	hen you deci	de to dine o	ut for Thai	Food.		
Thai Food characteristics								- 	
Price of Thai Food									
Convenient location of Th	ai restaurants						-		
Special promotion									
							<u></u>		

Thai Food

Experience Survey

22. How often do you do the fol	lowing? (plea	se √ only one	e box on the sc	ale for each it	tem)			
	Every day	A few times a week	Once a week	Once a month	Once ev 2-3 mor		Never	Other (please
Eat out for Thai Food (Breakfast	t)							specify)
Eat out for Thai Food (Lunch)								
Eat out for <i>Thai Food</i> (Dinner)			<u> </u>					
Eat out for other Food (Breakfas	t)							
Eat out for other Food (Lunch)								
Eat out for other Food (Dinner)								
Cook Thai Food at home								
Eat Take away <i>Thai Food</i>								
Eat Home delivery <i>Thai Food</i>								
Cook at home (not Thai Food)								
Eat Take away (not Thai Food)								
Eat Home delivery (not Thai Foc	od)							
Eat out for sociable reasons								
Eat out for business needs								
Eat out with <i>family/relatives</i>								
Eat out with <i>friends</i>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>					
Eat out with <i>colleagues</i>			╡────┤					
Eat out with <i>neighbours</i>								
×			••••					
23. How important are the follo				at Thai Food			r	
	Extremely Important	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Neutral	Somew Unimpor		Very mportant	Extremely unimportant
Quality of Thai Food								
Portion size								
Variety of Thai Food								
Spiciness of Thai Food								
Nutritional value of Thai Food								
Appearance of Thai Food								
Aroma of Thai Food								
Taste of Thai Food								
Reasonable price								
Value for money				_				
Convenient location							_	
Decorated restaurant in Thai style								
Win a trip to Thailand								
Special gifts from Thai restaurant								
Special discount period								
24. Please indicate how much ye	ou agree or d	isagree with	the following	statements.	(please √ oi	nly one box	for each ite	em)
		Strongly		Slightly		Slightly		Strongly
I would feel I had authentic Th	ai Food if :	Agree	Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree	
Thai Food is served by a Thai waitre	ess/waiter	-						
Thai Food is cooked by a Thai ch								
Thai restaurant is owned by Thai								
Thai restaurant is decorated in Th								
Waitress/waiter wear a traditiona	-							-
I would eat Thai Food more if		-						
Thai Foods had authentic Thai ta								
Thai Foods were recommended t							+	
Thai restaurants were recommended to								
Thailand had a positive image for								-
I A MARIANA HAA A PUSHIYU IIIAgu IU	1110						+	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·								
I knew more about Thai Food								
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·								

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Thai Food

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25. How satisfied have you been	Extremely	Very	Some					
	Satisfied	Satisfied	Some		Neutral	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfie	d Extremely
Quality of Thai Food								
Portion size								
Variety of Thai Food								
Spiciness of Thai Food								
Nutritional value of Thai Food		_						
Appearance of Thai Food							1	
Aroma of Thai Food	ļ							
Reasonable price								
Convenient location			<u> </u>					
Decorated restaurant in Thai style							-	
Promotion: Win a trip to Thailand			·					
Special gifts from Thai restaurant								
Special discount period								
6. Considering your whole ear	ting experience	ce, please rate	how yo	u like T	hai Food. (p	lease circle of	nly one numb	er)
Like Extremely :	76	5	4 (N	veutral)_	3	2	_1 : Dislike	Extremely
Any other comment								
What you like most	t about Thai l	Food			What you	dislike most a	bout Thai F	ood
				·				
7. Would you recommend Thai Fo	ood to your frie	nds? (please \sqrt{a}	only one	box)				
Definitely would recommend		Might or might				Definitely w	ould not recon	nmend
Probably would recommend		Probably woul	d not reco	ommend				
8. Would you eat/buy Thai Food i	n the future? (p	olease √ only one	e box)					
Definitely would eat/buy Thai Fo	bod	Might or might	t not eat/l	buy Thai	Food	Definitely w	ould not eat/bu	ıy Thai Food
Probably would eat/buy Thai Foo		Probably woul		'buy Thai	Food			
9. When will you eat/buy Thai Fo			ox)	□ Neve				
Next few days Next w	eek	Next month		Next 2	-3 months	Next 4-6	months	After 6 month
30. Do you have any Thai friends?] No	37		•	alification :	-	•
31. Have Thai friends ever cooked	Thai Foods for	r you?				□ Bachelor deg	-	er degree
\Box Yes \Box No.					oral degree	□ Other (speci		
32. Have you ever learnt Thai coo	king? 🗆 Yes	🗆 No	38	8. My oc	cupation : 🗆	Student 🗆 Ac	lministration	🗆 Manager
If Yes. Where did you learn? (sp	pecify)		-	🗆 Profe	essional 🗆 S	killed worker	□ Unskilled	worker
33. Are you? : 🗆 Male 🗆 Fen	nale			□ Self	employed 🗆 🤇	Other (specify)_		
34. Were you born in Australia? [∃Yes (go to Que	estion 36) \Box N	0 39). My an	nual income fi	rom all sources	s before tax (A	\\$):
35. How many years have you bee	n in Australia?			🗆 Less	than 25.000	□ 25,000	-39,999	□ 40,000-54.99
□ Less than 1 year □ 1-5 yea	ars □ 6-1	0 years		□ 55,00	0-69,999	□ 70,000	-84,999	□ 85,000-99.99
□ 11-15 years □ 16-20 :	years 🗆 Mo	ore than 20 years	;	□ 100.0	00-149,999	□ More	than 150.000	
36. My ethnic background : 🗆 Aus	stralian 🛛 En	glish 🛛 Irish	40). My ag	e group (years	s): 🗆 18-24	□ 25-34	□ 35-44
□ Italian □ Greek □ Chin		tnamese				□ 45-54	□ 55-64	□ 65 or over
□ Other (please specify)								
= outer (preuse speerid)		-	-					

Thank you for your co-operation.....

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Appendix 3:

Restaurateurs' Opinion about Thai Food

and

Factors Affecting their Customers in the Adoption of Thai Food

Summa Respondents No.	Summary Results Thai Food should be an 'Authentic or Adapted' in AustraliaRespondentsType A 'Fully Adapted'No.Thai Food should be adapted	nentic or Adapted' in AustraliaType B 'Modified Authentic'Thai Food should be adapted	Type C 'Truly Authentic' Thai Food should be authentic to Australia
	by reducing 'hot and spicy' or adding 'sweet' because:	by reducing only 'hot and spicy' because:	because:
	N.A.	N.A.	Customers have experienced Thai Food when visiting Thailand. If they do not experience the real Thai taste they have come to love, they will be disappointed and not come back to that restaurant.
2	Almost 98% of customers are western. Westerners cannot eat a 100% authentic Thai taste because it is too strong. We learn from our customers how to adapt the taste.	N.A.	N.A.
m	N.A.	I think Thai Food should be adapted by reducing only hot spice because most westerners cannot eat authentic and hot spice food as in Thailand.	N.A.
4	Customers in Australia prefer sweetened taste. Westerners cannot eat a 100% authentic Thai taste because it is too spicy for them. I found that Thai Foods in Thai restaurants in Australia were sweetened so 1 followed them.	N.A.	N.A.
5 6	N.A. I think it is adapted taste to suit customers. Thai Food	Thai Food should be authentic but it needs to reduce the hot spice. N.A.	N.A. N.A.
C	at this restaurant is not a real authentic Thai taste. N.A.	These days many customers are travelling to Thailand, the expect Thai Food to taste the same when they visit Thai restaurants in Australia. We remain to cook the original Thai Food as in Thailand but reducing only hot spice.	N.A.

Appendix 3.1 A Matrix Content Analysis

Type C Thai Food should be authentic to Australia because:	N.A.	Thai main menu offers a variety of authentic Thai dishes targeting the overseas Thai student customer.	Y.A.	N.A.		N.N.	N.A.	N.A.
Type B Thai Food should be adapted by reducing only 'hot and spicy' because:	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Customers prefer Thai Food to have an authentic tastes with reduced hot spice and also less sweetened taste.	Thai Food in this restaurant is real authentic and tasty, but it's not too spicy. Personally I really like the taste of authentic Thai Food. Westerners know more about authentic Thai Food and like Thai taste is different and tasty than their cuisines.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Type A Thai Food should be adapted by reducing 'hot and spicy' or adding 'sweet' because:	Western people prefer a sweet taste and curry dishes sweetened and thickened with coconut cream rather than salty. We add sugar to reduce the hot spice flavour.	Menu in English offers Thai Food adapted to suit western customers.	An authentic Thai taste is too hot for westerners. New customers are scared of hot spice giving them stomach-ache. Ten years ago Australians didn't like to try spicy food, however nowadays they're more likely to try.	N.A.	N.A.	Because we use canned coconut imported from Thailand. I believe that westerners prefer sweetened taste with reduced hot spice because customers prefer to order the sweetened taste dishes.	Thai Food should be adapted to the taste of customers (not too spicy).	Thai Food in Australia cannot be authentic taste when we use canned curry and coconut imported from Thailand.
Respondents No.	×	6	10	-	12	2	14	15

Decondents	Tune A	TD	Tune
No	Thai Food should be adapted	Thei Ecod should be adouted	Their Early should be sufferentic to Australia
	by reducing 'hot and spicy' or adding 'sweet'	by reducing only 'hot and spicy'	I hat rood should be addivine to rush and because:
	because:	because:	
16	We believe that westerners don't like hot spice and	N.A.	N.A.
	other I hal ingredients because they are not used to.		
2	N.A.	authentic Thai Food as in Thailand is too hot and spicy. Regular customers like Thai Food at this restaurant because it is	N.A.
		quite similar to 1 hai Food in 1 hailand, only the taste is not strong and not as spicy.	
18	To please customers the taste needs to be medium,	N.A.	N.A.
	not too spicy. These days western customers know		
	more about Thai Food and are able to eat more		
	spicy, but they cannot eat the food as spicy as Thai		
	people in Thailand.		
19	Western customers cannot eat authentic Thai taste-Thai	N.A.	N.A.
	dishes. They cannot eat hot and spicy food as Thais do.		
	Rarely western customers ask for a real authentic Thai		
	taste.		
20	It is impossible to cook real authentic Thai Food in	N.A.	N.A.
	Australia because Thai chefs come from different parts		
	of Thailand. We have to cook Thai dishes to taste in a		
	way that most western customers can eat, not only for		
	Thai customers. Here we have more western customers		
	than Thais.		
21	Thai restaurant should adapt taste and spice to suit their customers in Australia.	N.A.	N.A.
6	NA	NA	These days Australian have known about Thai Food for
1			over 20 years. Many Australians have travelled and had experience of Thai Food in Thailand, they ask for authentic Thai dishes as in Thailand. They prefer
			I hai Food in Thailand more than in Australia.

Respondents		Type B	Type C
No	Thai Food should be adapted	Thai Food should be adapted	Thai Food should be authentic to Australia
	by reducing 'hot and spicy' or adding 'sweet'	by reducing only 'hot and spicy'	because:
	because:	because:	
23	N.A.	These days, western customers know more	N.A.
		about Thai Food because many Australian	
		e	
		Thailand. They prefer to eat authentic Thai	
		Food as in Thailand rather than food with	
		an adapted taste. They also ask me whether	
		I can cook the authentic Thai Food the same	
		as they experienced in Thailand.	
		I believe that some western customers	
		cannot eat Thai Food as hot and spicy as	
		Thais do.	
24	Thai Food in Australia should be adapted by reducing	N.A.	N.A.
	the hot spicies. We do not sell Thai Food for Thai		
	people in Australia. Thai customers rarely dine-in Thai		
	restaurants in Australia because the taste has been		
	modified or they can cook by themselves.		
	The taste should be western style. In my restaurant		
	customers need to request which taste they prefer.		
	Many Australian have travelled and tried Thai Food in		
	Thailand, they want to experience an authentic Thai taste		
	like the Thai Food they had in Thailand.		
25	I reduce the spicy flavour because westerners can't eat	N.A.	N.A.
	food as hot and spicy as Thais do. The taste should		
	not be as strong as the Thais eat. I increase the sweet		
	taste because westerners are used to Chinese Food and		
	the most popular Chinese dishes are sweet.		
	Chinese Food has been in Australia for a longer time		
	than Thai Food. Western customers who have travelled		
	in Thailand for a short period, they prefer an adapted		
	Thai taste rather than the authentic Thai taste as in		
	Thailand. If western customers have lived in Thailand		
	for a long time or married Thais, they prefer the authentic		
	Thai taste as in Thailand.		-

		Tvne R	Type C
Kespondents No.	<u>-</u>	Thai Food should be adapted	Thai Food should be authentic to Australia
	by reducing 'not and spicy' or adding 'sweet because:	by reducing only not and spicy because:	
26	We believe that the Thai Food should be adapted to	N.A.	N.A.
	taste not as strong as Thais eat by reducing the hot spice. However, the taste should be a balanced Thai blend.		
27	N.A.	Thai Food should have an authentic taste	N.A.
ì		because western customers prefer the tasty,	
		authentic cuisine. Normally, I cook medium	
		spicy levels if customers have not specified	
		how much spice they want. We have a few	
		western customers who order 'Thai hot' as	
		in Inailand.	
28	I believe that Thai Food in Australia should reduce the	N.A.	N.A.
-	strong taste, especially the chilli. Western customers		
	cannot eat hot spice. Many customers do not know		
	the trully authentic Thai taste because they have never		
	been to Thailand.		
29	I think the taste should not be too strong and the spice	N.A.	N.A.
	should be reduced. Also, Thai Food should not be too		
	sweet because it is 'Food', not 'Dessert'. However, many		
	chefs in Thai restaurants are cooking food that is more		
	sweet than Thai people eat because they think western		
	desserts are sweeter than Thai desserts.		
30	In my opinion the taste of Thai Food should not be too	N.A.	N.A.
	strong for western customers. More than 50% of our		
	customers have never eaten 'Thai hot' as in Thailand.		
	Thai hot' may be 'medium hot' for Thai people in		
	Thailand. If customers do not order 'Thai hot', the chef		
	will only cook 'medium' for them		
	2. 2003/04). So and Some interview directionnaire Part B-Ouestion 1, 3, 4 and 5 (2003/04).	, 4 and 5 (2003/04).	

. Ŀ Source: Data drawn from interview questionnaire Part B-Question 1, 3, 2 N.A. = Not Applicable.

How do you decide what dishes to offer on your menu?	your	. me	,nu:	\sim																									
Based on		2	3 4	4	9	<u> </u>	8	6	10	11	12 13 14 15 16 17	13 1	41	5 1	6 1	7 18	8 15	18 19 20	21	22	23.	24	25	22 23 24 25 26 27		28	29 3	30	(%) N
popular dishes from central of Thailand	` `~	-	$\overline{\mathbf{h}}$	~	~	2		~			>		Ś	~	~		7	>				>	>	>			-	-	18 (60.0)
experience from other Thai restaurants			2	<u></u>		7			>		>			<		~	~			$\overline{}$	>		>		>	>		-	12 (40.0)
Thai dishes which I like to eat and I can cook										\geq	7									7	>			-					4 (13.3)
traditional recipes					~						>								7										3 (10.0)
dishes that do not take a long time to prepare							$^{\backslash}$						٢						>							-	-		3 (10.0)
special menu for seasons								$^{>}$							7							~			-				3 (10.0)
popular dishes from north east of Thailand								$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	_			,	7												-				2 (6.7)
popular dishes from north of Thailand									$\overline{}$			·	~								-								2 (6.7)
Thai dishes that cannot found in Australia	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$							\checkmark																					2 (6.7)
Three types: curry, Thai salad, stir-fry dishes	` 	~																							-				1'(3.3)
adapted taste to suit western customers								\mathbf{i}																				Ì	1 (3.3)
friends who experts in Thai cooking.										_					$\overline{\mathbf{A}}$													Ì	1 (3.3)
meals to suit family or office workers			-+		•	-													\geq									<u>`</u>	1 (3.3)
chefs																					\geq								1 (3.3)
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part B-Question 6 (2003/04	aire, P	art	Ч	iues	tion	6 (2	003	/04)																					

Appendix 3.2 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis

 \checkmark (items provided by respondents).

N (number of respondents)

Appendix 3.3 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis The Image of Thai Food in Australia	g Ch alia	lec	klis	it A	nal	ysi	S																							
Items	1 2	3	4	5	9	2	ω	თ	10	11	12 1	13 1	14 1	15 1	16 1	17	18 1	19 2	20 21	1 22	2 23	3 24	t 25	5 26	127	28	29	30	(%) N	
A: Characteristics of Thai Food		-	┡																											
hot and spicy	>	7	1	~				\mathbf{h}	7	<u>.</u>	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	ν ν	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	/	/	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$		7	\geq	~	~	\geq	24 (80.0)	0
strong taste/tasty/unique taste			\geq	~				\geq		~				Ż		$\overline{\lambda}$		·	\		\geq					~		\geq	10 (33.3)	3)
Thai herbs as flavour and healthy	7 7				<u> </u>	~		~		~			<u> </u>	~									\geq			>			9 (30.0)	()
balanced taste (sweet/sour/salty/spicy)	7									>				~		$\overline{\mathbf{\lambda}}$							\geq	\geq				>	7 (23.3)	<u>(</u>
appearance		7	-	7									ļ																2 (6.7)	
sweet												>		Ļ	$\overline{}$														2 (6.7)	
distinctive aroma				~																									1 (3.3)	$\widehat{\mathbf{x}}$
B: Popular Thai dishes													┝╌┤	╞─┤	$\left - \right $			-								_				
Tom Yum Goong					\checkmark		$\overline{}$	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$		~	7									_	~	~							8 (26.7)	
Green Curry					\geq		\geq			>						_						>							4 (13.3)	<u>(</u>)
Pad Thai noodles					$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$		~						_	-							_								2 (6.7)	
Khao Pad (Thai fried-rice)					$\overline{\mathbf{z}}$									-			_	_	_										1 (3.3)	
C: Thai Ingredients										-1		-	\rightarrow		\dashv			-+	_		_								- !	
coriander																				~		~		\square					2 (6.7)	
lemon grass														_						~		\geq							2 (6.7)	
coconut				 		•		$\overline{}$				-					_												1 (3.3)	
curry											~		-		-	_													1 (3.3)	
D: Others										-1			-	-	-		-+		_		4									
Thailand and Thai culture				_									~						:			$ \rightarrow $			>		>		3 (10.0)	<u></u>
high price								~			-					-											_		1 (3.3)	
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part B-Question 8 an	tionnai	je.	Part	Ē	Sauce	stion	8 ai	nd 9	id 9 (2003/04)	03/C	4)																			

 $\sqrt{({\rm items\ provided\ by\ respondents})}.$ N (number of respondents). טוכה. המומ

A Matric Content Analysis	icy' (positive/negative)
ric	spi
Vat	t and spicy'
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6 D	Ĕ
ppendix 3.4	he Image of 'hot

No comment	Υ.Υ Υ.Υ	N.A.	N.A.	Hot spice is the image of Thai Food.		N.A.	Υ.Υ Ζ	N.A.	Thai Food is hot and spicy.	Thai Food is hot and spicy.
Not Good image	Ϋ́Υ	N.A.	Hot and spicy is not good image for Thai Food.	N.A.		N.A.	A.A	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Good image but	Υ.Υ Υ	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	However, we should tell customers that every Thai dishes are not hot and spicy.	N.A.	The image of Thai Food is hot spice. Most westerners who are new to Thai Food they would think all Thai dishes are hot. We should tell customers that there are more than 50% of Thai dishes are not hot.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Respondents Good image No.	Customers should realise that real authentic taste of Thai curry dishes should be hot spice. The taste of curry dishes are not be delicious if they are not hot.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	It is good image because western foods are not hot so it's different to their foods.	Z.A.	₹ Z	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Respondents No.	-	2	e	4	2	Q	2	ω	ດ	10

Respondents	Good image	Good image but	Not Good image	No comment
	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
12	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Thai Food is hot and spicy. Westerners would think that all Thai dishes are spicy.
13	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Thai Food is hot nd spicy.
41	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	The word 'spicy' is neither positive nor negative because most customers already have intend to
				eat spicy when they decide to dine in Thai restaurants. However, they may order different levels of spice.
15	N.A.	N.A.	The word 'spicy' is disadvantage for Thai Food because we can target only people who want to eat hot dishes. We cannot target children markets.	N.A.
16	Ϋ́.Υ	N.A.	I think Thai Food needs to reduce hot spices. Most customers think that Thai Food has only hot dishes.	N.A.
17	I think the words of hot, spicy and tasty are good image for Thai Food because they are different taste to other cuisines. Customers who have eaten Thai Food would not like Japanese food because the taste is too bland for them.	N.A.	Υ.Υ.	Ч Z

								_		
No comment	Č Z	A. Z	Hot and chilli are the image of Thai Food.	Ϋ́.	Chilli is the image of Thai Food.	N.A.	There are variety of Thai Foods. Some of them are not hot.	N.A.	Hot and spicy is the image of Thai Food.	Hot and spicy is the image of Thai Food.
Not Good image	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Ч. Х	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Good image but	Hot and spicy is already a simbol of Thai Food. It is good image for Thai Food but it should classify hot and spicy into three levels: mild; medium; and hot. Most westerners who have never tried Thai Food would think all Thai dishes are hot and spicy. Actually, some Thai dishes are not hot and spicy.	N.A.	N.A.	The word 'hot and spicy' is good image but the target market can be small too. Because children and elderly people cannot eat hot dishes. We should promote to Australians to know that some Thai dishes are not hot.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Υ.Α.
Good image	Υ.Α.	The image of hot curry and hot Thai Food is good. Most customers dine in Thai restaurants because they want to eat something is spicy and hot.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Respondents No.	7	6	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27

-			
No comment	spicy	N.A.	N.A.
Not Good image	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Good image but	N.A.	We need to tell western customers to know that some Thai Food are not hot.	N.A.
Good image	N.A.	N.A.	30 The image of hot and spicy is good.
Respondents No.	28	59	30

Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire Part B-Questions 8 and 9 (2003/04) N.A. = Not Applicable

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Appendix 3.5 A Data Accounting Checkli	٢
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Customers Profile

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Items	:	-	Z	S	4	n	ο	~	0	ת	2	_	- - -	t 1	2	-		-	2	2 V	- 1	_	_	t V				_	-	2	(0/)
Gender											_												-			+		+		_	-
Female = male				~	7		~			~	~	>	7	>	\geq		~	\geq					$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$			$\mathbf{>}$		$^{\prime}$	γ		(50.0)
Female > male		>	~			>		7	>			L	~						$^{>}$	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	$^{\mathbf{\lambda}}$		$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$			V			١	(43.3)
Female < male																$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$									$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$						(6.7)
Age Groups											-			_									_								
35-44 years	(%)	10	50	00	20	30	50		40	20	10 2	20 4	40	50	c.	25	30	20	30	55	55 !	50		30	70		70		50	_	(38.3)
25-34 years	(%)	50	50	20	60	S	15		40	30	10 2	20 2	20	15		25	60	80	50	10	20	30	7	40	_		30		20		(30.3)
45-54 years	(%)	10		10) 20	65			S	10	70 1	15 3	30	20		25	S		15	20	10	20		30					30		(17.7)
18-24 years	(%)	30					20		10	40	10	20 1	10	1 0		2					10				5						(7.4)
55-64 years	(%)			6			15		5	ŀ	10	15		S		10	ഹ		ഹ	0	5 2				20						(2.0)
65 or over	(%)											10				10				5	-				5						(1.3)
Ethnic Groups											$\left \cdot \right $											-									
Australian	(%)	20	95	70	80	80	80	85	06	30 8		\sim	5 90	060	60	64	6	6	6	8	60	60	06 06	06	35	95	951	95 5	509	90	(78.5)
Asian	(%)	60	4			20	20	5	10	10 2	20 2	20 2	5 10	010	9		9	10	9	<u>5</u>	, 0	, 5	0	2	5 2	ъ	5 2	ъ С	- ი	10	(11.3)
Thai	(%)	20	~							60													<u> </u>	_	_				1		(2.7)
Enalish	(%)															15								_	35	_		<u> </u>	10		(2.0)
Italian	(%)				10											15							2	5	12.5				10		(1.7)
Greek	(%)		L		10	L									 	25					_		2	5	12.5						(1.7)
Vietnamese	(%)			20				5								പ															(1.0)
Chinese	(%)			10				S																			_	-	<u>_</u>		(0.8)
Irish	(%)								-																				10		(0.3)
Repeat Purchase	(%)	66	6	06 (6	6	80	06	06	80	25 5	2 06	70 50	0 1 0	06	0 50	20	60	20	20	80 0	3 06	80 8	85 8	80	06	606	<u>5</u> 06	806	80	(81.3)
Customers (first time)	(%)	2	<u>م</u>	2	10	20	10	10	10	10	10	10 1	0 20	0 20	20	10	30	20	20	80	20	101	6	30	50	10	10	101	0 30	0	(16.5)
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part C-Your customers	views que:	stior	inai	.e	Part	ۍ ا	our	cus	tom		rofil	profile (2003/04	003/	(04)		1			1	1	1										

Items	Ļ	2	с С	4	ഹ	ဖ	~	ω	ດ	10	F	10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29	13 1	4	5 1	- 1 9	7 1	8110	920	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	(%) N
A: Word of Mouth	┝							1-	\vdash	┢		┢	┢	┢	┢	┢		┢								T				
Friends with experience of Thai Food	~	7		>		>	~	1			>		-	-	~	77	~	~	2	>							>	>		18 (60.0)
Thai friends	~		7		~			>	>							-			ļ		ļ					-	1	-		5 (16.7)
B: Mass Media								\vdash	1	\vdash	1-	┢	┨─	┨─	⊢			 	┨		1_						1-	╀	┢	
Local newspapers	7									<u> </u>	<u> </u>	-														1		-		2 (6.7)
Thai cooking books											\square						-			ļ					1-		1-			1 (3.3)
Television (cooking show)													-		-						>				1	1			+	1 (3.3)
Promotion from Thai government										\vdash			-	-									$\overline{}$		1		-		-	1 (3.3)
C: Others	-								┢		┢	\vdash	┢		┢╌	┨									1	t	┢	┨╌	┢	
Travelling to Thailand		\mathbf{Y}	\geq	~	7			>	~	>	>	>		~	~	\sim			\geq	>		>	>	>	>	>		>	>	21 (70.0)
Local Thai restaurants												7		7				\geq												3 (10.0)
Australians married with Thais					$^{\wedge}$																						-			1 (3.3)

 \forall (items provided by respondents). N (Number of respondents).

110W up you mining your customities mist got to know your restaurant?		וא	ົວົ ລົ	2	NIN	<u>s</u>	ž	1 T	Colo	aur	4111	. .																		
Items	-	2 3	с С	4	5	6 7	8	თ	9	=	12	13	10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	15	16	7	81	92	0 2	5	23	324	25	26	27	28	29		(%) N	Γ
A: Word of Mouth					-								┢	┢	┟╴	┢╌	┢		┢	┞	┨	_								Τ
Friends with experienced Thai Food	~		~	~	<u> </u>	É	~	>	>	7	>		>	1	>		╞			~	\geq	ļ			>		>	>	20 (66.7)	3
Thai friends								\geq					1			+	-		-										1 (3.3)	
B: Mass Media			╞	╞	╟	-					Ĺ		┢	\vdash	┢		┢	┨─	┨─	┢	┦╌				T		╀╴	┢		T
Local newspapers					5								>	>	7		-	2							1			╈	6 (20.0)	
Distributed brochures to mailboxes				-		\vdash								\uparrow		5	۲ ۲	5		-							1	+	3 (10 0)	
Advertising		···				-	\geq						†	†													-	>	3 (10.0)	
Yellow pages						-	<u> </u>		\geq				>	+											+	1-	+-		2 (6.7)	
C: Convenient location			┢	-	┢								\vdash	┟─	╂╌	┢	┢	╂─	╞	┨					ϯ	┢	┢	╋		Т
walk pass/live near by the restaurant		~		~					\geq				\vdash		>	5	2	É	$\left[\right]$					>		>	+	5	16 (53.3)	l în
drive a car pass						7		\geq	~	>					-		-								1				5 (16.7)	
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 2 (2003/04)	onna	aire,	Ра	ό τ	Que	stio	12(200;	3/04			1	1	1				ł							1	1	1			
(itomo monidad hu recnandente)																														

 \checkmark (items provided by respondents). N (Number of respondents).

Appendix 3.7 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis

How do you think your customers first got to know your restaurant?

Appendix 3.8 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis

Which Asian Foods do you think your customers compare with Thai Food?

Foods	-	2	ε	1 2 3 4 5 6	9	2	8	ດ	101		2 13	14	15	16 1	5 17 18	8 19	9 20	51	22	23 2	242	25 26	6 27	7 28	29	80	(%) N
Chinese	$^{\wedge}$	7		<u> </u>	~	7		>	>			7		É		2	>	×	>	>	~	×	2			7	19 (63.3)
Indian	×	×			$^{\prime}$	×		>	×	×		×	-	F-		2	×	>	>	×	×	5	×			×	10 (33.3)
Vietnamese	×	×			≻ ×	\geq		×	~	×		×		É	×	~	>	×	×	>	×	×		_		7	9 (30.0)
Japanese	×	×	L		∕ × ×	×		×	×	<u> </u>		>		F	5	\geq	×	×	×	×	×	× ×	×			×	6 (20.0)
Malaysian	$\overline{}$	×			××	×		>	×	×		×		<u> </u>	×	×	×	×	>	×		×	×			>	5 (16.7)
Korean	×	×		<u>~</u>	××	×		×	×	×		×		<u> </u> ^	× ×	~	×	×	×				+—			×	2 (6.7)
Indonesian	×	×			× × ×	×		×	×	×		×			× ×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	_		×	0 (0.0%)
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 3 (2)	ionn	aire,	Pa	U U U	Que	stior	13 (2	2003/	(04)										1		$\left \right $		1			1	

 $\sqrt{(Asian Foods' are compared with Thai Food)}$.

x ('Asian Food' are not compared with Thai Food).

blank (Thai Food is not compared with any 'Asian Foods').

N (Number of Respondents)

How do your customers order Thai dishes at your restaurant?	Th	ai (dis	hes	at	yoı	ur	res	tau	Ira	nt?																			
Items		1 2 3 4	ო	4	ۍ	9	7 8 9	3		0 1	10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27	. 13	14	15	16	17	8	9 2	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28 29		30	(%) N	
Recommended by waitresses	A	A		A		7	A A A	A A	A A		A,B	<u> </u>	A		A	A A	A	A		m	A	A		_	m	A,B	m	A	A=17, B=5	=5
Recommended by an owner											A,B	m					A				4				$\left \right\rangle$	A B	m		A=4, B=3	ကူ
Recommended by friends					മ												A				m			m			m		A=1, B=4	4
Picture of Thai dishes																	<u> </u>	-		_					╎		1			
Name of Thai dishes									-	-	<u> </u>			<u> </u>	\vdash				1					†						T
Description of Thai dishes on the menu			ш	m	m	m	ш Ю	ш ш					ω	m		A B	A,B B	m m	m	m		B	m	†-	m				A=1, B=20	20
Others:]]	1	1		-]									
Ordering dishes they usual eat							m	m	ш С	~			m	╞			B									-	-	m	B=6	
Description of Thai ingredients																		0 U				U			-		1-	┼──	C=2	Γ
Ordering dishes as in Thailand				Ω						-																	-		D=1	<u> </u>
						—	_	_																						
Source: Data drawn from interviews guestionnaire. Part C-Question 4 (2003/04	tionn	Jaire		art	0-0	estic	2n 4	(20	03/0	(4)															ł	1				1

Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 4 (2003/04)

A (if new customers); B (if regular customers); C (if allergic customers); D (if experienced in Thailand customers) N (number of respondents)

Appendix 3.9 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis How do your customers order Thai dishes at your y

What factors do you think are important to your customers	rtaj	nt t	0 y	our	cus	ton	lers		when they make a decision to eat Thai Food at your restaurant?	they	/ m 2	ake	a d	eci	sion	t to	eat	Th	ai J	00	d at	t yo	ur	rest	taui	ran	t?			
Factors	-	5	С	4	5	9	7 8	8 9	10	0 11	12	13	4	15 16		17 1	18 1	19 2	20 21	1 22	2 23	3 24	1 25	26	27	28	29	30	(%) N	
They want a different eating experience		×	\geq	×	\mathbf{r}	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	~	1	×	\geq		7	>		>	>	×	×	7	~	7	\geq	>	×	×	>	~	18 (60.0)	6
Thai Food is nutritious and healthy.		\geq	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	V	×	×	×	×	×		>	×		×	>	-	~	×	7	\geq	>	>	>	>	>	>	16 (53.3)	(m)
Thai Food is fashionable.		×	×	\geq	×	×	$\overline{}$	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×		2	7		×	>	×	××	~	×	\geq	×	\geq	×	×	>	×	10 (35.1)	,
They want to socialise.		×	×	×	×	~	×	×	$\langle \rangle$	$^{\wedge}$	×		$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×		×	~	~	×	×	×	7	>	×	×	×	>	×	10 (35.1)	,
They are hungry.		×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	7	~		×	>		×	×	×	××	×	×	\geq	\geq	×	×	×	>	×	6 (20.0)	6
Others:						L																								
The quality of ingredients in Thai Food.		\geq	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×		×	×		×	×	×	> ×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	2 (6.7)	
Word of Mouth		×	×	×	×	×	×	\geq	×	×	×		×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$		×	×	_^ ×	××	×	·×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	2 (6.7)	
Tasty and delicious		×	×	×	×	×	۲.	×	×	×	×		×	×		×	×	××	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	1 (3.6)	
Friendly owners/waitresses		×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×		×	×		×	×	××	∧ ∖	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	1 (3.6)	
Image of Thailand		×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×		×	×		×	×	× ×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	1 (3.6)	
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 7.	tionr	nair	۵. آها	art	ğ	lesti	on 7		(2003/04)	1/04)	_											ļ]

√ (factors provided by respondents). x (factors are not selected by respondents). blank (no response). N (number of respondents)

Appendix 3.10 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis

What factors do you think are important to your customers	orta	nt t	to y	INO.	no.	ston	lers		len	the	y m	when they make a decision to eat Thai Food at your restaurant?	a di	ecis	ion	to	eat	Thi	ai F	000	l at	yoı	ur r	est:	aur	jue.	<u>د:</u>			
Factors		2	3	4	5	9	7	8	9 1	10 11	1 12	13	14	15 1	16 1	17 18	8 19	9 20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	(%) N	
Taste			$^{\lambda}$	×	×	γ	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	<u> </u>	×γ	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$		7	$\overline{\mathbf{h}}$	$\mathbf{\mathbf{z}}$			$^{\wedge}$	×	7	$\overline{}$	\geq	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	$^{>}$	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	~	19 (63.3)	3)
Quality			Υ	\mathbf{r}	$^{\sim}$	Y	×	۲ 	トレ	<u>^</u> ^	$^{\sim}$		7	×	~	×	~ ~	$^{>}$	$^{>}$	$\overline{}$	×	$^{\sim}$	$^{>}$	×	×	$^{>}$	×	×	17 (56.7)	5.7)
Reasonable price			\checkmark	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	٢	×	××	$^{>}$		$\overline{}$	×	×	×	~	×	×	\geq	×	\geq	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	Y	×	11 (36.7)	5.7)
Variety			1	×	×	×	×	<u> </u>	γX	×	\mathbf{Y}		~	×	×	×	2	$^{\wedge}$	×	\geq	×	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	~	10 (33.3)	3.3)
Spiciness			$^{\wedge}$	$^{>}$	×	×	×	<u>۲</u>	× ト	×	×		~	~	7	×	7	×	×	×	×	×	7	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	×	×	9 (30.0)	(o
Nutritional value			\checkmark	×	$^{\mathbf{\lambda}}$	×	×	۲ 	γ×	×	×		λ	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	$^{\mathbf{h}}$	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	$\overline{\mathbf{h}}$	9 (30.0)	0
Portion size			$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	×	×	٢	$^{\backslash}$	X /	×		λ	×	×	×	~	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	×	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	×	8 (26.7)	(7)
Appearance			\mathbf{Y}	×	×	×	×	·	× \	XX	×		2	×	×	×		\mathbf{z}	×	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	×	×	×	7	8 (26.7))
Aroma			\mathbf{i}	×	×	×	×	٢	×γ	XX	×		2	×	×	×	~	\geq	×	$\overline{\mathbf{A}}$	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	8 (26.7)	()
Value for money			$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	×	$^{\prime}$	×	٢	γ	×	×		$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	×	×	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	×	×	х	×	×	×	×	V	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	8 (26.7)	7)
Decorated restaurant in Thai style			$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	$\overline{}$	×	×	×	r	×	×	×		>	×	×	×	7	×	×	×	х	$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$	×	×	×	×	×	×	6 (20.0)	6
Convenient location			$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	×	×	×	×	ŕ	× >	× ×	×		~	×	×	×	~	×	×	×	×	×	λ	×	×	×	×	×	5 (16.7)	-)
Special promotion			\geq	×	×	×	×	٢	× >		×		>	×	×	×	7	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	5 (16.7)	7)
Others:														_	_															
service			×	×	×	×	×	$\hat{}$	× ×	×	×		~	×	×	×	×	>	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	2 (6.7)	
curry dishes		_	×	×	×	×	×		× 	×	×		×	×	_×	×	7	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	1 (3.3)	$\widehat{\mathbf{m}}$
keeping the clean			×	×	×	×	×	$\hat{}$	×××	×	×		×	×	×	×	×	~	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	1 (3.3)	3)
friendly staffs			×	×	×	×	×	$\hat{-}$	×	× ×	×		×	×	×	×	×	7	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	1 (3.3)	<u></u>
Source: Data drawn from interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 7.2	stion	nair	e T	art	о О	uest	ion /	, 2 ((2003/04	3/04																				1

Appendix 3.11 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis

source: Data drawn from interviews question $\sqrt{(factors provided by respondents)}$. x (factors are not selected by respondents).

blank (no response). N (number of respondents)

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Please specify what you think your customers most like about Thai Food
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items	-	3	3	4 5	5 6	2	ω	6	10	11	121	13 1	14 15	5 16	17	18	19	20	2	22 23 24 25	23 2	24 2	2	26 2		2/ 28 29	9 30	(%) N	
A: Thai Food characteristics											$\left \right $										+	+	\dashv		-+	+	+		
balanced taste/tasty*/unique**	7	~			7	*		*	*	\sim	*	*	*	*		>	*	7	>	~	*	, ~	-	2		7 7	*		3)
Thai herbal as flavour and healthy		>			~			$\overline{}$				7 7			>		-				V	<u>`</u>	7				~	9 (30.0)	0
Hot and spicy		1	+		~	<u> </u>	-			~	>				~		2			\sim	γ						~		(2)
Varietv	~	 		-		-														\mathbf{r}						~		3 (10.0)	<u>(</u>)
Quality	>	>			\vdash																							2 (6.7)	<u>_</u>
Reasonable price	>				\vdash																							1 (3.3)	<u>()</u>
Aroma								7										_										1 (3.3)	3)
Portion size			-	-												$^{\sim}$,						1 (3.3)	3)
Appearance			-											ļ												~	_	1 (3.3)	<u>(</u>)
B: Popular Thai dishes																													Ī
Green curry	7			~						\geq	>											-+						4 (13.3)	3)
Tom Yum Goong				$\overline{\mathbf{v}}$							7								\neg		>	\dashv			-+	-		3 (10.0)	ô
Pla Sam Rod		_		\geq	-														\neg			-	\rightarrow	\rightarrow			_	1 (3.3)	(m)
C: Thai Ingredients														$ \downarrow$						\rightarrow		\dashv		-+		\rightarrow			
Ingredients													-		7				>			-+	_		-+	-+		2 (6.7)	2
Curry								\square				-	-+				>					-+						1 (3.3)	Î
D: Others:			_	-+	_	-+					+	+	-+						+	-+	+	+	+	+	+		_		Τ
Thai culture			7		>	-	-				+	>			\square			-			-+		_	\dashv		~		4 (13.3)	(r)
Fresh meats and vegetables							~				-								-+		-+	~	5		>	=		3 (10.0)	6
not oily or fatty										>	-					>				\neg		-+	-				_	2 (6.7)	
different taste to western foods									V									• • •			-	_			_			1 (3.3)	$\widehat{\mathbf{\omega}}$
Source: Data drawn from the interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 10	juesti N	ionr (11)	nair€ unb	e, Pé	f res	-Qué	estio. Iden	n 10 lts).																					
V ITACTORS BROVIDED DV ICSUULIAVIEV	-		21114			5																							

 $\sqrt{(factors provided by respondents)}$. N (number of respondents).

Please specify what you think your customers most	our	cu	Isto	₩¢	STO	mo		dislike about Thai Food	ike	ab	out	TI	lai	Нo	od													
items	1 2	<u>e</u> ,	2 3 4	5	9	2	ω	ი	9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29	111	21	3 14	15	16	17	18	10	0	5	2	3 24	125	5 26	27	28	29	30	(%) N
A: Thai Food characteristics																	-										┝	
Too hot and spicy	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	~	$\sqrt{}$	$\overline{\mathbf{A}}$	$^{>}$	$\overline{}$			Ż		~	>		~	>			~			7		\geq	~		>	>	18 (60.0)
Too sweet										١							>				~							3 (10.0)
Too tasty									L		\geq														>			2 (6.7)
B: Thai dishes																												
Hor-Mok																		۲ 	>									1 (3.3)
if curry too waterly																					\geq							1 (3.3)
C: Thai Ingredients																												
coconut milk																>	,	>					\geq			-		3 (10.0)
dried shrimp/shrimp paste	\mathbf{F}	5					$^{>}$																				-	2 (6.7)
fish sauce	$\overline{\mathbf{A}}$	/																								-		1 (3.3)
D: Others:																										-		
oily or fatty					\geq			$\mathbf{>}$	~															-				3 (10.0)
creamy		_			\geq																					~		2 (6.7)
expensive		~	2																									1 (3.3)
Source: Data drawn from the interviews questionnaire, Part C-Question 10 $\sqrt{(factors provided by respondents)}$. N (number of respondents).	estio N (nı	umt	aire, ber	Par of r	t C-(esp(Jues	stion :nts)	. 10																				

Appendix 3.13 A Data Accounting Checklist Analysis

Appendix 4:

Summary Valid and Missing Data (Survey Questionnaire)

			Ca	ses		
	Va	alid	Mis	sing	To	tal
Questions 1 and 2	N	%	N	%	N	%
Q.1 Experience eaten Thai Food in Thailand	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Q.1.1 Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in Thailand	993	98.4	16	1.6	1009	100.0
Q.2 Experience eaten Thai Food in Australia	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Q.2.1 Experience (times) eaten Thai Food in Australia	952	94.4	57	5.6	1009	100.0

Summary Valid and Missing Data

			Cas	ses		
	Va	lid	Miss	sing	То	tal
Questions 3, 4, 5	N	%	N	%	Ν	%
Q.3 Experience (how long) been eating Thai Food in Australia	985	97.6	24	2.4	1009	100.0
Q.4 The last experience satisfaction with Thai Food in Australia	982	97.3	27	2.7	1009	100.0
Q.5 Experience the last time ate Thai Food was	990	98.1	19	1.9	1009	100.0

Summary Valid and Missing Data

····				Cases		
	Va	alid	Mis	sing	То	tal
Question 6	N	%	N	%	N	%
Comparison with other asian foods	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Chinese Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Malaysian Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Vietnamese Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Indian Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Japanese Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Indonesian Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Korean Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0

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Sources: Data drawn from the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis

N = Number of respondents

Summary Valid and Missing Data	Summary	Valid	and	Missing	Data
--------------------------------	---------	-------	-----	---------	------

			Ca	ses		
	Va	lid	Mis	sing	То	tal
Questions 7, 8, 9	Ν	%	N	%	Ν	%
Q.7 The first time ate Thai food was	1007	99.8	2	.2	1009	100.0
Q.8 The first time got to know about Thai Food	1007	99.8	2	.2	1009	100.0
Q.9 The first time got to know about this Thai restaurant	923	91.5	86	8.5	1009	100.0

Sources: Data drawn from the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

			Ca	ses		
	Va	alid	Mis	sing	То	tal
Questions 10, 11	N	%	N	%	N	%
Q.10 Knowledge the traditional Thai way of eating Thai Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0
Q.11 Knowledge the traditional Thai way of eating Thai Food	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0

Summary Valid and Missing Data

			Ca	ses		
	Va	alid	Miss	sing	То	tal
Question 12	N	%	N	%	N	%
Knowledge the traditional way of ordering Thai Food	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0
Knowledge the traditional way of eating Thai Food	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0
Knowledge the traditional Thai dish names	996	98.7	13	1.3	1009	100.0
Knowledge the authentic appearance of Thai Food	997	98.8	12	1.2	1009	100.0
Knowledge the authentic aroma of Thai Food	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0
Knowledge the authentic taste of Thai Food	999	99.0	10	1.0	1009	100.0

Sources: Data drawn from the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

			Ca	ses		
	Valid		Mis	Missing		ital
Question 13	N	%	N	%	N	%
The way ordering Thai Food : Recommended by a waitress	1001	99.2	8	.8	1009	100.0
The way ordering Thai Food : Recommended by an owner	997	98.8	12	1.2	1009	100.0
The way ordering Thai Food : Recommended by friends	1002	99.3	7.	.7	1009	100.0
The way ordering Thai Food : Picture of Thai dishes	991	98.2	18	1.8	1009	100.0
The way ordering Thai Food : Name of Thai dishes	996	98.7	13	1.3	1009	100.0
The way ordering Thai Food : Description of Thai dishes	1005	<u>9</u> 9.6	4	.4	1009	100.0

Summary Valid and Missing Data

	Cases							
	Valid		Missing		Total			
Question 14	Ν	%	N	%	N	%		
Who come with today	1007	99.8	2	.2	1009	100.0		

Sources: Data drawn from the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

Summary Valid/Missing Data

	Cases								
	Valid		Miss	sing	То	tal			
Question 16	Ν	Percent	Ν	Percent	N	Percent			
Because of hungry	990	98.1%	19	1.9%	1009	100.0%			
Because Thai Food is nutritious & healthy	996	98.7%	13	1.3%	1009	100.0%			
Because I want to socialise	990	98.1%	19	1.9%	1009	100.0%			
Because Thai Food is fashionable	990	98.1%	19	1.9%	1009	100.0%			
Because I want different eating experience	999	99.0%	10	1.0%	1009	100.0%			

Summary Valid/Missing Data

			Cas	es		
	Val	id	Miss	ing	Total	
Question 17	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Thai friends	975	96.6%	34	3.4%	1009	100.0%
Friends	1001	99.2%	8	.8%	1009	100.0%
Colleagues	990	98.1%	19	1.9%	1009	100.0%
Neighbours	981	97.2%	28	2.8%	1009	100.0%
Family/Relatives	992	98.3%	17	1.7%	1009	100.0%
Personal experience	1001	99.2%	8	.8%	1009	100.0%
Persons who are satisfied with Thai Food	983	97.4%	26	2.6%	1009	100.0%
Persons who work in Thai restaurants	976	96.7%	33	3.3%	1009	100.0%
Thai cooking book	980	97.1%	29	2.9%	1009	100.0%
Brochure (Thai restaurant)	990	98.1%	19	1.9%	1009	100.0%
Food magazine	990	98.1%	19	1.9%	1009	100.0%
Newspaper	988	97.9%	21	2.1%	1009	100.0%
Yellow pages	985	97.6%	24	2.4%	1009	100.0%
Television	988	97.9%	21	2.1%	1009	100.0%
Radio	986	97.7%	23	2.3%	1009	100.0%
Internet	983	97.4%	26	2.6%	1009	100.0%

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

		<u> </u>	Ca	ses		
	Va	Valid		Missing		tal
Question 19	Ν	%	N ·	%	N	%
Frequently search for information for dining out from	1009	100.0	0	.0	1009	100.0

Summary Valid and Missing Data

		Cases								
	Va	lid	Miss	sing	Total					
Question 20	N	%	N	%	N	%				
Price for Thai Food (Breakfast)	704	69.8	305	30.2	1009	100.0				
Price for Thai Food (Lunch)	875	86.7	134	13.3	1009	100.0				
Price for Thai Food (Dinner)	983	97.4	26	2.6	1009	100.0				
Price for other type of foods (Breakfast)	867	85.9	142	14.1	1009	100.0				
Price for other type of foods (Lunch)	910	90.2	99	9.8	1009	100.0				
Price for other type of foods (Dinner)	940	93.2	69	6.8	1009	100.0				

Summary Valid and Missing Data

	Cases							
·	Valid		Mis	Missing		tal		
Question 21	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Thai Food characteristics	993	98.4	16	1.6	1009	100.0		
Price of Thai Food	992	98.3	17	1.7	1009	100.0		
Convenient location of Thai restaurants	993	98.4	16	1.6	1009	100.0		
Special promotion	989	98.0	20	2.0	1009	100.0		

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003/04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis

N = Number of respondents

			Cas	es		
	Val	id	Miss	ing	Tota	al
Question 22	Ν	%	N	%	N .	%
Eat out for Thai Food (Breakfast)	990	98.1	19	1.9	1009	100.0
Eat out for Thai Food (Lunch)	988	97.9	21	2.1	1009	100.0
Eat out for Thai Food (Dinner)	1002	99.3	7	.7	1009	100.0
Eat out for other Food (Breakfast)	979	97.0	30	3.0	1009	100.0
Eat out for other Food (Lunch)	989	98.0	20	2.0	1009	100.0
Eat out for other Food (Dinner)	989	98.0	20	2.0	1009	100.0
Cook Thai Food at home	988	97.9	21	2.1	1009	100.0
Eat Take away Thai Food	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0
Eat Home delivery Thai Food	974	96.5	35	3.5	1009	100.0
Cook at home (not Thai Food)	993	98.4	16	1.6	1009	100.0
Eat Take away (not Thai Food)	993	98.4	16	1.6	1009	100.0
Eat Home delivery (not Thai Food)	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0
Eat out for sociable reasons	976	96.7	33	3.3	1009	100.0
Eat out for business needs	976	96.7	33	3.3	1009	100.0
Eat out with family/relatives	978	96.9	31	3.1	1009	100.0
Eat out with friends	983	97.4	26	2.6	1009	100.0
Eat out with colleagues	978	96.9	31	3.1	1009	100.0
Eat out with neighbours	978	96.9	31	3.1	1009	100.0

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

	Cases							
	Va	lid	Missing		Total			
Question 23	N	% .	N	%	N	%		
Quality of Thai Food	1001	99.2	8	.8	1009	100.0		
Portion size	997	98.8	12	1.2	1009	100.0		
Variety of Thai Food	999	99.0	10	1.0	1009	100.0		
Spiciness of Thai Food	1001	99.2	8	.8	1009	100.0		
Nutritional value of Thai Food	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0		
Appearance of Thai Food	1002	99.3	7	.7	1009	100.0		
Aroma of Thai Food	998	98.9	· 11	1.1	1009	100.0		
Taste of Thai Food	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0		
Reasonable price	996	98.7	13	1.3	1009	100.0		
Value for money	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009.	100.0		
Convenient location	997	98.8	12	1.2	1009	100.0		
Decorated restaurant in Thai style	997	98.8	12	1.2	1009	100.0		
Win a trip to Thailand	995	98.6	14	1.4	1009	100.0		
Special gifts from Thai restaurant	992	98.3	17	1.7	1009	100.0		
Special discount period	994	98.5	15	1.5	1009	100.0		

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003/04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis $N \approx Number of respondents$

			Cas	es		
	Val	id	Missing		Total	
Question 24	N	%	N	%	N	%
Thai Food is served by a Thai waitress/waiter	1001	99.2	8	.8	1009	100.0
Thai Food is cooked by a Thai chef	999	99.0	10	1.0	1009	100.0
Thai restaurant is owned by Thais	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0
Thai restaurant is decorated in Thai style	999	99.0	10	1.0	1009	100.0
Waitress/waiter wear a traditional Thai suit	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0
Thai Foods had authentic Thai taste	990	98.1	19	1.9	1009	100.0
Thai Foods were recommended to me	993	98.4	16	1.6	1009	100.0
Thai restaurants were recommended to me	990	98.1	19	1.9	1009	100.0
Thailand had a positive image for me	991	98.2	18	1.8	1009	100.0
l knew more about Thai Food	986	97.7	23	2.3	1009	100.0
l knew more about Thailand	987	97.8	22	2.2	1009	100.0
I knew how to cook Thai Food	990	98.1	19	1.9	1009	100.0

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

	Cases							
	Valid		Missing		Total			
Question 25	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Quality of Thai Food	1004	99.5	5	.5	1009	100.0		
Portion size	1003	99.4	6	.6	1009	100.0		
Variety of Thai Food	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0		
Spiciness of Thai Food	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0		
Nutritional value of Thai Food	1002	99.3	7	.7	1009	100.0		
Appearance of Thai Food	1001	99.2	8	.8	1009	100.0		
Aroma of Thai Food	1001	99.2	8	.8	1009	100.0		
Taste of Thai Food	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0		
Reasonable price	998	98.9	11	1.1	1009	100.0		
Value for money	999	99.0	10	1.0	1009	100.0		
Convenient location	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0		
Decorated restaurant in Thai style	994	98.5	15	1.5	1009	100.0		
Promotion: Win a trip to Thailand	988	97.9	21	2.1	1009	100.0		
Special gifts from Thai restaurant	989	98.0	20	2.0	1009	100.0		
Special discount period	988	97.9	21	2.1	1009	100.0		

Summary Valid and Missing Data

	Cases								
Questions	Va	alid	Mis	Missing		tal			
26, 27, 28, 29	N	%	N	%	N	%			
Q.26 Like Thai Food (whole eating experience)	991	98.2	18	1.8	1009	100.0			
Q.27 Recommend Thai Food to friends	1002	99.3	7	.7	1009	100.0			
Q.28 Buy Thai Food in the future	1002	99.3	7	.7	1009	100.0			
Q.29 when will buy Thai Food in the future	985	97.6	24	2.4	1009	100.0			

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003/04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

	Cases						
	Valid		Missing		Total		
Questions 30 to 40	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Q.30 Do you have any Thai friends?	1004	99.5	5	.5	1009	100.0	
Q.31 Have Thai friends ever cooked Thai foods for you?	975	96.6	34	3.4	1009	100.0	
Q.32 Have you ever learn Thai cooking?	1005	99.6	4	.4	1009	100.0	
Q.33 Gender	1000	99.1	9	.9	1009	100.0	
Q.34 Were you born in Australia?	1003	99.4	6	.6	1009	100.0	
Q.35 How many years have you been in Australia?	973	96.4	36	3.6	1009	1,00.0	
Q.37 Highest level qualification	982	97.3	27	2.7	1009	100.0	
Q.38 Occupation	990	98.1	19	1.9	1009	100.0	
Q.39 Annual income	928	92.0	81	8.0	1009	100.0	
Q.40 Age groups	961	95.2	48	4.8	1009	100.0	

Sources: Data drawn from responses to the survey questionnaire (2003-04), (see Appendix 2) Note: Missing values used 'Exclude cases pairwise' analysis N = Number of respondents

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Appendix 5:

What was Most Liked about Thai Food (Customers' Opinion)

Appendix 5 What was Most Liked about Thai Food

Q26: Any other comments: What you like most about Thai Food.	Number of	Percentages
	Respondents	(%)
Taste delicious	84	17.8
lavour	68	14.5
Spiciness	64	13.6
/ariety	31	6.5
Aroma/fragrance of the herbs and curry	28	5.9
Healthy, nutritional, and low fat	27	5.7
Fresh vegetable&meats	24	5.1
ts different taste to other asian foods, Its unique taste	20	4.2
Use of fresh herbs	19	4.0
Quality	9	1.9
Colourful and presentation	9	1.9
Value for money	7	1.5
Cheap	7	1.5
Quantity e.g. portion size, small size so customers can try more dishes	6	1.3
Lighter than Indian & other asian foods	6	1.3
Taste and flavour of coconut in the curry	5	1,1
Steamed rice	5	1.1
Friendly service	5	1.1
Seafood and vegetarian dishes	4	0.8
Authentic (exotic)	4	
Chili	4	0.8
Speed of preparation	4	0.8
Not too spicy		0.8
Everything	3	0.6
	3	0.6
Lemon juice	2	0.4
Use very little fat things to cook (not heavy)	2	0.4
Fried rice		0.4
The style of Thai eating (sharing dishes)	2	0.4
Red & Green curry	2	0.4
Tom Yam	2	0.4
Dining experience	2	0.4
Unique taste (sweet/sour/spicy in one dish)	1	0.2
Fish sauce	1	0.2
Lemon grass	1	0.2
Shrimp fried	1	0.2
Soup	1	0.2
Pad kra pao	1	0.2
Pad Thai noodles	1	0.2
Tom kra	1	0.2
Roast Duck	1	0.2
Tempura prawns	1	0.2
Massaman	1	0.2
Som tom	1	0.2
Atmosphere the restaurant	1	0.2
Easy to cook	1	0.2
Total	474	96

Source: Original data drawn from survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 26

Appendix 6:

What was Most Disliked about Thai Food (Customers' Opinion)

Appendix 6 What was Most Disliked about Thai Food

Q26: Any other comments: What you dislike most about Thai Food.	Number of	Percentage
	Respondents	(%)
	35	32.8
Expensive	14	13.2
Too sweet, in Aussie style, unauthentic dishes made for western tastes	9	8.5
The size of the dishes for the price we paid was small	7	6.6
A little oily & fatty	6	5.7
The menu does not tell the level of spicy	3	2.9
Not enough variety on vegetarian menues	3	2.9
No Thai restaurants near home	2	1.9
Coconut milk in everything (fat of coconut milk)	2	1.9
Too many deep fried entrée	2	1.9
MSG addition	2	1.9
Sour	1	0.9
Lemon grass	1	0.9
Coriander leaves	1	0.9
Can not get spicy taste as Thai does	1	0.9
Synthetic veg.oil	1	0.9
Roti bread too greasy	1	0.9
Desserts	1	0.9
Don't know Thai Food high or low in fat	1	0.9
Not many milder curries	1	0.9
Vegetarian dishes a bit bland than the meat dishes	1	0.9
Too many dishes served at one time	1	0.9
Frozen/pre cooked fish cake	1	0.9
Pineapple with duck	1	0.9
Tomato sauce	1	0.9
Don't know what is in every dish	1	0.9
Low tables seating	1	0.9
No Thai staffs	1	0.9
Overcooked meats	1	0.9
Some unpleasant aroma e.g. bamboo dishes	1	0.9
Untidy restaurant	1	0.9
Dirty menu	1	0.9
Poor service	1	0.9
Total	107	100

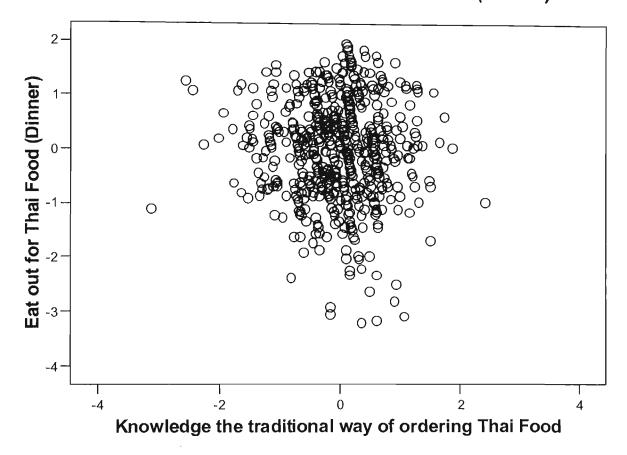
Source: Orginal data drawn from survey questionnaire (2003-04), Question 26

Appendix 7:

Partial Regression Plot

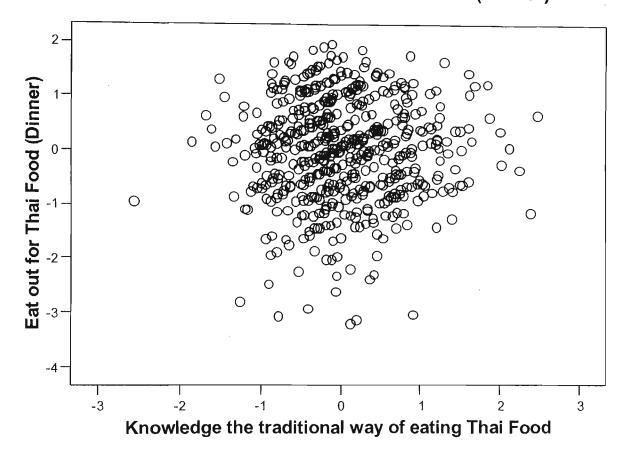
Appendix 7.1

Partial Regression Plot



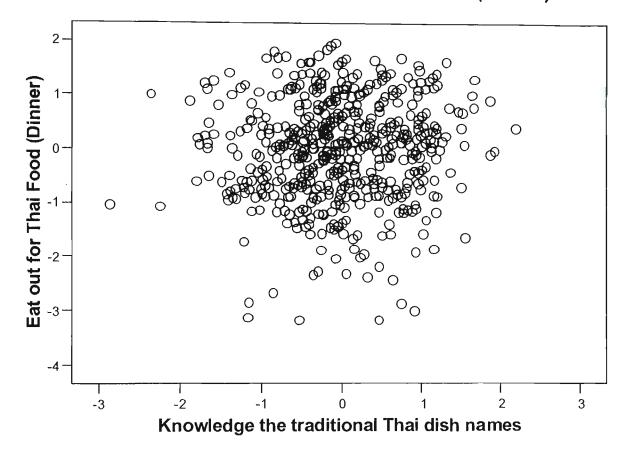
Appendix 7.2

Partial Regression Plot



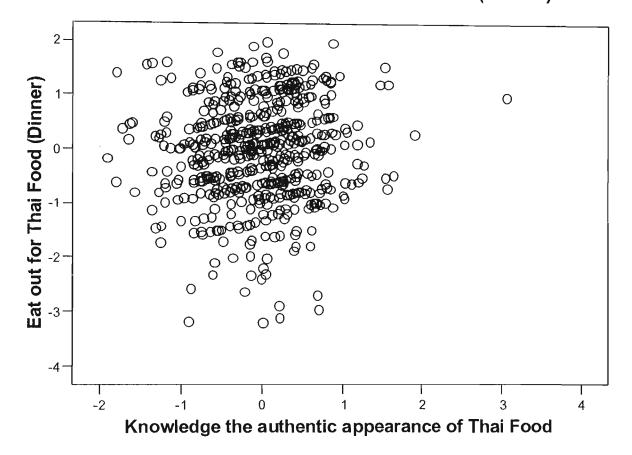
Appendix 7.3

Partial Regression Plot



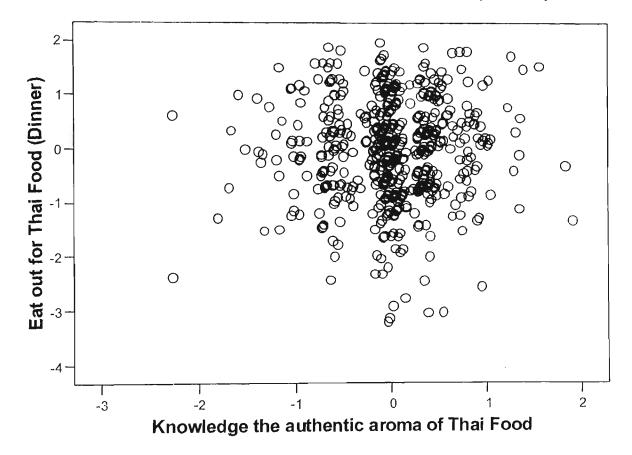
Appendix 7.4

Partial Regression Plot



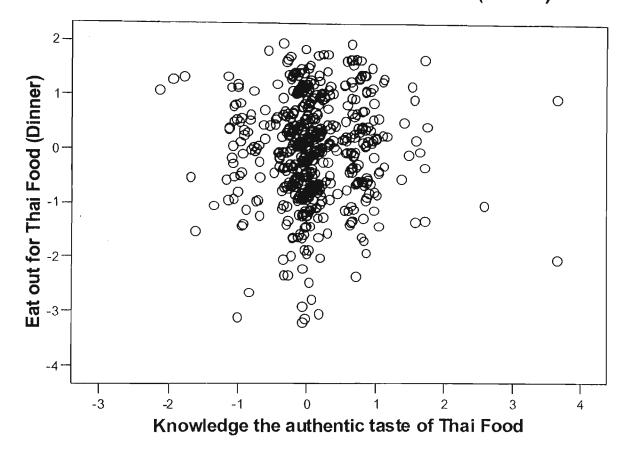
Appendix 7.5

Partial Regression Plot



Appendix 7.6

Partial Regression Plot



Appendix 8:

Activities Related to the Research of the Adoption of Thai Food in Victoria, Australia

ThaiPost Newspaper



สร้างสรรค์สังคมไทย ด้วยความรู้ และความตั้งใจ

Sport Review





Car Corner

Accord Euro รถสวยพร้อมชุดแต่งที่สั่งตรง มาจากประเทศญี่ปุ่น หน้า 10



Gotta Go

สถานที่ น้อยคนที่จะรู้จัก วัดป่าโพธิวัณ Warburton



<u>ตามสไตล์ By Sarad</u> น้องฝ้าย สาวจาก Monash กับคติที่แปลกใหม่



ADI

ท_ีก**บิงเก่งอีกคนหนึ่ง** คุณ พรรณกาญจน์ สีไพบูลย์ Ph,D ด้าน Food Marketing



SONY ERICSSON

P910 Touch Screen 262,000 Color 64Mb Memory Digital Camera MP4 Funcion

หน้า 11

THAI 3 ZZZ 92.3FM

โค้งสุดท้ายกับการประกวดร้องเพลง ที่จะมีขึ้นใน วันพฤหัสที่ 30 กันยายน นี้ อีกหนึ่งความภูมิไจของ นักเรียนไทย พร้อม Highlight ผู้เข้ารอบสุดท้าย

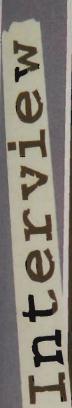


THAI 3 ZZZ 92.3FM

ประมวลภาพงานต่างๆ ประจำเดือน อาทิเช่น งานเทศกาลลำใย เทศกาล อาหารที่ Exhibition Centre และ Hightlight ภาพชมรมนาฏศิลปไทย

เน่าจลงโฆษณาติดด

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Ph.U (F000



VICTORIA

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND LAW

กาญจณ์ สิโหนูลย์ นักศึกษาไทยที่กำลังทำ Ph. D อยู่ที่ ในงานประเพณีสงกรานค์ที่ ในงานประเพณีลงกรานด์ ต่างแตกมาบานก็ บ่าเคิดถึงบ้านแต่อีกใจหนึ่ง Austrolio Victoria University ที่ Melboume คุณเด็กนี้ส่วนช่วย ให้งานประเพณีสงกรานด์ ที่ฝ่านนานั้น สำเร็จไปได้ ที่ Melboune ที่ผ่านมาบินี้ คุณลึก-พรือคุณ พรรณ TURBTATS URZ'NB sponsor The Victoria University งอโปรากรอริตากรมงับแร้ง "รัชนต์" อีลออกรัพกันไป ด้วยดี โดยการเข้าร่วมข่วยจับหา ผู้ร่วมจัดทำจุ้มร้าน ในสาชา The Adoption of Thoi food al แห้ที่จริง แล้วข้อเห็ม ๆ ของ ทยะ มันยาวบาก จึง ชื่อเติมตาบ เกี่ยกับสมุลไพรที่เข้านคาพายาน ขายการการ นิพนต์เป็นดังนี้ 'A Model of Consumer Decision-ดีต่อสุขภาพอย่างไร" ให้เป็นความรู้แต่ผู้ที่มาในงาน making Process for the Adoption of That Food: มาให้กับ ทางสมาคมใหยในวิจุดอเรีย ซึ่งได้เปิดรุ้ม ฟรีเป็นจำนวนมาก กระนั้นยังได้สาธิคถึงคุณสมบัติ The case of Australia" misihum base of Australia เวลาถึง 4 ปี ซึ่งปนี้ก็เป็นปัตุสห้าย คุณเล็กอยู่ใน ก็หน้าอยู่ แลยังในโร้ระดัดสินใจอย่างใหลี ใครที่มี เdeos เกี่ยวกับเรื่องนี้ก็สองท่ายแสลักหน่อย ก็คิด Amozing Thei Food โดยเชิญเจ้าของร้านอาหาร ไทยเร้าร่วน สาธิตการ ปรุงอาหารไทยจานเด็ม วันนั้น คุณเล็ก: เล็กกำลังศึกษาทำ ปริญญาเอก ว่าคุณเล็กคงใน้รังเกี่ยจพรอก

ตกะ คุณศึกษตรวมสการปลูสิวนของการพิลง นๆ สังครามเป็นบรรังค่าในคุณได้เจ้า ไปเป็นพนึง

ແຜ່ລະແກະ ແຄະ ລະອາດາ ແຄະຄະ ຄະອາດາ ອຸດແລ້ກ. ແລະ ລັບຂອກໄດ້ລະ ທີ່ຄະກິນປະການທາຍ ແກ້ເຮັດໃນອຸໄທສ໌ ໂດຍອຸດແຮນກະ ດ້ວຍການເຮົາມາຍ ອຸດແຮນການ ເປັນຄືການອ້າຍເປັນ ເດັດເປັນກາວລ້າວນັ້ນເປັນຄານ ອັດການເປັນ ແມ່ກັດມີປານອ້າຍແກ້ງທີ່ແປນ ໂດຍອັດແທນອ ເນັ້ນຄື້ນຳອາມານີ້ນຳ ລາມທີ່ການອາການການ ອອູ່ທີ່ເຄັດມີແກ້ນ ລາມທີ່ນັບສາດ ກ້າວມີກາວການ ລາມດານເຮົາ ເວັ້ານັ້ນຄືນອາກ ກ້າວມີກາວການ ລາມດານເຮົາ ເວັ້ານັ້ນຄືນອາກ ກ້າວມີກາວການ

และ แล้วมีสงปารกับสุขภิพิ และคล ก็บลูมสิ่ง ลุณสิก มีสะ ก็ version ประจะสง รักสุขาง ร. 202000 ให้ก็บละกามใหญ่สะดอบ เม่นสิ่งโร กรรรรร มาที่ได้ก็จะค. แล้วก็คุณ ของ แน่นสิ่งโร กรรรรร มาที่ได้ก็จะค. แล้วกับสามาร

CaMn (Tan & Co) บรีจาลเลไม้กระปไลและชนม ไทยๆ จำนวนนาก

นอกอ "แล้วกุณศิลราจระตั้งร่านที่ตดงานประเพณี สงกรานค์กันเนขาอีกไม่ในครารหน้า - คุณศึกะ แน่นนอนค่ะ กับเล็กย์ร้อยู่ที่ Metbourne

นะค่ะ บะค่ะ บนกอิจากที่รานรากหนังที่จะกับที่ ใหญ่รู้ เหา

านว่าคุณดักเป็นนักวิริยปกรณแกร้ คำปรีญญา แกรายราวนี้ คุณดักสิมทันปินตราโรครับ คุณตัก ดัญปังค่ะ ถ้าได้เป็นคณะก กราะรู้สึกว่าเครนี อออไหอ โออร แล้วกันโทรานสณภัณฑิมานกรหนักสึกกิ ระภูปิจะการ เสตร่ะ นสกต จะกานจำ คุณภัณฑิภาพที่มหารมีหมาย ข้อมูลของการมาย แล้วอยางคาที่หนางร่อสายครับ อาจานันของเป็นจากกับป้อกหลังจะร่วยเรา สิทธิกร์ ก็มีความร้องกับป้อกหลังจะร่วยเรา โอกกระระบบขณะว่า เข้าแจงกับจากกับไข่ จำงนี้ก็ เนากุกับชื่อ ทอ deen จะกิจจะค่าอนสัมบัน จ่างนี้ก็

นอกต ที่สงจะไม่ระมาวนคุณเดิกมากไปกว่านี้ หาก คุณเด็กใคร่ระปากคำดังเนยถึงน้อง ๆ รุ่นใหม่บ้าง ก็จะสิตรับ

คุณเด็ก: ก็ไม่มีอะใหมากไปกว่า ถึงดัดการจะบรัก ที่กษาที่มากวิทาลัย เด็กด้าก่า vectotic Unveesin ที่เป้าจะสมโรกหราะ toculles เขาด้นาก ของเด็กมี อดีตอ สังเหลี่มี computer, กทาย, teea internet และอีกหลายๆอย่าง แล้วที่ต้องของอนุน กุณ Roo แห่ง Torgoto หรือมนับ มาด cadua & toca searcoi เข้ากับกับเมานั้นแก้สถานสี่กา้มนี้ โอกาสน้ำไปที่วิมมีปนาน Mo cadua & toca teshnoi ค่ะ อิล มีค้าทั้งแมมที่ขณานสำนัจา "อิล "ขณีแผนะ ของกน น่าผู้ค่าวเมล่านั้ง" "อ่อเมือมและรี่กลัตต์ น่าสู่ เป็นที่ภักของญาตับโทรสมกนะ

นรัพกันหนับอากับห กรบที่โกละวรกษักษัณฑาตรา





Judanisii a suparmu sud.2547 usu t ni saan e Dian 24



Waulan Bagadanaan angrin noo B ขามีและพื่อเทที่น้ำน น.ร. เลิ่มหูหลิ ปราโมษ กระกระดับได้รับ มีคราโระกา สาวกิลวย ในลอกตาตอนนี้จะใปลอกตอน านแต่งงานตามประเพณีไทย และเดียงในหม the is one fishmen togeners appeared สนิยสกับสายาว อรกัญญา ลิรโตใหม่ให เมื่อ และปัญญาใจรางบ้านการใจเหลือหมือ หมอบอกว่าดัดที่ลอกใร้เมื่อปีก่อนเริ่มมีต้อที่น มาใหม่ ตาเลของในที่ดีคุณประเศรีฐเธอใม้รอ กษโรลน เลือกใต้สวนผลไม้จิมน้ำน้ำน้ำหลือจ อาตารเรียนใหม่. 🔤 เพื่อนปรต่างจำ หมัยมีตร บ้าน ขับการพาก จะน่าง "บอนไหม" ใป ที่มีลาน เพื่อแลดงในงานฉลองสันทางใหม่ ของการบินใหย... ประเสริธ ดังตรงศักดิ ราริบจัดแ ขอบอกหมอสอกทันที่เดี้ยวนั้น เพราะ แรลกระการรับกับไปไปไปล--วิวภิสวน ปกิลิมชินตร์ เอ มรู้กมพรับอย่า ... รปกลิมฟป สรัสราช บนลงกลายหน่มของเมริสันรัย 60 มาจัด รอยระพมนร้องในกลังกับกระสัญญา พุยภาพบ แน้วงผิงพลวงพัฒย์ติดเกิง เพมือนกาพชี้มีน ร้อหวัดพิษณุโลกที่เจ้าด้วมีใหวงการปริ่มปร เลยกับกับการและกลานในใ ถ้านกับกับก โลเกียว รันที่ 6-10 พ.ค.นี้ ทริปต่อใปจะแสดง ย่นอบว่ามีปัญหาเรื่องคา ปรึกษาหมอกินลัว and or ringramSuraranvalligation safuulsaultaultan laafuurushan .ครื่องราชยิสริยาภาณขึ้นสูงสุดแก่ ก.ม.พ. กระนภาชนะวงศ์ ซึ่งปีนี้มีคนใหย่อนเดียวที่ ได้รับ-ขอว่วมแตดงความยินดิมา ณ ที่นี่....■ นการกระดับการคลักไปน พระราชกับบ unnarianu thai Food Festival fings U12CATRO ล้านักพระราชวังญี่ปุ่น

การสารประการสาร ของสารประการให้ และจุ้น ทำให้การของสารมีตามใจการให้กลายา ต้นิการสาร์แก้ระบบการใหย่ไหว้กันสองในภาย โดย ใหม่สารกัน และให้มีได้รู้ไก วยาหลังมากใหม่ห้ารวิ. สายการสายที่ได้ในครามมีแปลากราม หาราท สายอย่างให้สา" จุลสัญภาษณ์และหมายให้ เพยาลพ แระไม่ใก้เรียนใหย่า อณจาเล้ย ใช้ยังให้มีการการการใหย ยายใบมหารา้าที่สมผู้ประหยังสามให้ระหยังสามต้าง Brootraton Howentring actionary one mindu

เกลาดีเนตรโนนกกิลานกรณด ใกล้แกลพ แร้อกได้อ น.ส.ทรรณภาพูลม์ สิโหมูลท์ มักศักษา

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กรณฑกษ แต่เป็นระการ นั้นเข้าใจรากรณฑายานข้ายเริ่า

กรายกรรณศักรรณศักรรณที่สุดสาราร โดยได้รอกรสายแห่งอย่างขาก

กับกล่านการค้าม สามานการเปลาแก่จุดมากเป็นแกรก ที่ในการการการกา

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านขณายานเมือนเป็นแห่งการ แต่เป็นการและเหลือน และเป็น เป็น

การแผนพรรัชอภิณ วัฒกระวาน และประกมสมานการใหม่ ได้มาน้ำม ามข้านให้ร้องกับสีมีการรับการกลายการรับ และ นโกษณฑษณฑาษณฑาราย คิดในกลามการใหมูนา คนาไหน้หมัดเห็นจะ

ราย. พี่สำนักมีการสาย

N T T OIL

mentality "weigh" handuith marnening a 11 เมื่อหลับประกอบการว่านอาการให้เยื้อเร็าให้มีค ลิตว์ แไร้จะสังภาพอะใรที่เพิ่มพัน อย่างดีมทั่วไม่ mailminui cana unchina antequa-mandi

นในขณะมีหน้าหน้าของจับถึงด้วยให้เราะ เพื่อผู้ในพลับข้ามใน onounnou salono ununnum mutti cultural

Country Bound too Boww

กกระสุธรัณของก็ขณะอย่าง WOWNWARD BUILD WINN TO WORK กาศเฉลากระองนารถพ.กอร์ก

WITZUER IT HE TUMPHINI ตกลายใหม่ในสายกลาย Tuch and a lange and เฉยากป้าที่หากก่อยกับอิทย

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OLU BLEORING IN Type marginghum นกับสายพบพบพบกา Two in the function andu Tullaurba uccinwarown omentimention rourgenen. -out north monthach adluding ROWLER BOD METOUTON Irus no mru. และกล่ายเร็ตรัฐประกอบการโทยากประก เรียว ให้กุณของขึ้นคริสารีรี เพื่อเครื่าะ ให้หมากราย บกลุ่มรับรับกลายสายและเป็นสายรับสายครามสายสาย และสุดภิษณ์ของให้สายางการมาก ทยสาหรับผู้บริโมกค่ามหาด ัก คุณข้อของใหญ่ไปมีชื่อมาในร้องกรรดให้ให้

ากรัฐนาลทักษณ แต่ถ้าไคร

านการกระที่ได้มีการให้กระเทิดที่สุรไหก ไหน้หมี โดยฉพระเริ่มเดียงการกระกระกระกระกระ

งการกลางให้เป็นไว้ร้างสร้ายราวไรราว มาขาฐาน รามนักการสร้ายในกับสันที่มีมีขย งกับร้าง จากมีคนหน้าเป็นคลาสังที่รับกอนพัน ทั่วมีที่มีมีแหร่าระเด้าสีมรรมแหร่งสมัยราคมการ

สายเกิดสร้ายสีชังการสายสายสายการในคลองคราดีหมังควา

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ด้านอาหารใหย (ข้าย) เป็นแม่งหนึ่งข้าร โลกมกร "สร้าไหนสู่สร้าใสก"

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ามหาว ได้สามารถสายกลา

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MUNIN M บบและออก แหน่งสายการในการสายสายสายสายการสายสาย พระเทศ และได้เลื่อน านรณะหน้าหลืบวากสอร์ท เลยสองจะเว็บใหม่อย แล้อมอน้ำร้ายให้มาที่ พื้อให้ขาวออสซ้าได้มีส่วนร่ามหกุกสนานกับมาไม่มีสายสารที่มีครื่

ทร้อนกาณที่สหมายแอลิมป้า มเตเนเลอนออนตามเดินตม เกล็ดตามนิตๆ ที่น่างโชกมี umulusialumu mirutu hhim the a human กอายห" นา เพลิมที่มากไ "เมื่อหนึ่งการพบกิษณ์เรา" "แตนตรีม" สมัทสมอแหน้... "พิตเปรียะ"

โจนนักเอก มาคามอยการขับกอกต่อ "แล่ลุแกกาทดี ดิมคี 5 ใง านักษณาน การคลา นองโนโลยอน และกา "รครูใน! ไปด้" แต้น "คุณให้ไรลย์ น่ะละ 60 แล้ว นะกะ "เมื่อเพิ่มหน้ามากการกับ must uarenneminer lunamit s nu modrationan Aufluciais. C.Cucon

ล้อ.อ.อ เรื่องก็เป็นอย่างนี้นี้เอง วันตดีนแต่เข้าหรือออก วิจปรถิโอเล แต่ที่เข้านอนตต์หัวด้าน่ะ เพื่อ "ออกกำถึงกาม" สวนอิะปราวกะ?! ก็แพน.เพิ่นว่า "ฟิตปรี้มะ"--ลิกจ.



"เหย่" เป็นนักมนรรดท้องของบ้าน มีที่ขาย และให้ตั้งคลัดลอนปลิศาสตร์ มธ. อย่ามใจกุมหล ชั่งส่วนตัวตลว่า อภูกมาย rmma-2011 กละการกระกรรม เป็นการ annifu

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นัตยมแทบทุกแห่งในออลเตรเลียเริ่มต้นปีการศึกษา ใหม่หลังจากปิตเทอบปลายนานหลายสัปดาห์ เครื่อง มีนของการบินไทยอมกิรแท้งพี่หาวับใหรระเหลี่ จึงเปียบไปด้วยนักเรียนใทยและผู้ปกครองที่ต้อง สังเปียบไปด้วยนักเอียนไทยและผู้ปกครองที่ต้อง สุดน้อย 2 คน โดยมีสนี เจษญา จันเพรมะ พร่อมด้วย สูกน้อย 2 คน โดยมีสนี เจษญา จันเพรมะ พร่อมด้วย สู่กลุดความเป็นใสดระยะสั้น ๆ ไปถึงวลรับที่ต่อง สู้นลุดความเป็นใสดระยะสั้น ๆ ไปถึงวลรับที่ต่อง สู่กลัดสุดความเป็นใสดระยะสั้น ๆ ไปถึงวลรับที่ต่อง สูกต้องการบินไทยประจำออลา ตอนใต้ ตีต้อง สั้นลุดความเป็นใสดระยะสั้น ๆ ไปถึงวลรับที่ต่อง สู่กลัดสุบทรานหนีให้สิ่งที่กลังกลา กาดกากนอกสารปันสั่วก่อมารับที่ 6 มกวาคม 2548 สั่งเป็นวินีอกข้านที่สอกดั้งของทานแก่ก ดีนลู่สถานเอกอ์ครราชทุด ณ กรุงแคนบอกรัก แล้วท่านจะต้องส่งบัตรลงคะแนนเลือกดั้งของทานแก่ก ที่นลู่สถานเอกอ์ครราชทุด ณ กรุงแคนบอกรัก แล้วท่านจะต้องส่งบัตรลงคะแนนเลือกดั้งของทานแก่ก ดีนลู่สถานเอกอ์ครราชทุด และนักที่ 30 มกราคน 2548 มีจะนั้นจะเป็นบินระ เมล้าท่านจะต้องส่งบัตรลงคะแนนเลือกดั้งของทานกอก เมล้าท่านจะต้องส่งบัตรลงกรายแนนเนาร์ เหลือภายเมลน แล้งเรื่อง "ระดมเงินการ์ 20 ตอลอกร่ นายสาปรีการเป็นการดีได้หลามารถานเนา ได้เลื่อมละ 20 ตอลอกร่า หานล์กลายางเนินได้วินทางได้เลิกไปการดี กรรินกกรารได้กลูกเนิกhttp://www.waith.i brisbane.cona
 ***** กอนหน้านั้น หลังจากแลร็จงาน คอนเสิร์ตที่วยเพย่อสึนามิแล้ว ทันตแพทย์ ไหม่อน วยลเสสะ กงลุลใหญ่ (กิตติมศักดิ์) ณ นครแมลเมิร์นกรรยา วัยรี (กบ) วออเลสร กลับมาออลเตรเลียหลังจาก ภูกพาไปปล่อยไว้ในกรุงเทพา เป็นแรมเดือน คำ * พัฒนาครัวไทย พรรณากญจน์ ลี้ ไหนูลย์ นักศึกษา บริญญาเอกแห่งมทา วิทยาลัยวิตคุตเรียง ทำวิทยามัยนธ์ร่อง ทำวิทยามัยนธ์ร่อง ทำวิทยานที่มาทาร มีแจงคือ "คุณกบ" เป็นโรคแพ้ครื่องบินอย่างแรง จึงเดินทางคนเดียวไปได้ ต้องบินบอย่างแรง จึงเดินทางคนเดียวไปได้ ต้องบินบอย่างแรง ส้นทร์บบลามานรียโล ทรยโนยอยากเลียใจ การของร้านอาหาร ไทยในนดเบิร์น ***** ชีนกิศานที่มีหนอกรอยดูแลดลอด ทาง และถ้าไปเป็ทยาเดียวิมแลงครอยดูแลดลอด ทาง และถ้าไปเป็ทยาไห้กรังรุญเลียน้อง สำทรับ บรณ์ ลอยช่ามาลเปรินที่ต้องรูญเลียน้อง สำทรับ บรณ์ ลอยช่ามาลเปรินที่ที่ก้องรูญเลียน้อง สำทรับ บรณ์ ลอยช่ามาลเปรินที่ที่ก้องรูญเลียน้อง สำทรับ บรณ์ ลอยช่ามาลเปรินที่ที่ไทยโพยต์จำเม็นของกามเลียไจ ด้าทรับ เรื่อนั้ดงลากเดียวนละเบ็ญไทยโพยต์จำเทาไร รัณธ์กานเวาคมออกมาจนได้ พลีนย์กษณ์จากเตียวนละเบ็ญไทยาโพยต์จำเทาไร นักดีกแมกราคมออกมาจนได้
ใหม่ในออลแตาลัยเมื่อบี่ พ.ศ. 2530 นีเอง ***** สำหรับแหรียญตรา หรือการ ตั้งขอกาบรรดาศักดิ์ประจำปีเมืองในวันชาติซึ่งเพียบ เท่ากับเครื่องราชอิสริยาภรณ์นี่ผู้จุจุดของไทยนั้น เรียกว่า Companion of the Order of Australia เชือ AC 1 ใน 7 คนที่ได้รับในปีนี่คือ ทิม ฟิษเนยร์ หรือ AC 1 ใน 7 คนที่ได้รับในปีนี่คือ ทิม ฟิษเนอร์ การ การการการการการการการการการการการการการก
กานการณ์สำคัญในวันที่ อิลินโตรเอียน ออลเตรเลียหรือ Australia Doy เขาถือเอาวันที่ ทั่าได้น ฟิลลิป ยกพลขึ้นบท นำนักโทษลันจุกจุ่นแรก จากประเทศอังกฤษมานุกเปิกแผ่มดินออลเตรเลียให้ เป็นอาณานิคมของอังกฤษเมือ 217 ปีมาแล้ว แต่เหตุการณ์สำคัญในวันที่ 26 มกราคมสำทรับ มีจรุบัน มี 2-3 อย่าง ที่สำคัญที่สุดดูเหมือนจะเป็น การประกาศชื่อชาวออลเตรเลียคิเต่นประจำปี กาย แต่เหตุการณ์สำคัญในวันที่ 26 มกราคมสำทรับ เต่าแหน่ง "ออลซีลุดยอด" สำทรับที่นี่ตกเป็นของ แพทย์หญิง พิโตย่า วู้ด แม่ลูก 6 แต่ก็ยังอุลศาหรี เต่าในทางกันที่เนทาอิกจานที่เนตรารน์ที่การางระเบิด ครั้งนั้นซึ่งทำให้ออลสีพลอยเลียชีวิตไปด้วย 88 คน ตำแหน่งเยาวชนตร์ละที่อนปัญทาลังคม ต้านหน่งขางคนสะยารระที่ร้ายจากเวียดนานอกบุ 25 ปี ด้วยผลงานการสร้างภาพยนตร์ละท้อนปัญทาลังคม ของชนกกลุ่มน้อยในนครชิดนีโย อิลจินโตร อดิตคู่ อพยพเชื้อสายในกลรีกเตราวออลเตรเลียอาวุโลดีเต่น ประจำปีนี้เป็นของ อันโตบีโอ อิลจินโตร อิลตคู่ อพยพเชื้อสายในประจำมีนี้เป็นของ เป็นตินีโอ อีกขึ่งเปลารางการขน้อยในนารออลเตรเลียอาวุโลดีเต่น ประจำปีนี้เป็นของ อันโตบีโอ อิลจินโตอ อีกจะเนประจำมีนี้เป็นของเหนีอีนนกรายาออลเตร เลียดีเต่นประจำมีนี้เป็นของเหนีบิน ทั้งนั้น และ แพทย์หญิง วู๊ด นั้นก็เป็นผู้อิทยพเหนีอีน ทั้นแต่เชื้อสายอังกฤษ เพียงคะพบเข้ามาด้างาก กันแตเนื้อสายอังกฤษ เพียงคะพบเข้ามากจังกรากการ กันแต่เรื้อสายอังกฤษ เพิ่งอพยพเข้ามาด้างกรากการกราก

Sources: E-mail from Australia, Dailynews, Sunday 30 January 2005



Sources: E-mail from Australia, Dailynews, Sunday 16 November 2004