The impact of internet sources on Australia's destination image for Korean package and independent tourists

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Thank you so much. I love you.

Declaration

I hereby declare that

- I am the sole author of this thesis and this thesis by myself does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree in any university, and ;
- To the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any resources previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; and all substantive contributions by others to the work presented, including jointly authored publications, is clearly acknowledged.

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Hong Chul Lee

List of Publications

Several conference papers have been developed and published from this thesis. These are listed in the following:

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ABSTRACT

Tourism destination image has been a valuable concept in tourism literature for more than three decades. In an effort to investigate the destination image formation process, various researchers have studied aspects of the image constructs. From the end of the 1990s, a few studies have dealt with internet sources in tourism literature. However, studies regarding the role of internet sources in destination image formation have been limited.

The purpose of this study was to develop a conceptualisation of tourism destination image by examining the extent to which destination image formed through internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to the formation of Australia's destination image by Korean package and independent tourists.

A mixed methods approach was employed to address the study purpose, and combined both qualitative and quantitative methods in two phases. Phase one was an exploratory analysis using semi-structured interviews with 32 Korean travel agents in three state capital cities in Australia. Five major key themes and 47 topics emerged from the Phase one findings of the present study: 1) Internet sources, 2) travel motivations, 3) past experiences, 4) socio-demographics and 5) other information sources.

A total of 47 topics were classified into in each key theme and have a strong relationships. A key theme of internet sources, travel blogs and search engines were identified as the most influential media to Korean tourists. However, the findings shows that clear differences in internet usage were found depending on travel destinations, socio-demographics and travel types. According to the key theme of socio-demographics, the findings of the present study show different features from previous studies (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b). These studies found that gender and age are the most crucial factors; however, the present study demonstrated that most Korean tourists show different travel patterns depending on age and income. The findings in Phase One were incorporated into the quantitative methods for Phase Two.

In Phase Two, the sample size was 1,215 and after the data screening process, a total of 1,108 usable responses (613 package tourists and 495 independent tourists) were used for the present study. A total of 10 hypotheses were proposed in order to accomplish the research purpose and questions. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were employed to analyse the quantitative data to establish the constructs. As the model's goodness of fit, the present study used chi-

square statistics, goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root-mean-square (RMSEA). These were modified using a post hoc model, especially modification indices (MI). The final model fit indicates a good model fit. Since overall model fits are within satisfying criteria, the measurement scales for the present study are reliable and appropriate for data analysis. The analyses using SEM identified seven latent constructs: push motivation, pull motivation, internet information sources (IIS), internet usage (IU), cognitive image, affective image and overall image. As a final measure, the present study conducted one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test and cross-tab analysis.

The present study identified that destination images have strong relationships with internet sources, motivational and personal factors. Specifically, this study identified significant differences between Korean package tourists and independent tourists. The present study also examined that pull motivations affect cognitive image and push motivations affect affective image in package tourists, whereas push and pull motivations influence cognitive image in independent tourists. Interestingly, personal factors (socio-demographics, other information sources, and preferred destination) are more influential than motivational factors in internet sources and image constructs. This feature can be distinctive trait to Korean tourists. It seems that many Korean tourists show different characteristics depending on age groups, information sources and preferred destinations.

The findings of this study provide a better understanding of the relationship between constructs, specifically internet sources as important determinants in the destination image formation process by Korean tourists. Especially, the present study extended the existing destination image formation model using internet sources, which have been proposed differently to date. While some scholars have utilised internet sources into tourism literature, factors regarding internet sources have not been examined as crucial determinants in destination image formation model. Additionally, the present study also contributes to the practical aspect of tourism marketing. The present study identified that Korean package and independent tourists show different motivations and use different information sources. Therefore, understanding differences between package and independent tourists allows tourism marketers to modify their marketing strategies to Korean package and independent tourists.

Key Words: Tourism destination image, Image formation model, Korean package and independent tourists, Travelling to Australia, Internet sources, SEM.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements II
Declaration III
List of publications IV
Abstract V

Chapter1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction 2
1.2 Background of the research 3
1.2.1 The importance of destination image 3
1.2.2 The importance of the internet 4
1.2.3 Destination image formation models 5
1.2.4 Factors influencing destination image formation 7
1.2.5 Recent tourism development in South Korea 8
1.2.6 Development of the internet 9
1.3 Need for the research 10
1.4 Research purpose and questions 12
1.5 Research methodology 14
1.6 Expected research contributions 15
1.7 Glossary of key terms 16
1.8 Structure of the thesis 18

Chapter 2. Literature review

2.1 Introduction 23

2.2 Conceptualisation of Destination Image 24

2.2.1 Concept of destination image 25

2.2.1.1 Definition of destination image 25

2.2.1.2 Overview of destination image research trend 26

2.2.2 Research trend in destination image 28

2.2.2.1 Perspectives on three dimensional images 28

2.2.2.2 Perspectives on cognitive and affective image 29

2.2.3. Current research trend in destination image 31

2.2.3.1 Interdisciplinary nature 31

2.2.3.2 Analytical methods 33

2.2.3.3 Various areas of destination research 36

2.2.3.4 Impact of the internet on destination image 38

2.3 Destination Image formation process 39

2.3.1 Stage theory of destination image formation process by Gunn (1972) 39

2.3.2 Fakeye and Crompton's model (1991) of a tourist's image formation process 41

2.3.3 Gartner's (1993) Image Formation Process 43

2.3.4 Baloglu and McCleary's (1999a) destination image formation model 45

2.3.5 Beerli and Martin's (2004a) model 47

2.3.6 Beerli and Martin (2004b)'s model 48

2.3.7 Tasci and Gartner (2007)'s model 50

2.3.8 Govers, Go and Kumar (2007)'s three-gap model 52

2.3.9 Gil and Ritchie's (2008) Model 54

2.3.10 Cho, Wang and Fesenmaier's (2002) Model 56

2.4 Factors influencing the formation of destination image 58

2.4.1 Travel Motivations 58
2.4.2 Past Experiences 62
2.4.3 Socio-demographic variables 64
2.4.4 Information sources 67
2.4.5 Destination image components 71
2.5 Internet sources influencing the formation of destination image 74
2.5.1 The impact of the internet on tourism 74
2.5.2 Information search through the internet as a current trend 77
2.5.3 Types of internet information sources 79
2.5.3.1 Search engines 81
2.5.3.2 Travel blogs 82
2.5.3.3 Online advertising methods: Banner, Email and hyperlink 83
2.5.4 Internet usage 89
2.5.5 Internet in Korea 94
2.6 The characteristics of Korean tourists 99
2.6.1 Outbound travel by Koreans 99
2.6.2 Korean tourists travel to Australia 105
2.6.3 Package tourists 108
2.6.4 Independent tourists 111
2.7 Chapter summary 112

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction 114
3.2 Research design 115
3.2.1 Mixed Methods 116
3.2.1.1 Qualitative and quantitative methods 117
3.2.1.2 The advantage of mixed methods 119

3.2.2 Justifying the use of mixed methods for the present study 120
3.2.3 The rationale of the research design 121
3.2.4 Research purpose and questions 121
3.3 Qualitative phase 124
3.3.1 Qualitative pilot study 124
3.3.1.1 Focus group interviews 124
3.3.1.2 Meaning of the qualitative pilot study 126
3.3.1.3 Target population and selection of participants 126
3.3.1.4 Data collection and analysis 127
3.3.2 Qualitative main study 128
3.3.2.1 In-depth interviews 128
3.3.2.2 Target population 130
3.3.2.3 Selection of participants 131
3.3.2.4 Data collection 133
3.3.2.5 Data analysis 134
3.3.2.6 Validity and reliability 136
3.3.2.7 Ethical considerations 138
3.4 Quantitative phase 138
3.4.1. Proposed research model & hypotheses 138
3.4.2. Procedure 149
3.4.3. Target population 151
3.4.4 Questionnaire development 152
3.4.5 Quantitative pilot study 156
3.4.5.1. Data collection 156
3.4.5.2 Initial factor analysis and reliability test 157
3.4.6 Final instrument 158
3.4.7 Quantitative main study 159
3.4.7.1. Ethical considerations 159
3.4.7.2 Data collection 160

3.4.7.3 Data analysis 161
3.5. Chapter summary 166

Chapter 4. Results of Qualitative Phase

4.1 Introduction 168
4.2 Qualitative research questions 169
4.3 Coding theme tree for qualitative phase 170
4.4 General Themes emerging from the data 173
4.5 Specific themes emerging from coding theme tree 175
4.5.1 Key Themes and Topics 176
4.5.2 Regional differences among three state capital cities 180
4.5.3 Differences between package and independent tourists 184
4.6 The characteristics of internet sources 187
4.7 Chapter summary 188

Chapter 5. Results of Quantitative Phase

5.1. Introduction 190
5.2 Quantitative research questions and hypotheses 191
5.3 Quantitative pilot study 193
5.4 Quantitative main study 198
5.4.1 Data measurement 198
5.4.1.1 Data screening 198
5.4.1.2 Appropriate sample size 199
5.4.1.3 Missing values 199

5.4.2 Data normality 200
5.4.3 Measurement of constructs 201
5.5 Results 204
5.5.1 Descriptive statistics of the sample 204
5.5.2 Exploratory factor analysis 206
5.5.3 Confirmatory factor analysis: The measurement model 211
5.5.4 Structural equation modelling (SEM) 234
5.5.5 ANOVA, T-test and Cross-tabulation 245
5.6 Chapter summary 260

Chapter 6. Discussions and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction 263
6.2 Restatement of research purpose and questions 265
6.3 Interrelationships between qualitative and quantitative phases 266
6.4 Identified research gaps and significant implications 268
6.4.1 Identified research gaps 268
6.4.2 Significant implications 269
6.5 Comparing package and independent tourists 270
6.6 Role of internet sources 274
6.6.1 The role of internet sources in the qualitative phase 275
6.6.2 The role of internet sources in the quantitative phase 279
6.7 Research limitations 283
6.7.1 Limitations in data collection process 284
6.7.2 Limitations in under-researched area 284
6.7.3 Limitations in generalisation of the research findings 284
6.8 Conclusions and contributions of the research 284

6.9 Suggestions for further research 287

References **288**

Appendices **332**

List of figures

Chapter1. Introduction

Figure 1.1 Outline of Chapter 1 within the thesis 3
Figure 1.2 Structure of the study 20

Chapter2. Literature Review

Figure 2.1 Outline of Chapter 2 within the thesis 24
Figure 2.2 Three dimensional images 29
Figure 2.3 Stage-theories of destination image 41
Figure 2.4 A model of tourists' image formation process by Fakeye & Crompton (1991) 42
Figure 2.5 Gartner (1993)'s model 45
Figure 2.6 Baloglu and McCleary (1999a)'s destination image formation model 46
Figure 2.7 Beerli and Martin (2004a)'s model 48
Figure 2.8 Beerli and Martin (2004b)'s model 50
Figure 2.9 A model of destination image and its relationship 52
Figure 2.10 Three-gap model by Govers, Go and Kumar (2007) 54
Figure 2.11 Gil and Ritchie (2008)'s Model 55
Figure 2.12 Cho, Wang and Fesenmaier (2002)'s Model 57
Figure 2.13 The framework proposed by Yoon & Uysal (2005) 62
Figure 2.14 Percentage of internet user in the United States 75
Figure 2.15 Online search/purchase and online advertising/selling 78
Figure 2.16 Tourism Australia Website 87
Figure 2.17 World Internet Users and Population Stats 90
Figure 2.18 Internet users as percentage of population in Australia 90
Figure 2.19 Integrated Information Response Model 94
Figure 2.20 Broadband penetration by technology 95
Figure 2.21 Average internet speed 95

Figure 2.22 Internet using rate and internet users in Korea 96
Figure 2.23 Internet usage rate by age in Korea 98
Figure 2.24 Total number of Korean Tourists from 1988 to 2008 100
Figure 2.25 Total travel expenditure by Korean outbound tourists from 2005 to 2008 102
Figure 2.26 Korea's top five outbound destinations 103
Figure 2.27 Main travel purpose by Korean tourists 103
Figure 2.28 Frequently used information sources 104
Figure 2.29 Most dominant travel patterns 104
Figure 2.30 Total number of Korean tourists to Australia from 1988 to 2008 105
Figure 2.31 Segmentation of Korean tourists 106

Chapter3. Methodology

Figure 3.1 Outline of Chapter 3 within the thesis 115
Figure 3.2 Sequential research design 116
Figure 3.3 Data analysis procedure 134
Figure 3.4 Process of using the NVivo program 135
Figure 3.5 Whole research model 140
Figure 3.6 Research model for H1~H5 141
Figure 3.7 Research model for H6~H10 142
Figure 3.8 Research procedure 150

Chapter 4. Results in Qualitative Phase

Figure 4.1 Outline of Chapter 4 within the thesis 169
Figure 4.2 NVivo Coding Theme Tree 172

Chapter5. Results in Quantitative Phase

Figure 5.1 Outline of Chapter 5 within the thesis 191
Figure 5.2 16-item measurement model for push motivation construct 213
Figure 5.3 18-item measurement model for pull motivation construct 215
Figure 5.4 12-item measurement model for cognitive image 216
Figure 5.5 Four-item measurement model for affective image 216
Figure 5.6 Seven-item measurement model for internet information sources 217
Figure 5.7 Nine item measurement model for internet usage 218
Figure 5.8 16-item measurement model for push motivation construct 224
Figure 5.9 18-item measurement model for pull motivation construct 226
Figure 5.10 11-item measurement model for cognitive image 228
Figure 5.11 Four-item measurement model for affective image 228
Figure 5.12 Eight-item measurement model for internet information sources 229
Figure 5.13 Eight-item measurement model for internet usage 231
Figure 5.14 Proposed SEM model for package tourists 237
Figure 5.15 Fitted SEM model for package tourists 238
Figure 5.16 Proposed SEM model for independent tourists 241
Figure 5.17 Fitted SEM model for independent tourists 242

Chapter 6. Discussions and Conclusions

Figure 6.1 Outline of Chapter 6 within the thesis 264

List of tables

Chapter 1. Introduction

Table 1.1 Glossary of key terms.....16

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Table 2.1 Definition of cognitive and affective image components 72
Table 2.2 Measurement items of cognitive and affective image components 73
Table 2.3 Number of international tourists to Australia who used the internet 76
Table 2.4 Tourists who used the internet and proportion by country.....76

Chapter 3. Methodology

Table 3.1 Comparison of qualitative and quantitative method 118
Table 3.2 A comparison between three research methods.....118
Table 3.3 Research questions for the present study 123
Table 3.4 Benefits and drawbacks of focus group interviews.....124
Table 3.5 Types of questions in the focus group interviews.....125
Table 3.6 Sample profile of the pilot study.....127
Table 3.7 Summary of three types of interviews 129
Table 3.8 Interview data sample by locations.....132
Table 3.9 Sample Profile of interview respondents.....132
Table 3.10 Techniques for qualitative validity and reliability 137
Table 3.11 Summary of proposed 10 hypotheses 144
Table 3.12 Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaire.....152
Table 3.13 The key points in developing questionnaires.....153

Table 3.14 Main constructs of self-administered questionnaires 154
Table 3.15 Key references for scale development 155
Table 3.16 Number of responses for the quantitative pilot study 157
Table 3.17 The details of the research instrument before and after revision 158
Table 3.18 Summary of Different Fit Indices 164

Chapter 4. Results in Qualitative Phase

Table 4.1 Regional differences among three cities 184
Table 4.2 Differences between package and independent tourists 185

Chapter 5. Results in Quantitative Phase

Table 5.1 A demographic profile of Korean residents in quantitative pilot study 194
Table 5.2 The details of the initial factor analysis in quantitative pilot study 195
Table 5.3 Details of measurement of motivation construct 201
Table 5.4 Details of measurement of internet sources construct 202
Table 5.5 Details of measurement of internet sources construct 203
Table 5.6 Details of measurement of personal construct 204
Table 5.7 A demographic profile of Korean package and independent tourists 204
Table 5.8 Final EFA results of package tourists' data 206
Table 5.9 Final EFA results of independent tourists' data 208
Table 5.10 Summary of measurement models for package tourists' data 219
Table 5.11 Summary of reliability and validity tests 220
Table 5.12 Correlation matrix between constructs for package tourists 222
Table 5.13 Summary of measurement models for independent tourists' data 231
Table 5.14 Summary of reliability and validity tests 232
Table 5.15 Correlation matrix between constructs for independent tourists 234
Table 5.16 Restatement of fit indices utilised it this study 235
Table 5.17 Comparing model fit between initial and final model for package data 236
Table 5.18 Supported hypotheses of package data 236

Table 5.19 Comparing model fit between initial and final model for independent data 239
Table 5.20 Supported hypotheses of package data 240
Table 5.21 Hypotheses results by package data 243
Table 5.22 Hypotheses results by independent data 244
Table 5.23 The summary of H6 247
Table 5.24 The summary of H7 248
Table 5.25 The summary of H8 251
Table 5.26 The summary of H9 251
Table 5.27 The summary of H10 252
Table 5.28 The summary of H6 255
Table 5.29 The summary of H7 255
Table 5.30 The summary of H8 258
Table 5.31 The summary of H9 259
Table 5.32 The summary of H10 259

Chapter 6. Discussions and Conclusions

Table 6.1 A part of the findings of qualitative phase 272
Table 6.2 Summary of the influence of motivational factors on internet source and internet sources on image for both package and independent tourists 280

The impact of internet sources on Australia's destination image for Korean package and independent tourists

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Destination image is one of the most popular research topics in tourism literature due to its power to appeal to certain images into potential tourists' minds. As potential tourists are able to use multiple information sources, such as information from the internet, their demand and expectations regarding destinations are increased compared with before. South Korea was the fastest growing country (annual growth rate was 21.97%) on outbound travel in the period of 1980-1992 (March 2000). The number of South Korean outbound tourists has increased from 725,000 in 1988 to over 12 million in 2008 (approximately) increasing by 1,837% between 1988 and 2008 (KNTO 2009).

The purpose of this thesis is to develop a conceptualisation of tourism destination image by examining the extent to which destination image formed through internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to the formation of Australia's destination image by South Korean package and independent tourists. In order to accomplish the research purpose, the present study performed specialised procedures. As an at-a-glance overview of the thesis, this introduction chapter contextualises the thesis to assist readability and understanding.

The background of the research is then described followed by the need for the research. Despite numerous researchers' endeavours to date, research gaps still exist in tourism destination image literature, especially image formation models. Specifically, this thesis emphasises the importance and role of the internet sources by South Korean tourists travelling to Australia.

The research purpose and research questions are explained along with the research methodology used to address them. Sequentially, expected contributions of the present study are presented, followed by glossary of key terms. Lastly, the structure of the thesis is explained, followed by flow diagram showing the structure of the study at the end of this chapter. The outline of this chapter is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

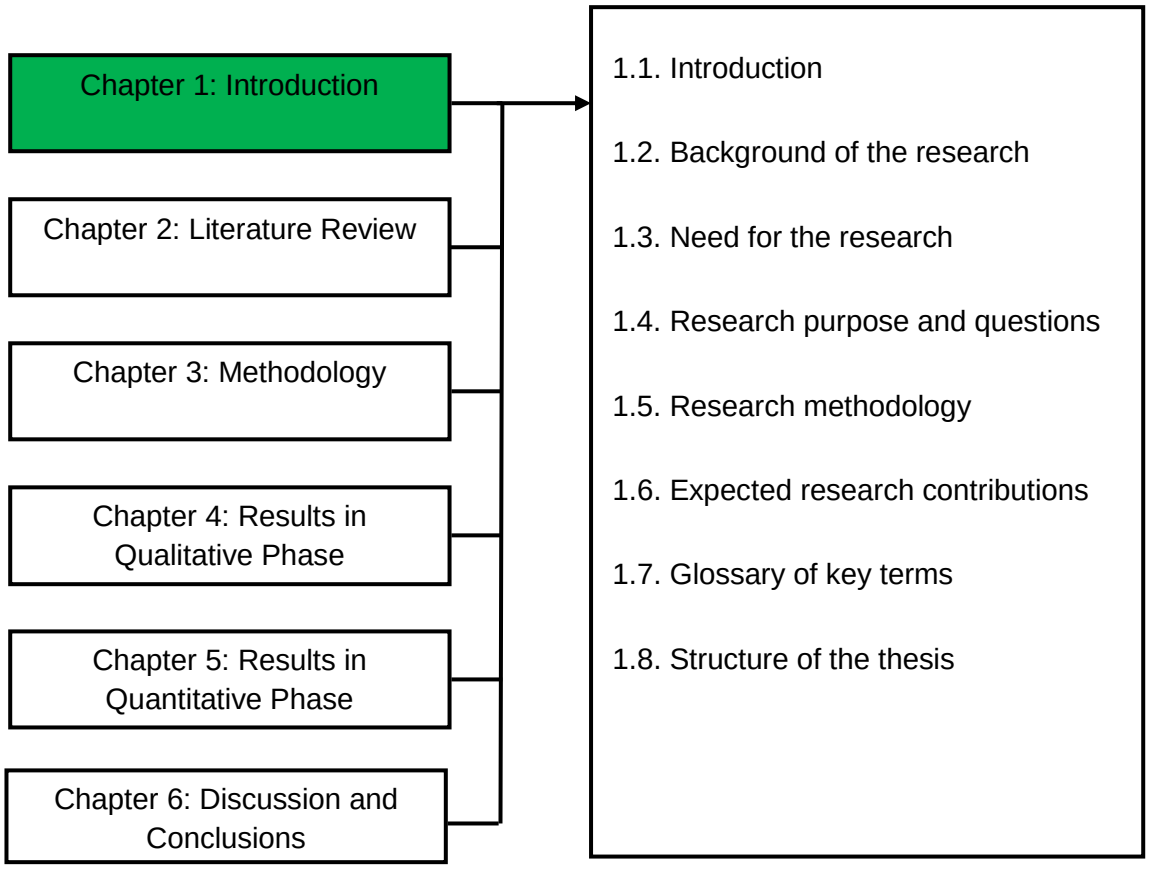


Figure 1.1 Outline of Chapter 1 within the thesis

1.2 Background of the research

1.2.1. The importance of destination image

Due to globalisation, international tourists have more attractions in and opportunities for international travel. Also, as international boundaries continue to narrow, more destinations are accessible than ever before. Every year, millions of tourists cross international borders to see what exists across them. In this situation, several tourism researchers (Baloglu & Mangaloglu 2001; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Bigne, Sanchez & Sanchez 2001; Chaudhary 2000; Crompton 1979; Echtner & Ritchie 1993; Frias, Rodriguez & Castaneda 2007; Gunn 1972; Milman & Pizam 1995; Gartner 1993; Lee, Lee & Lee 2005) have

demonstrated that tourism destination image is a valuable concept in investigating the destination selection process and behaviour of tourists.

Since destination image affects the individual's subjective perception and consequent behaviour and destination choice process (Gallarza, Saura & Garcia 2002), the importance of destination image is generally recognised. In addition, tourists' views or images of a particular destination are unique, constructed from their own memories, associations and imagination of that destination (Jenkins & McArthur 1996). Due to the characteristics of tourism products, like complexity (Smith 2005), intangibility (Fakeye & Crompton 1991) and multidimensionality (Gartner 1993), Gallarza et al. (2002), the research on tourism destination image faces many challenges because of the difficulties in measuring it.

In spite of these difficulties, researchers have made attempts to propose a definition of destination image (Alhemoud & Armstrong 1996; Choi, Lehto, & Morrison 2007; Dichter 1985; Fridgen 1987; Gallarza et al. 2002; Gartner 1993; Govers, Go, & Kumar 2007; Gunn 1972; Hunt 1975; Kim & Richardson 2003; Walmsley & Jenkins 1984). Until the 1990s, some scholars defined destination image as the process of decision making (Alhemoud & Armstrong 1996), simplified impressions (Mayo 1973), mental representation (Fridgen 1987), travel experience process (Gunn 1972), and a product of the mind (Walmsley & Jenkins 1984). However, from the end of the 1990s some researchers have been trying a new approach of destination image. Gallarza et al. (2002) emphasised tourism destination image should be defined as a more comprehensive theoretical framework and a conceptual model. Tourism destination images are becoming increasingly fragmented and ephemeral in nature (Govers et al. 2007).

1.2.2. The importance of the internet

The internet has drastically transformed the distribution and marketing of tourism products (Buhalis & Licata 2002) and information consumption patterns have been reshaped. The use of the internet fundamentally changes the communication process, from traditional to electronic media (Dann 1996).

In the perspective of tourism area, as the massive amount of tourism information available through the internet to potential tourists, increasing numbers of tourists have been using the internet as a main source of information (Govers & Go 2003; Lee & Park 2003; Stepchenkova & Eales 2010).

As the internet is now a significant information source for potential tourists in the information search stage of the travel planning process (Xiang & Gretzel 2010; Xiang & Fesenmaier 2005), over 200 million travel related information searches have been conducted each month via the internet and approximately 95% of internet users rely on internet information as part of their travel information (Cox, Burgess, Sellitto, & Buultjens, 2008). Furthermore, tourism and information technology (IT) have become two of the largest and most energetic industries in the world (Lee & Park 2003; Sheldon 1997) and internet sources are recognised as the most powerful social media (Frías, Rodríguez, Castañeda, Sabiote & Buhalis 2012; Hyun & O'Keefe 2011) in destination image formation by potential tourists.

While destination image has been examined comprehensively due to its complex nature and its important role, research on the internet is still in its infancy stage (Choi et al. 2007). Indeed, destination image has become a much more complex process than ever before. The effect of the internet on destination image has been receiving more attention from researchers and destination marketing practitioners.

1.2.3. Destination image formation models

Some researchers have emphasised the importance of the image formation model in the travel process. Gunn (1972) established the stage theory with organic and induced images. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) conceptualised a model of the image formation process using image differences. Gartner (1993) proposed the image formation process as a continuum of separate sources that operate independently and proposed eight sources for the image formation process, based on organic and induced images.

Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) established a destination image formation model from different sources using a path model. They pointed out personal and stimulus factors to affect the image of a destination. In this model, they included three major determinants (travel

motivations, previous experiences and socio-demographic variables) and two image constructs (cognitive and affective images). Cognitive image represents the beliefs or knowledge about a destination whereas affective image stands for feelings. Based on this model, Beerli and Martin (2004a) modified an earlier model that differentiated between first and repeat visitors using information sources and personal factors. In a similar context, Beerli and Martin (2004b) examined the relationship among motivations, past experiences, socio demographics and image constructs.

The difference between the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) models was that the Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) models compared first and repeat visitors, while the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) model examined tourists before actual visitation. In addition, the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) model tested only two socio-demographic variables, whereas the Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) models used five components of socio-demographic variables. The Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) models adopted organic, induced and autonomous sources of information, while the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) model employed the term of stimulus factors, including amount and type of information sources.

Based on Fakeye and Crompton (1991)'s model, Cho, Wang and Fesenmaier (2002) identified web-based virtual tour model. They proposed an informative image after naïve image and they added to Fakeye and Crompton (1991)'s model. Their model is based on the consideration of the information that tourists acquire through the information search process, such as traditional media. Furthermore, the key point of this model was an evaluative image. They argued this image developed during the virtual experience is absolutely different from an informative image obtained during the information search process. It means that tourists who experienced a virtual tour can evaluate destinations with their own technique and extend the information search process.

Tasci and Gartner (2007) proposed a model based on previous literature on destination image and suggested its elaborate relationship. They argued destination image is a compound of a wide range of factors, including image formation factors and destination image (autonomous, induced and organic types, holistic and attributes components and consumer behaviour). However, even though the various destination formation models have been outlined, there are no destination formation models regarding the internet.

1.2.4. Factors influencing destination image formation

Two factors play a significant role in the image formation process: stimulus factors and personal factors. Stimulus factors can be mentioned as information sources or previous experiences, whereas personal factors can be symbolised by motivations and socio-demographic characteristics (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Baloglu & Mangaloglu 2001). Based on their model, Beerli and Martin (2004) developed an advanced model including information sources and personal factors. In the same context, Cho et al. (2002) developed destination image formation process including a virtual tour.

Specifically, according to Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b), travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables and information sources influence the formation of destination image. Firstly, most tourism motivations have tended to revolve around the concepts of 'pull' and 'push' motivations (Crompton 1979; Yoon & Uysal 2005). Secondly, past travel experiences may be more important and credible than other information sources (Fodness & Murray 1999; Mazursky 1989). The reason is tourists who have several experiences with a destination are more familiar than first time visitors, so the need to receive information from external sources becomes weaker.

Thirdly, most image formation models have integrated socio-demographic variables as usual features (Friedmann & Lessig 1986; Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Although socio-demographic variables such as ages, gender, education, income, occupation, and marital status have been suggested as factors influencing images, age (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Fridgen 1987; Husbands 1989) and level of education (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a; Husbands 1989) appeared to be the major determinants of image. Fourthly, various information sources contribute to the destination image formation (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a).

Lastly, the significance of the internet as an information source has been well recognised in previous studies (Choi et al. 2007; Govers, et al. 2007; Law, Leung & Wong 2004). With the development of the internet in the 1990s many tourists utilised internet sources (Ryan 2001) and as a result, strategies for distributing promotional messages have changed (Choi et al. 2007). As potential tourists have become more self-determining and independent using a broad range of information through the internet for their travel (Buhalis 1998), the internet

has become one of the most important tourist information sources. Lake (2001) identified that around 95% of internet users generally collect travel-related content and almost 93% of these tourism websites when planning for their travel. For the present study, internet sources are integrated as one of the most important factors to achieve research purpose and questions.

1.2.5. Recent tourism development in South Korea

South Korea has become one of the principal outbound tourist generating countries in Asia and Pacific region in recent decades (Cho, 1998), since entirely removing overseas travel restrictions in January 1989. Until 1983, international travel was strongly prohibited, except for privileged classes and people aged over 50 years who could travel with the permission of the South Korean government (Ahn & Ahmed 1994). However, after the decision in 1981 to host the Olympic Games, the South Korean government turned its attention to encouraging tourism, following decades of fostering manufacturing (Ahn & Ahmed 1994). After the 1988 Olympics, international demands on South Korea to engage in two-way tourism have seen a gradual lowering in overseas travel restrictions (Lim 2004).

One of the reasons for increasing international tourists is South Korea's economic success which became an example in developing countries (Kwon 1998). Consequently, the number of South Korean tourists travelling overseas has increased from 725,000 in 1988 to nearly 12 million in 2008 (KNTO 2009). In 2009, South Korea's top five outbound destinations were China, Japan, Thailand, the US and the Philippines with Australia being the 13th destination (Australia Tourism Commission 2010). Concurrently, as an overseas holiday and pleasure travel destination, South Korean is the fifth largest inbound market in Australia (Australian Tourism Commission 2010). This is due to strong economic growth, the liberalisation of outbound travel regulations, the commencement of direct flights between the two countries, a favourable image of Australia, and the Australian Tourist Commission's effective promotions (Cho 1998).

In addition, in March 2010, South Korea recorded the largest increase in the inbound Australian market, up 30 percent compared to March 2009. According to KNTO (2009), 42.8% of South Korean international outbound tourists used package tour products (7.4% of basic package tours and 35.4% of all-inclusive tours). However, in 2005, package tourists made up

60.1% of all outbound South Korean tourists (3.5% of basic package tours and 56.6% of all-inclusive tours). It is assumed that the main cause of this decline is the impact of various information sources including the Internet. Compared with independent travel, package travel increased from 39.9% in 2005 to 57.2% in 2008. It seems that this trend will continue in the future and at the same time, the impact of the travel agencies will be reduced. In the case of travel preference by South Koreans, recognition of Australia as future travel country was also decreased from 43.8% to 16.8%. In this situation, research on this issue with South Korean tourists is necessary to provide insight into the travel marketing and academic aspects. However, research on this topic was limited.

1.2.6. Development of the internet

From the end of the 1990s, some researchers have been trying a new approach of destination image. The use of the internet has fundamentally changed the communication process from traditional to electronic media (Dann 1996). The Internet has drastically transformed the distribution and marketing of tourism products (Buhalis & Licata 2002) and information consumption patterns have been reshaped.

Through the internet, potential tourists can use information instantly about anywhere in the world, and the tourists can play a more active role in the search for information. The ability of the internet to facilitate two-way communication is a useful marketing tool (Werthner & Klein 2000). Moreover, the Internet provides interactivity and transactions differently compared with traditional media (Gretzel, Yuan, & Fesenmaier 2000). In a similar context, Buhalis (2000) indicated that the internet would enable destinations to enhance destination competitiveness by increasing visibility, reducing costs, and enhancing local cooperation. Due to that increased importance of digital information, the timing, costs and strategies for distributing promotional messages have changed (Choi et al. 2007).

Since the arrival of Internet, centralised control over destination information distribution is almost impossible. Therefore, it is necessary to research and redefine the role of internet sources in shaping destination image (Cho et al. 2002; Choi et al. 2007; O'Connor 1999). Gallarza et al. (2002) that emphasised tourism destination image should be defined as a more comprehensive theoretical framework and a conceptual model. South Korean tourists rely

heavily on the Internet, since 77.3 percent of South Koreans use the Internet and 52.5 percent of South Koreans use wireless internet (KNTO 2009). Moreover, broadband service in South Korea is much faster and less expensive than it is in the United States and many other countries (KNTO 2009).

Specifically, due to the impact of new media, including user generated content (UGC) and consumer generated media (CGM), such as Facebook, Cyworld, travel blogs, Twitter and podcasts, most potential South Korean tourists are able to exchange their travel information and opinions towards specific destinations. As the one of leading countries for high-speed broadband access, South Korean potential tourists virtually control the all-inclusive range of travel-related contents using UGC and CGM from internet searches to instant messengers (such as MSN and NateOn) and can be one of the primary consumers of on-line shopping in e-commerce for travel-related services and products (Rhee, Riggins & Kim 2009).

Destination image has been examined comprehensively due to its complex nature and its important role; however, research on the Internet as a destination image is needed. Certainly, destination image has become a much more complex process than ever before due to the unique characteristics and proliferation of the internet. Destination image projected on the web is receiving greater attention from researchers and destination marketing practitioners.

Unfortunately, despite the importance of the South Korean market in Australia and the effects of the internet sources on South Korean tourists, research into the effect of the internet on destination image formation by South Korean tourists is still in its infancy. In particular, a theoretical understanding is needed of how destination image is formed related to the Internet sources with South Korean tourists and what are the most influential determinants with South Korean tourists.

1.3. Need for the research

As outlined in Section 1.2.1 a more conceptual framework for destination image has to be examined comprehensively. Particular research gaps are in the use of image formation models. Firstly, while the importance of image formation models in the tourism literature has been acknowledged, past research on the effects of Internet sources on destination image has

been limited, and the result of research is outdated. With the rapid advance of Internet technology, tourists have been widely exposed to Internet sources about tourism destinations. Additionally, with the development of the user-generated content (UGC) information search environment (Lee & Park 2003), opinion exchange between experienced and non-experienced tourists to specific destinations through travel blogs and online media has become a significant issue. Furthermore, the development of the internet has influenced the travel environment significantly and enables tourists to competently form their destination images through online access of search engines (Xiang, Gretzel & Fesenmaier2009), travel blogs (Carson 2008) and online promotion activities (Lee 2009).

Secondly, while admitting the importance of the internet sources in the destination formation process, most scholars agree that destination image research areas with internet sources have not been thoroughly studied. Therefore, this study included the impact of the internet sources on the formation of Australia's destination image by South Korean tourists.

Thirdly, even if a few studies have utilised travel motivation factors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Yoon & Uysal 2005), understanding of travel motivations is needed. As tourists express diverse behaviour and motivations in travel decision making processes and actual travel stages, there is a need to employ specific motivation theories, such as push and pull motivation theory which has been broadly accepted in the tourism and marketing literature (Dann 1977; Oh, Uysal & Weaver 1995).

Lastly, even though South Korea has emerged as the fifth largest inbound market in Australia (Australian Tourism Commission, 2010) and as an outbound holiday and pleasure travel destination, there are no studies using South Korean tourists in destination image formation model. As South Korea has become one of the major outbound tourist generating countries in the Asia and Pacific region in recent decades (Cho 1998), the South Korean travel market needs to be specifically understood from Australia's perspective. To address the research gap identified above, this study investigated tourism destination images of South Korean tourists to Australia.

Based on research gaps as discussed above, the rationale for choosing South Korean tourists as a context of the research is as follows:

1) As South Korea became one of the most important inbound markets to Australia in recent decades, a profound understanding of South Korean market is necessary to provide a marketing strategies and academic implications

2) As South Korea is one of the advanced countries in IT, a theoretical understanding regarding internet sources by South Korean outbound tourists is needed to examine how destination image is formed in relation to the internet sources

3) Since the characteristics of South Korean package and independent tourists changed due to the numerous information sources available, especially internet sources, an extensive understanding of South Korean package and independent tourists can help to provide insights into destination image formation.

1.4. Research purpose and questions

The purpose of the present study is to develop a conceptualisation of tourism destination image by examining the extent to which destination image formed through internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to the formation of Australia's destination image by South Korean package and independent tourists.

The present study seeks to achieve the following research questions based on the context of destination image using both qualitative interview results with South Korean travel agents who act as representatives of South Korean tourists and quantitative survey results with South Korean package and independent tourists travelling to Australia. To achieve the research purpose as stated above, research questions in the qualitative and quantitative phase respectively were developed for the present study. The research questions are:

Qualitative Phase

Qualitative Research Question 1:

What key themes and topics can be examined in the narratives of Australia's destination image held by South Korean travel agents?

Qualitative Research Question 2:

What are the foremost regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia recognised by Korean travel agents?

Qualitative Research Question 3:

What do Korean travel agents think are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists with regard to Australia's destination image?

Qualitative Research Question 4:

How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

Quantitative Phase

Quantitative Research Question 1:

What are the major different respects between Korean package and independent tourists towards Australia's destination image?

Quantitative Research Question 2:

How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

Quantitative Research Question 3:

How do the aspects of internet information sources, internet usages, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to destination image?

1.5. Research methodology

A mixed method research design using two sequential phases was devised to address the research purpose and questions; they will be referred to as the qualitative and quantitative phases. Qualitative methods were used for the first phase, which was an exploratory study of destination image by South Korean tourists to Australia. Sequentially, qualitative methods are employed to accomplish the research purpose, facilitating the attainment of a profound understanding. The qualitative phase sought to obtain a preliminary understanding of internet sources, travel motivational factors and personal factors that contribute to Australia's destination image by South Korean tourists as perceived by Korean travel agents working in three state capital cities of Australia and to generate items for inclusion in the survey instrument for the second quantitative phase.

Data for Phase One was gained from in-depth interviews with 32 South Korean travel agents in three state capital cities, Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide. Data gained from the interviews were analysed using NVivo 8.0 to identify relevant themes that emerged from the data.
As a result, coding themes were built using tree nodes in order to answer research questions.

Quantitative methods were employed for Phase Two, which was an examination of destination image formation model by South Korean package and independent tourists travelling to Australia. Phase Two integrated the Phase One findings into an instrument that was used to survey South Korean tourists visiting Australia. The primary aim of the quantitative phase is to gain an in-depth understanding of Australia's destination image by South Korean tourists. In order to scrutinise the research model for the present study, seven constructs, such as travel motivational factors (divided into push and pull motivations), personal factors (included past experiences, socio-demographics, information sources and preferred destinations), internet information sources, internet usage, cognitive image, affective image and overall image are employed.

The data collected in South Korea were analysed with the SPSS version 18.0 and AMOS version 17.0 statistical programs. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used for item

reduction and to identify the dimensionality of the important research concepts. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the goodness of fit of each measurement model and consolidate the identified latent variables in each concept. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the hypothesised relationships among travel motivational factors, internet information sources, internet usage, cognitive image, affective image and overall image. Finally, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), t-test and cross-tab were used to investigate the relationships among personal factors, internet information sources, internet usage, cognitive image, affective image and overall image.

1.6. Expected research contributions

The present study is important in several aspects with respect to the tourism literature on the formation of destination image towards specific destinations. As stated above (see Section1.3), in spite of numerous researchers' efforts to date, there exist research gaps, especially in destination image formation models. Therefore, this study makes a contribution to the body of tourism literature for both academics and practitioners.

Firstly, as past research on the effects of internet sources on destination image has been limited and the result of research is outdated, the findings of the present study can be considered a theory building frontier research regarding the effect of internet sources on destination image. Furthermore, while admitting the importance of the internet sources in the destination image formation models, the impact of internet sources on these models has not been thoroughly studied. So, the findings of the present study can be valuable in understanding the relationships between internet sources and other constructs within destination image formation models.

Secondly, even if various studies have used travel motivation factors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Yoon & Uysal 2005), a comprehensive and explicit understanding of travel motivations is needed, especially in the destination image formation model. Since there is no literature among destination image formation models, the present study which includes push and pull motivational theory in the model can be broadly accepted in the tourism literature.

Thirdly, since the number of South Korean tourists travelling to Australia has been increasing dramatically and has been recognised as the fifth largest inbound market in Australia, this study can contribute to further understanding of the South Korean market.

Lastly, this study has had practical contributions for the success of marketing destination. In order to provide more favourable image, it is necessary to offer more segmented marketing strategies for a specific market. And as each tourist has different motivation and characteristics, standardised mass marketing is not satisfactory. Additionally, as most potential tourists have been exposed to various information sources, segmented marketing including database marketing should be allocated and delivered to tourists individually to enhance destination competitiveness. Concurrently, managers in destination have to consider the role of motivation, past experiences, socio demographics and internet sources respectively and the relationships which were identified in this study. Therefore, the findings of the present study are particularly significant for future research given the increasing number of South Korean tourists travelling to Australia, and the expanding importance of South Korea as a tourism exporter.

1.7. Glossary of key terms

As variety of definitions and abbreviations used by different researchers, the key terms used in this study have been defined to ensure there is no confusion about their use here. The following terms and abbreviations are important to an understanding of the frame of reference for this study.

Table 1.1. Glossary of key terms

Affective image	An individual's feelings towards the object or attachment to it
Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	The attribution of variation in a response variable to variations in one or more categorical explanatory variables
Cognitive image	Knowledge about the places' objective attributes

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)	A multivariate statistical technique that seeks to test a theory about latent processes
Construct	An image, idea or theory, especially a complex one formed from a number of simpler elements
Cross tab	The process made with two or more data sources (variables) that are tabulating the results of one against the other
Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)	A multivariate statistical technique that seeks to describe and summarise data by grouping together variables that are correlated
Independent tourists	Tourists who prepare and direct all procedures by themselves
Information sources	All of the resources gathered from all media or person
Other information sources	All information sources except internet sources
Package tourists	Tourists who purchase group travel products from travel agencies
Past experiences	South Korean tourists' previous travel experiences to Australia
Pull motivations	External, situational or cognitive aspects
Push motivations	Internal, socio-psychological or emotional aspects
Sample	The individuals from the target population that are selected for questioning or interview, that is, the group of participants or respondents
Socio-demographics	South Korean tourists' gender, age, occupations, level of education and level of income
South Korea	As there exist South and North Korea, the present study use the term "Korea" instead of South Korea from this point
Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	A multivariate statistical technique combining aspects of multiple regression and factor analysis to estimate a series of interrelated dependence relationships simultaneously
Structural model	A set of one or more dependence relationships linking the hypothesised model's constructs, and representing the

	interrelationships of variables between dependence relationships
T-test	assesses whether the means of two groups are *statistically* different from each other
Target population	The whole group of individuals about which it is aimed to draw conclusions
Visiting friends or relatives (VFR)	Tourists who have a motivation about visiting friends, family or relatives

1.8. Structure of the thesis

This thesis is composed of six chapters. Chapter 1 provided the research background, need for the research, and then demonstrated research purpose and research questions for the present study. It also specified research methodology in order to achieve the research purpose stated above. It also provided expected research contributions and glossary of key terms in the present study. The chapter concluded with this overview of the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 is a detailed literature review that consists of five topics that inform this study. The first topic addresses the conceptualisation of destination image. It also discusses current research trends within the tourism literature. The second topic deals with the destination image formation process. In this topic, the present study summarises 10 previous destination image formation models strongly related to the purpose of the present study. In the third topic, factors influencing the formation of destination image are described. These factors addressed are utilised for the present study. The fourth topic is the influence of the internet sources on the formation of destination image. Currently, the internet has enormous impact on decision making during travel and has become the most powerful information search tool. Furthermore, the present study provides types of internet information sources and internet usage. For the last topic, the present study presents the current situation in Korea. Firstly, it addresses the characteristics of Korean tourists. Secondly, it explains the definition of package and independent tourists and current statistics regarding Korea's outbound travel and concludes with a chapter summary.

Chapter 3 provides a detailed account of the research methodology and discusses how the research was developed and conducted. The choice of a mixed methods approach is explained, and two research phases, qualitative and quantitative are described. The methodology and methods described in Chapter 3 provide the context within which the findings in the following results chapter (Chapter 4) can be understood. This chapter specifically explained the procedures of the data collection and data analytical methods including pilot study and main study in both qualitative and quantitative phases.

In Chapter 4, major findings of the qualitative data analysis are discussed and interpreted. Data from in-depth interviews, the specific key themes, including theme tree obtained using NVivo are presented, along with regional differences among three state capital cities and differences between package and independent tourists. Lastly, the characteristics of internet sources are discussed.

Chapter 5 discusses major findings of the quantitative phase. Specifically, the present study firstly provides the results of quantitative pilot study, followed by data analysis. This chapter provides the results of the analysis of two sets of data, package and independent data, using EFA, CFA, SEM, ANOVA, T-test and cross-tab analysis.

Chapter 6 presents the discussion and conclusions of the findings for the study. It firstly provides a summary of both the qualitative and quantitative phases. It then presents an overall discussion of the findings for the tourism literature. It concludes with research limitations, contributions and suggestions for further research. Figure 1.2 shows the structure of the study, representing the sequential order of how the research design was executed.

The impact of internet sources on Australia's destination image for Korean package and independent tourists

Purpose of the study

To develop a conceptualisation of tourism destination image by examining the extent to which destination image formed through internet information sources, internet usages, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to the formation of Australia's destination image by Korean package and independent tourists.

Research methodology

Inductive methodology using mixed methods with two sequential phases: qualitative and quantitative

Phase 1: Qualitative

Phase 1 Research Questions

1. What key themes and topics can be examined in the narratives of Australia's destination image by South Korean travel agents?
2. What are the foremost regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia recognised by Korean travel agents?
3. What do Korean travel agents think are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists with regard to Australia's destination image?
4. How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

Sample

Korean travel agents (n=32)

Interview sites

Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide

Methods

32 in-depth interviews

Phase 1 findings

1. 5 Key themes and 47 topics from coding theme tree
2. Regional differences
3. Differences between package and independent tourists
4. Characteristics of internet sources

Phase 2: Quantitative

Phase 2 Research Questions

1. What are the major different respects between Korean package and independent tourists towards Australia's destination image?
2. How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?
3. How do the aspects of internet information sources, internet usages, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to destination image?

Constructs and Methods

internet information sources, internet usages, travel motivational factors, personal factors
exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, ANOVA, T-test, cross-tab

Pilot study

Incorporated Phase 1 findings into destination image survey instrument.

Sample

Korean residents in August 2009 (n=154)

Survey site

Adelaide

Main study

Finalised survey instrument after pilot study.

Sample

Korean package and independent tourists to Australia in September and October 2009 (n=1,215)

Survey site

In-cheon international airport in Korea

Exploratory factor analysis

To generate 6 dimensions:
1 push motivation 2 pull motivation 3 internet information sources
4 internet usages 5 cognitive image 6 affective image

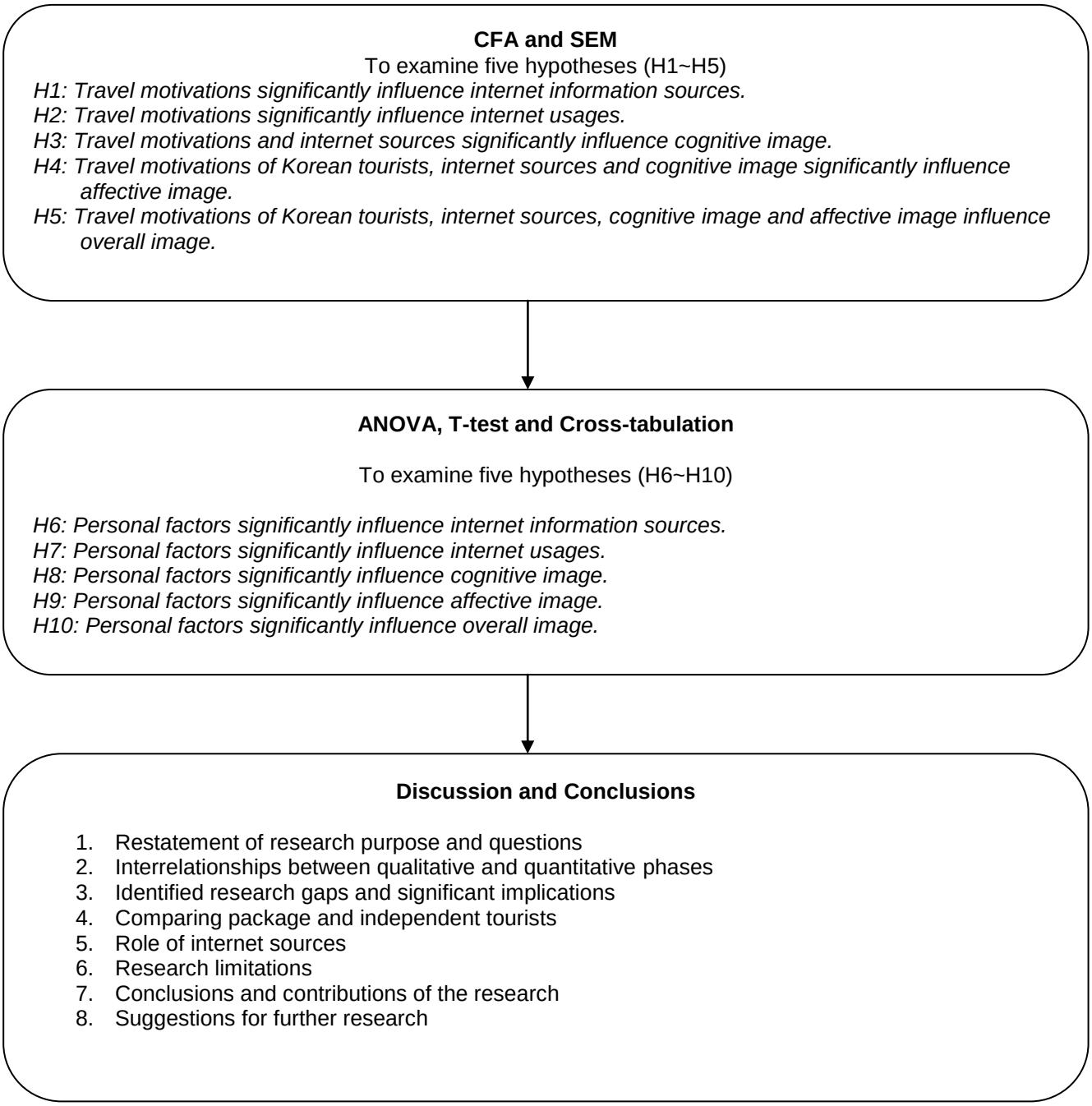


Figure 1.2 Structure of the study

Chapter 2.
Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review existing literature that is relevant to the research to see how this study relates to previous work in this field. Therefore, in this chapter, the academic literature related to research regarding destination image is reviewed to set a theoretical base for this dissertation.

This chapter is organised into six sections. In the first section, definitions of destination image and its components are reviewed. The second section considers how destination image is formed and processed by tourists. In the third section, the variables centred on the proposed model explaining destination image are discussed in order to build up a conceptual framework. The fourth section identifies the internet sources influencing destination image in order to provide sufficient attention in the destination image.

The final section addresses characteristics of Korean tourists and concept of package and independent tourists and this chapter concludes with chapter summary. The outline of this chapter is shown in Figure 2.1.

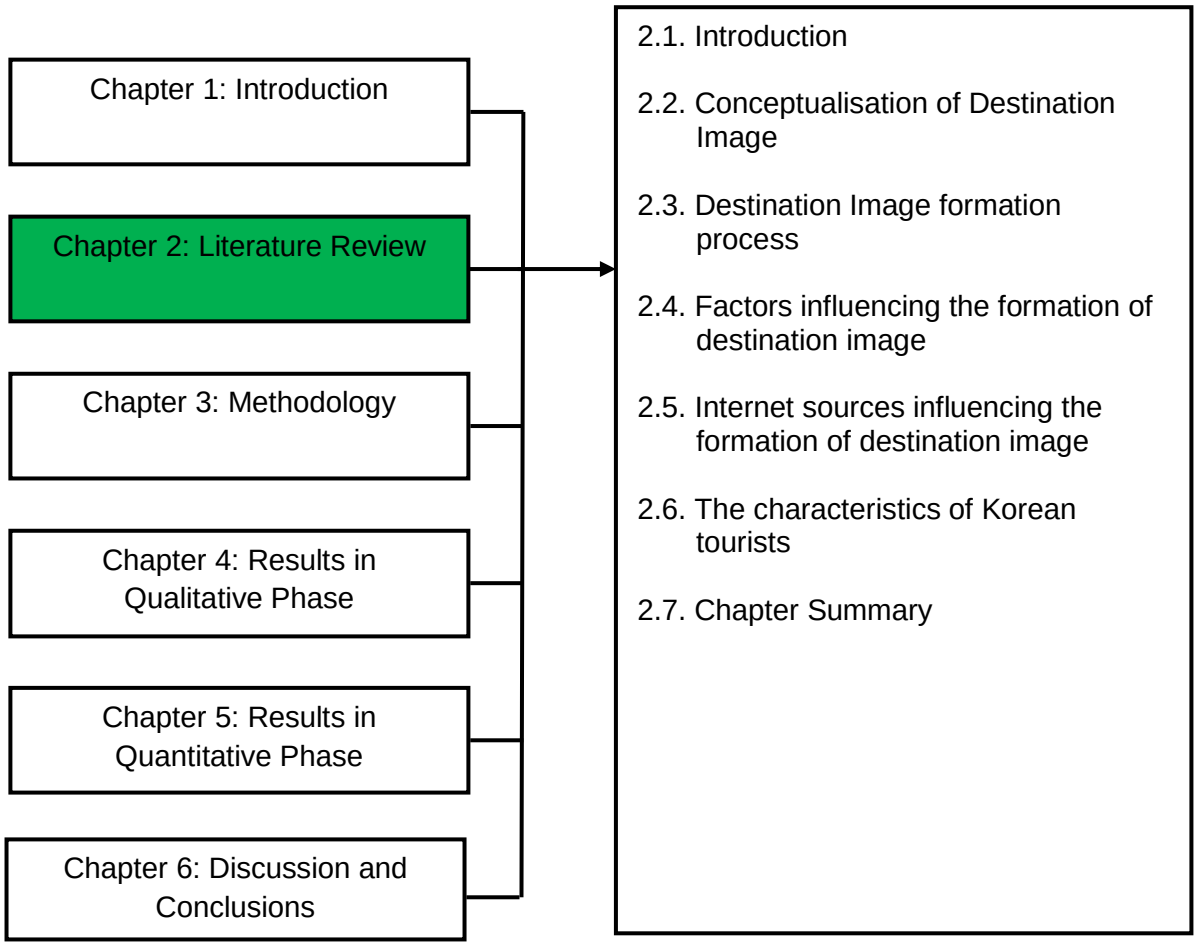


Figure 2.1 Outline of Chapter 2 within the thesis

2.2. Conceptualisation of Destination Image

This section presents the theoretical contributions concerning the concept and research trends of destination image. Several scholars (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beeri & Martin, 2004a, 2004b; Govers, Go, & Kumar, 2007; Tapachai & Waryszak 2000) have agreed that destination image plays an important role in the destination decision process owing to the lack of the knowledge about specific destination. Therefore, establishing a definition of destination image is essential to allow destination marketers and academics to develop the appropriated image for potential tourists.

2.2.1. Concept of destination image

2.2.1.1. Definition of destination image

There has been extensive research on destination image in travel and tourism literature (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Echtner & Ritchie 1993). The importance of destination image for potential tourists allows researchers to consider any destination from the tourists' perspective in terms of how they feel, comprehend, use and connect to the place (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2004). Furthermore, as destination image influences tourists' subjective perception, feeling, evaluation, and prospective behaviour concerning future destination choice processes, the importance of destination image is commonly recognised (Gallarza Saura & Garcia 2002). For those reasons, the concept of destination image has received considerable attention by tourism scholars (Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez 2001; Chaudhary 2000; Echtner & Ritchie 1993; Frias, Rodriguez & Castaneda 2007; Gallarza, et al. 2002; Gartner 1993).

Due to the importance of destination image in tourism research, several studies have been conducted during the past few decades. These include studies on conceptualisation of destination image (Echtner & Ritchie 1991; Gallarza et al. 2002; Tasci & Gartner 2007), the quantification of destination image (Dann 1996; Echtner & Ritchie 1991, 1993; Gallarza et al. 2002), image components and influencing factors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Pike & Ryan 2004), and the image formation process (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Gartner 1993; Govers et al. 2007; Gunn 1972; Tasci & Gartner 2007). Despite these numerous studies, destination image studies have been criticised as lacking a conceptual framework (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Echtner & Ritchie 1993; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Gallarza et al. 2002).

In this respect, academic interests in various research areas has paid profound attention to destination since the early studies of images by Boulding (1956), Martineau (1958) and Reynolds (1965). These scholars proposed that human behaviour is dependent on image rather than objective reality. Image was defined as a complex concept made up of spatial, temporal, cognitive and affective image features (Boulding 1956), recognised as having physical and psychological properties (Martineau 1958), described as the sum of the impressions from many sources, and delineated as a mental or attitudinal construct developed

on the basis of a few selected impressions from among the flood of total impressions through a creative process in which those selected are elaborated, embellished and ordered (Reynolds 1965).

Based on the modification and adoption of these theoretical foundations, the image concept has been identified with a psychological or distorted representation in the minds of individuals (Myers 1968). Destination image here refers to simplified impressions (Mayo 1973), the perceptions held by potential visitors about an area (Hunt 1975), image formed in the human mind in absence of physical environment (Tuan 1975), an expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional belief concerning a specific destination image (Lawson & Baud-Bovy 1977) and a generalisation of associations and pieces of information (Walmsley & Jenkins 1984).

Crompton (1979) defined destination image as 'the organised representations in a cognitive system' and 'the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination'. Murphy (1999) and Kim and Richardson (2003) defined it as 'a sum of associations and pieces of information' and the 'totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings' connected to a destination. Some researchers (Assael 1984; Calantone, Benedetto, Hakam & Bojanic 1989; Martin & Bosque 2007; Tapachai & Waryszak 2000) delineated destination image as the total perception of a destination by tourists, while other researchers (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Dadgostar & Isotalo 1992; Gartner 1993; Milman & Pizam 1995) described image in terms of overall impressions including visual or mental aspects of a place.

As mentioned above, although various researchers have tended to define destination image, a more conceptual framework has to be examined comprehensively due to its complex nature and its important role. Appendix 2.1 presents a summary of definitions of destination image by previous researchers.

2.2.1.2. Overview of destination image research trend

From various perspectives of research trends in the past, some researchers (Chon 1990; Echtner & Ritchie 1991; Gallarza et al. 2002; Pike 2002; Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil 2007) have attempted to provide an overview of destination image research trend. Chon (1990)

reviewed 23 frequently cited destination image studies and found that the most popular themes were the role and influence of destination image in buyer behaviour and the satisfaction of tourists. Echtner and Ritchie (1991) analysed 15 research papers on destination image produced between 1975 and 1990 and argued that researchers in destination image literature had not yet been successful in conceptualising destination image. They also found that researchers held a strong preference for quantitative techniques in evaluating their data. Gallarza et al. (2002) reviewed 65 articles regarding destination image from the period between 1971 and 1999. They found that the main topics in destination image literature consisted of seven topics: conceptualisation and dimension, destination image formation process, assessment and measurement of destination image, influence of distance on destination image, destination image change over time, active and passive role of residents in image study and destination image management policies. Further, they found that due to the multidimensional structure of tourism destination image, the most dominant methods of analysis were quantitative methods, including multivariate techniques.

Pike (2002) analysed 142 empirical and conceptual articles in the destination image literature from the period between 1973 and 2000. The main findings of this study were concerned with five points: region, perception of destination, popular type of destination, analysis methods and unit of research interests. According to the results, the most popular region was North America and over half of the papers measured perceptions relating to this single destination. The most interesting point of this study concerned the wide range of interests expressed. The foremost interests were the effect of visitation, segmentation, and image differences between different groups. The latest review by Tasci and Gartner (2007) analysed 45 papers in the destination image literature. They argued that most definitions in previous studies were related to the theoretical basis for image assessment and many advances have been made in both conceptualising and measuring the destination image construct during three decades. Since these meta-analyses of destination image studies reviewed the body of literature on destination image along several streams of research, these kinds of studies not only contributed to the literature, but they also suggested future direction for advanced studies.

2.2.2. Research trend in destination image

2.2.2.1. Perspectives on three dimensional images

Mayo (1973) suggested a multidimensional scaling model which has aspects that can critically affect travel experiences as well as destination selections. Based on Mayo's (1973) model, Anderson and Colberg (1973) identified that destination perceptions and preferences differ according to the dimensions and attributes of a destination image. Additionally, according to Echtner & Ritchie (1993), there have been two discrete perspectives in the conceptualisation of images: holistic perspectives and attribute perspectives. These two perspectives have significantly influenced image researchers. Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993) proposed a comprehensive, multidimensional approach to destination image. They considered destination image to have three components: 1) attribute-holistic, 2) functional-psychological, and 3) common-unique. And these studies suggested four propositions for better conceptualising and measuring destination image: 1) destination image has to be viewed as having attribute- based and holistic components, 2) these components have functional (tangible) and psychological (abstract) characteristics, 3) images range from common and functional to unique, and 4) a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies should be used in order to identify the destination image.

The attribute-holistic component refers to a continuum of individual elements of image forming an overall impression composed of both perceptions of individual attributes, such as climate, accommodation facilities, and friendliness and more holistic impressions (mental pictures or imagery) of the place. The functional-psychological component distinguishes between direct observation and intangible parts of the image. In the functional-psychological continuum, functional images are directly observable or measurable, while psychological images are less tangible and more difficult to observe or measure. The common-unique component refers to similarities and distinctions. Destination images can range from those perceptions based on common characteristics to those based on unique features. Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993) suggest that destination image should be measured using two components: individual attributes and holistic impressions; each component including functional (tangible) attributes and psychological (abstract) attributes.

Based on the contribution of Echtner & Ritchie (1991, 1993), various researchers (Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Chen & Hsu 2001; Milman & Pizam 1995) have attempted to measure both aspects of image by combining the traditional attribute based measurement with the holistic method. These attribute-based components of destination image may be useful and effective in comparing several destinations and then pinpointing competitive advantages. Figure2.2 below shows three dimensional images by Echtner and Ritchie (1991).

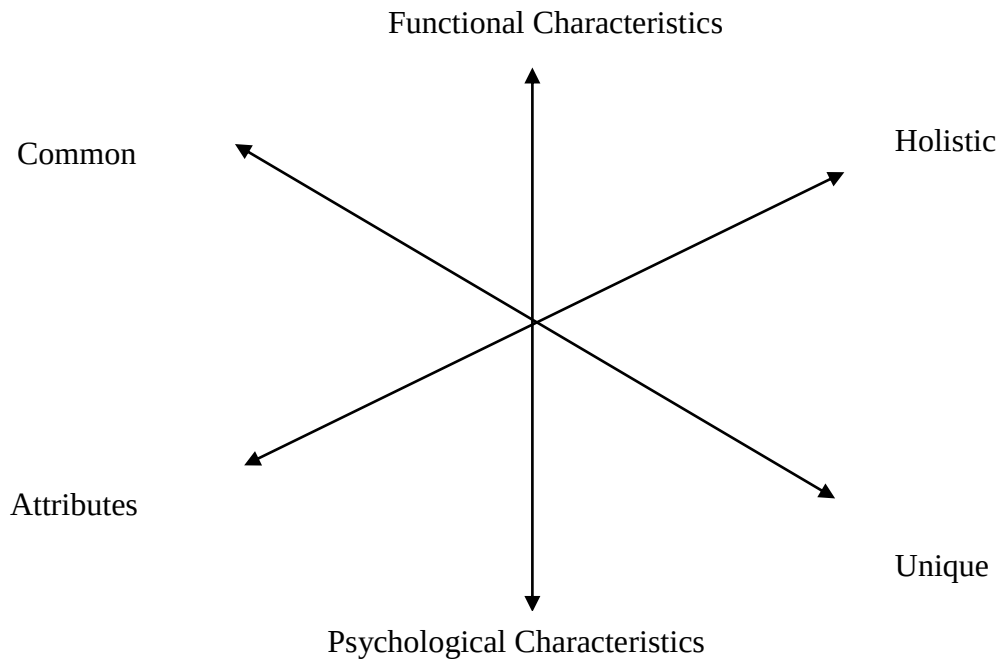


Figure 2.2 Three dimensional images, Source: Echtner and Ritchie (1991)

2.2.2.2. Perspectives on cognitive and affective image

Following Crompton's (1979) studies, various studies (Baloglu & Brinberg 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard 1986; Friedman & Lessig 1986; Gartner 1993) have concentrated on the consequence of two closely interrelated components: the cognitive image component and the affective image component. The cognitive image component emphasises the subject's personal knowledge and beliefs, while the affective image component strongly relates to their personal feelings

towards destinations. The earliest destination image studies focused only on the cognitive image component (Ahmed 1991; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Gartner 1993; Goodrich 1978; Javalgi, Thomas & Rao 1992; Phelps 1986), while some studies (Goodrich 1978; Javalgi et al. 1992) compared tourists' evaluations of cognitive destination attributes across particular destinations. Engel et al. (1986) stated that tourists' subjective perceptions of image are important evaluative criteria and Gensch (1978) cited the cognitive interpretation of image as a set of appropriate attributes.

However, as the only cognitive image component is insufficient in explaining tourists' complex impressions, several studies have proposed that attention be given to the cognitive–affective image components (Court & Lupton 1997; Milman & Pizam 1995). Especially, Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) adopted Russel, Ward and Pratt's (1981) framework (e. g., unpleasant/pleasant, sleepy/arousing) to measure the affective image component. From cognitive–affective perspectives, Dichter (1985) identified the affective part of destination image. Gartner (1993) delineated the cognitive image component as a factual and intellectual evaluation of the known attributes of a destination. According to Gartner's study, human motives are the force behind many things but they can be the force behind the component. In spite of the importance of the affective image component, this component has traditionally been overlooked in destination image literature. According to Pike (2002), only six studies examined affective image component among 142 destination image related studies.

In recent decades, some researchers have argued that the composition of the total destination image cannot be examined without considering its cognitive and affective image components (Baloglu & Brinberg 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b). Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) developed a more comprehensive framework of tourists' destination image by using cognitive–affective perspectives. Further, Baloglu and McCleary (1999a, 1999b) and Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) identified the destination image formation process by adopting a path model that used cognitive–affective perspectives to build the overall image. These studies concluded that cognitive and affective images are interrelated and that the cognitive image influences the affective and overall image.

However, some researchers (Chen & Hsu 2001; Chen & Kerstetter 1999; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Gartner 1989, 1993; MacKay & Fesenmaier 1997) suggested that destination image has a more complex composition because it allows a more differentiated

viewpoint of the destination rather than a simple phenomenon. With this perspective, destination image should be considered as a multi-dimensional phenomenon that includes not only beliefs or knowledge about the place's attributes, but also the individual's feelings toward the tourist destination. Based on this concept, Gartner (1993, 1996), Ko and Park (2000) and Pike and Ryan (2004) recognised a third image component—the conative image component—which is related to how tourists take action toward a destination. Gartner (1993) suggested that the structure of a destination image is comprised of three components—cognitive, affective and conative components—and asserted that these have a hierarchical interrelationship. With a similar line of research, Gartner (1996) pointed out that the conative image component is equivalent to behaviour, because it is the action component. Further, Gartner (1996) emphasised that the three image components form the decision-making process by tourists. Ko and Park (2000) stated that the structure of images—cognitive, affective and conative images—and sub-factors of each component and their relationships need to be explored. Pike and Ryan (2004) emphasised that a conative image can reflect a likelihood of destination selection and be interpreted as a propensity to visit a destination within a certain time frame, because the conative image component is influenced by both the cognitive and affective components. Even though this conative image component has been regarded as a distinctive image component, only a few destination image researchers have tended to deal with it. The reason is that it is difficult to make a conceptual distinction between the behavioural aspect of image and behaviour intentions (Lee 1997). Therefore, the majority of research has paid attention to cognitive and affective image components.

2.2.3. Current research trend in destination image

2.2.3.1. Interdisciplinary nature

In recent decades, research trends in destination image have tended to reflect the complexity and multi-dimensionality of the components (Stepchenkova & Eales 2011). Several researchers have linked research from media and communications (Bandyopadhyay & Morais 2005; Mercille 2005), cultural studies (Andsager & Drzewiecka 2002; Cho 2008; Govers & Go 2004; Poria, Reichel & Brian 2006), economic studies (Bahar & Kozak 2007; Enright & Newton 2004; Naipaul, Wang & Okumus 2009; Tsai, Song & Wong 2008) and business and marketing (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal 2006; Illum, Ivanov & Liang 2010; Konecnik 2004).

Extension of research interests into related disciplines allows for a wider perspective of conceptual approaches to recognise the destination image component.

Destination image research related to media has been increasing (Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Mercille, 2005; Sadler & Haskins 2005). Bandyopadhyay and Morais (2005) examined media representations of India in UK and compared them to images. Mercille (2005) compared media productions consulted by tourists to Tibet with tourists' perceptions of the region. Castelltort and Mader (2009) and York and Zhang (2009) have tried to illustrate the tourist destination image using the newspapers and official documents. Castelltort and Mader (2009) examined the extent, sources and nature of reporting about Spain as a tourist destination among Swiss and German newspapers based on the Monetary Publicity Value (MPV). According to this research, media coverage is calculated to arrive at a positive image of Spain in the German and Swiss press. York and Zhang (2009) examined the factors that lay behind the development of the Golden Week holiday system in China in 1999 and 2007. Using 45 official documents, they adopted content analysis which indicated that while little relationship existed between the demands of tourism and public policy in both 1999 and 2007, the requirements of social policies and a greater role being attributed to public participation in the policy making were more emphasised in 2007.

There has been a stream of research examining destination image and cultural context. Poria Reichel and Biran (2006) employed motivation and perception factors to explore the relationship with these factors and cultural and heritage tourism aspects. They found a distinct relationship between tourists' perceptions of a site relative to their own heritage and the motivations for visiting the site. Andsager and Drzewiecka (2002) estimated destination images in terms of familiarity and desirability, and investigated whether stereotypes influence interpretation.

The destination image research field has had strong connections with economics, business and marketing areas. Bahar and Kozak (2007) investigated how the perceived competitive position of a tourist destination varies across tourists and service providers in respect of five national destinations. The findings of this study suggest that there is a positive correlation between what tourists and service providers perceive, in respect of cultural and natural attractiveness as the most important aspect of destination competitiveness. Naipaul, Youcheng and Okumus (2009) explored how small neighbouring destinations with limited

tourism products and resources can collaborate in marketing their destinations. They suggested that forming partnerships among neighbouring destinations is beneficial for all participating CVB (Convention and Visitor Bureau) in terms of enhancing product portfolio, cost reduction, and efficiency. However, there can be major challenges in developing and sustaining such long-term partnerships, including differing priorities, different marketing directions, and limited resources.

A number of studies (Appiah-Adu, Fyall & Singh 2000; Chen and Tsai 2007; Kozak 2002; Lam & Hsu 2004, 2006; Lee et al. 2005) investigated behaviour intentions using destination image. Lee et al. (2005) examined how Korea's destination image as a World Cup host influenced onsite experiences, satisfaction and behavioural intentions, and evaluated how satisfaction affects future behaviour. Also, they identified that the four dimensions of image have differential effects on subsequent behaviour intentions. Chen and Tsai (2007) proposed the integrated model of tourist consumption process by including destination image and perceived value into the 'quality–satisfaction–behavioural intention' paradigm. In order to predict future behavioural intentions, they examined the relationships between destination image and evaluative factors, such as trip quality, perceived value and satisfaction. Based on the findings, they concluded that destination image appears to have the most important effect on behavioural intentions, such as the intention to revisit and willingness to recommend. Using the TPB model, Lam and Hsu (2006) explored the behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination from the Taiwanese tourists' perspective. They argued that past behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control had direct impact on behavioural intention.

2.2.3.2. Analytical methods

Previous studies (Echtner & Ritchie 1991; Gallarza et al. 2002; Pike 2002) using meta-analysis regarding destination image literature emphasised that most dominant analysing methods were quantitative methods and structured methods. However, in recent decades, several researchers have adopted other analytical methods, especially qualitative methods.

Some studies (Crompton 1979; Dilley 1986; Jenkins 1999; Prebensen 2005; Ryan & Cave 2005) adopted qualitative research methods in order to identify destination image. Crompton (1979), Dilley (1986), Jenkins (1999) and Prebensen (2005) introduced new approaches, such

as content analysis using brochures and interviews (Crompton 1979), construct elicitation techniques (Dilley 1986; Jenkins 1999) and word association, picture association and collage techniques (Prebensen 2005) to measure and identify destination image. Crompton (1979) adopted content analysis using reading materials with 36 students to determine the attributes used in a survey of American students' perception of Mexico. Dilley (1986) analysed pictorial images using brochures from 21 countries. All brochures were analysed and images were categorised according to the type of information. This study found clear regional patterns in the types of images projected with brochures. Jenkins (1999) suggested construct elicitation techniques, such as free-elicitation, photo elicitation, interactive interviews and focus group interviews to measure destination image qualitatively. Prebensen (2005) identified tourist image perceptions of distant places using word association, picture association and collage techniques in combination, acknowledging the similarities and diversities of images that potential tourists hold of a certain destination.

Until recently, written interviews have been one of the main qualitative methods used to identify destination image (Gustafson 2002; Lubbe 1998; Ryan & Cave 2005). Gustafson (2002) conducted interviews with Swedish retirees who spent their summer holidays in Sweden and their winter holidays in Spain. According to the findings, there were the specific distinctions based on different social roles and positions. Also, this study identified that the investigation of seasonal retirement migration can shed new lights on social distinction and authenticity in tourism research. In the equivalent context, Lubbe (1998) carried out in-depth interviews with Saudi Arabians using 'push' and 'pull' motivation factors in relation to destination attractiveness to identify and link between these factors. In this study, potential tourists were placed on a continuum indicating a 'push' or 'pull' motivation when creating primary images of destinations. According to findings, this study identified that these 'push' and 'pull' factors differ depending on cultural circumstances because these acknowledged cultural backgrounds were an important determinant of differences. Ryan and Cave (2005) analysed conversation data with various groups of residents and visitors in New Zealand. They found a complex, hierarchical pattern of imagery of place and suggested that there are two dimensions: 'friendly and tense' and 'exciting and relaxing'. They suggested that cognition is a factor influencing image complexity and affective response.

In quantitative methods, even though meta-analyses of Pike (2002) and Gallarza et al. (2002) did not discuss studies employing SEM and path models, these methodologies are becoming

popular trends in tourism literature. For example, there have been many contributions adopting structural equation modelling (SEM) (Bigne et al. 2001; Chen & Tsai 2007; Deslandes, Goldsmith, Bonn & Joseph 2006; Kaplanidou & Vogt 2007; Prayag 2009) and path analysis (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b, Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b) to measure their theoretical models in destination image literature. These methodologies examined cause-effect relationships between image and other constructs. Bigne et al. (2001) proposed a model that incorporated destination image, perceived quality, satisfaction, willingness to return and intention to recommend. Chen and Tsai (2007) included destination image and perceived value into the model of quality-satisfaction behavioural intentions paradigm and tested it with the SEM technique. Castro, Armario, and Ruiz (2007) proposed and tested several alternative SEM models involving destination image, service quality, propensity to visit, intention to recommend, and tourist satisfaction. Prayag and Ryan (2012) analysed the relationship between destination image and other evaluative constructs such as perceived value and service quality.

Previous studies recognised multi-dimensionality and complexity of destination image and applied different methods for measuring its different components; however, other methods were not beneficial to assessment of the concept of destination image (Yoon, Bursoy, & Chen 2001). The reason is that SEM is designed to evaluate how well a proposed conceptual model that contains observed indicators and hypothetical constructs explains or fits the collected data (Bollen 1990; Yoon et al. 2001). It can also specify the causal relationships among sets of unobserved (latent) variables, while describing the amount of un-explained variance (Davies, Goode, Mazanec, & Moutinho 1999).

This trend of sophisticated statistical methodologies is extended by application of other techniques from business, marketing, and economics (Hong, Kim, Jang & Lee 2006). Voges (2006) employed a hybrid computational intelligence technique developed for estimating mechanics of natural evolution. This study proposed that this evolutionary algorithm based rough clustering algorithm is better suited for clustering objects like perceivers of images than its traditional use in segmentation studies k-clustering techniques. Mazanec and Strasser (2007) applied perception-based analysis technique (PBA) for analysing tourist choice alternatives involving large sets of perceived attributes to differentiate between the generic perceptions of a class of choice alternatives. This study recommended that its development in tourism research was encouraged as tourism is characterised by complicated choice

alternatives, such as destinations and other experiential products that the tourists cannot succinctly evaluate with a small number of attributes. Also, Mazanec (2000) introduced two paradigms of advanced analyses which were 1) a new nonlinear latent variable approach to measuring hygiene and delight factors in tourist satisfaction monitoring and 2) an application of Inferred Causation Theory to exploring antecedents of satisfaction. These two applications towards tourism destination and other constructs can be considered as a rigorous concept of inferential methods.

To date, there are not enough studies using these techniques, however, these studies are at the frontier of research in using new methods to measure tourism destination image. Additionally, since a diversity of approaches in the measurement of destination image can facilitate comprehension of the constructs, the presence of methodological expansion in terms of approaches is a promising indication for destination image research flow (Stepchenkova & Eales 2011).

2.2.3.3. Various areas of destination research

Destination image studies were focused for several decades on the countries, cities and states of North America and Europe. However, the concept of destination image has now been extended to other countries as well as to tourism sites, such as heritage sites (Poria et al. 2006), resorts (Yuksel & Akgul 2007), and festivals (Li & Vogelson, 2006; Prentice & Andersen 2003). More specifically, the scope of countries' destination image has become wider compared to in the past. Pike (2002) mentioned that most destination image studies have used North America and Europe as main research areas until the 1980s; however, reflecting the global process, various destinations have now been examined, such as Australasia (Huang & Gross 2010; Murphy 1999; Ross 1993; Son & Pearce 2005), Asia (Chaudhary 2000; Chen & Hsu 2001; Heung & Qu 2000), Africa (Botha, Crompton & Kim 1999; Kim, Crompton & Botha 2000; Schneider & Sonmez 1999; Shanka & Frost 1999), Central America and the Caribbean (Botterill & Crompton, 1987; Brown 1998; Dann 1996; Tribe & Snaith 1998) and the South Pacific (Calantone et al. 1989; Driscoll & Lawson 1990; Driscoll, Lawson & Niven 1994; King 1994; Walmsley & Young 1998).

Australia and Spain (Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Bigne et al. 2001) have been shown an especially strong preference in recent destination image studies. These countries' image was re-evaluated using a large-scale framework of international tourism perspectives. Australia's destination image has been extensively studied in recent previous research (Huang & Gross 2010; Murphy 1999; Ross 1993; Son & Pearce 2005). Ross (1993) and Murphy (1999) used data from backpackers to identify Australia's destination image, however, their results differed slightly. Ross (1993), referring to Northern Australia's destination images, identified that the most prominent images were friendly local residents, high quality tourist information, freely accessible accommodation and the destination's authenticity. In contrast, Murphy (1999) pointed out natural attractions, friendly people, safety, climate, and language as Australia's major strengths in image. In addition, unique elements were kangaroos, the Great Barrier Reef, the outback, Aboriginal culture, and Ayers Rock.

Huang and Gross (2010) and Son and Pearce (2005) analysed Australia's destination image using cognitive, affective and multi-sensory components. Huang and Gross (2010) identified destination images of Australia by using mainland Chinese tourists. They identified kangaroos and koalas, Australia's natural environment, and iconic attractions like the Sydney Opera House as cognitive image features, relaxing, anticipating and pleasant as affective image attributes and picturesque landscape, sound of pigeons and fresh air as multi-sensory (visual, auditory, olfactory, gustatory and tactile image features. Son and Pearce (2005) explored international students' images of Australia and indicated South American respondents had the most favourable impression of Australia as a tourist destination and Asian respondents had the least favourable impression.

Additionally, many studies have dealt with several countries as sub-divided destinations, for example Korea (Chen & Hsu 2001; Ko 2000; Prideaux & Kim 1999; Waitt 1996), China (Gibson, Qi & Zhang 2008; Huang & Gross 2010), India (Ahmed & Krohn 1992; Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Chaudhary 2000), Russia (Stepchenkova & Morrison 2006), Turkey (Bahar & Kozak 2007; Baloglu 2001) as well as African destinations of Nigeria (Awaritefe 2004) and Rwanda (Grosspietsch 2006).

Destination image research has become more global than ever before. The concept of destination image has been studied with relation to various countries. Destination and country

images are interrelated (Mossberg & Kleppe 2005; Stepchenkova & Eales 2011) and a destination image is unquestionably influenced by the country's overall image.

2.2.3.4. Impact of the internet on destination image

In recent decades, a number of tourism researchers have used the internet as a source of data on destination image. Doolin, Burgess and Cooper (2002) stated that the internet is an increasingly important resource for promoting and distributing tourism information and emphasised that the content of tourism destination websites is predominantly important because it directly influences the perceived image of the destination and creates an effective experience for tourists. Internet World Stats (2011) reported that nearly two billion people worldwide can access the internet unreservedly. From the travel and tourism perspectives, the internet is becoming a crucial medium for information delivery and acquisition. The ability of the internet to facilitate two-way communications is a useful marketing tool (Werthner & Klein 2000) and the use of the internet radically changes the communication process (Dann 1996) and transforms the distribution and marketing of tourism products (Buhalis & Licata 2002). Image formation is no longer a one-way 'push' process of mass communication, but a dynamic one of selecting, reflecting, sharing, and experiencing. Buhalis (2000) indicated that the internet would enable destinations to enhance competitiveness by increasing visibility, reducing costs, and enhancing local cooperation. According to Choi, Lehto and Morrison (2007), destination image has been examined extensively in the tourism literature due to its complex conceptual nature and its important role in influencing tourist decision-making. Since the Internet arrived, centralised control over destination information distribution is almost impossible.

To summarise, destination image has become a much more complex process than ever before due to the unique characteristics and proliferation of the internet. Destination image projected on the internet is receiving greater attention from researchers and destination marketing practitioners. However, research on the effect of the internet on destination image is still at an infancy stage.

In this respect, it is necessary to perform research regarding internet sources' influence on destination image formation process. While the section has focused on the general concept of destination image and related research trend, the following section presents specific destination image formation process used as theoretical foundations for this study. Based on

the theoretical foundations mentioned above, a summary of the foremost destination image studies is presented in Appendix 1 and 2.

2.3. Destination Image formation process

Understanding the destination image formation process may lead to improvement in the attractiveness and market competitiveness of tourist destinations.

2.3.1. Stage theory of destination image formation process by Gunn (1972)

Gunn (1972) introduced the term *organic image* to refer to a person-determined image and *induced image* to refer to a destination-determined image. Organic images are said to be stimulated by episodes from ordinary life and are already present before tourists begin an information search to select their destination, whereas induced images are those stimulated by advertising and promotional activities and are shaped during the process of the information search. Gunn identifies seven stages of the travel experience: 1) accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences, 2) modification of those images by further information, 3) decision to take a trip, 4) travel to the destination, 5) participation at the destination, 6) return home and 7) modification of images based on the vacation experience. Destination images are said to be constructed at three stages (stages 1, 2 and 7). In stage one (organic image) and two (induced image), destination images are formed based upon secondary information sources. Gunn labels the destination image formed in stage one as an 'organic image'. At this stage, the image is typically created principally based on incorporated information from non-commercial, non-touristic information sources, such as magazines, movies, education, newspapers, recommendation and word of mouth from family or friends. More commercial information sources, such as travel brochures, guidebooks, travel-related magazines and travel agencies are found in stage two. Through accessing these information sources, potential tourists can acquire and develop more specific images and modify the organic image. Gunn labels these images 'induced images'.

In stage seven (modified induced image), actual experience, combined with the accumulation of new information, is said to structure the destination image. This modified induced image is not only influenced by the actual experiences of the destination, but it is also influenced by

consequent stages of the travel experiences. Therefore, accumulation of travel experiences and reflection on the destination are capable of influencing the re-evaluated image. Gunn's stage theory implies that destination image might be evaluated in respect of non-visitors and repeat-visitors (Jenkins 1999). Following Gunn, several studies (Chon 1990, 1992; Murphy 1999; Pearce 1982, 1988; Phelps 1986) indicated that images tend to be more realistic, complex, and differentiated in the modified induced image stage.

Moreover, Gunn's theory highlighted significant implications. Firstly, although (potential) tourists may have never visited a destination or even been exposed to commercial information sources, they can imagine a specific destination. Secondly, depending on travel experiences, tourists' destination image might differ. This suggests that there are alterations in destination image before and after visitation. This point provides essential marketing strategy information for practitioners and academics who now assume that it is advantageous to adopt separate marketing approaches for first time visitors and repeat visitors. This stage theory is summarised in Figure 2.3.

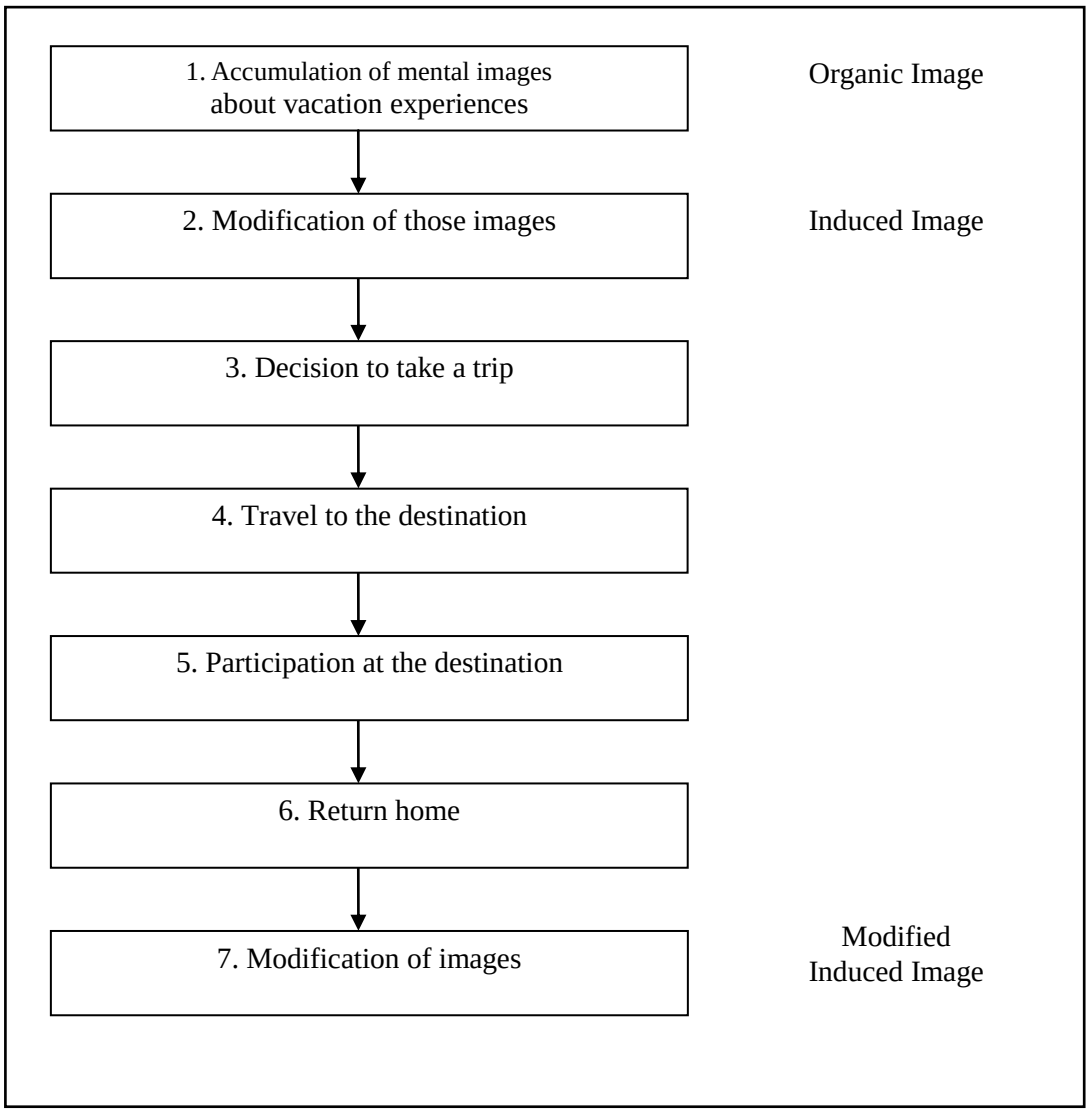


Figure 2.3 Stage-theories of destination image, Source: Gunn (1972)

2.3.2. Fakeye and Crompton's model (1991) of a tourist's image formation process

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) have conceptualised a model of a tourist's image formation process in the research regarding the image differences between first-time visitors and repeat visitors based on Gunn's (1972) seven stages of a travel experience. The main focus in this model is based on the three key dimensions: 1) *organic image*, in which consciousness of a potential destination is formed through blurred interests; 2) *induced image*, which could be drawn from personal interactions and beliefs exposed by marketers and is created by specific information sources and 3) *complex image*, which tourists associate from authentic contact

with specific destinations and is structured and evaluated by actual visitation. Complex image is formed by organic, induced and autonomous image formation agents and one image agent affects other image agents and serves to modify the complex image (Tasci & Gartner 2007). Thus, the image formation process is evaluated to select the final destination choice. This image formation process is summarised in Figure 2.4.

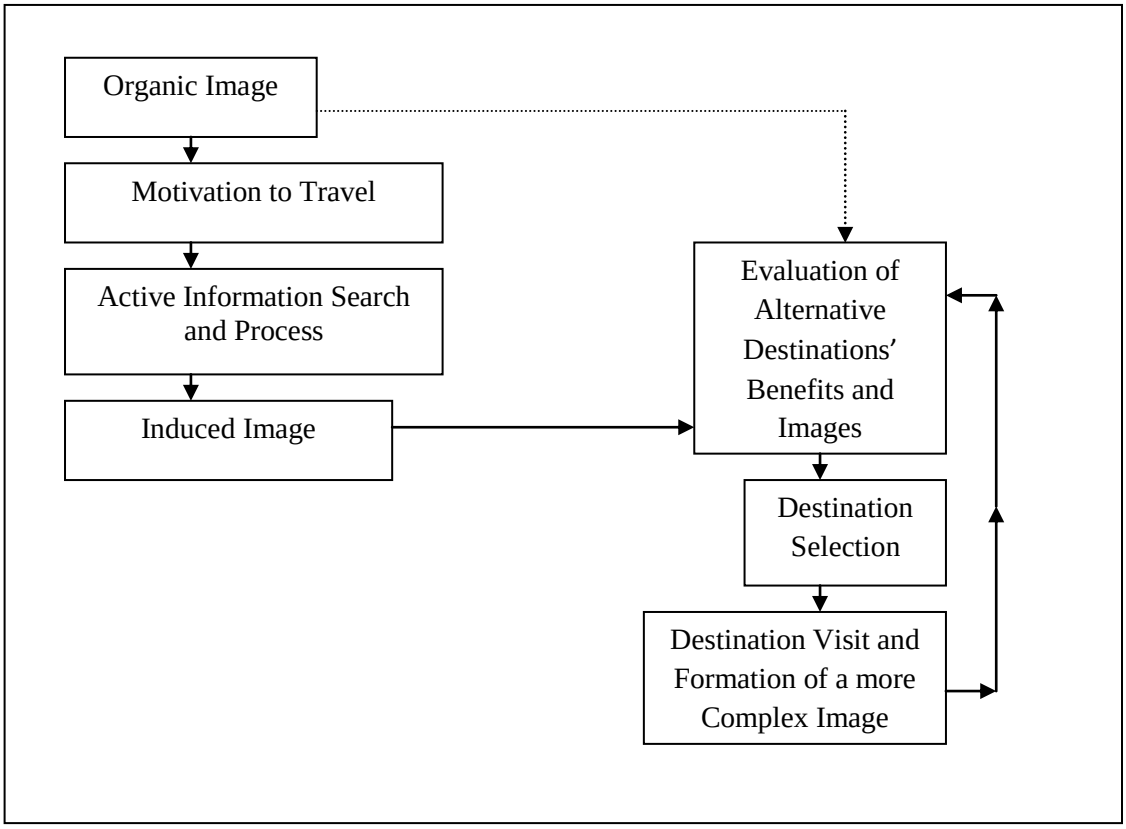


Figure2.4 A model of tourists' image formation process by Fakeye & Crompton (1991)
Source: Fakeye & Crompton (1991)

Specifically, following an organic image shaped by a deficiency of promotion, potential tourists have vague motives, and so they engage in an active information search stage. As a result of this stage, the induced image is generated and tourists develop a more refined destination image. Subsequently, they investigate alternative destinations and define benefits and images and evaluate these concurrently. Prior to actual travel, tourists form expectations based on advertising, word of mouth, and other types of unrestricted information. After selecting and visiting the chosen destination, tourists attain more compound destination images. Through this actual experience, tourists acquire new experiential information and compare their experiences (Cho 2002). As other information sources, such as advertising,

word of mouth and the internet cannot provide realistic experiences, new experiential information that tourists acquired from actual experiences differs from other sources. Consequently, tourists' destination image derived from actual experiences tends to be more realistic, complex and differentiated. Based on these observations, Cho, Wang and Fesenmaie r (2002) proposed a web–based destination image formation process. According to them, tourists can experience different searchable information from the past due to the proliferation of the internet before the evaluation stage. Cho et al. (2002)'s model is described detail in 2.3.10.

2.3.3. Gartner's (1993) Image Formation Process

Gartner (1993) emphasised that destination image is segmented by differential information sources and the image formation process can be considered as a continuum of separate sources that operate independently. Eight image formation agents were proposed (Overt Induced I, Overt Induced II, Covert Induced I, Covert Induced II, Autonomous, Unsolicited Organic, Solicited Organic and Organic) for the image formation process. Additionally, Gartner (1993) mentioned that image categories consisted of four induced, one autonomous and three organic categories. An induced image is characteristically formed by promotion and advertisement by media and other information sources, while an autonomous image is created by news and popular culture. An organic image is formulated by information from friends, relatives and direct experiences.

The Overt Induced I agent indicates traditional types of promotional media, such as television, radio, brochures and print media. This media related to image formation can be mostly controlled by marketers to create important image traits of destinations in the potential tourists' mind. The Overt Induced II agent is composed of various information sources, such as travel agents, operators and wholesalers; however, these sources are not clearly connected with specific destinations. The Covert Induced I agent refers to attempts to overcome the dilemma of reliability by using popular and recognisable spokespeople in the image formation process. Although the promotional cost increases, this may possibly amplify the effectiveness of the promotion for that particular destination. Covert Induced II refers to the dissemination of information through apparently unbiased publications by travel organisations and respected travel magazines. Covert Induced II image information is especially valuable for small tourism properties and destinations with comparatively low

budgets.

According to Govers et al. (2007), these overt and covert induced image agents can be assessed by potential tourists to build specific destination images. A fifth source of image agent, autonomous image formation agent, consists of popular culture, television news, and movies produced independently. The unique form of this image agent is popular culture. According to the model by Gartner (1993), popular culture depicts image of specific destinations. Culture was also mentioned in the model of Tasci and Gartner (2007) which examined destination image and functional relationship. Tasci and Gartner (2007) pointed out that culture could be an important cue in multifaceted clarifications as the background of image formation. This type of image formation agent could also be created and changed rapidly. Since this form of image formation has a high level of reliability and penetration, an autonomous image enables profound and rapid change in a specific area's image.

The sixth and seventh image formation agents—unsolicited and solicited organic image formation agents—relate to information about a destination. According to Hanlan and Kelly (2004), unsolicited organic image agents comprise word-of-mouth information from tourists who have either visited the specific destination or who declare understanding of the destination's attributes, while solicited organic image agent is word-of-mouth information from credible sources. Kim and Richardson (2003) mentioned both unsolicited and solicited organic image agents received from friends and relatives. The final organic image formation agents consist of information from an actual visitation. This organic agent has the most credibility, because of the experiential personal source. Figure2.5 illustrates and summarises this image formation process.

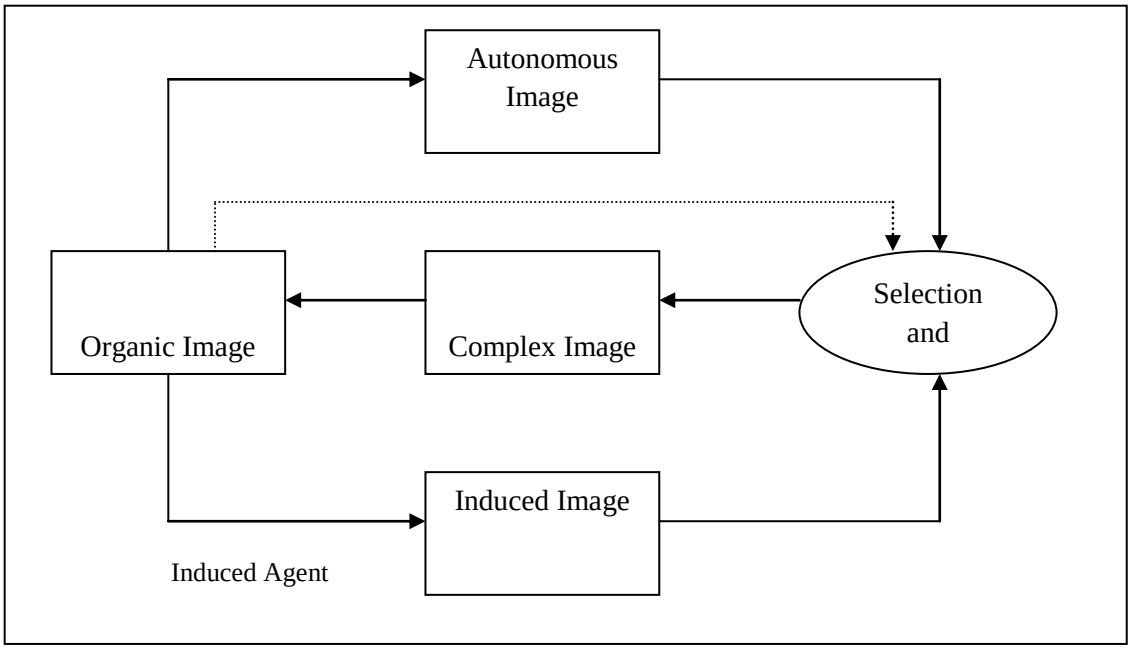


Figure2.5 Gartner (1993)'s model, Source: Gartner (1993)

2.3.4. Baloglu and McCleary's (1999a) destination image formation model

Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) established the destination image formation model from different sources and measured overall destination image using path analysis, the purpose of their study being to test a model of destination image formation. In this model, although several types of factors can play an important role in the image formation process, they argued destination image primarily originates from or is formed by two major factors: personal factors and stimulus factors. *Stimulus factors* stem from external stimuli, such as information sources, as well as from previous experience. In relation to stimulus factors, many studies have suggested that 'variety and type of information sources' (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b) and 'previous experience' (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Hsu, Wolfe & Kang 2004; Litvin & Ling 2001; Vogt & Andereck 2003) have a significant effect on perceived image of a tourist destination.

Personal factors consist of the psychological characteristics and social characteristics of the tourists. Specifically, psychological characteristics include personal values, motivations and personality, whereas socio-demographic variables, such as age, gender, education level and marital status are illustrations of social characteristics. Regarding personal factors, the

influence of social characteristics (age, gender, education level and others) on destination image has been discussed in various tourism literatures (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Chen & Kerstetter 1999; MacKay & Fesenmaier 1997; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Brown 2001).

In addition, this model adopted two image constructs: cognitive and affective images. The cognitive image component can be interpreted as the beliefs and knowledge held by the individual about a destination's attributes while the affective image component is represented by the individual's feelings, moods, and emotions toward the tourist destination (Baloglu & Brinberg 1997; Pike & Ryan 2004). Frequent use of expressions such as beliefs and attitudes (Gartner 1993), and knowledge (Walmsley & Jenkins 1993) circuitously illustrates the dominance of the cognitive component in image studies. The affective component has been considered using various terms including affective appraisal, evaluative cognitions, and affective reaction. Tourists' emotions or feelings form a part of their decision-making and behaviour processes (Chon 1990). This image formation process is represented in Figure 2.6.

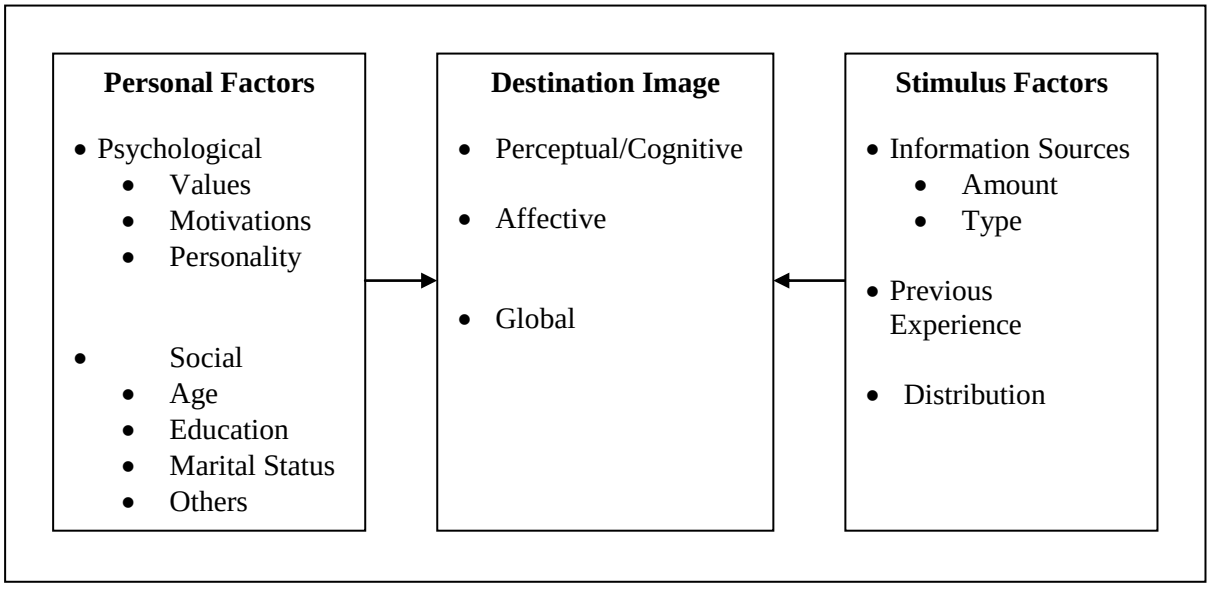


Figure2.6 Baloglu and McCleary (1999a)'s destination image formation model

Source: Baloglu & McCleary (1999a)

According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), the affective components typically depend on and are based on the cognitive components (Gartner 1993). This implies that although a difference exists between the two components, they are naturally interrelated. The significant

influence of the cognitive image on the affective image has been documented in several studies (Baloglu & Mangaloglu 2001; Stern & Krakover 1993). As Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) identified destination image is formed by both stimulus factors and tourists' characteristics, this study has contributed to the tourism destination literature during the past ten years because this model developed and tested a conceptual model adopting important determinants, such as stimulus factors (information sources and previous experiences) and personal factors (psychological and social) of destination image.

2.3.5. Beerli and Martin's (2004a) model

Beerli and Martin (2004a) developed an advanced model including information sources and personal factors. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) proposed a theoretical destination image formation model including and differentiating between stimulus and personal factors. Stern and Krakover (1993) argued that factors influencing image formation involve both information from different sources and the characteristics of the tourists. Further, the characteristics of both the information and the tourists have effects on the interrelationships. Based on the models of Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Stern and Krakover (1993), Beerli and Martin (2004a) integrated the two models and proposed an innovative model regarding destination image formation.

The first characteristics of this model suggested a differentiation between first-time visitors and repeat visitors, however, the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) model emphasised the period prior to actual visitation. Beerli and Martin (2004a) identified by testing path model that past experiences have positive and significant relationships with the cognitive image component of first-time visitors and with the affective image component of repeat visitors. Secondly, this model includes more specific information from both primary (previous experience and intensity of visit) and secondary (induced, organic and autonomous) sources than the model of Baloglu and McCleary (1999a). Specifically, the focus on organic, induced and autonomous source of information derive from Phelps (1986) and Gartner (1993), while the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) model supplied the concept of stimulus factors; including amount and type of information sources. Lastly, the model of Beerli and Martin (2004a) tests socio-demographic variables, such as gender, age, level of education, social class and country of origin than the Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) model which examined only two components (age and level of education).

Since the model by Beerli and Martin (2004a) examines the differences between first-time and repeat visitors and develops the concept of organic, induced and autonomous source of information introduced by Phelps (1986) and Gartner (1993), this model also contributes to the destination literature. This image formation process is characterised in Figure 2.7.

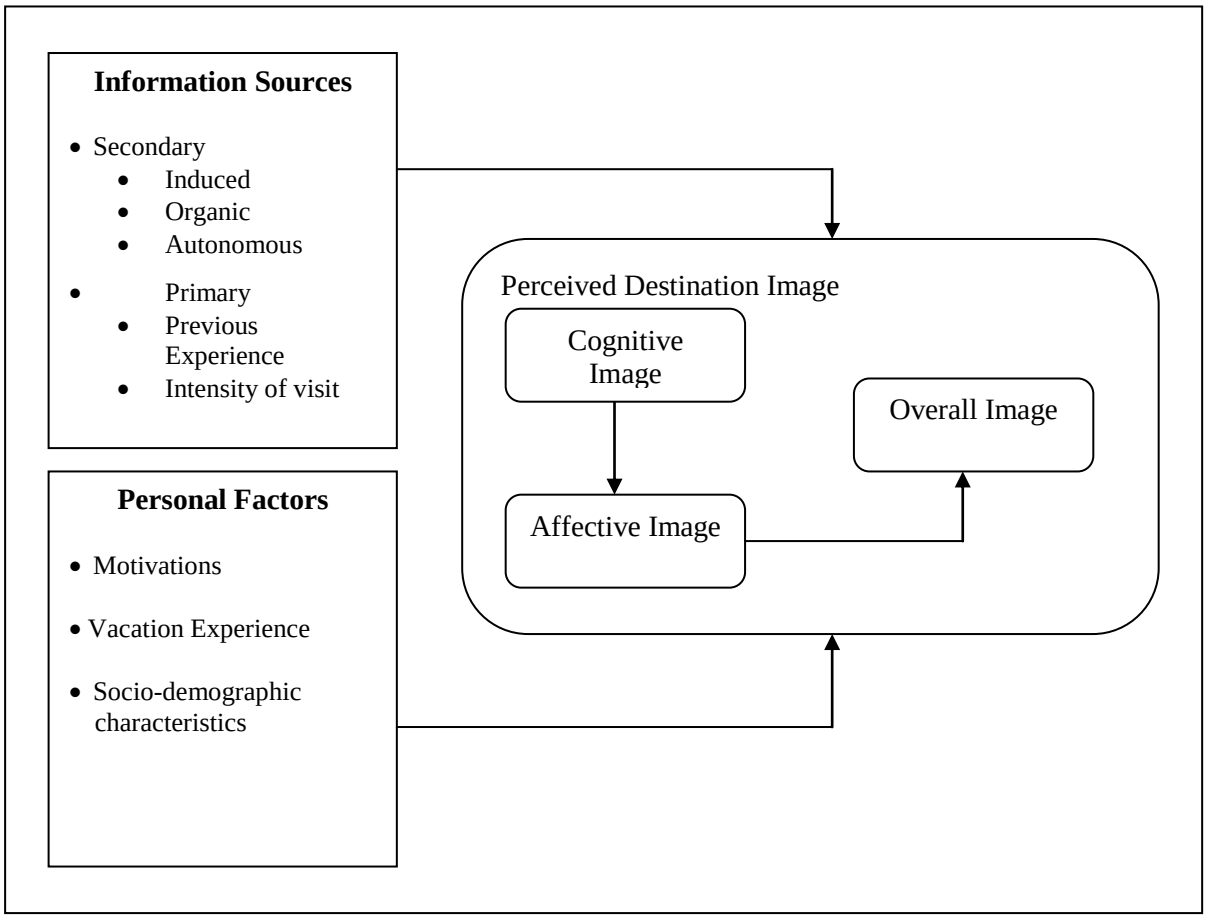


Figure 2.7 Beerli and Martin (2004a)'s model, Source: Beerli & Martin (2004a)

2.3.6. Beerli and Martin (2004b)'s model

Beerli and Martin (2004b) propose a conceptual model focused on the characteristics of tourists regarding destination's perceived image. Even though the model of Beerli and Martin (2004b) is also based on the models of Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Stern and Krakover (1993) and has some features that are similar to that of Beerli and Martin (2004a), this model places more emphasis on the personal factors of tourists, such as motivations, past experiences and socio-demographic variables. The model of Beerli and Martin (2004b)

reflects the concept of the Um and Crompton (1992) destination choice model. According to Um and Crompton (1992), although beliefs in relation to the elements of destination have been formed by tourists being exposed to external stimuli such as information sources, the nature of those beliefs tend to be influenced by the personal factors. From these perspectives, Beerli and Martin (2004b) emphasised that socio-demographic variables (gender, age, education level, country of origin and social class), travel motivations and previous experiences should be recognised as factors. Additionally, these personal factors have an effect on the cognitive and affective images of the destination and eventually influence overall images.

This model by Beerli and Martin (2004b), which identifies the relationships between personal factors (motivation, past experience and socio demographic variables) and image components (cognitive and affective), has contributed to the destination image literature. However, there were some limitations in that this model did not pay attention to the relationship between information sources and image constructs as well as motivation and cognitive image components. Since there still seem to be several research gaps when it comes to a comprehensive conceptualisation of destination image, this present study develops Beerli and Martin (2004b)'s model and proposes overall relationships among traditional information sources, internet sources, personal factors and image components. This image formation model by Beerli and Martin (2004b) is represented in Figure 2.8.

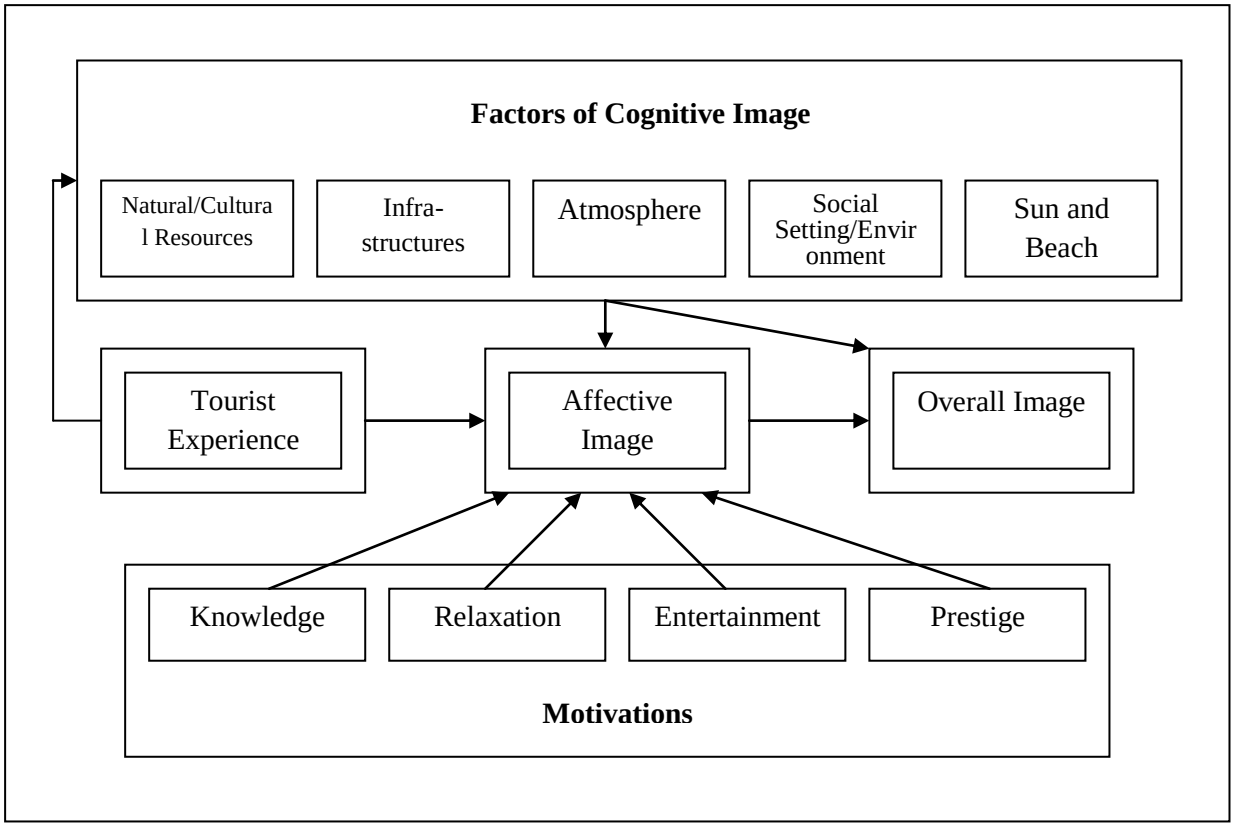


Figure2.8 Beerli and Martin (2004b)'s model, Source: Beerli & Martin (2004b)

2.3.7. Tasci and Gartner (2007)'s model

The model of Tasci and Gartner (2007) is concerned with functional relationships. The authors argue that destination image is a compound of a wide range of input factors, including image formation factors and destination image (autonomous, induced and organic types and holistic and attributes components and consumer behaviour). The authors argue further there have been three sources of image formation agents: 1) supply-side or destination agents (controllable/dynamic); 2) independent or autonomous agents (semi-controllable/semi-dynamic); 3) demand-side or image receivers (uncontrollable/static). As shown in the past model (Gunn 1972; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Gartner 1993), the supply-side can be considered as an induced image, whereas the demand-side is an organic image and independent image can be explained as an autonomous image.

Additionally, they recognise static or semi-dynamic characteristics—such as historical, social, physical, political, legal, economic, and cultural factors—as image capital. This image capital should interact with supply-side factors such as destination, marketing strategy, positioning and promotion. This model recognises educational materials, news, movies, word of mouth, user groups as independent determinants which are interrelated with image types (induced, organic and autonomous image) and components (cognitive, affective and overall image). In other words, these independent determinants are explained as information sources (Beerli & Martin 2004a) and stimulus factors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a). Therefore, demand-side factors, such as socio demographics, culture, experience and prior visit, attitudes, and motivations are treated as personal factors by Baloglu & McCleary (1999a) and by Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b).

At this point, the unique feature is culture. In spite of a lack of research regarding culture, Tasci and Gartner (2007) emphasise the impact of culture on destination image formation and note that culture can be an important cue in compound elucidations and meanings in the background of image formation (MacKay & Fesenmaier 1997). Therefore, culture must be significant in regard to destination image and this influence should be scrutinised. Lastly, destination image has direct effects on consumer behaviour; including pre-visit, during-visit and post-visit. Several previous studies have paid attention to external factors such as social, political, physical, financial, time, and distance, and have focused on the constraints regarding travel behaviour (Botha, Crompton & Kim 1999; Gartner 1993; Tasci & Gartner. 2007; Um & Crompton 1992).

Consequently, this model by Tasci and Gartner (2007) has been well-received by destination researchers; however, this model was only developed as the theoretical foundation, so it needs to be investigated empirically. A model of destination image and its relationship by Tasci and Gartner (2007) is shown in Figure 2.9.

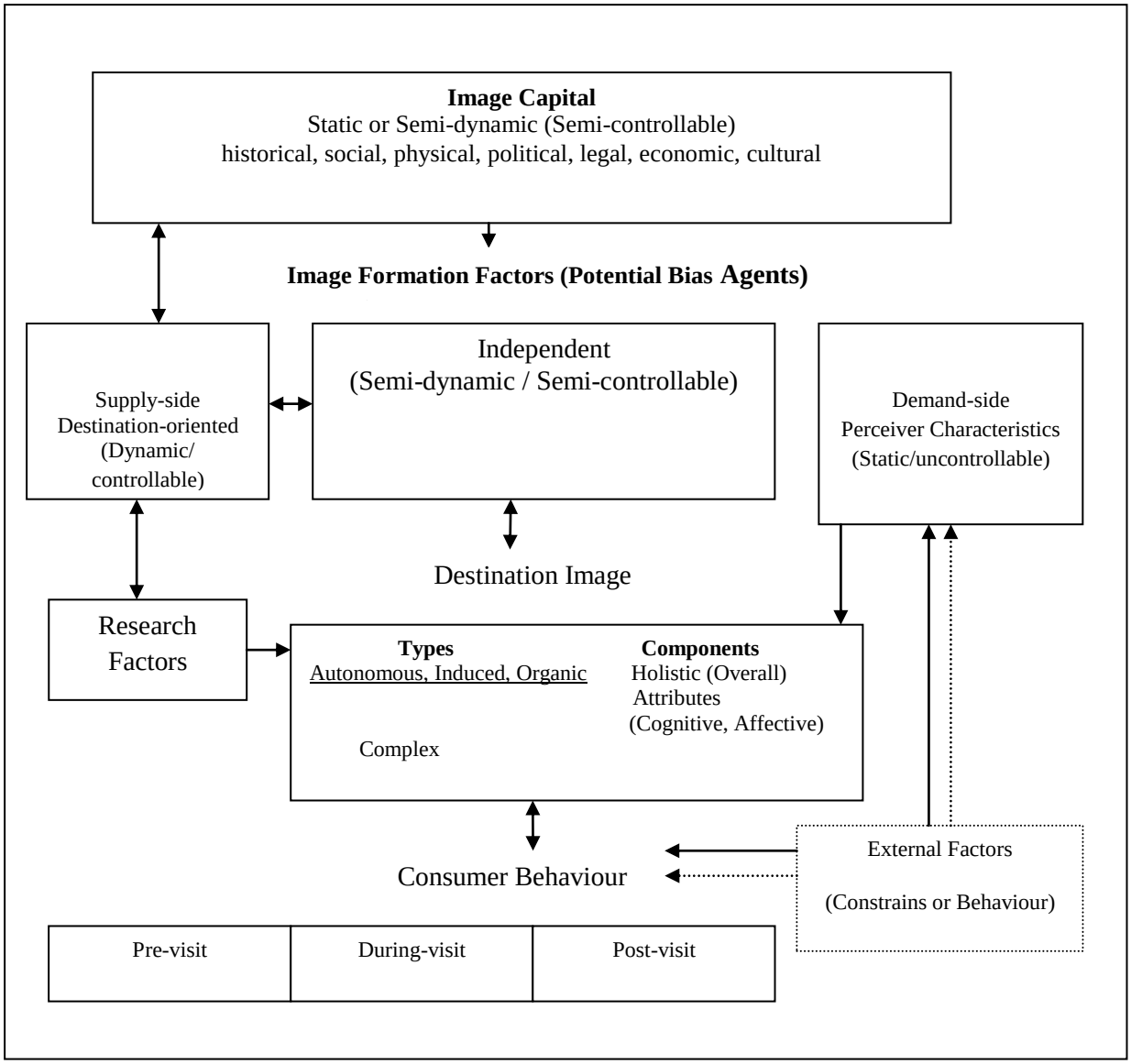


Figure2.9 A model of destination image and its relationship, Source: Tasci & Gartner (2007)

2.3.8. Govers, Go and Kumar (2007)'s three-gap model

Govers et al. (2007) suggested the three-gap destination formation model and identified elements for influencing destination image formation created in the mind of the tourists dynamically, using seven destination samples. Three TDS (tourism development strategy, tourism delivery-supply and tourism demands specifications) gap perspectives by Govers and Go (2004), five-gap service quality analysis model by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985), and models of destination formation by Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), Fesenmaier and Mackay (1996) and Gartner (1993) were employed as the theoretical foundations.

The Govers, Go and Kumar model (2007) emphasises the role of tourism promotion as a component of destination image formation. Firstly, in order to formulate tourism destination identity of the specific region, the destination itself and its associated development strategy—marketing, communication and narrative and visual media—have to be anchored to tourism destination identity (Govers et al. 2007; Go, Lee & Russo 2003). Secondly, promotional activities and interactions between the host community and tourists act to form the destination image in the mind of the tourists before actual visitation. At this point, a tourist demands specification gap may occur with prior expectations by tourists. In this case, through the actual experience, most tourists who cannot match their expectations with actual experiences have no choice but to ameliorate their perceived image and eventually this image should also become modified. Gartner (1993) formulated this phenomenon in terms of organic agents.

Lastly, in the case of discordance between tourism product suppliers (such as the host community) and industry decision makers and tourists, the tourism delivery and supply gap can play a significant role because service and products provided to tourists frequently tend fail to match expectations. Due to the lack of understanding of the experiential nature of tourism products and services by marketers and authorities (Gretzel et al. 2000), and the resultant misperception in respect of customers' prior image, this gap can easily occur in tourism promotion and interaction between the supply-side and the demand-side.

Contrary to other models (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Tasci & Gartner 2007), the model of Govers et al. (2007) focused on the secondary sources in tourism promotion regarding destination image formation. According to the Govers et al.'s (2007) model, covert induced agents, and autonomous agents such as television, magazines and newspapers, have a strong impact on destination image formation. Govers et al (2007)'s three-gap model is illustrated in Figure 2.10.

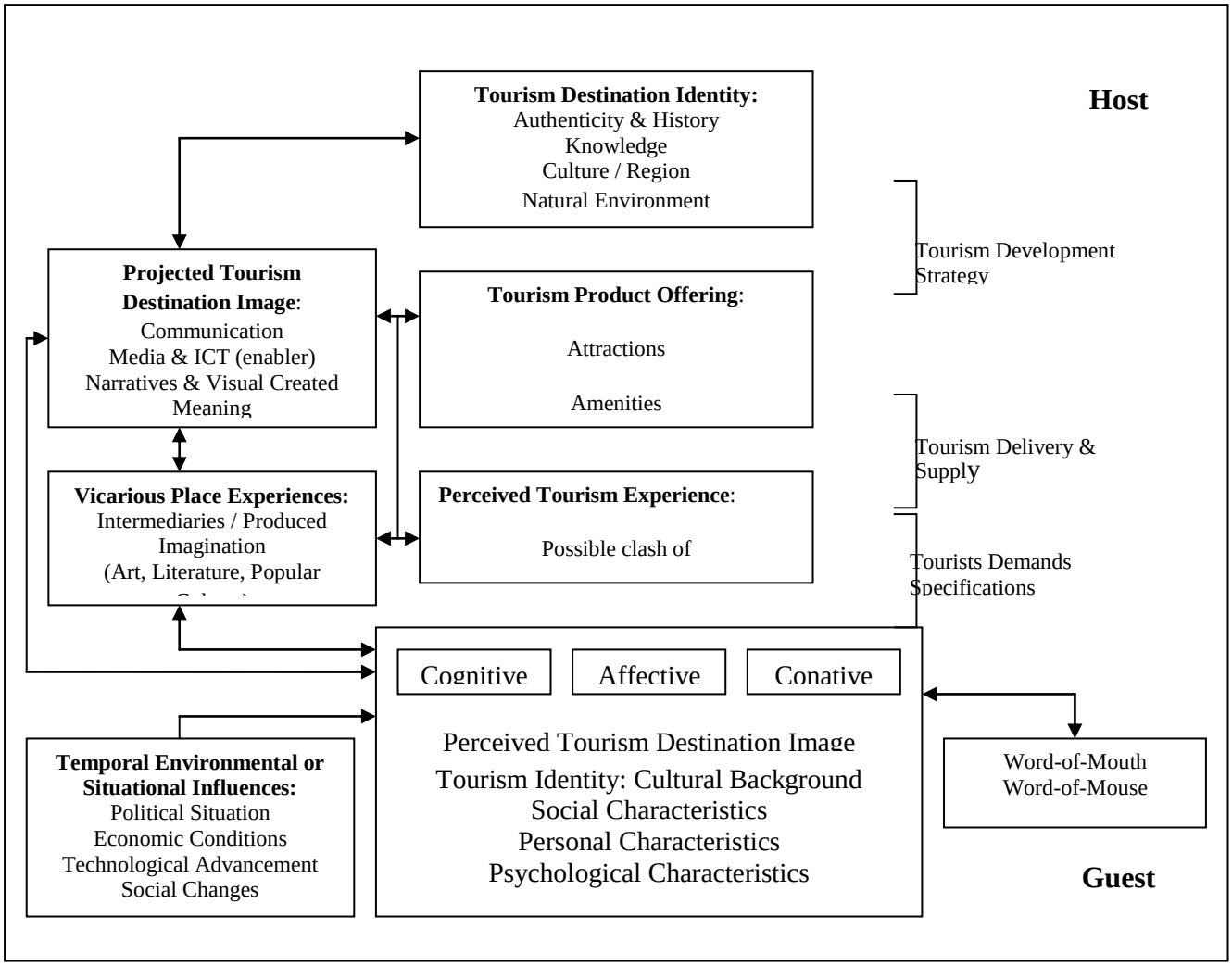


Figure2.10 Three-gap model by Govers, Go and Kumar (2007),
Source: Govers, Go & Kumar (2007)

2.3.9. Gil and Ritchie's (2008) Model

Gil and Ritchie (2008) provided the image formation process regarding museums in order to compare and distinguish between tourists and residents. For the theoretical approaches of this model, they referenced the image formation models of Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), Beerli and Martin (2004a), Gartner (1993) and Gunn (1972). Additionally, they reproduced and modified main factors from previous studies, such as information source factors from Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), Phelps (1986), motivational factors from Iso-Ahola (1982, 1989), Rowley (1999) and Um and Crompton (1992), satisfaction factors from Otto and Ritchie

(1996) and image component factors from Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a) to use in this model.

The Gil and Ritchie model (2008) segmented and compared residents and tourists with regard to image formation for museum contexts. Through the development of this image formation model regarding museums, Gil and Ritchie (2008) suggested that an understanding of established destination image formation model could be applied to museum images. According to their findings, there were no statistical differences between residents and tourists in respect of image components and satisfaction; however, qualitative differences were evident. They examined that different information sources and motivations have a strong relationships with both image dimensions and satisfaction. Specifically, the visitors' positive image will show the way to visitor satisfaction and museum image formation is connected more with affective image than with cognitive image and overall image factors. Gil and Ritchie (2008)'s model is shown in Figure 2.11.

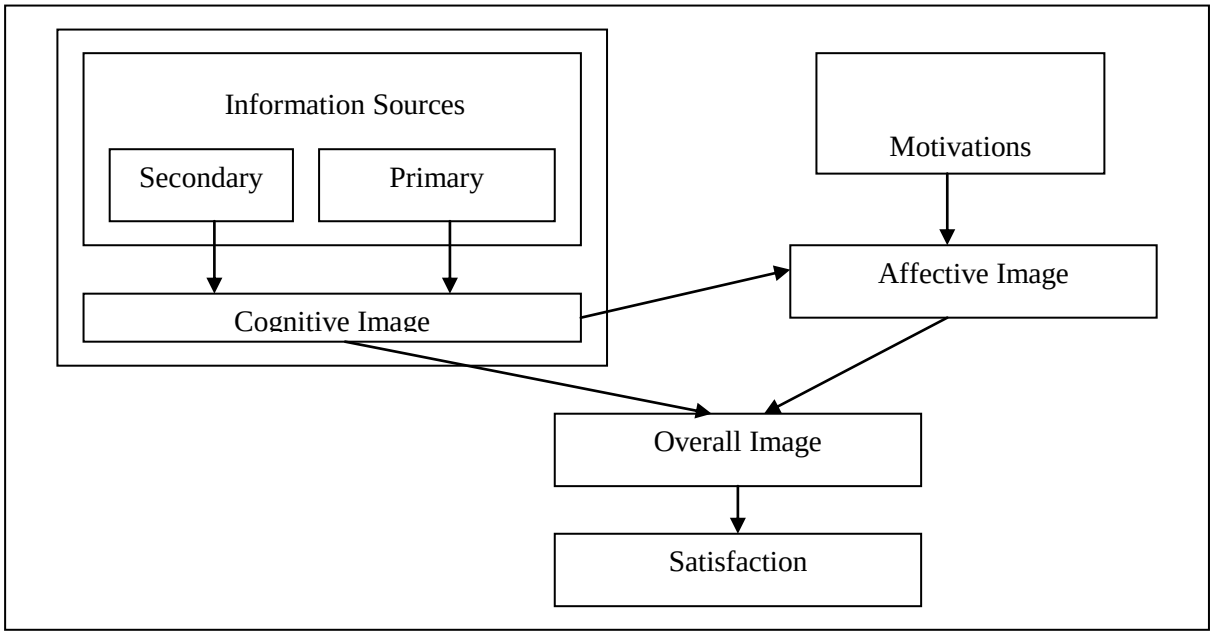


Figure 2.11 Gil and Ritchie (2008)'s Model, Source: Gil & Ritchie (2008)

2.3.10. Cho, Wang and Fesenmaier's (2002) Model

Cho et al. (2002) expanded a simplified model of the destination image change process of Fakeye and Crompton (1991). According to the model of Fakeye and Crompton (1991), each tourist has a certain image (naïve image) about a place even before they consider the place as a travel destination; an image they develop with the information they gather about a destination through various channels. Prior to actual travel, tourists search for information from word-of-mouth, advertising and other sources (informative image). After this stage, tourists obtain new experiential information through real visitations, and compare and evaluate their experiences (evaluated image). Based on theoretical frameworks (Fakeye & Cr ompton 1991; Hoffman and Novak 1996; Pine and Gilmore 1998; Slater and Usoh 1993; Steuer 1992; Werthner and Klein 2000), Cho et al. (2002) appended and developed a web-based virtual experience model in order to evaluate and examine the effect of web-based virtual tours in tourism destination literature.

Their model is based on the consideration of the information that tourists acquire through the information search process, such as through traditional media. Furthermore, a key feature of this model was an evaluative image. They argued the image developed during the virtual experience is entirely different from an informative image obtained during the information search process. It is felt that experiences gained from a virtual tour can help tourists evaluate destinations using their own techniques to extend the information search process. While many features were identified, this model focuses on concepts of media communication such as levels of 'interactivity' (Hoffman & Novak 1996; Slater & Usoh 1993; Werthner & Klein 2000) and 'vividness' (Pine & Gilmore; Slater & Usoh 1993) because information providers and destination marketers do not have control of other factors (e.g. characteristics of users and destinations). The citation below is taken from Cho et al's (2002) study and illuminates and provides context to the understanding of the virtual experience concept:

> Vividness can be explained the level of sensory richness of mediated environment. The level is mostly influenced by sensory breadth (number of sensory dimensions simultaneously presented) and sensory depth (resolution of each perceptual channel). Interactivity is defined as the degree to which users can participate in modifying the form and content of a mediated environment in real time. Three factors that contribute to interactivity include speed (the rate at which input can be assimilated into the mediated environment), range (the number of possibilities for action at any given time), and mapping (the ability of a system to map its controls to changes in the mediated environment in a natural and predictable manner) (p. 7).

Most importantly, the interactivity of Internet changes the direction of information from the 'supply–side' to the 'demand-side' (Rayport & Sviokla 1995). Internet users like to organise the information search and instigate their own online flow of information and experience. They are also encouraged to communicate with other online customers to meet their own information needs. In this way, communication is becoming increasingly consumer-oriented (Rayport & Sviokla 1995). The major characteristics of this model are an evaluative image developed by a web-based virtual tour experience and an evaluated image formed by actual travel experience. After experiencing a virtual tour, tourists appraise destinations in their own way and widen the information search process, thus this image is recognised as an evaluative image. Additionally, the image built up after the actual experience can be considered as an evaluated image because the virtual tour experience cannot be equated with the actual tour experience. Through this model, tourists are able to evaluate the specific destinations with personal methods and evaluate destinations based on the experiential information acquired. With this background of web-based virtual tour experience, Cho et al. (2002) identified a web-based virtual destination image formation process, shown in Figure 2. 12.

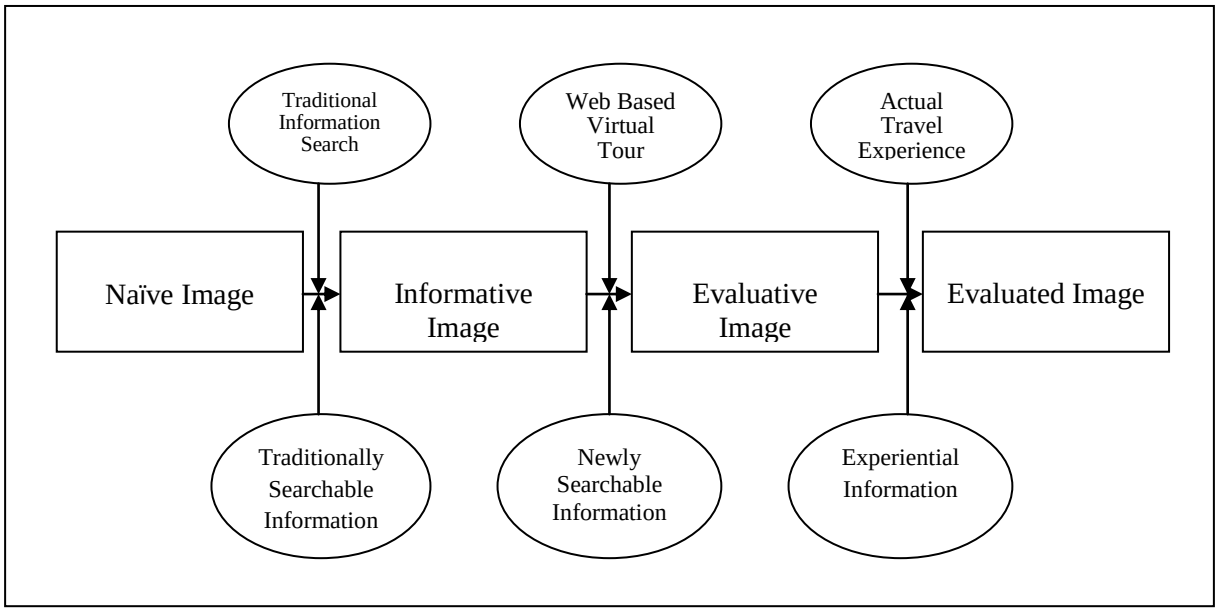


Figure2.12 Cho, Wang and Fesenmaier (2002)'s Model,
Source: Cho, Wang & Fesenmaier (2002)

With the proliferation of the internet, tourism destination images are becoming increasingly fragmented and ephemeral in nature. Due to the increased importance of digital information, the timing, costs and strategies for distributing promotional messages have changed (Choi et al. 2007). Since the Internet arrived, centralised control over destination information distribution is almost impossible. Therefore, it is necessary to research and redefine the role of Internet sources in shaping destination image (Cho et al. 2002; Choi et al. 2007; O'Connor 1999).

However, even though this section discussed various destination formation models, there are not any destination formation models regarding the internet. There is merely Cho et al.'s (2002) model which utilised web based experience model. Therefore, it is necessary to research and redefine the role of internet sources in shaping destination image formation process.

2.4. Factors influencing the formation of destination image

Various tourism researchers have emphasised the importance of understanding the factors which influence image development (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Gartner 1993; Phelps 1986) and noted that understanding the factors facilitate identification of image factors that should be promoted, to particular segments of the target markets.

2.4.1. Travel Motivations

Tourists engage in the decision making process of their travel with different motives and reasons. In the tourism research literature, travel motivations have received extensive attention (Cha, McCleary & Uysal 1995; Crompton 1979; Goodrich 1978; Kim, Weaver & McCleary 1996; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Mongkhonvanit 2008; Yoon & Uysal 2005), because they are considered to be the compelling aspects behind all travel behaviour (Iso-Ahola 1982). Specifically, various researchers into destination image recognised travel motivations as one of the most influential factors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Crompton 1979; Um & Crompton 1992).

The previous literature (Iso-Ahola 1982; Moutinho 2000; Murray 1964) defined travel motivations in order to better understanding of tourist behaviour and reasons for travel. Murray (1964, p.15) defined motivation or motive as an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person's behaviour. Dann (1977, p. 205) stated that motivation as a meaningful state of mind that drives an individual to travel. Iso-Ahola (1982, p. 259) described travel motivations as socio-psychological forces that predispose an individual to travel and participate in a touristic activity. Moutinho (2000, p. 45) defined travel motivations as a state of need or a condition that drives an individual toward certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction.

Based on these theoretical foundations, earlier studies (Beard & Ragheb 1983; Crompton 1979) and more recent studies (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Crompton & McKay 1997) measured travel motivations as not the result of a single dimension but the results of multiple dimensions. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) integrated travel motivations with other significant factors influencing destination image formation. Specifically, this study used 17 travel motivation items and identified five travel motivation factors that significantly influence travellers' affective image components. Beerli and Martin (2004a) developed an advanced model including information sources and personal factors. This model categorised travel motivations into personal factors, used 13 travel motivation items and identified four motivation factors that significantly influence travellers' affective image components. According to the findings of Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a), travel motivations have strong relationships with the destination image formation. Gil and Ritchie (2008) used sources of information and travel motivations of museum visitors as independent variables influencing formation of destination image. They found that different motivations have strong relationships with both image dimensions and satisfaction.

To better understand travellers' behaviour and their travel decision-making processes, various researchers have used motivation theories, such as the hierarchy of needs theory of Maslow (Maslow 1943; Mill & Morrison 1998; You, O'Leary, Morrison & Hong 2000), travel career ladder theory of Pearce (Jang & Cai 2002; Pearce 1982), psychological theory of Iso-Ahola (Iso-Ahola 1982, 1989; Jang & Cai 2002) and push and pull motivation theory of Dann (Crompton 1979; Dann 1977; Yoon & Uysal 2005).

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory has affected a great number of tourist motivation studies (Mill & Morrison 1998; Pearce 1982) and it is acknowledged as one of the most significant motivation theories adopted in tourism and destination image literature (Pearce 1982; Sangpikul & Batra 2007). Maslow's theory consists of a five stage hierarchy of needs (Maslow 1943): physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs and the need for self-actualisation. Mill and Morrison (1998) and You, O'Leary, Morrison & Hong (2000) identified a connection between Maslow's theory and travel motivations and found a fundamental imperative. For instance, travellers who are pursuing novelty, new experience and recreation may be satisfying their physiological needs and their safety needs. However, You, O'Leary, Morrison & Hong (2000) argued that Maslow's theory seems to be insufficient to elucidate why travellers choose different destinations.

Pearce (1982) and Moscardo and Pearce (1986) developed the travel career ladder (TCL) model which is related to travellers' various range of motives for their travel and is based in part on Maslow's (1943) needs hierarchy theory of motivation. The main concept of this theory is similar to Maslow's theory in proposing that travellers frequently progress to the next step of the ladder if the lower level of needs is satisfied (Sangpikul & Batra 2007). While it is expected that travellers will ascend the ladder over time, it is also recognised that the same travellers may vary in their travel career level depending on the travel situation. Motives at each level may also be intrinsic or extrinsic (Jang & Cai 2002; Locker-Murphy, & Pearce 1995).

Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested a dichotomous model using two dimensions of psychological factors in tourism literature: seeking and escaping. According to this theory, travellers perceive a leisure activity as a potential satisfaction-producer for two major reasons through travelling to different destinations. The seeking dimension is the search for psychological or intrinsic rewards, such as a feeling of mastery, while the escaping dimension indicates the desire to leave the routine life (Kim, Borges & Chon 2006; Sangpikul & Batra 2007; Yoon & Uysal 2005). Similarly, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) proposed another theoretical aspect for tourist motivation study, adopting two main factors. These two motivational factors are also divided into two dimensions, namely, the personal dimension and the interpersonal dimension. These authors insisted that travellers are motivated to seek travel activities to put out of mind the personal and interpersonal problems of routine life and to obtain personal and interpersonal rewards from participation in the leisure activities (Jang & Cai 2002; Sangpikul

& Batra 2007). However, these models have some weaknesses when employed in tourism literature (Sangpikul & Batra 2007). Firstly, although the importance in each dimension varies from case to case, these models strongly emphasise that seeking and escaping dimensions should be satisfied simultaneously. Secondly, they robustly accentuated personal and interpersonal rewards to achieve self-satisfaction from participating in the activities and travel. Even though there have been some weaknesses in these models, the models by Iso-Ahola (1982) and Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) have been popular in tourist motivation studies.

Dann (1977) made a significant contribution in proposing push and pull motivation theory. This theory is related to travellers' decision-making processes in selecting specific destinations and it has been extensively recognised as one of the most popular motivation theories in the tourism literature (Crompton 1979; Gnoth 1997; Jang & Cai. 2002; Yoon & Uysal 2005; Yuan & McDonald 1990). Push motivations are related to the tourists' desire, whereas pull motivations are associated with the attributes of the destination choices (Crompton 1979; Dann 1977, 1981; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver 1995). Specifically, push motivations are more related to internal, socio-psychological or emotional aspects whereas pull motivations are connected to external, situational, or cognitive aspects. Push motivations can be seen as intangible or intrinsic desires for escape, rest and relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure, novelty, social interaction, family togetherness, and excitement (Crompton 1979). Additionally, this factor causes travellers to search for specific information in their travel and destinations to reduce unexpected risks. Pull motivations refer to the destination's attractiveness, which motivate travellers to travel once the decision has been made. They include tangible resources, such as scenic beaches, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, parks, natural scenery, shopping, and entertainment (McGehee, Loker-Murphy & Uysal 1996; McGehee, Ryan 1995: Yoon & Cardenas 2003) as well as travellers' perceptions and expectations, such as novelty and benefit from a detailed destination image (Uysal & Hagan 1993).

Yoon and Uysal (2005) identified the relevant relationships among the various constructs (push and pull motivation factors, satisfaction and loyalty). Their findings suggested that tourists pursue different push motivations and pull motivations and travellers' push motivations affect their destination loyalty, which includes revisiting destinations and

recommending them to others. Based on these results, they suggested that marketers should focus more on travellers' emotional feelings to increase destination loyalty. Satisfaction is determined to be a mediating construct between travel motivation and destination loyalty.

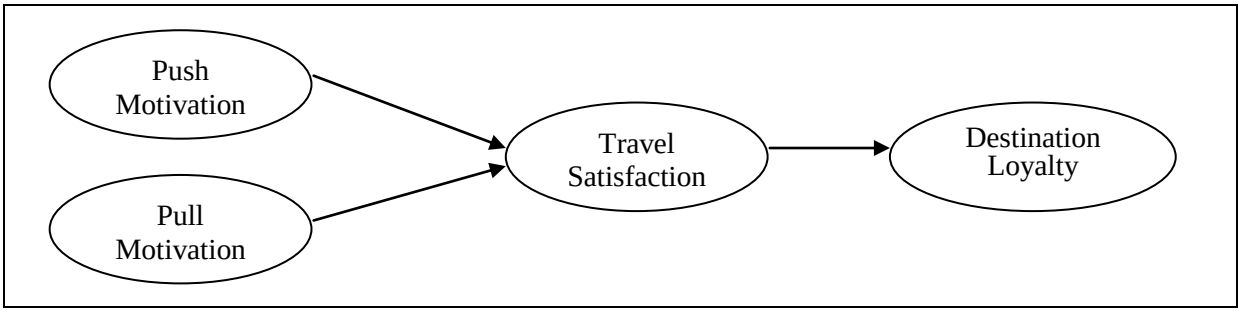


Figure 2.13 The framework proposed by Yoon & Uysal (2005), Source: Yoon & Uysal (2005)

2.4.2. Past Experiences

The impact of past experiences is a widely discussed and investigated aspect of destination image. Since potential tourists who do not have actual experiences have limited knowledge about the attributes of a particular destination (Um & Crompton 1990) and tourists who have some experiences of certain destinations are more familiar and have more a specific image than first-time visitors towards destinations (Beerli & Martin 2004a), past experiences may be more important and credible than other information obtained from external sources (Mazursky 1989). The overall research flow of past experiences in the tourism context can be considered from two main perspectives: 1) risk perception influencing the decision making of repeat visitors (Holloway & Robinson 1995; Lepp & Gibson 2003; Roehl & Fesenmaier 1992; Snepenger, Houser & Snepenger 1990), and 2) differences between first-time and repeat visitors (Chen & Kerstetter 1999; MacKay & Fesenmaier 1997; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Ross 1993; Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Perceptions of risk or safety are likely to influence travel decision-making. Potential tourists universally take part in risk reduction activities during pre-trip decision-making. Using various information sources related to specific destinations, they can maximise knowledge about their destinations and consider a wide variety of alternatives (Holloway & Robinson 1995; Lehto, Morrison & O'Leary 2001). Past experience and prior knowledge contribute to reduce the risk and uncertainty of possible destinations.

Various previous studies have emphasised the importance of past experience between first and repeat visitors. Hunt (1975) and Chen and Kerstetter (1999) did not find significant differences between images of first and repeat visitors. However, most destination studies (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Dann 1996; Fakeye & C rompton 1991; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Woodside & Ronkainen 1980) have supported a positive relationship between past experience and destination image; repeat visitors with actual past experience have more positive images of the destination than first-time visitors. During the main research flow of past experiences in the 1980s and 1990s, several researchers tried to examine the differences between repeat visitors and first-time visitors. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) developed the conceptualised destination image and compared the differences of destination images between first-time visitors and repeat visitors using mental perceptions and impressions by tourists of the Rio Grande Valley in Texas. In this study, they presented the effect of past experience on image. The study demonstrated significant differences between first-time visitors and repeat visitors.

Dann (1996) examined that destination image is generated from visuals and is influenced by marketing inputs and socio-demographic factors such as income and gender. This study used the effect of familiarity on destination image and found that repeat visitors who have past experience with the particular destinations usually formed a more positive affective image than first-time visitors. MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) argued that the type of image held by tourists who were familiar with a particular destination and those who were not showed significant differences. Repeat visitors who were familiar with the specific destination frequently held affective images, while first-time visitors usually held cognitive images. Baloglu (2001) suggested that familiarity should be measured by emphasising the effect of destination familiarity on choice behaviour from consumer research, which regards familiarity as one component of a consumer knowledge construct. He proposed that familiarity is composed of information familiarity as well as previous experience measured using the number of visitations.

To examine the relationship between past experiences and future travel intention, researchers have utilised past experiences in the context of travel behaviour and perceptions. Oppermann (1996) identified the travel characteristics between first-time visitors and repeat visitors. First-time visitors tended to travel to more destinations and seek more attractions compared to repeat visitors, who visited conspicuously fewer destinations and attractions in spite of

comparatively longer travel period. Vogt and Andereck (2003) argued that past experiences had a significant positive effect on cognitive image construct, however, the affective image was not influenced by actual past experiences. Lau and McKercher (2004) attested that first-time visitors search a wide range of geographically dispersed activities, whereas repeat visitors intend to spend time with family or friends. Lehto et al. (2001) empirically examined the effect of past experiences on vacation behaviour using involvement constructs. Repeat visitors tended to narrow down destinations and focus on detailed activity sets. Furthermore, more frequent tourists are likely to spend less money compared to first-time visitors. Weaver, Weber and McCleary (2007) explored the impact of past experiences and travel related variables on destination evaluation. They emphasised that tourists' satisfaction may depend on destination evaluation variables, such as past experiences, length of stay, service quality and value for money.

Most destination image formation models (Baloglu & McCleary. 1999a, 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b) have considered past experiences as one of the fundamental factors. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a, 1999b) categorised past experiences as one of the main stimulus factors. They found significant differences between first-time visitors and repeat visitors in terms of cognitive, affective and overall image components. Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) analysed the relationship between the different components of the perceived image and the factors that influence destination image formation. They found that the number of past experiences has a statistically significant relationship with cognitive image in the first-time visitors, and with the affective image in the repeat visitors. These studies argued that whenever tourists assess the destination, repeat visitors know other realities that serve as points of comparison. Beerli and Martin (2004a) examined first-time visitors and found a relationship with respect to cognitive image, while a relationship was found in repeat visitors in respect to affective image. Based on the previous literature mentioned above, it is conceivable that tourists' cumulative past experiences not only affect their travel behaviour, but also produces variations in the destination image between first-time visitors and repeat-visitors.

2.4.3. Socio-demographic variables

As different tourists select and consume diverse tourism related products and destinations depending on their socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, level of education,

level of income and occupation, these variables have become the focus of investigation in academic and practical fields in tourism literature (Chen & Tsai 2007; McIntosh & Goeldner 1990; Sonmez & Sirakaya 2002). The studies mentioned above have included socio-demographics to explain and examine tourist behaviour and destination image.

Several researchers have emphasised correlations between socio-demographics and destination image or perceptions by tourists (Gartner 1993; McIntosh & Goeldner 1990). Ashworth (1989) pointed out that there is a relationship between socio-demographics—such as age, occupation, and income of tourists—and destination image, influencing the formation of the tourists' images and perceptions of the travel experience. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) noticed that destination image is influenced by destination attributes and tourist variables such as age, income, past experiences, and personal values. McIntosh and Goeldner (1990) stated that tourism products and related images are likely to be affected by a number of socio-demographic factors, such as age, gender, income, education and race. Gartner (1993) also suggested that destination-related attractions, touristic characteristics and tourists' socio-demographics such as age, education and income, typically affect the choice of suitable image formation agents.

Various studies in tourism and destination literature have used different socio-demographic characteristics. The most common socio-demographic variables used in tourism literature are age, gender, education and income (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Kim & Morrison 2005; Stern & Krakover 1993; Walmsley & Jenkins 1993). In addition, occupation (Awaritefe 2004; Chen & Tsai 2007; Martin & Bosque 2007), social class (Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b), and marital status (Awaritefe 2004; MacKay & Fesenmaier 1997; Martin & Bosque 2007; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Brown 2001; Stepchenkova & Morrison 2007) are recognised as important influential factors in forming destination image.

Even though socio-demographic variables have been tested by various tourism researchers, influential variables on formation of destination images were shown differently. Age appears to be the most influential factor in respect of image formation. Weaver, McCleary, Lepisto and Damonte (1994) found that age was a discriminating socio-demographic variable that influenced choice of destination. According to this study, tourists less than 45 years old have frequently tended to show higher novelty seeking attitudes than those over 45 years old.

Several studies analysed socio-demographics—specifically age—with information sources (Choi, Chan & Wu 1999) and marketing perspectives (Fleischer & Pizam 2002; Reece 2004). Choi et al. (1999) specifically segmented different ages and education groups of Chinese tourists' information usage patterns as they planned their travel to Macau. The results suggested that a greater number of younger Chinese tourists preferred to select a self-guided tour based on searching website information than older tourists. From a marketing perspective, Reece (2004) pointed out that older generation tourists are one of the important market segments in the tourism industry because they usually have more purchasing power than younger generations. When older adults take a large number of trips, the trip-related expenditures increase the profit to the tourism industry (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002).

Gender is another important factor with respect to images perceived by tourists. Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) examined the perceived image of different tourist resorts of Australia and found that the image differed depending on the visitor's gender and age. MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) analysed how the visual content of tourist advertising material affected the formation of image, and found that tourists' gender and level of income influenced the perceived destination image. Also, Chen and Kerstetter (1999) identified that tourists' gender and family status significantly influenced the perceived image in a study of the image of Pennsylvania as a rural tourist destination.

Level of education also broadens tourists' attention and interest and therefore, stimulates travel decision making. Stern and Krakover (1993) examined the influence that the level of education had on perceived images of a city and found significant differences. According to Cai, Hong and Morrison (1995), tourists with higher level of education have tended to travel more and spend more on their travel than do those with lower level of education. Lang, O'Leary and Morrison (1997) noticed that level of education has a strong relationship in choosing destinations. They stressed that tourists who chose to travel outside of the Asia Pacific region had a higher education than those who chose to travel within the Asia Pacific region. Andereck and Caldwell (1993) examined the relationship between tourists' level of education and information source. They found that tourists with lower educational levels preferred using media such as television or brochures as their main information sources whereas tourists with medium to higher educational levels placed more value on their past experiences and destination-specific literature.

Level of income has been hypothesised to be one of the main determinants in destination image formation. Woodside and Ronkainen (1980) stated that tourists with higher economic status frequently tend to use travel agents to arrange travel plans.Similarly, Woodside and Jacobs (1985) identified that tourists from United States and Canada who had a higher level of income have taken part in more travels of three or more nights away from home than those of lower level of income. Yuan and Moisey (1992) examined the economic impact of tourists to Montana wild land areas and pointed out that wild land based activity groups have tended to be more comfortable and spend more than the non-wild land activity group. Crompton and MacKay (1997) argued that tourists had quite different perceptions and attitudes of Riding Mountain National Park in terms of holiday and activity image factors depending on their level of income. Even though age, gender, level of education and level of income have been recognised as the main socio-demographic factors, Chen and Tsai (2007) emphasised that destination image and behavioural intentions can be affected by socio-demographic factors such as occupation, level of education and level of income.

From the theoretical bases mentioned above, this present study selected the five socio-demographic variables of age, gender, level of education, level of income and occupation as the independent variables influencing destination image formation in Korean package and independent tourists.

2.4.4. Information sources

The information search is one of the first processes of travel decision-making. Searches are necessary for prospective tourists to choose a specific destination and to make on-site decisions concerning issues such as accommodation, transportation, activities, and food (Chen & Gursoy 2000; Fodness & Murray 1999). The main reasons for information searches by potential tourists are to enhance the quality of their travel and to decrease the level of uncertainty surrounding the functional, financial and social risks (Fodness & Murray 1999).

Information sources refer to all of the resources from which prospective tourists gather impressions of a destination before their actual visitation. Primarily, an information search is based on either internal sources or external sources (Fodness & Murray 1999; Gursoy & Chen 2000; Schul & Crompton 1983; Vogt & Fesenmaier 1998). Internal sources include personal experiences, either with the specific destination or with a comparable destination,

and the knowledge built up through a continuing information search process, while external sources can be from marketing dominated sources, such as travel guide books, magazines and information from travel agencies and personal sources, such as word of mouth from friends, family and relatives. When the internal information provides adequate information concerning a travel decision, the need for external information sources may be less (Beatty & Smith 1987). However, if the internal information sources are inadequate or not up-to date, tourists have no choice but to utilise an external information source to gather additional information. In the case of most travel decisions, predominantly to new destinations, the information search is frequently external (Fodness & Murray 1999; Raitz & Dakhil 1989; Schul & Crompton 1983).

Several studies have proposed that multiple factors can influence tourists' external information searches (Chen & Gursoy 2000; Fodness & Murray 1999; Gursoy & Chen 2000). These factors are socio-demographic variables (Schul & Crompton 1983), environmental variables (e. g. difficulty of destination choice, the complexity of alternatives) (Fodness & Murray 1999), situational variables (e. g. previous satisfaction, time constraints), consumer characteristics (e. g. involvement, family life cycle) (Schmidt & Spreng 1996), product characteristics (e. g. purpose of the travel) (Gursoy & Chen 2000) and culture (Gursoy & Chen 2000). However, many tourism researchers (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Fodness & Murray 1999; Kotler & Armstrong 1994; Snepenger & Snepenger 1993) have suggested that the most influential information sources fall into three to five categories.

Gitelson and Crompton (1983) categorised five available travel information sources: friends and relatives, destination-specific literature, travel agents and automobile clubs, television and radio, and newspapers and travel magazines. They stated that the elderly rely on friends and relatives to find travel information. Snepenger and Snepenger (1993) identified four categories of information sources: 'travelling party composition, the presence of friends or relatives at the destination, past experience, and the degree of novelty associated with the destination'. Also, they suggested that most potential tourists are highly reliant on four kinds of external information sources when preparing their travel: family and friends, destination-specific literature, media, and travel consultants. Similarly, Baloglu and McCleary (1999a, 1999b) and Baloglu (2001) found that both the type and amount of information on their destination influenced tourists' intention of visitation indirectly through cognitive image.

Also, these studies identified four types of information sources; professional advice from travel agencies or tour operators, word of mouth from friends, family or relatives, advertisements from printed or broadcast media; and non-tourist resources such as books, movies and news.

The various types of external information sources were examined utilising different approaches, such as the psychological/motivational approach (Bieger & Laesser 2004; Schul & Crompton 1983), the economic approach (Gitelson & Crompton 1983; Fodness & Murray, 1999) and the tourist information process approach (Chen & Gursoy 2000; Pan & Fesenmaier 2000). The psychological/motivational approach includes external information sources that are influenced by touristic characteristics and explicit travel decisions including length of travel and previous experience (Snepenger & Snepenger 1993; Schul & Crompton 1983). According to Schul and Crompton (1983), whenever repeat visitors feel that memory of the past experiences is not sufficient, they usually seek external information sources, such as brochures, travel guidebooks, magazines and travel agencies.

The economic approach emphasises that tourists seek to have a balances between perceived costs and benefits to avoid a kind of uncertainty (Money & Crotts 2002). Money and Crotts (2002) classified tourists into two categories depending on their level of risk perception: high and medium uncertainty avoidance. They found that tourists with higher risk perception have tended to pursue market-dominated information sources that can be retrieved from hotels, car rental companies and airline companies directly, whereas those with lower risk perception have tended to seek information from neutral organisations, such as official tourism organisations. Additionally, tourists who have a high level of risk perception would prefer to purchase package tours including accommodation and airfares from travel agencies with recommendations.

The tourist information process approach means that potential tourists accentuate the actual information search process (Vogt & Andereck 2003). During their travel preparation, they utilise various sources or channels that are not necessarily specific to tourism. Vogt and Ande reck (2003) mentioned that tourists are exposed to quite a few advertising media (e. g. visual, verbal, and sensory), such as newspapers, magazines, travel information books, movies and television programs. These information sources enable the evaluation of a destination's attributes (Chen & Gursoy 2000).

External information sources were examined according to types and amount of information. Fesenmaier and Vogt (1992) investigated the use of state welcome centres and found that the majority of tourists stopping at the welcome centres had not utilised any external information sources prior to their trip. Fodness & Murray (1999) identified a number of external information sources trusted by tourists while forming destination images. These sources, which include brochures, guidebooks, local tourist offices, travel guides, travel agents, magazines, newspapers and friends or relatives, facilitate image formation. Sung, Morrison and O'Leary (2000) pointed out the effectiveness of various information sources (like specialised guidebooks, web sites, videotapes or CDs) in reaching adventure tourists. Dann (1996) investigated the variety of media influencing destination image using written communication channels (e.g. travelogues, brochures, national tourist office catalogues, guidebooks and notice boards) and broadcast communication channels (e.g. television holiday programs, videos, and films).

Tourists' socio-demographic characteristics also influence to the use of external information sources (Gitelson & Crompton 1983). Anderson and Langmeyer (1982) categorised tourists' demographic segmentation by age variables and found that one out of four seniors were more likely to use a travel agent. Rosenfeld (1986, p. 38) studied the importance of mature travel markets and found that 'older Americans travel more frequently, go longer distances, stay away longer, and rely more on travel agents'. Leventhal (1997) stated that the older generations' preference for information sources were newspapers; however, Malaviya and Sternthal (1997) identified that the older generations depend more on television information sources than newspapers. As nationality and personal income levels differ among tourists, different types of information sources will influence overseas tourists' decision-making (Kotler, Haider, & Rein 1993).

In considering destination image formation models and choice models, information sources were included as one of the principle variables. According to Um and Crompton's (1990) cognitive model of pleasure travel destination choice, the cognitive evaluation of destination attributes are formed by external factors which include various information sources, such as symbolic stimuli (e. g. promotional efforts on behalf of a destination through media) and social stimuli (e. g. friends' and relatives' or word-of-mouth recommendations). Goodall (1990) and Fakeye and Crompton (1991) emphasised that tourists develop a naïve or factual

image of tourism destinations based on information derived from formal sources (TV, magazines and travel agencies) and informal sources (word-of mouth from their friends and relatives). Hanlan and Kelly (2005) showed the role of information sources in the creation of destination image, indicating that destination image is predominately formed through word-of-mouth, autonomous and independent information sources. Travel intermediaries such as tour operators and travel agents are significant information sources influencing destination image and choice (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001).

From the theoretical bases mentioned above, this present study selected five information sources to have most influence on the destination image formation model by Korean package and independent tourists. These sources are— TV, travel agencies, information books (e. g. magazines), brochures or tour guidebooks by official organisations and word of mouth recommendations from friends or relatives.

2.4.5. Destination image components

Oxenfeldt (1974) defined image as 'less like a photograph and more like an interpretive portrait and an overall or total impression which is formed as a result of the evaluation of attributes containing both cognitive and emotional content' (p. 9). Based on this definition, the destination image concept has generally been considered as an attitudinal construct consisting of tourists' mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feeling, and global impressions about an object or destination (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Kim & Richardson 2003). This view of cognitive and affective image perspectives has received increasing popularity and been adopted in different disciplines including tourism and destination image literature. Many researchers have agreed that destination image should consist of both cognitive and affective components (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b).

Cognitive, affective and overall image

As mentioned above in 2.2.2., the cognitive component of destination image refers to the beliefs or knowledge about a destination's attributes, whereas affective component refers to feeling towards or attachment to it (Burgess 1978; Holbrook 1978). Burgess (1978) identified that affective image is an important component of image after analysing reaction of tourists

towards the name of 32 urban-rural places. This study emphasised that many destinations have both denotative (cognitive) and connotative (affective) meanings for tourists. Gartner (1993) defined cognitive image as the intellectual evaluation of known attributes of a destination, and affective image as emotional and related to tourists' motives in destination selection. Similarly, Gartner (1996) explained image as a physical, functional, external force and found that pull attributes and destination image consist of cognitive, affective and conative image. With the interrelationship of these components, prospective tourists eventually determine their predisposition for future visitation. Definitions of cognitive and affective image components are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Definition of cognitive and affective image components

Image	Researchers	Definitions
Cognitive	Baloglu & Brinberg (1997), Baloglu & McCleary (1999a, 1999b), Gartner (1993)	Perceptive/cognitive image refers to the individual's own knowledge and beliefs about the object (an evaluation of the perceived attributes of the object).
	Genereux, Ward & Russell (1983)	The perceptual/ cognitive component is the knowledge about the place's objective attributes.
	Hanyu (1993)	Cognitive quality refers to the appraisal of physical features of environments.
	Baloglu (1999), Pike (2002)	Cognitive component is the beliefs or knowledge a person has of the characteristic or attributions of a tourist destination.
Affective	Baloglu & Brinberg (1997), Baloglu & McCleary (1999a, 1999b), Gartner (1993)	Affective image relates to an individual's feelings towards the object, or attachment to it.
	Genereux, Ward & Russell (1983)	Affective counterpart is knowledge about its affective quality.
	Hanyu (1993)	Affective meaning refers to the appraisal of the affective quality of environments.

Chon and Olsen (1991), Echtner and Ritchie (1993), Sirgy (1982) and Sirgy and Su (2000) pointed out that cognitive image could be considered as the functional destination image which refers to those associated with physical evidence and the tangible components of destinations such as climate, accommodation facilities, and friendliness of the local people. In the affective image aspects, Baloglu & Brinberg (1997), Dann (1996), and Gartner (1993) also suggested that motivations exert a direct influence on the affective component. In so far

as affective image refers to the feelings aroused by a place, tourists with different motives may assess a destination in similar ways if its perception satisfies their needs. Affective image can be seen as a symbolic image that refers to the intangible aspect of destinations such as atmospheres, mood of the place, and stereotypical personality of destination. Therefore, the affective image could be seen in terms of 'psychological, symbolic, internal forces, and push attributes' (Chon, 1990). Measurement items of cognitive and affective image components are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Measurement items of cognitive and affective image components

	Researchers	Measurement items
Cognitive image	Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	Social opportunities and attractions, natural and cultural amenities, accommodations and transportations, infrastructure, food and friendly people, physical amenities and recreation activities, bars and evening
	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a)	Quality of experience, attractions, value/environment.
	Beerli & Martin (2004a)	Natural and cultural resources, general, tourist and leisure infrastructures, atmosphere, social setting and environment, sun and sand.
	Pike & Ryan (2004)	The good life/infrastructure, getting away from it all, outdoor play, the weather.
	Lin, Morais, Kerstetter & Hou (2007)	Natural characteristics, amenities, infrastructure.
	Martin & Bosque (2007)	Infrastructures and socioeconomic environment, atmosphere, natural environment, cultural environment.
Affective image	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a)	Arousing—sleepy, pleasant—unpleasant, exciting—gloomy, relaxing—distressing.
	Beerli & Martin (2004a)	Pleasant/unpleasant place, exciting/boring place.
	Pike & Ryan . (2004)	Sleepy/arousing, unpleasant/pleasant.
	Lin, Morais, Kerstetter & Hou (2007)	Arousing—sleepy, pleasant—unpleasant, exciting—gloomy, relaxing—distressing.
	Martin & Bosque (2007)	Arousing destination, exciting destination, pleasant destination.

Cognitive and affective images combine to form the overall image of a place (Stern & Krakover 1993). Gartner (1986) stated that tourists' perceptions of various attributes within a destination interact to form a composite or overall image. Ahmed (1991) noted that the beliefs and feeling dimensions together influence overall image and that an important issue in destination image is to delineate the relationship between overall image and other components, producing an overall perception that may be favourable or unfavourable. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a, 1999b) divided images into cognitive, affective and overall images. These studies developed a conceptual model in which these three image components have a sequential causal relation. It seems that both cognitive and affective images held by tourists may influence their decision making and destination image.

In this section, the present study summarised factors influencing the formation of destination image included in the present study model, such as travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables, information sources and image components. The following section discusses internet sources, the main focus in this study.

2.5. Internet sources influencing the formation of destination image

In this section, the present study illustrates internet sources influencing the formation of destination image both academically and practically. However, considerable research has not been conducted into the effects of the internet on destination image formation. Based on these theoretical bases, the following section uses this research as a basis for discussion.

2.5.1. The impact of the internet on tourism

The internet is becoming a new type of information source that is more dynamic, interactive and richer in content than previous resources (Pan & Fesenmaiser 2006) and has essentially reformed tourism related information (Buhalis & Law 2008). With the massive amount of information available through the internet to potential tourists, increasing numbers of tourists have been using the internet as a source of information (Govers & Go 2003; Stepchenkova & Eales 2010). In this respect, the internet plays a crucial role in the information exchange between the tourists and tourism related industry suppliers (e.g. hotels, resorts,

transportations), intermediaries (e.g. travel agents), controllers (e.g. governments), as well as many non-profit organisations, such as destination marketing organisations (Werthner & Klein 1999; Xiang & Gretzel 2010).

According to Internet World Stats (2011), there are nearly 2 billion internet users in the world and this figure represents a 444.8 % increase during 2000 to 2010 compared with 1990s. In the case of the United States, approximately 182 million adults are internet users and 135 million adults (74%) search for travel information and use the Internet to plan their travel (U.S. Travel Association 2009). According to the Pew Foundation (2009), tourists who use the internet considered themselves confident with utilising the variety of information on the internet. Figure 2.14 below illustrates the percentage of internet users in the United States.

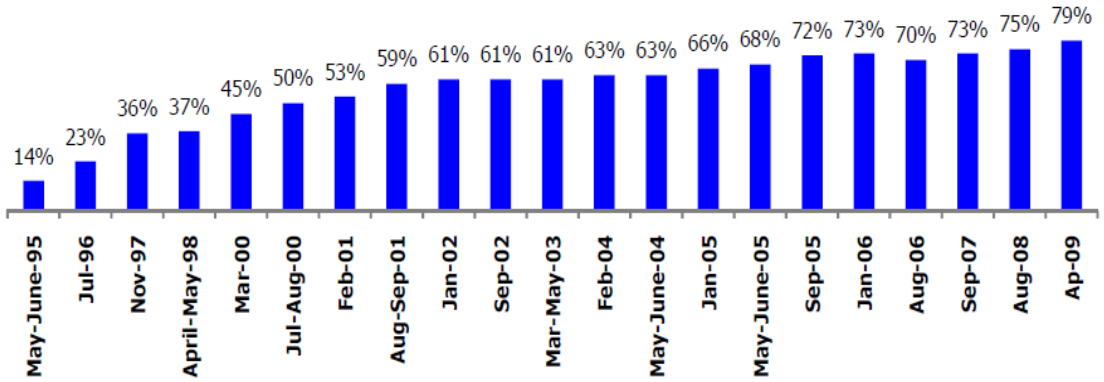


Figure 2.14 Percentage of internet user in the United States,
Source: The Pew Foundation (2009)

In Australia, the number of internet users has also radically increased, occupying over 17 million adults, with the percentage of users being 80.1% in 2010 (Internet World Stats 2011). According to Tourism Australia (2010), the internet has gradually become an important information source for international tourists since 2005. In 2009, 44% of international tourists used the internet for their visit to Australia.

While large numbers of tourists from New Zealand, UK and United States used the internet as an information source, tourists from France, the Netherlands (55%), Korea and Germany (54%) had the greatest propensity to use the internet. Tables 2.3 and 2.4 illustrate the profile of international tourists to Australia using the internet.

Table2.3 Number of international tourists to Australia who used the internet

Year	Number (million) and percentage of international tourists who used the internet
2005	1.42 (32%)
2006	1.71 (35%)
2007	1.90 (37%)
2008	2.09 (40%)
2009	2.29 (44%)

Source: Tourism Australia (2010)

Table2.4 Tourists who used the internet and proportion by country

Country of residence	Number (’000) and proportion of internet users
France	49 (55%)
Netherland	27 (55%)
Korea	91 (54%)
Germany	84 (54%)
Switzerland	21 (52%)

Source: Tourism Australia (2010)

Various studies have examined the direct impact of the internet on tourism aspects (Buhalis & Licata 2002; Christian 2001; Govers & Go 2003; Law, Leung & Wong 2004). The internet has revolutionised the relationships between supply side and demand side. On the demand side, an increasing number of tourists are using the Internet for their information search because it can provide more in-depth resources and richer content compared with conventional promotional agents (Buhalis & Licata 2002; Govers & Go 2003). As the internet is relatively low cost and easy to access, it is rapidly becoming an important distribution method. Christian (2001) suggested three main benefits of internet information: the cheap cost of sharing information, simple accessibility, and the global scale. Also, information on the internet can be found and shared between researchers and practitioners regardless of location.

On the supply side, the internet is actively used by hotels, airlines, travel agencies, convention and visitor bureaus and other destination marketing organisations (Stepchenkova

& Morrison 2006), because it is relatively inexpensive in comparison with other promotional and distributional media (Doolin, Burgess & Cooper 2002). The internet can provide the perfect opportunity for travel and tourism suppliers to influence potential tourists with the information they need to make pre-travel decisions and purchases. Also, suppliers in tourism can control their servers remotely to instantly display information on services and products (Frias et al. 2007; Law 2000). With these characteristics, the internet offers great potential to influence tourists' perceived images, including creating virtual experiences of the destination.

Due to the proliferation of the internet, the role of travel agencies is expected to change (Frias et al. 2007). Conventionally, travel agencies worldwide have come into being and prospered as intermediaries between airline companies, hotels and tourists. However, since the Internet provides new opportunities for airlines and hotel franchises to offer their products and services directly to tourists, this replaces the intermediation of travel agencies with online services (Barnett & Standing 2001). The impact of this is easier accessibility of information through the internet, thereby reducing the importance of travel agencies. Eventually it might even result in tourists bypassing travel agencies altogether (Barnett & Standing 2001; Buhalis 2000; Frias et al. 2007).

As the power of the internet become more important, potential tourists can build up and create their own itineraries by themselves (Frias et al. 2007). However, most travel agencies have remained reliant on the traditional marketing channels, such as printed media and telephone (Ozturan & Roney 2004) even though the strength of the internet as an advertising and marketing tool has been proven (Zafiropoulos & Vrana 2006). From the perspective of the travel agencies, reflecting and utilizing the internet as a main marketing tool is becoming a crucial issue. In a similar context, Lee (2009) pointed out that travel agencies have had a critical circumstance and argued that it is necessary for them to provide a differentiated service to customers and develop appropriate strategies to survive in the Internet environment.

2.5.2. Information search through the internet as a current trend

Potential tourists habitually engage in the information search process before their travel. Buhalis (1998) stated that potential tourists have become more self-determining and independent using an extensive range of internet information for their travel. One of the unique features of the internet as an information search tool is the ability for potential tourists

to select multiple suppliers at the same time, comparing and contrasting the quality and availability without geographical and financial boundaries (Susskind, Bonn & Dev 2003). Werthner (1999) highlighted that even though tourists had been highly reliant on traditional media such as travel information books, brochures and travel agents in the past, the internet has the ability to supply prolific information.

Given the importance of the internet as outlined above, considerable research has been undertaken into online information searching (Buhalis & Law 2008; Jang 2004; Lake 2001; Li, Pan, Zhang & Smith 2009; Luo, Feng & Cai 2004; Pan & Fesenmaiser 2006). Lake (2001) pointed out that the internet has become one of the most important tourist information sources and found that around 95% of internet users usually gather travel-related content and nearly 93% of these visited tourism websites when planning for their travel. Pan and Fesenmaiser (2006) and Jang (2004) examined tourists' information searches from the perspective of demand and supply aspects. Pan and Fesenmaiser (2006) proposed a conceptual model of online information search and investigated the process of vacation planning on the internet. On the demand side, tourists commonly used information hubs holding many links to other influential websites regarding the designated destination with more subjective and experiential aspects. On the supply side, most tourism internet information is focused on marketing-oriented content concerning price and ticket availability. Jang (2004) reviewed the distinct features of online information searching. This study suggested that the relationship between online search/purchase and online advertising/selling is like opposite sides. According to this study, as tourism-related websites generally include online registration or purchase opportunities, a tourists' online information search is more directly linked with purchase, when compared with approaches to traditional sources. The model by Jang (2004) is presented in Figure2.15.

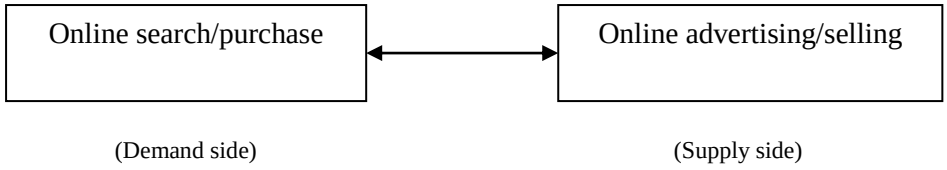


Figure2.15 Online search/purchase and online advertising/selling, Source: Jang (2004)

Beldona, Kline and Morrison (2003), Luo and Deng (2008) and Kim and Forsythe (2007) examined the relationship between socio-demographics and online travel information search.

Kim and Forsythe (2007) examined gender differences in online travel content preferences and search behaviour and indicated that there were considerable gender differences in both respects. Specifically, females are more likely to have favourable attitudes towards different types of contents and are also more involved in online information search, visiting more travel websites and visiting them more frequently. Luo and Deng (2008) found that gender, income level, travel purpose and travel party type were significantly related to tourists' selections of information sources and highlighted that such behaviour was associated with their travel outcomes of accommodation types and expenditure. However, age did not influence the use of the internet sources and other information sources. In contrast to Luo and Deng (2008)'s findings, Beldona et al. (2003) discovered significant differences between baby boomers and generation Xers. This longitudinal study identified the changes in online travel information search in both generations and indicated the presence of strong period effects. Remarkably, a moderate cohort effect was found in the older baby boomer generation who showed more increases in online travel search.

Although various researchers agree about the importance of internet in tourism literature, some studies (Lake 2001; Szymanski & Hise, 2000; Werthner & Ricci 2004) pointed out that several problems still prevent tourists from taking full advantage of the internet. Lake (2001) stated that the reasons tourists do not purchase travel products online are the lack of personal service, security issues, lack of experience and that the process is time consuming. Stolz (1999) and Szymanski & Hise (2000) mentioned that travel planning on the internet is a frustrating experience because of numerous factors including technical difficulties, such as website usability, lack of integration with brick and mortar tourism firms, credit card security, and privacy issues. Further, Werthner and Ricci (2004) argued that the tourism industry is leading e-commerce applications. However, since payment is the most important item in e-commerce, most tourists are constantly concerned about payment security. Such concerns are a possible outcome of computer crime, which is one of the key factors that prevent tourists from providing credit card information to travel industries.

2.5.3. Types of internet information sources

The internet is now a significant information source for potential tourists in the information search stage of the travel planning process (Pan & Fesenmaiser 2006; Xiang & Fesenmaier 2005). According to Bray (2007 cited in Cox, Burgess, Sellitto & Buultjens 2008), over 200

million travel related information searches have been conducted each month via the Internet and approximately 95% of Internet users rely on internet information as part of their travel information (Cox et al. 2008). Due to these characteristics and important features of the internet, such as low cost and easy retrieval of information, the paradigms of information searching have spectacularly changed (Gursoy & McCleary 2004).

Choi, Lehto and Morrison (2007) identified that tourists use different types of internet information sources depending on their stage of travel planning process they are in; for example, pre-travel, during travel or post-travel. At the pre-travel stage, tourists usually acquire internet information from official websites to obtain information about accommodation and flights. At onsite stage, overall internet usage was significantly less than either the pre-trip or the post-trip stages although tourists usually utilise functions such as email and may send e-post cards to acquaintances. At the post-travel stage, using email, providing feedback or recommendations and posting photos on the website are frequent activities. According to the findings of Choi et al. (2007), search engines (like Google or Yahoo) and official websites (such as suppliers' websites or tourism organisation websites) are considered as the main internet information sources in the pre-travel stage, while using email or travel blogs or unofficial websites are recognised as the main internet information sources during the onsite and post-travel stages.

Cox et al. (2008) examined the impact of new media, including user-generated content (UGC) and consumer generated media (CGM) in web-based tourism marketing. UGC and CGM are generally used to allow the individual tourists to have a variety of interactions in online content (Bray & Schetzina 2006). Ahuja, Michels, Walker and Weissbuch (2007) mentioned that these UGC and CGM websites can effectively provide a form of word of mouth; enabling the sharing of views and opinions with other people about travel experiences. With this concept, this study delineated three categories: commercial sites with five star ratings, commercial sites with no ratings, and non-commercial sites. For example, Haussman (2005, cited in Cox et al. 2008) emphasised that hoteliers cannot neglect the importance of sites such as Trip Advisor, Orbitz, and Virtual Tourist as representatives of commercial sites with five star ratings. Further, this study examined the impact of sponsored advertisements and sponsored links in both commercial and non-commercial sites. Specifically, commercial sites with five star rating websites were relatively prominent with sponsored advertisements and links and fascinatingly, non-commercial sites had more commercial features than commercial

sites with no ratings. As the concept of UGC or CGM has been recently recognised as the main stream of using the internet, the study by Cox et al. (2008) could be the pioneering study of internet information sources in tourism literature.

Rao (2007) identified four categories of internet information sources—internet advertisement, direct emails from marketers, internet search engines like Yahoo and Google, and hyperlinks on pages—and found that internet search engines were the most popular amongst the respondents, followed by the hyperlinks found on pages visited. Additionally, this study found significant differences depending on age. Respondents aged between 56 and 65 years showed higher rates in both direct email and hyperlinks than any other age groups. Although this study classified the types of internet information sources that are frequently used by the internet users and identified statistical distinction, there are more types of internet sources, such as official and unofficial websites and travel related blogs. From this point of view, research related to internet information sources may be highlighted in the future.

2.5.3.1. Search engines

Although there are many types of tourism information sources, such as search engines, travel blogs, emails, official websites and unofficial websites and direct advertisement through the internet, several researchers emphasised the importance of search engines (Cox et al. 2008; Fesenmaier, Xiang, Pan & Law 2010; Rao 2007; Xiang Wöber, & Fesenmaier 2008). With the growth of online information regarding travel, general search engines, such as Google, MSN and Yahoo have been recognised by potential tourists as the central and the most convenient information source. These search engines enable tourists to navigate through the internet to find general and specific information that might be useful in the travel planning process. Xiang and colleagues (Xiang et al. 2008, 2009) point out that search engines provide a basic view of a tourism space and that this view changes regularly. They argue that search engine marketing is a multifaceted and vigorous process that requires a substantial understanding of how potential visitors use search engines as part of the travel planning process. Additionally, these studies emphasise that search engine marketing is developing as one of the most important components of an overall internet marketing program (Fesenmaier et al. 2010; Xiang et al. 2008).

According to ComScore Media Metrix 2005 (cited in Spink & Jansen 2004), 84.1% of people

use a search engine every month to find online information. Even though the use of social networking sites such as travel blogs is rapidly growing, iProspect (2007) found that the most popular sites used to search for information on the Internet are still the major search engines (Google, Yahoo and MSN). According to the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA 2009, cited in Fesenmaier et al. 2010), enormous number of tourists in the United States have utilised search engines for travel planning. Also, general search engines, such as Google and MSN have developed diverse systems to classify the specific interests by potential tourists. Therefore, many tourists have become highly reliant on the search engines as one of the key tools for obtaining travel information, and search engines have been recognised as the first information search process in travel planning.

2.5.3.2. Travel blogs

During the decision-making process of purchasing tourism related products and services, opinion exchanging between experienced tourists of specific destinations and non-experienced tourists has become a significant issue, due to the development of the UGC information search environment (Lee & Park 2003). Before the proliferation of the internet, word of mouth from friends and relatives frequently was the most influential source of pre-purchase information (Young 2006). As word of mouth or recommendations have been recognised as more credible information sources (Lee 2009), most potential tourists preferred to use them to reduce perceived risk during their purchasing process. With the ever increasing amount of travel-related online information available in recent decades, most prospective tourists have had a range of choices and have preferred to use internet information. However, due to various disadvantages of internet information (such as uncertainty, unreliability and outdated information) and the wide spread impact of new internet media, including UGC and travel blogs related to travel and tourism have also become increasingly popular in recent years (Lee & Park 2003).

Young (2006, p. 27) defines a blog as an ‘online diary or journal, also known as web log’, Keren (2004) and also refers to blogs, or ‘weblogs’, as online diaries with links to other Internet sites of interest. Pan, McLaurin and Crotts (2007) described blogs as a new important form of digitised word-of-mouth communication. With this background, Sharda and Ponnada (2008) noted that blogs are essentially virtual diaries created by persons and stored on the web for anyone to access. Most blogs include some texts, pictures, and moving images. As an

important medium of digitalised word of mouth blogs have been increasing in popularity. According to Carson (2007, 2008) and Schmallegger and Carson (2008), there were over 70 million blogs at April 2007, with about 120,000 new blogs being created every day. They emphasise that this trend has significant implications in the tourism literature and blogs with interactional function have the most popular content areas on the internet.

Due to the characteristics of blogs, it is important to understand how potential tourists interpret others' blogs. Bloggers, who have some experiences in a specific destination, express their travel experiences and this word-of-mouth message is communicated to prospective tourists (Carson 2008).

2.5.3.3. Online advertising methods: Banner, Email and hyperlink

Successful advertising persuades potential tourists into purchasing or provides a positive image (Lee & Park 2003). Recent decades, potential tourists have been exposed to various types of advertising media (Dreze & Hussherr 2003; Lee & Park 2003; Robinson, Wysocka & Hand 2007). Different media have strengths and weaknesses in providing diverse types of advertising messages (Assael 1998; Aaker, David, Batra & Myers 1996; Gretzel, Yuan, & Fesenmaier 2000). However, since the internet has become the most influential communication medium, online advertising has received considerable attention from various researchers (Dreze & Hussherr 2003; Robinson et al. 2007). Online advertising is one of the most cost-effective forms of promotion, accounting for annual revenues approaching $17 billion dollars (Robinson et al. 2007). With the number of Internet users continuing to grow, advertising expenditure on the Internet is also increasing up exponentially (Calisir & Karaali 2008).

Banner advertising

In contrast to traditional advertising, online advertising achieves effectiveness by combining lively images and sound with text. Further, potential tourists do not need to leave home to obtain information (Mowforth & Munt 1998). Although there are several methods of online advertising such as banners and pop-up windows, banner advertising has become the most predominant (Lee & Park 2003; Robinson et al 2007) since the first banner appeared in 1994 (Cho 2003). They have dominated web advertising and become the standard advertising

format (Cho, Lee & Marye 2001). According to Robinson et al. (2007), 22% of internet advertising cost has been spent to banner advertising, or graphic-based advertisements.

Briggs and Hollis (1997) identified that observing a banner on a website can transfer a message. According to this study, regardless of whether the consumer clicks or not, simply viewing a banner increases the chance of a purchase. Cho et al. (2001) measured the effect of banner advertisings using the following four factors: 1) users' perception of advertisings, 2) the number of clicks on banner advertisings, 3) users' attitude toward brands and advertisings, and 4) purchase intention. This study identified that advertising effectiveness is based on the web traffic and users' overall perception of specific product was created positively through banner advertising. Yoon and Kim (2001) examined that online advertising strategies and found that there is an explicit alteration in users' behavioural response after watching some banner advertisings in selected target audiences among many audience groups. As the recent trends state above, the increase in importance of a banner in online advertising to attract direct responses from users means it is necessary to research the effect of banner in online advertising. In the tourism literature, Wu, Wei and Chen (2008) examined how internet advertising, including banner advertising, has influenced travel agencies operating in the tourism industry and identified that the tourists' overall attitude towards internet advertising has a direct relationships with the contact and attention. Further, they emphasised the necessity of research, because even though the Internet serves as a major marketing and communication tool in the tourism industry, only a few studies regarding internet advertising research area can be found.

Email advertising

Due to the characteristics of email, such as cost effectiveness and time efficiency, using email has been a major advertising method in various areas (Cases, Fournier, Dubois & Tanner 2010). As more organisations and companies tend to choose email as a main communication source with current customers or potential customers, it has become more important to understand email messages (Shakur, Chadwick & Doherty 2012). According to the Pew Internet & American Life Project (Madden 2003), emailing is the number one internet activity and more than 90% of internet users, or about 102 million Americans, use email. Additionally, this study identified that about 50% of online users use email every day. Bruner and Kumar (2000) found that consumers' attitudes toward an email have a positive and

significant impact on web advertising effects.

Chadwick and Doherty (2012) mentioned that a benefit of utilising email is that an emailing list does not relate to emailing costs (Shakur et al. 2012). From the supply side, keeping mailing lists of current and potential customers is beneficial. Regular emailing including e-newsletters with links to websites can be sent to list members for future promotions and events. Also, Lee and Park (2003) emphasised the necessity of CRM (Customer relationship management). This study mentioned that email is a prerequisite of e-commerce in the tourism and travel industry. Compared with paper-based marketing channels, marketers can save time and cost using online advertising including email (Lee & Park 2003).

However, from the demand side, electronic mailboxes become more crowded with the proliferation of spam and junk mail (Sterne & Priore 2000), so many email users do not trust email advertising anymore and response rates have fallen sharply. Even though email distribution successfully allows marketers to attract customers in online marketing, it is more important to overcome the trust issue of email contents. In this perspective, Lee and Park (2003) emphasised the importance of personal marketing in the tourism industry. As stated above, most email users only view email from trusted sources (Shakur et al. 2012). This personal marketing through the email which is sent to members can be the only beneficial marketing source (Lee & Park 2003) in the current UGC environment.

Hyperlink advertising

A *hyperlink* is a reference to a document that the reader can directly follow in the web space and it can be a whole document or to a specific element within a document (Lee & Park 2003). Beaulieu (2005) insisted that the recognition of association in cyberspace can begin with the description of interconnections among sites. Park and Jankowski (2008) emphasised that the structure of hyperlink networks can be a useful method of conveying general information on the online communication networks in interpersonal, inter organisational, and international settings. Park and Thelwall (2008) investigated the relationship between hyperlink patterns and social structures.

Although hyperlinks have been studied in the information technology research area, there are only a few related studies in the tourism literature. Until now, tourism researchers have not

recognised hyperlinks as an independent research area. Hyperlinks in the tourism literature have been studied in respect of the GIS model (Sadoun & Al-Bayari 2009), search engines and social media (Xiang & Gretzel 2010) and blogs (Carson 2007; Drezner & Farrell 2004; Schmallegger & Carson 2008; Vrana, Zafiropoulos and Paschaloudis 2004).

Sadoun and Al-Bayari (2009) stated that hyperlinks are a tool used to obtain more information, such as photos or text in Geographic Information System (GIS) models for tourism industries. Xiang and Gretzel (2010) examined the relationship between search engines and social media and mentioned that search engines and social media regularly include many hyperlinks, which will influence their position within search results in a positive way. This is predominantly due to the fact that social media encourages online tourists to be actively engaged in UGC contents. Drezner and Farrell (2004) pointed out that the most significant difference between blogs and more traditional media is that blogs largely rely on hyperlinks.

Vrana et al. (2004) analysed hyperlinks in the blog space. This study identified that most hyperlinks linking blogs to other information sources usually connect to other blogs with three forms, such as blogroll, comments and trackbacks/pingbacks. The *blogroll* occupies a permanent position on the blog website (Drezner & Farrell 2004) and is the list of blogs that the bloggers frequently use. The *comments* are 'reader-contributed replies to a specific post within the blog' (Marlow 2004, p.3). *Trackback* is a reference notice system (Barabási 2002). It allows bloggers to identify when other bloggers have written some comments on their original post (Waggener Edstrom Worldwide 2006). A *pingback* is an automated trackback. Hyperlinks are the essence of the World Wide Web (Lee & Park 2003). Baggio & Antonioli Corigliano (2009) stated that hyperlinks are extremely important due to their ability to offer users good quality information connected with search engines and blogs.

2.5.3.4. Official/unofficial websites

Due to the multidimensional characteristics of tourism products, tourists usually use a range of travel related services, including travel agencies, airline companies, car rental companies, and hotels, resorts and other tour services. Also, most potential tourists use the travel information provided on each country's official government website (Lee & Park 2003). Lee and Park (2003) found that 84% of countries have run official government websites. In

addition, 35% of the official government websites has tourism promotion contents with a strong emphasis on self-presentation to encourage a favourable image of each country on tourism aspects. To promote and provide travel related information and a positive image, each federal government and local government offers their own official websites in addition to the travel related companies which arranging their own specific websites. These online services are normally provided by a number of different organisations (Lee & Park 2003). Australia's official website is shown in Figure2.16. In this website, which is available in 34 languages, there are four main categories: *About Australia, Things To Do, Destinations* and *Events*. This website also provides mobile contents for iPhone and connects with YouTube.

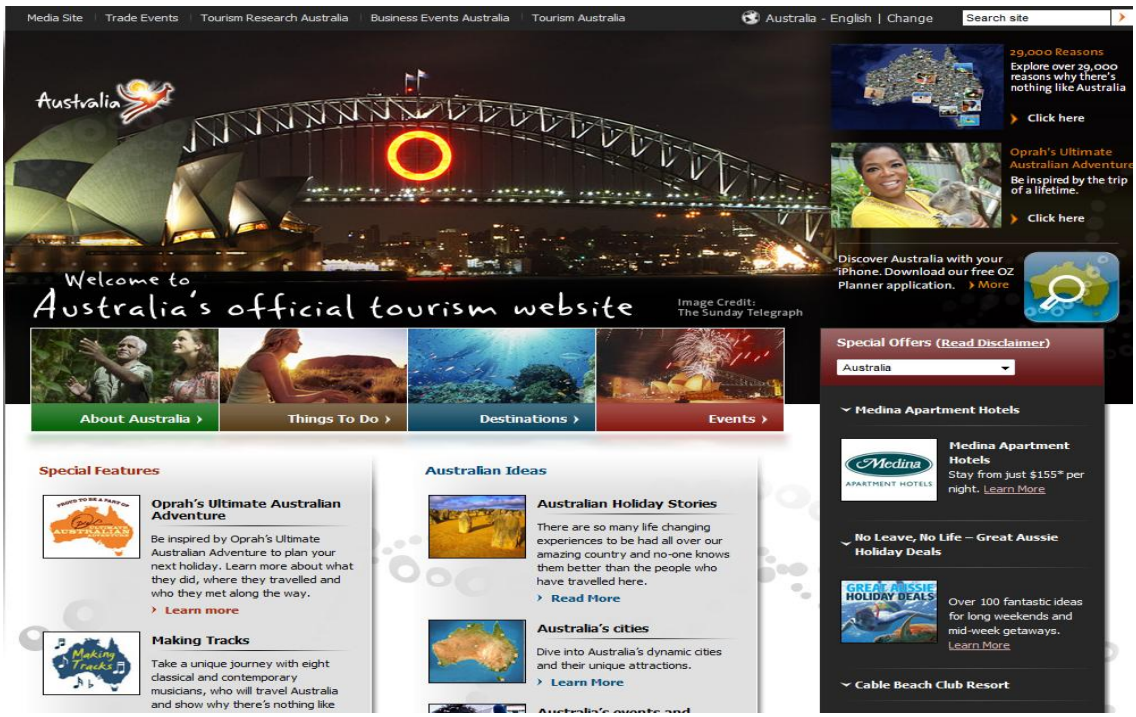


Figure2.16 Tourism Australia Website

Source: Tourism Australia's official website (www.tourismaustralia.com)

A well-designed website can assist in planning a range of tourism and travel decision-making and help to ensure that the right choices are made, resulting in a more enjoyable experience for the tourist (Park & Gretzel 2007; Rita 2000). As it can also assist their whole travel preparation as a gateway, potential tourists need to have online services to plan their travel (Lee & Park 2003).

Research trends in the tourism literature to date can be divided into two main frames

regarding official websites: non-commercial websites (e.g. tourism organisation websites) and commercial websites (e.g. tourism related companies' websites). Choi et al. (2007) analysed official tourism websites promoting Macau. They found that the official government website placed much better emphasis on Macau's image than other tourism related websites, such as those of travel agents, resorts, and travel guides. Specifically, the government website has sought to encourage a new image for Macau. Through this endeavour of the government website, the image of Macau has changed gradually from a gambling city to a modern, international city with a unique culture and heritage suitable for family travel. Govers and Go (2005) analysed websites promoting tourism to Dubai and suggested similar outcomes. The official government tourism website in Dubai tended to place a more positive effect on destination image than private organisations' websites which were mostly product oriented.

Robert (2010) examined and evaluated the official website of the Tourism Division of the Tobago House of Assembly. This study identified seven advantages of a Tobago government tourism website. Users of the Tobago government tourism website benefit more than users of other information sources in respect of accessibility, usability, informativeness, creativity in design, appeal, credibility and security. Lee, Cai and O'Leary (2006) analysed the official tourism websites of 50 US states. Specifically, this study attempted to describe the unique selling propositions (USPs) and positioning strategies of destination organisations at the state level through a content analysis of slogans, graphic projections, verbal expressions, and other explicit or implied messages. The study revealed that the Internet has considerable potential to allow state tourism organisations to build both long and short-term branding strategies. Therefore, official government websites seem to be an ideal starting place for exploring the internet's potential to induce a favourable destination image.

Murphy, Forrest, Wotring and Brymer (1996), Baek and Lee (2002) and Han and Mills (2006) analysed commercial websites in tourism and hospitality industries. Murphy et al. (1996) evaluated 36 restaurant websites using the categories of email contact, online sales promotions, frequent specials, directions, reservations, email newsletter, franchising, coupons, recruiting and contests. Baek and Lee (2002) evaluated 15 airline websites with quantitative content analysis. This study established 10 units of analysis, discussed the benefits and disadvantages of each website and examined online marketing effectiveness in the hospitality and tourism research areas. Han and Mills (2006) revealed a total of 47 different instruments to evaluate hospitality and tourism websites and evaluated the marketing effectiveness of

hospitality and tourism websites.

To date, the main research trends regarding internet information sources are towards search engines and travel blogs in tourism literature. Therefore, further studies are necessary examining other internet information sources, such as advertising methods (banner, email and hyperlinks) and official and unofficial websites. Since there are no exact definitions of official and unofficial websites, the present study attempts to give definitions based on the theoretical foundations stated above. Official tourism websites are defined as 'tourism websites provided by government or travel related industries regardless of commercial or non-commercial purpose', while unofficial tourism websites refers to 'tourism websites provided by individuals mostly consisting of travel blogs or individual websites without commercial purpose'. With the theoretical basis cited above, the present study selected seven information sources as internet information sources: search engines, travel blogs, banner advertising, email advertising, hyperlinks, official websites and unofficial websites.

2.5.4. Internet usage

Due to the impact of the internet, geographical and cultural boundaries are no longer obstacles for global communication and for global commerce (Inversini & Buhalis 2009). Further, internet usage among all socio-demographic groups continues to increase to include nearly 2 billion users worldwide (see Figure 2.17) by the end of 2010 (Internet World Stats 2011). This increased Internet usage provides an exceptional opportunity to influence consumer behaviour by providing fast and competent access to product-related information in a multimedia format precisely calculated to improve retention (Furr, Bonn & Hausman 2002; McGaughey & Mason 1998). According to Figure2.17 and Figure2.18, the total number of internet users in the world has increased by 444.8 % compared with the 1990s. Australia has observed a 258% rise since 2000.

WORLD INTERNET USAGE AND POPULATION STATISTICS						
World Regions	Population (2010 Est.)	Internet Users Dec. 31, 2000	Internet Users Latest Data	Penetration (% Population)	Growth 2000-2010	Users % of Table
Africa	1,013,779,050	4,514,400	110,931,700	10.9 %	2,357.3 %	5.6 %
Asia	3,834,792,852	114,304,000	825,094,396	21.5 %	621.8 %	42.0 %
Europe	813,319,511	105,096,093	475,069,448	58.4 %	352.0 %	24.2 %
Middle East	212,336,924	3,284,800	63,240,946	29.8 %	1,825.3 %	3.2 %
North America	344,124,450	108,096,800	266,224,500	77.4 %	146.3 %	13.5 %
Latin America/Caribbean	592,556,972	18,068,919	204,689,836	34.5 %	1,032.8 %	10.4 %
Oceania / Australia	34,700,201	7,620,480	21,263,990	61.3 %	179.0 %	1.1 %
WORLD TOTAL	6,845,609,960	360,985,492	1,966,514,816	28.7 %	444.8 %	100.0 %

Figure 2.17 World Internet Users and Population Stats, Source: Internet World Stats (2011)

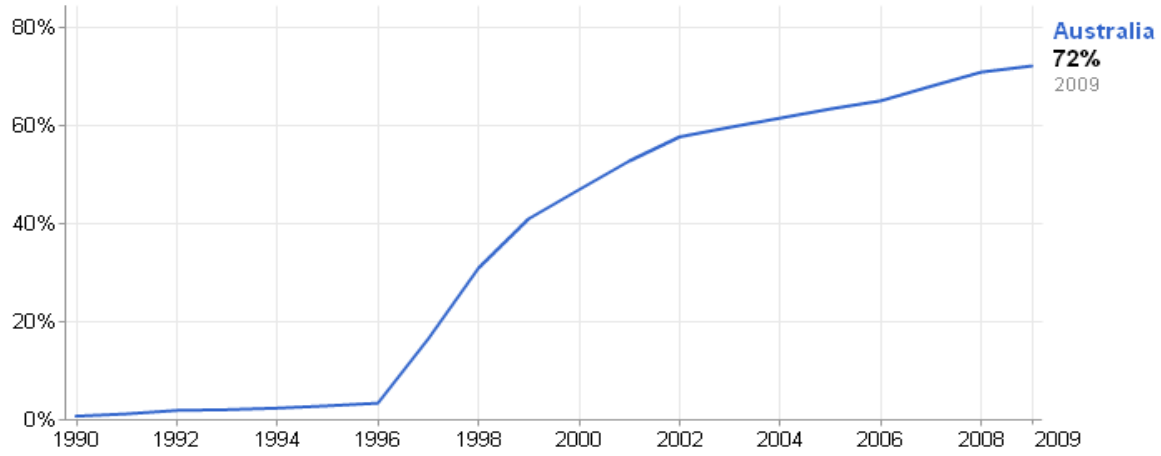


Figure 2.18 Internet users as percentage of population in Australia
Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators (2011)

The internet has had a considerable impact on the tourism industry over the past decades (Lee 2009; Park & Thelwall 2008; Werthner & Klein, 1999) and travel distribution channels have changed. The tourism industry is one of the most important online businesses in terms of the volume of e-commerce (eMarketer 1999). According to Law and Leung (2000), the online tourism industry is the second-largest commercial area using the internet, after computer technology.

With the internet becoming more predominant in ordinary lives, potential tourists are inclined to use it as their main information source in planning or booking travel (Bolin 2002).

According to Tourism Australia (2009), 44% of international tourists to Australia utilised the internet for their travel in 2009. Additionally, even though the comparatively younger generations were the main internet users in the past (Lee 2009), all age groups including the group aged 55 to 64 years and the group aged 65 years and over considered the internet as an important information source (36% and 26% respectively). In spite of being less likely to use the internet, international tourists to Australia aged 55 to 64 and those over 65 years old have increased their internet usage by 22% and 25% respectively since 2005 (Tourism Australia 2009).

The US Travel Association (2009) indicated that 81% of online users for travel used the internet to make online travel reservations or payments for travel services, including air-tickets, accommodations, rent cars or travel package products in the 12 months prior to the study. Travel-related products online were purchased online by 78% of users. Moreover, this study found that air tickets (71%) and accommodation (66%) were the two most cited travel products purchased online by users during the period. More interestingly, online users who make business-related trips are much more likely than non-business travellers to purchase a range of travel products online, including air-tickets (82% and 67%), accommodations (72% and 63%), and car rentals (57% and 35% respectively).

Kotler, Bowen, and Markens (1999) pointed out that over a billion dollars in travel products are booked on the internet in each year; however, Tourism Research Australia (2009) stated that online travel sales are increasing at a high rate. In the case of the United States, tourism related product sales on the internet reached 79 billion dollars in 2006 and predicted to reach 146 billion dollars in 2010 with a 17% annual rate of increase. In Australia, 36% of international tourists to Australia used the internet for travel bookings (Tourism Research Australia 2009). The main reasons for this escalating rate in online travel bookings are: 1) access to widespread information available to support selection, 2) perceived accessibility of choice, 3) convenience of booking online (at any time and any place), and 4) the perception of price advantage (Lee & Park. 2003).

In the case of Korea, many travel-related websites provide virtual reality (VR) and consultation using messenger functions (Lee & Park 2003; Lee & Roh 2000). With this utility, most potential tourists can access travel agencies' websites and discuss their requirements with professional agents. Moreover, Korean and Asian airline companies provide discounted

airfares to online users (Baek & Lee 2002). In the case of China, Li and Buhalis (2005) emphasised that there were almost 80 million internet users in mainland China in 2003compared with 620,000 in 1997, representing an annual growth rate of 35% (CNNIC 2004, cited in Li & Buhalis 2005). This study stated that this figure is only 6% of the Chinese population and anticipated a further potential growth rate. Additionally, around 10% of Chinese online users purchased tourism products in 2003. They often book online and then purchase offline or pay on delivery.

As stated above, the internet has become one of the most influential information sources around the world. More importantly, as many internet users are more knowledgeable regarding travel related information than in the past (Rao 2007), tourists are looking for more specific cues prior to purchasing their tourism products on the internet (Shih 2004). Agarwal and Prasad (1999) categorised individuals' characteristics into three categories; demographic, cognitive, and psychological characteristics. However, among the three categories, demographic characteristics only refers to individual characteristics, such as age, gender, and education level and as such this characteristic is mostly included and measured in general forms in each study. Many researchers from various disciplines (Dabholkar & Bagozzi 2002; Foxall & Bhate 1983) have discussed only the constructs of cognitive and psychological characteristics. Cognitive characteristics are principally concerned with knowledge and learning. Human cognition involves information collection and processing, and decision-making (Rao 2007). Foxall and Haskins (1986) advocated that cognitive characteristics are the essence of the innovativeness construct. Rogers (2003) suggested that certain cognitive characteristics could be used to recognise innovators and primary innovation adopters. Bodur, Brinberg and Coupey (2000) mentioned that individuals' attitudes toward a specific technological system are mostly determined by cognitive characteristics. Knowledge and experiences play key roles in the cognition processes. Hirschman (1980) identified that previous knowledge can lead to an enhanced ability to notice new products and link to innovativeness. The present study selects on cognitive characteristics which are relevant to the topic of internet usage influencing destination image.

To efficiently adopt and implement a new type of technology such as the internet, prior knowledge, confidence and self-efficacy play an important role (Lee & Park 2003). Various researchers (Anckar & Walden 2000; Li & Buhalis 2005; Vijayasarathy 2004) have used the term of self-efficacy in an online shopping and TPB (travellers' perceived behaviour) models.

Anckar and Walden (2000) pointed out that the construct of self-efficacy is usually represented in tourists' perceived behavioural control. Wood and Bandura (1989, p. 380) defined the self-efficacy as 'beliefs in individuals' capabilities to mobilise the motivation, resources and courses of action to meet a given situational demand'. Vijayasarathy (2004) stated that self-efficacy is the "consumer's self-assessment of his/her capabilities to shop on-line", and represents a positive relationship with the intention to purchase goods from the internet (p. 5). Li and Buhalis (2005) defined self-efficacy as an internet tourists' self-assessment of his/her capabilities to purchase travel on-line (p. 432).

Therefore, self-efficacy reflects an individuals' belief in their own capability to undertake successful behaviour to achieve desired ends. Self-efficacy is an important factor that will influence individuals' reactions to innovations. Some researchers (Bhattacherjee 2001; Compeau, Higgins & Huff 1999) suggested that self-efficacy should be clearly addressed in theoretical models explaining technology usage. Compeau et al. (1999) emphasised that self-efficacy and information sources influenced personal emotional responses, such as affect and anxiety. Bhattacherjee (2001) mentioned that self-efficacy is a kind of individuals' self-confidence in skills or ability to perform the intended behaviour. Furthermore, self-efficacy can be an internal constraint affecting e-commerce recognition.

Torzadeh and Van Dyke (2002) emphasised that self-efficacy could be a reproductive ability that allows individuals to integrate cognitive and behavioural skills to accomplish a particular job like 'surfing' the internet. Based on this background, Rao (2007) anticipated that an individual with stronger self-efficacy would be more willing to try new things and less concerned about potential problems, while a person with low level of self-efficacy is inclined to avoid risk. Therefore, the present study includes the concept of self-efficacy as one of the important aspect of internet usage influencing destination image.

Smith and Swinyard (1982) proposed the Integrated Information Response Model. Figure2.19 represents the Integrated Information Response Model. This model showed that direct trial experience of a product lead customers to form strong beliefs, attitudes, and intention to buy. Also, most first purchases are for trials of products. The confident beliefs will influence their destination image. The change of image will eventually influence the decision making process. Images from online continue to remain in the user's mind and may eventually create a desire that will encourage the user to visit the destination in the future. As most tourists do

not have sufficient prior knowledge of the destination, they may have post purchase dissonance (Lee & Park 2003). For this reason, internet sources which are usually provided before their travel strives to disperse elements of uncertainty. Based on these theoretical foundations, the present study includes these three characteristics, such as cognitive characteristics, self-efficacy and confidence and measured internet usage for the present research model.

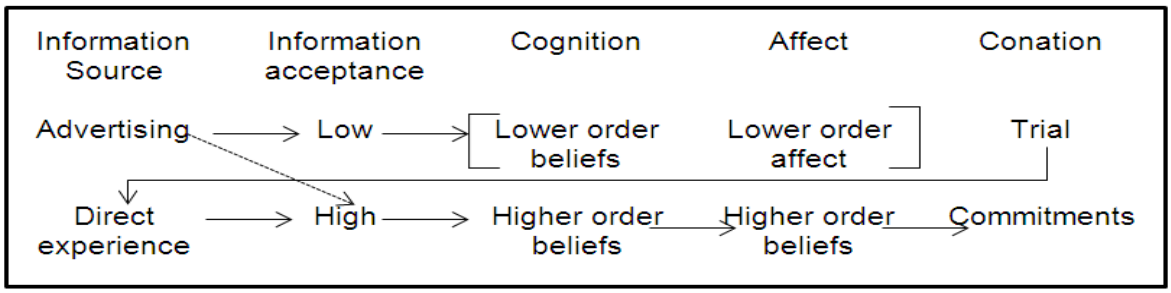


Figure 2.19 Integrated Information Response Model, Source: Smith and Swinyard (1982).

2.5.5. Internet in Korea

Quite a few researchers (Kim, Chung & Lee 2011; Kim, Lee & Lee 2013; Nerone, Christians, Abelmann & Pickering 2013) and organisations (Internet World Stats 2011; KNTO 2009) has agreed that South Korea (hereafter 'Korea') is one of the most advanced countries in information technology (IT) in the world.

From the 1990s, Korea was ranked number one in terms of the percentage of homes with internet access, measuring 80.6% of the total population and number one in broadband network penetration (Korea Communications Commission 2010). It had the highest installation rate of broadband internet infrastructure (Korea Communications Commission 2010), the top market penetration for OECD member nations (Korea Communications Commission 2010), and number one in average internet speed of 14.6 Mbps compared with Japan and Hong Kong (7.9 and 7.6 Mbps respectively). This internet speed has a quarterly increase of 29% and an annual increase of 16% from the 1990s. Figures 2.20 and 2.21 show broadband penetration and average internet speed.

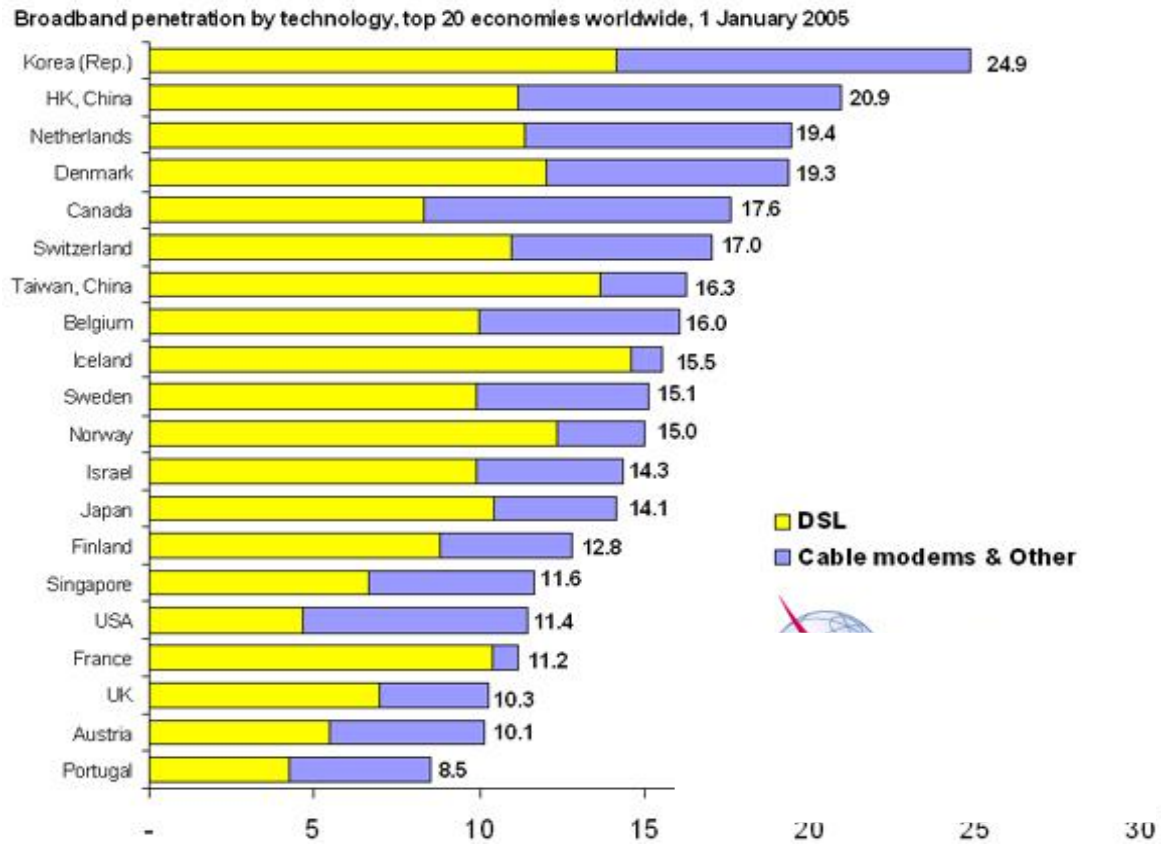


Figure 2.20 Broadband penetration by technology, Source: ITU (2005)

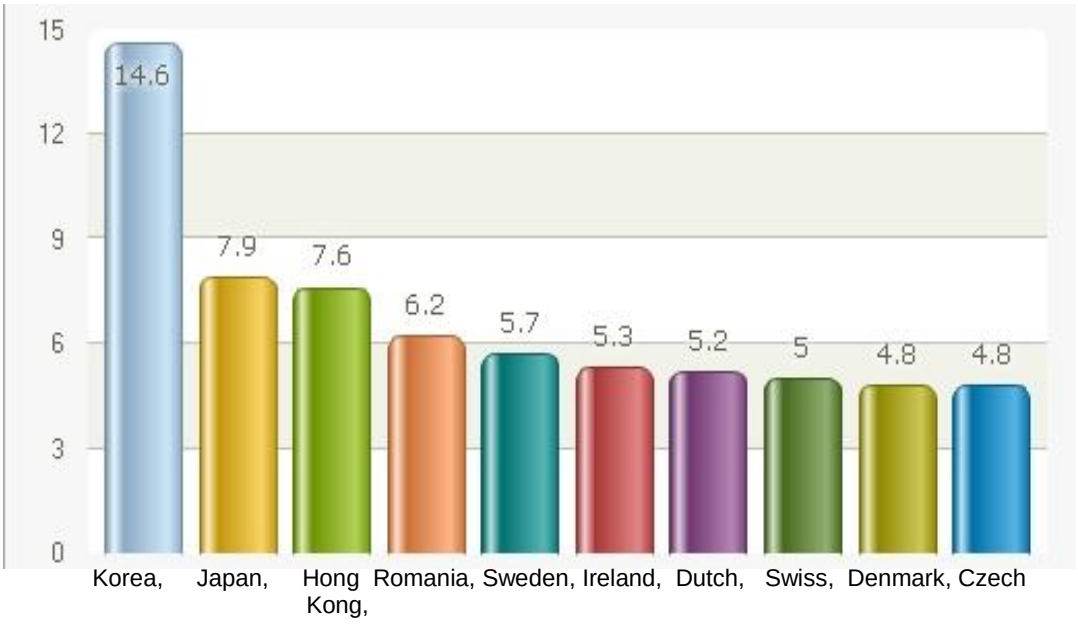


Figure 2.21 Average internet speed, Source: Internet World Stats (2011)

As one of the leading countries for high-speed broadband access, Korean internet users

virtually control the all-inclusive range of internet activities from searches to instant messengers (such as MSN and NateOn), and are primary consumers of online shopping in e-commerce for services and goods (Kim, Chung & Lee 2011). In 1999, the Korean government launched the 'Cyber Korea 21' project to focus on the technological development of information and communication networks and to attract private sector investments. In 2002, the MIC (Ministry of Information and Communication) introduced the 'Global Leader, e-Korea' project, targeting at upgrading the country's IT structure to provide the underpinning for Korea's vision of becoming a digital core in Northeast Asia. In 2010, the high-speed internet adoption rate of Korea was 77.8%, which is the highest in the world (Korea Communications Commission 2010). Figure 2.22 illustrates internet usage and the number of internet users.

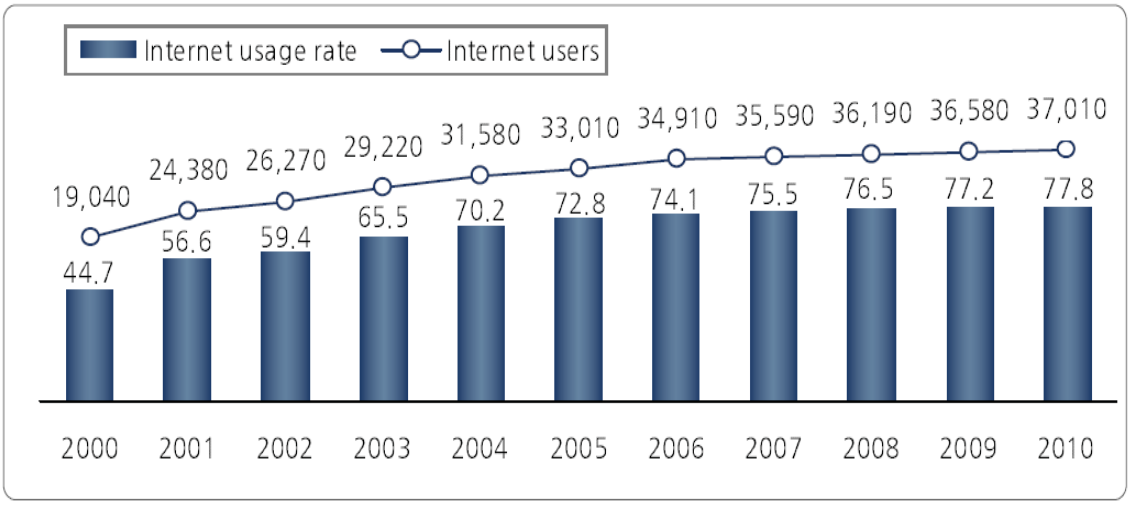


Figure 2.22 Internet using rate and internet users in Korea, Source: KCC (2010).

Since 2004, the Korean government developed an 'IT 839 strategy', which is a master plan for the IT industry. The IT 839 strategy contains the promotion of eight new services, including mobile broadband and digital multimedia broadcasting. Due to this master plan, the number of wireless internet users has been growing very fast (Kim, Chung & Lee 2011). With its prodigious passion for wireless technology, Korea introduced Wi-Bro for the first time in the world (Kim, Lee & Lee 2013). Wi-Bro is an acronym for wireless broadband and is a wireless high-speed broadband service able to deliver voice, data and video as a channel bandwidth, which is better than the bandwidth provided via DSL (Kim, Chung & Lee 2011). Wi-Bro's advantages include a broad range of converged services, including multimedia

messaging and conferencing. These features of Wi-Bro open up new virtual experiences to users.

According to KCC (2010), Korea has the world's best-converged infrastructure of wired and wireless systems; KCC guarantees internet speeds of 1 GBps for wired networks and 10 Mbps for wireless networks. When this ultra-broadband convergence network is built, Koreans can use all converged services, including phone calls, TV, online shopping and interactive TV, like UDTV (Ultra Definition Television), online even outside of their house, with 10 times faster service than current status. The Korea Communications Commission (2010) conducted an extensive survey in terms of internet users' profiles and usage patterns in Korea. According to the findings, the number of internet users rose from 19 million in 2000 to 37 million in 2010, an almost twofold increase (33.1% increases in internet usage). The average age of internet users has increased from 26.3 to 32.3 years, internet usage hours increased by 3 hours (from 11.7 hours to 14.7 hours a week), and active users who use the internet at least once a day has increased by 26.1%. Such changes indicated that internet usage in Korea has matured and broadened over the past decade. As for internet service usage, more users now access instant messenger, SNS, internet banking and stock trading services, not to mention of e-mail and internet shopping services. This phenomenon indicates that the internet has become an essential tool of daily life.

In contrast to other countries' profiles, almost 100% of the younger Korean generations—the teens (99.9%), the 20s (99.9%) and the 30s (99.3%)—are internet users, while the internet usage rates of adults in their 40s stands at 87.3%. For those aged 3-9 years, the figure is 85.5% Compared to 2009, the internet usage rates of the 50s (55.2%) and the 60s (33.8%) show a relatively higher increase at 2.9% and 2.4%, respectively. The number of internet users is estimated at 8,400,000 for adults in their 30s, 7,300,000 for the 40s and 6,800,000 for the 20s. Figure2.23 illustrates internet usage rate by age in Korea.

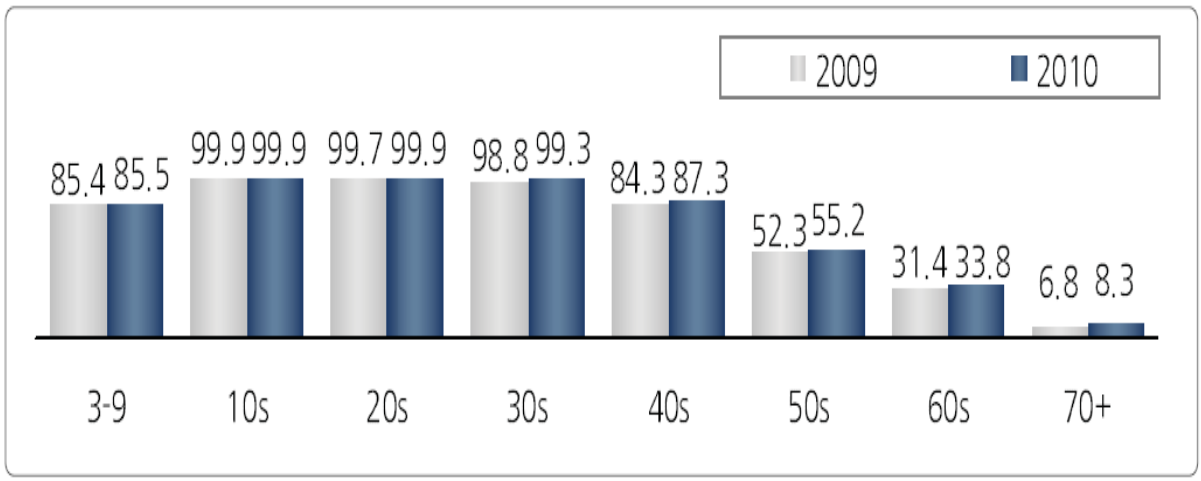


Figure 2.23 Internet usage rate by age in Korea, Source: KCC (2010)

In terms of other socio-demographics, when considering occupation, the internet usage rate for the students and professionals/ managers showed the highest rates (99.9% and 99.8% respectively). With regard to the level of education, the internet usage rate of college graduates and above (including graduate students) was the highest with 98.1% and 93.1% of household members with a monthly average household income of '4 million won and more'. Internet users have different purposes, such as 'getting information or data' (91.6%), 'leisure activities' (89.1%), 'communicating via e-mail or messenger' (88.4%), 'internet shopping and selling' (57.7%) and 'education and learning' (53.4%).

The internet has tremendously changed the life-style of Koreans. Furthermore, as Korea is highly advanced country in IT and internet, it is necessary to study further. Even though there are quite a few studies regarding the overall internet environment (KCC 2010), the studies regarding tourism and travel are limited. To overcome this research gap in Korea's internet environment, the present study includes internet sources, such as internet usage by Korean tourists, to examine the destination image formation process by Koreans travelling to Australia.

2.6. The characteristics of Korean tourists

In this section, the present study firstly demonstrates characteristics of Korean tourists. Specifically, the focus was the overall trend of outbound travel by Koreans and travel to Australia. Secondly, package and independent tourists are illustrated. General definitions and applications from previous research are addressed.

2.6.1. Outbound travel by Koreans

South Korea, long acknowledged as the Hermit Kingdom because of its desire to remain isolated from the non-Korean world, has emerged as an important tourist country (Prideaux & Kim 1999). Although Korea outbound tourism has a relatively short history, Korea has become one of the major outbound tourist generating countries in the Asia and Pacific region in recent decades (Cho 1998). Outbound travel was prohibited and controlled until 1983, except for privileged classes and people aged over 50 years who could travel with restricted permission of the Korean government. Before 1988, inbound tourism grew quickly and contributed to a surplus in its balance of payment in the travel account. However, after the decision in 1981 to host the Olympic Games, the Korean government turned its attention to developing tourism, following decades of fostering manufacturing (Ahn & Ahmed 1994). Due to the impact of the 1988 Olympics in Seoul and international demands, in July 1988 the age constraint was lowered to people aged over 30 years; in January 1989, overseas travel restrictions were removed entirely.

After the Korean government lifted the outbound travel restrictions in 1988, outbound travel by Korean tourists increased precipitously (Cho 1998). The removal of overseas travel prohibition has had an enormous impact on Korean outbound travel. March (2000) identified that Korea was the fastest growing country (annual growth rate was 21.97%) on outbound travel in the period of 1980-1992. Since 1988, the number of overseas trips by Korean tourists has increased from 725,000 in 1988 to over 12 million in 2008 (approximately) increasing by 1,837% between 1988 and 2007 (Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) 2010). Figure2.24 shows the total number of Korean outbound tourists from 1988 to 2008.

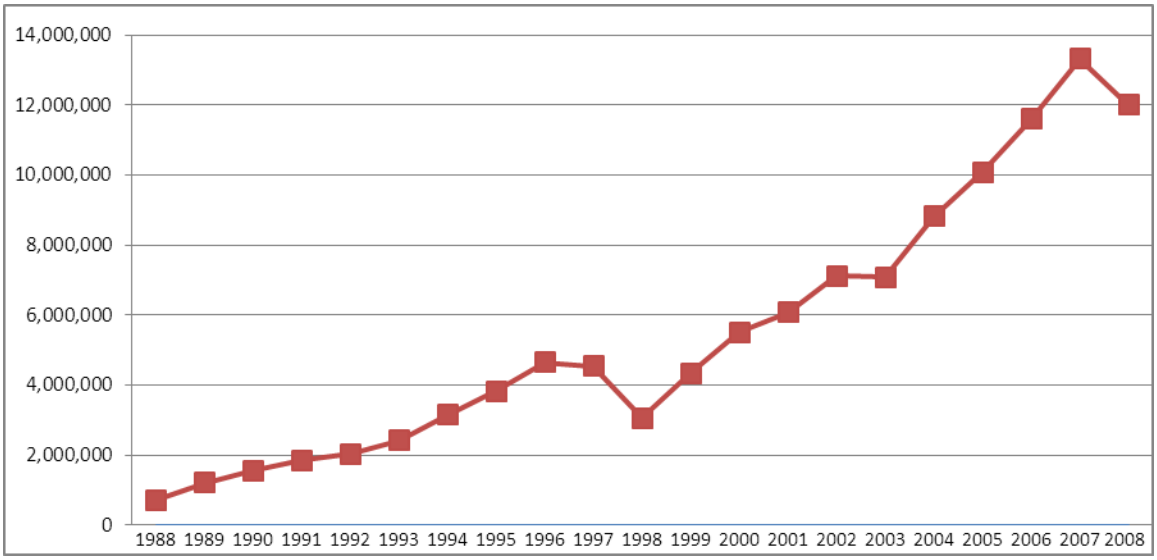


Figure 2.24 Total number of Korean Tourists from 1988 to 2008, Source: KNTO (2010)

In Korea, the total number of tourism-related companies has increased rapidly by 29% since 2000, and tourism-related income is at almost 5% of the total GDP in Korea (KNTO 2010). Additionally, the number of inbound tourists to Korea was 6.89 million, while outbound tourists were 12 million. Total expenditure by Korean outbound tourists was US$16.9 billion in 2007; however, the rate of growth was -2.6% from 2004 to 2008 due to the foreign exchange rate effect (KNTO 2010).

Korea's economic success was well documented from 1963 to 1996 (Heo & Kim 2000). However, in December 1997, the Korean economy suddenly collapsed from an Asian financial crisis, the so-called International Monetary Fund (IMF) financial crisis. This crisis created unanticipated economic destitution and caused changes in Korean people's values and lives (Prideaux & Kim 1999) as well as their leisure life (Shim & Cho 2000). This Asian financial crisis resulted in severe restrictions on the outbound travel by Korean people (Lee et al. 2010). At that period, as travel was often considered as a discretionary consumer good, the demand for which tends to be most affected by unfavourable economic conditions (Heo & Kim 2000). Travel, especially outbound travel, declined dramatically. According to KNTO (2010), overseas travel by Koreans declined by 32.5% in 1998, compared with the same period in 1997 (KNTO 2009). These statistics showed that this financial crisis had considerable impact on tourism industries through a reduction in the demand for travel.

Concurrently, since the Korean currency disintegrated and the major industrial and financial

sectors had no choice but to restructure, massive unemployment, layoffs and additional bankruptcies had to occur in the Korean society (Ahn & Ahmed 1994). Such dramatic alteration in economic environment affected consumer buying power as well as the decision making process in every sector (Prideaux & Kim 1999), especially in the travel and tourism industry.

Specifically, Korean media, such as television and newspapers (Lee 2007; Lee & Kwon 2003; Lee et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2011), strongly discouraged outbound travel and most media emphasised that the Asian financial crisis provided Koreans a chance to rethink the notions of nationalism and national development (Cho 2008). From December 1997 to January 1998, re-emerging nationalistic ideology also resulted in the Gold Drive Campaign of 1998, which basically asked people to donate their private gold to pay down the national debt (Cho 2008). 200,000 Koreans joined in January 1998, when total earnings were approximately $2 billion (*Chosun-Ilbo*, 19 October 1998). Through these kinds of efforts, Korea overcame the financial crisis promptly (Kwon 1998).

On this background in Korea, outbound travel was recognised as an extravagant activity for Koreans; therefore, the number of international tourists was reduced and replaced by domestic travel (Lee Gross & Lee 2010). After convalescing this financial crisis, Korea recovered remarkably well and showed an impressive growth rate (11% in 1999) which was the highest rate in Asia at that time (Lim 2004). During that same period, outbound travel by Koreans increased by 41.6% in 1999 compared to 1997 (see Figure 2.25).

The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST), KNTO reports an extensive survey regarding the overall trend of travel and tourism in Korea annually. In the Annual Report on Tourism Trend by MCST (2009), the total number of Korean outbound tourists was 13.3 million and the total expenditure by Korean outbound tourists was 16.9 Billion US dollars in 2007. In 2008 this declined to 11.9 million and 12.6 Billion US dollars respectively, due to the continued deepening recession impact and higher foreign exchange rate. Figure2.25 shows total travel expenditure by Korean outbound tourists from 2005 to 2008.

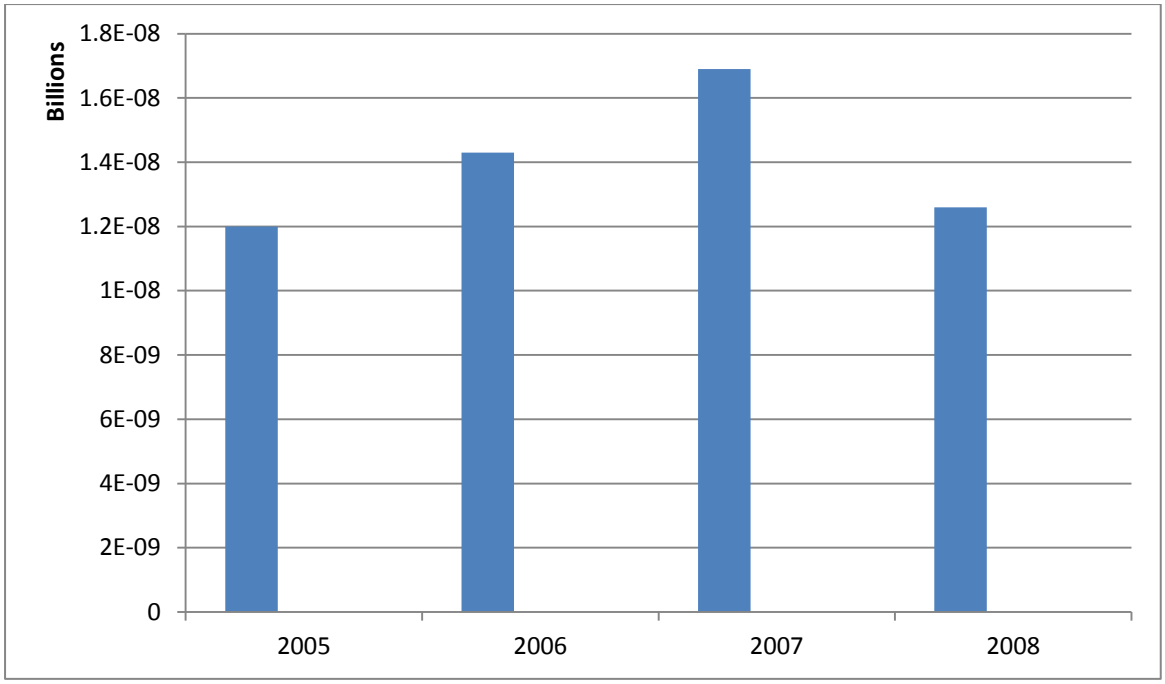


Figure 2.25 Total travel expenditure by Korean outbound tourists from 2005 to 2008
Unit: (Billion US Dollars), Source: MCST (2009) and KNTO (2009)

KNTO (2009) reported that Korea's top five outbound destinations were China, Japan, Hong Kong, the United States and Thailand. In terms of travel purpose, 'leisure and pleasure' was 46.8%, 'business' was 30.4% and 'visit friends and relatives' occupied 12.3%. Interestingly, the tourists with the purpose of 'leisure and pleasure' decreased per annum; comparing 2007 with 2006 (60.5% and 66.8% respectively). With regard to information sources, many Korean tourists considered the internet as the most influential and popular information source channel, followed by recommendation/word of mouth from friends/relatives and travel agencies. The usage rate is increasing every year. In 2008, the internet usage rate was 39.4%, compared with 34.1% in 2007 and 30.8% in 2005 (KNTO 2009). With regard to travel pattern, the most dominant travel pattern was independent travel (57.2% in 2008) and this pattern is increasing annually (47.0% in 2007 and 39.9% in 2005). This was followed by all-inclusive package travel (35.4% in 2008) and basic package travel (7.4% in 2008). This report pointed out that independent travel was the most popular type of travel by Korean tourists, because of the information from the internet. Figures 2.26 through 2.29 illustrate Korea's top five outbound destinations, main travel purpose, frequently used information sources and the most dominant travel patterns.

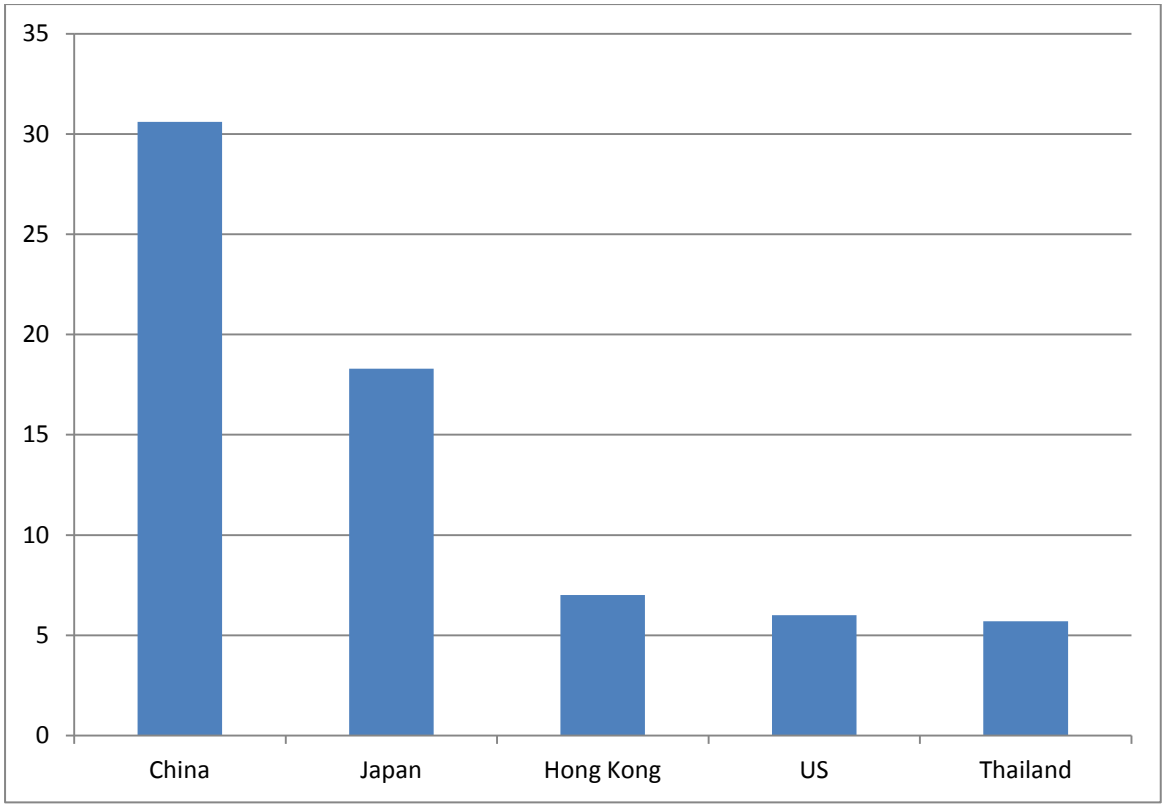


Figure 2.26 Korea's top five outbound destinations (Unit: %), Source: KNTO (2009)

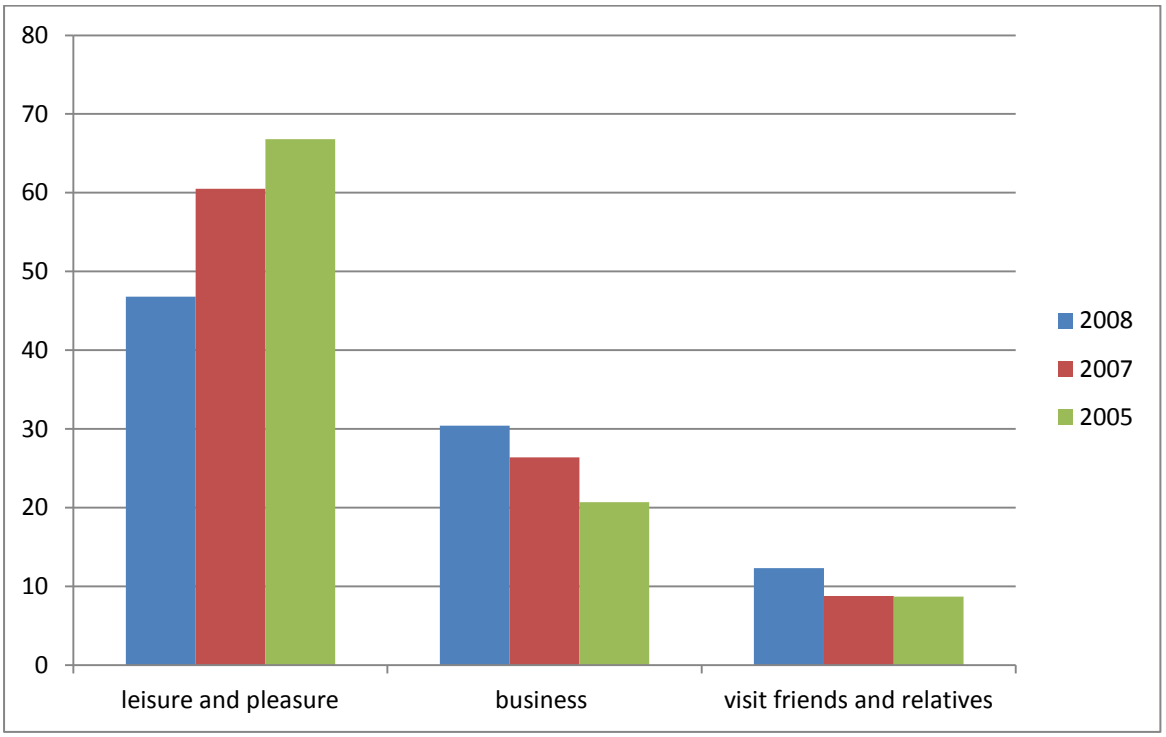


Figure 2.27 Main travel purpose by Korean tourists (Unit: %), Source: KNTO (2009)

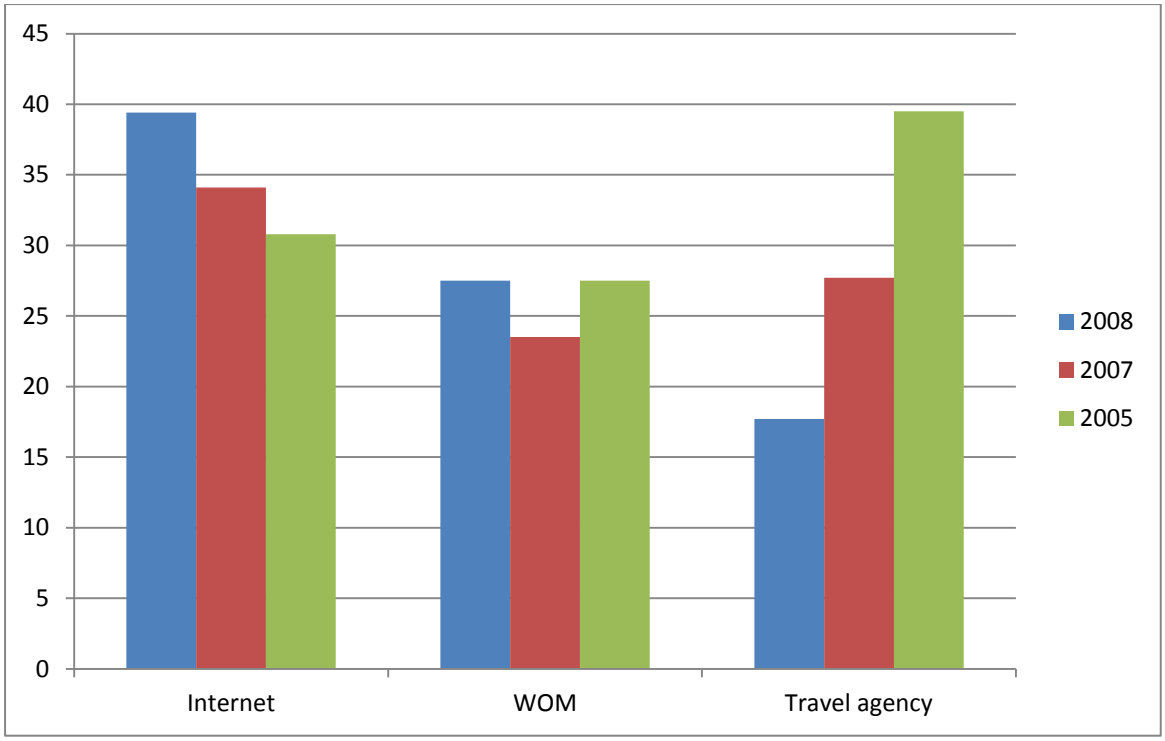


Figure 2.28 Frequently used information sources (Unit: %), Source: KNTO (2009)

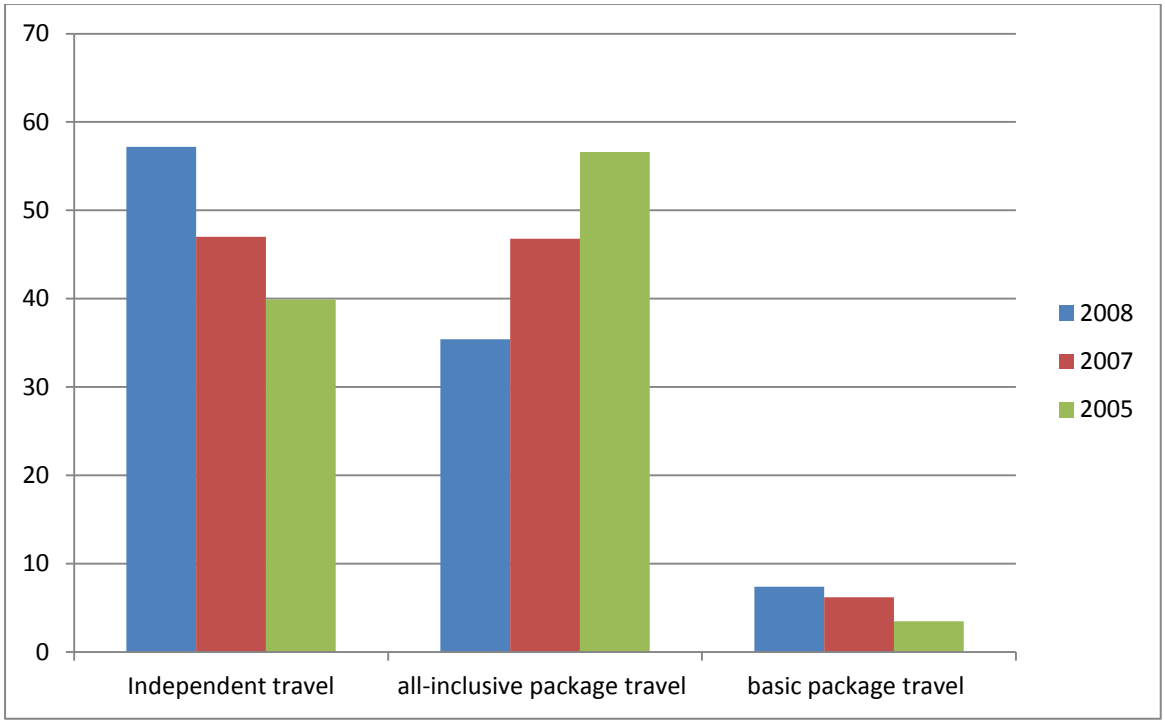


Figure 2.29 Most dominant travel patterns, Source: KNTO (2009)

2.6.2. Korean tourists travel to Australia

Korea has emerged as one of Australia's fastest growing tourism markets in this decade, due to strong economic growth, the liberalisation of outbound travel regulations, the commencement of direct flights between the two countries, a favourable image of Australia, and the Australian Tourist Commission's effective promotions (Cho 1998; Lee et al. 2010). As an outbound holiday and pleasure travel destination, Australia has occupied a Korean market share of 1.8 % (214,000 tourists) in 2008 (KNTO 2009). More specifically, according to the Australian Tourism Commission (2011), Korea is Australia's fourth major inbound market for visitor nights (12,355,515 nights spent in Australia), sixth largest inbound market for total expenditure ($1.279 billion AUD spent on travel to Australia, a 3% increase compared to 2009), sixth largest inbound market for spread nights (3,233,348 nights spent outside Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane and Perth), and eighth largest inbound market for visitor arrivals (214,000 visitor arrivals, an 18% increase compared to 2009).

The Australian Tourism Commission (2010) also mentioned images of Australia include different cultures, world renowned natural wonders, and environments that are rare, special and safe. Australia is renowned for its clean air, unpolluted and preserved nature. It is perceived as a unique destination with a range of wildlife and habitats that are not found elsewhere. Korean visitation to Australia from 1995 to 2008 jumped from 120,497 to 218,300, as illustrated in Figure 2.30.

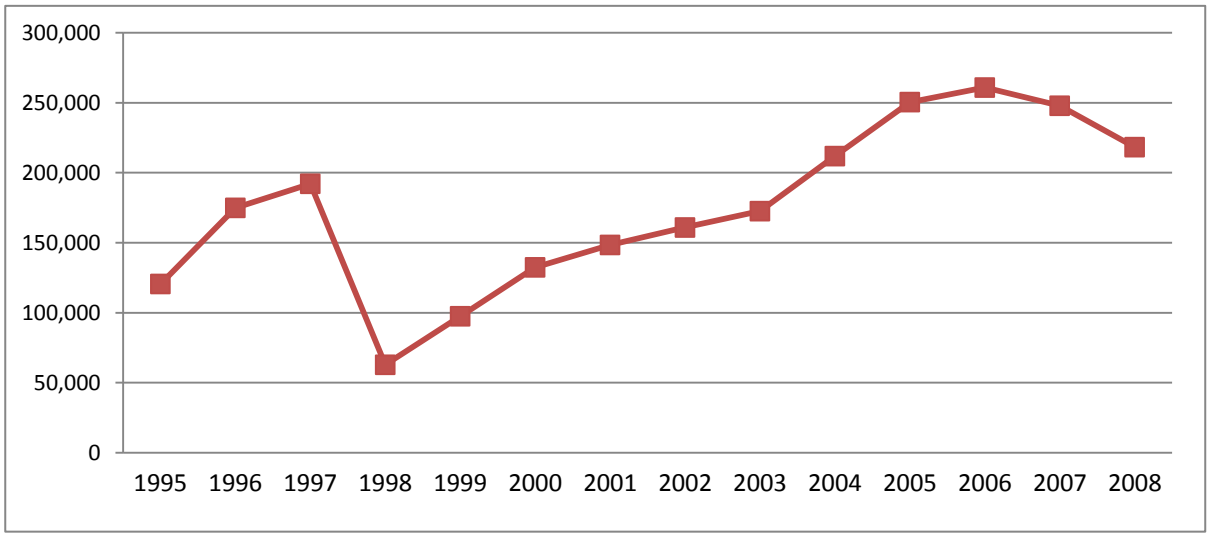


Figure 2.30 Total number of Korean tourists to Australia from 1988 to 2008,
Source: KNTO (2009)

Interestingly, according to Figure2.30, the total number of Korean tourist to Australia dropped sharply from 192,129 tourists in 1997 to 62,742 tourists in 1998. Australia, for example, suffered a 66% decline in 1998, compared to 1997 of outbound Korean tourists. However, after recovering from the financial crisis, the Korean government including KNTO and various media made a greater effort to foster certain industries including the tourism sector. For instance, the new government in 1999 announced a policy of fostering culture-related tourism as one of the 100 policy tasks of the Korean government (KNTO 1998). Korea became one of Australia's important inbound markets with 218,300 tourists in 2008, compared with 62,742 tourists in 1997 (increase of 348%).

With the need to understand Korean tourists, the Australian Tourism Commission (2010) reported a major segmentation study of the Korean outbound travel market. With regard to long haul perspectives, Korean tourists were segmented into four characteristics; functional tourists (38% and 1.849 million), family focus tourists (30% and 1.460 million), adventure seekers (19% and 0.925million), and comfort tourists (13% and 0.633million). These segmentations were based on travel experiences, attitudes and life stages. This summary is illustrated in Figure2.31.

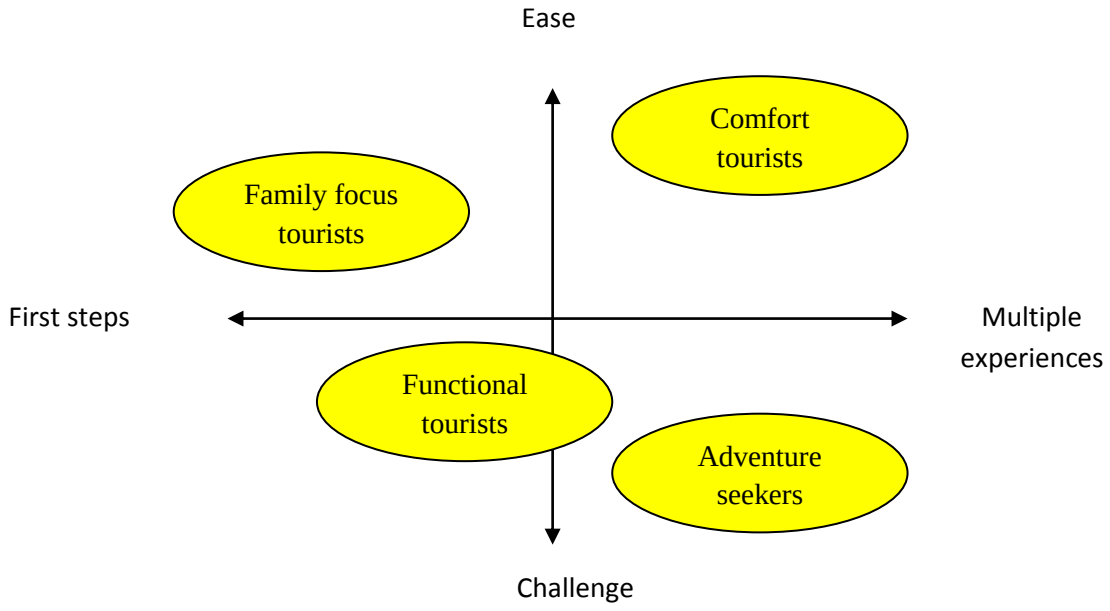


Figure 2.31 Segmentation of Korean tourists,
Source: The Australian Tourism Commission (2010)

The Australian Tourism Commission (2010) reported Korea's market profile. According to

this report, Australia is 13th among all outbound destinations by Koreans; 214,000 tourists travelled in 2010, an 18% increase compared with 2009. This report pointed out two interesting facts. Firstly, luxury travel is increasing in the Korean market, especially in tourists aged 45 years or above. Secondly, since all major travel agencies are running their own websites targeting package tourists and independent tourists, the definition of online agency is not currently clear in the Korean market. However, more than 80% of travel related business is completed online. However, as a number of direct potential tourists visit offline agents, offline agents are still competitive in recent decades.

With this increased attention regarding the Korean market towards Australia, several researchers (Cho 1998; Kim & Prideaux 1999) have examined the characteristics of the Korean travel market and the image of Australia by Koreans. Kim and Prideaux (1999) examined Korean tourists' travel motivations to Australia as a holiday destination. Through focus group interviews, this study found expectations, motivations and images of Australia. The initial findings in this study indicated that Koreans are principally motivated to travel to Australia for the chance to experience natural environmental settings. Prideaux (1998) argued that Australia was only recently recognised as a tourism destination by potential Korean tourists. More specifically, as Korean tourists showed different expectations, especially in cuisine from other Asian tourists, such as Japanese and Chinese, Australia's tourism industries have to identify the major problems of Korean tourists. These studies (Kim & Prideaux 1999; Prideaux 1998) were the pioneering studies between Korea and Australia.

Kim and Prideaux (1999) examined that the 'Group Inclusive Package Travel' by Korean tourists to Australia was popular trends in Korea. The findings were that beautiful scenery is the most popular feature of Australia's characteristics and emphasised that Koreans prefer to visit to non-urban destinations, such as national parks and areas of scenic beauty. Additionally, they recognised Australia's theme parks, animal exhibits and outdoor environments as favoured destinations. Lim (2004) analysed the seasonal patterns of tourist arrivals from Korea to Australia using econometric time series model to quantify the factors affecting the flow of international tourists between Korea and Australia. After the Asian financial crisis in December 1997, most Koreans restructured their travel patterns and preferred to travel to closer destinations, like China and Japan. Lee and Sparks (2007) investigated the difference in the travel behaviour of two Korean groups: Koreans migrating to Australia and Korean residents. This study analysed travel-specific lifestyles using factor and cluster analysis. The

two groups were categorised into four clustered segments based on seven travel lifestyle factors. The results indicated that Koreans who had migrated to Australia were more likely to avoid group package travel, stay comparatively longer and can make travel itineraries by themselves without the assistance of a travel agency, compared with Korean residents.

Lee and colleagues (Lee 2009; Lee et al. 2010, 2010a, 2010b, 2011) examined Australia's destination image by Korean tourists extensively. They used qualitative methods, specifically representative narratives by Korean travel agents (Lee 2009, Lee et al. 2010a, 2010b), analysed Korean representative daily newspapers (Lee et al. 2010, 2010a, 2010b) and TV media (Lee et al. 2011) regarding travel to Australia developing quantitative content analysis and established a destination image formation model using Korean package tourists (Lee et al. 2010c) and independent tourists (Lee et al. 2011).

Under the assumption of the internet environment in Korea, a country highly advanced in internet and information technology, Lee et al. (2010c, 2011) developed a destination image formation model by Korean tourists. Since the focus of these studies is internet sources and Korean tourists, it seems that their contributions to tourism literature are enormous. To date, there are no specific studies that include internet sources in an image formation model. With the impact of the internet period, potential tourists are usually exposed to many information sources. In this respect, Lee et al.'s (2010c, 2011) studies are significant in the literature.

2.6.3. Package tourists

Outbound travel can be essentially classified into two types: *package tour* and *independent tour* (Wang, Hsieh & Huan 2000). Sheldon and Mak (1987) defined *package tour* as 'a combination of the many components of a vacation such as transportation, accommodation, sightseeing, and meals which are sold to customers at a single price'. According to Wong and Lau (2001) and Yamamoto and Gill (1999), the classification of the types of package tours depends on the degree of pre-arranged travel services. Wang et al. (2000) found the differences between package tours and independent tours in two points. Firstly, the purchasing process is different. In the purchasing process of package tours, potential tourists purchase the package products through travel agencies, while independent products are usually purchased by contacting travel agencies individually to get travel information and counselling (Persia & Gitelson 1993; Kent, Meyer & Reddam 1987). Secondly, tourists

purchasing package products rely heavily on tour guides, whereas this is not necessary for independent tourists. Ordinarily, package tourists expect comfort, scenery and experienced tour guides (Duke & Persia 1993).

Several researchers (Enoch 1996; Mok & Armstrong 1995; Quiroga 1990; Wong & Lau 2001) pointed out the advantages of package tours. Enoch (1996) indicated that a package tour is an effective system for tourists to visit the specific destinations for a limited period and in a comparatively safe way within unfamiliar culture and environment. Additionally, tourists can avoid unreliable transportation and doubtful standards of hygiene with relatively less expensive travel costs than if they were to undertake independent travel to the same destination. Mok and Armstrong (1995), Quiroga (1990) and Wong and Lau (2001) emphasised personal safety and security as the main advantages of package tours. Quiroga (1990) stressed that tourists who participate in package tours can take advantage of having a feeling of safety, and the ease of getting to know each other. Mok and Armstrong (1995) and Wong and Lau (2001) stated that package tours can create feelings of security and familiarity, and serve as a means to reduce perceived risk. With convenience in planning travel and relatively inexpensive prices, tourists have tended to choose and enjoy their travel by taking package tours (Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison 1994; Liberson 1994).

Wang and his colleagues (Wang, Jao, Chan & Chung 2009; Wang, Hsieh, Chou & Chung 2007) examined risk perception (Wang et al. 2009) and advertising effectiveness (Wang et al. 2007). Wang et al. (2009) explored the intrinsic risks and risk perceptions of Taiwanese tour leaders in terms of package tour. By using qualitative interviews with 24 tour guides, they comprehensively identified three risk items; exogenous risks, tourist-induced risks, and tour leader's self-induced risks. Through quantitative surveys, they extracted 12 risk factors by means of six itineraries in the package tour. Wang et al. (2007) examined how package tourists react to the different combinations of advertising components and identified the ideal numbers and combinations of advertising components on travel websites and their contributions to advertising effectiveness. The results found that informers reflect different advertising effectiveness in response to different combinations of advertising components.

Various researchers examined the relationships between travel-related behaviours and package tours. Quiroga (1990) stated that tourists who travel alone showed different attitudes from those who travel with relatives or friends. Pearce (1982) emphasised that package tours can help avoid family clashes and compatibility problems. Lai and Graefe (2000) stated that

tourists who are travelling with family members tend to place more importance on facilities, safety and symbolic approachability factors than those who are travelling alone. This study also emphasised that tourists are more eager to choose a package tour for their first-time international travel for pleasure (Andereck & Caldwell 1993; Enoch 1996), and typically place a greater value on word of mouth from trusted sources than repeat visitors.

In many Asian countries, such as Korea, China, Taiwan, Japan and Hong Kong, the package tour is one of the main methods of outbound travel (March 2000; Prideaux 1998; Wang, Hsieh & Huan 2000; Wang, Hsieh, Yeh & Tsai 2004; Yamamoto & Gill 1999) as compared with Western tourists (Wong & Lau 2001). Also, research regarding package tours have conducted within Asian countries (Heung & Chu 2000; Ko 2000; Wang et al. 2000; Wong & Lau 2001), while these types of studies using Western countries as a sample is limited.

There are two types of package tours in Korea: a basic package tour and an all-inclusive package tour (KNTO 2009; Wong & Kwong 2004). KNTO (2009) defined an *all-inclusive* package tour as 'a kind of travel that the travel agencies organise all itineraries and travel components', while a *basic package* tour can be defined as 'tourists purchase air tickets and accommodation as package, however, itineraries have to be prepared by tourists themselves'. In a similar framework, a basic package tour characteristically only contains transportation and accommodation (Mok & Armstrong 1995; Wong & Kwong 2004). An all-inclusive package tour can be defined as providing all activities, such as transportation, accommodation, meals, guided sightseeing and entertainment with an escort or guide (Mok & Armstrong 1995; Sheldon & Mak 1987).

Prideaux, King, Dwyer and Hobson (2006) pointed out that the structure of the Korean package tour industry in Australia is based on price competitiveness. Since potential Korean tourists usually seek cheap package tour products, Korean tour wholesalers have lowered the wholesale package price to travel retailers to maintain a market share and travel retailers have forced the inbound tour operator sector in Australia to absorb the cost of low retail prices. Ko (2000) highlighted the trends of shopping by Korean package tourists in Australia using in-depth interviews and an observational market survey. The findings of this study revealed that the trend of shopping by Korean package tourists was caused by two main reasons. The first reason is under-priced ground operation fees between Korean inbound tour operators in Australia and Korean outbound travel agents in Korea. Secondly, extreme competition was identified between tourist shopping centres in Australia. This study depicted a high rate of

shopping commissions and poor service quality for tourists as the main reasons of a negative image of Australia.

In the case of Korea, According to KNTO (2009), 42.8% of Korean international outbound tourists used package tours (7.4% of basic package tours and 35.4% of all-inclusive tours), while package tours occupied 60.1% (3.5% of basic package tours and 56.6% of all-inclusive tours) in 2005. On the contrary, independent tours increased from 39.9% in 2005 to 57.2% in 2008. In terms of travel preference by Koreans, Australia was recognised as the number one future destination in 2005, while the fourth future destination in 2008 (KNTO 2009). In this regard, while it is necessary to have insights into the Korean travel market, research in this area has been limited (Lee et al. 2010c).

2.6.4. Independent tourists

KNTO (2009) defined independent tours as tourists who prepare and direct all procedures by themselves, while package tours are organised by travel agencies that provide activities and programs. In the case of Korea, there are two kinds of travel patterns (KNTO, 2009): 1) independent tour, and 2) package tour. The most frequent and popular type of outbound travel is independent tours (57.2%), followed by all inclusive package tours (35.4%), and basic package tours (7.4%). The mainstream research of independent tourists has focused on backpackers and the youth tourism.

O'Reilly (2006) and Scheyvens (2002) recognised that the independent tourist category includes backpackers. This submarket is characterised by budget awareness and a flexible tourism style, with most independent tourists travelling alone or in small groups. Hartmann (1988) identified seven categories of youth tourists (moratorium tourists, ascetic tourists, adventurers, goal-directed tourists, party tourists, alternative tourists and Peter Pan tourists), each with differing characteristics. Similarly, Pastor (1991) considered youth tourists depending on motives and experiences regarding holiday tourisms with various activities.

Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) defined backpackers as young and budget-minded tourists. They usually showed a preference for inexpensive accommodation, emphasised meeting other people, and organised a flexible and independent itinerary. Pearce, Murphy and Brymer (2009) defined backpackers as having three features: less than 40 years of age, flexible

schedules, and participation in activities. Backpackers are habitually enthusiastic in sharing the local lifestyle (Loker 1993) and a key motivation is meeting other people (Riley 1988). Backpackers tend to travel more extensively than other tourists, seeking unusual experiences (Haigh 1995). It is obvious that independent youth tourists are considered part of an alternative to mainstream tourism. Cohen (2004) examined the behaviour of backpackers. Usually, backpackers are interested in experiencing the lives, cultures and living conditions of others and prefer to have experiences in a different country. Their main purpose is to have hedonistic enjoyment, experimentation and self-fulfilment under comparatively simple circumstances.

Chang (2009) and White and White (2007) identified backpackers' travel information search behaviour (Chang 2009) and the changing resources of communication in a digital environment (White & White 2007). Chang (2009) examined backpackers' everyday life information seeking perspective. The information search by backpackers can be understood as a three-stage information search process. In each stage, backpackers use numerous information resources for different purposes depending on the types of task. Such sources were used for more than one purpose and in more than one information search stage. White and White (2007) argued that various resources available in the internet environment have had influential effects on backpackers' behaviour.

Even though various studies have been conducted regarding independent tourists, the focus of studies is backpackers. Therefore, there is no specific definition regarding independent tourists. This present study tries to provide and apply a specific definition with Korean tourists' sample to independent tourists based on the theoretical foundations mentioned above and in the context of the present study. *Independent tourists* are 'tourists who control of their itineraries by themselves and travel alone or in small groups with flexible and independent itineraries'.

2.7. Chapter summary

This chapter highlighted a comprehensive and extensive review of literature relevant to the key research paradigms for the present study. This wide range of understanding regarding this

topic is useful to note what remains as research gaps in awareness of the relationship between tourism destination and internet sources.

Firstly, previous research literature in destination image conceptual schemes was reviewed. Elaborated literature in this section emerging from prior studies was image concepts including definitions, perspectives of destination image and research trends. Secondly, 10 previous destination image formation processes were identified in order to find research gaps for the present study. Thirdly, principal factors influencing the formation of destination image were discussed. In order to build up a conceptual framework, the present study scrutinised main factors related to image formation in this section. Fourthly, as a central concept, internet sources were reviewed in this section. To fulfil the research purpose, several types of Internet sources, internet usage and the characteristics of the internet in Korea were revealed. Lastly, since the main research sample for the present study is Korean tourists, this section discussed the key features of Korean tourists including package and independent tourists.

This review of literature to date shows research gaps in three points. Firstly, even though various researchers have contributed to destination image research area, theoretical understanding regarding internet sources is needed to examine how destination image is formed related to the internet sources. Secondly, as Korea became one of the most important inbound markets to Australia in recent decades, a profound understanding of Korean market is necessary to provide a marketing strategies and academic implications. Finally, since the characteristics of Korean package and independent tourists became different due to the numerous information sources available (especially internet sources), extensive understanding of Korean package and independent tourists can help to provide academic and practical approaches.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the qualitative and quantitative research methods used to achieve the research purpose and questions as guidelines of the present study. Section one presents the chapter introduction, and section two describes research design including an explanation of qualitative and quantitative research methods, the advantages of utilising mixed method methods and research purpose and questions to justify both qualitative and quantitative phase.

In section three, qualitative research methods applied for the present study are highlighted. Firstly, a qualitative pilot study is discussed including data collection methods (i.e. focus group interviews) before discussing the qualitative main study. Secondly, the qualitative main study is highlighted including data collection methods (i.e. in-depth interviews) and data analysis methods (i.e. the use of NVivo) used for the qualitative phase. Lastly, insights on validity, reliability and ethical considerations for qualitative phase are discussed.

Section four focuses on quantitative research methods. Firstly, the development of questionnaire for the quantitative survey instrument, summary of procedure of a series of quantitative techniques and research models (i.e. whole research model and research model for structural equation modelling) in order to pursue research purpose and questions are addressed. Secondly, the quantitative pilot study is discussed, particularly aspects of data collection (i.e. target population, selection of participants and sampling process) and data analysis (i.e. initial factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha test for internal consistency). This section continues with an explanation of the final research instrument developed based on the pilot study. Thirdly, a detailed sequential description [i.e. exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM)] of the quantitative main study, which informed the choice and analysis of methods used, is

emphasised. Lastly, this chapter concludes with a chapter summary. The structure of this chapter has five sections, as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

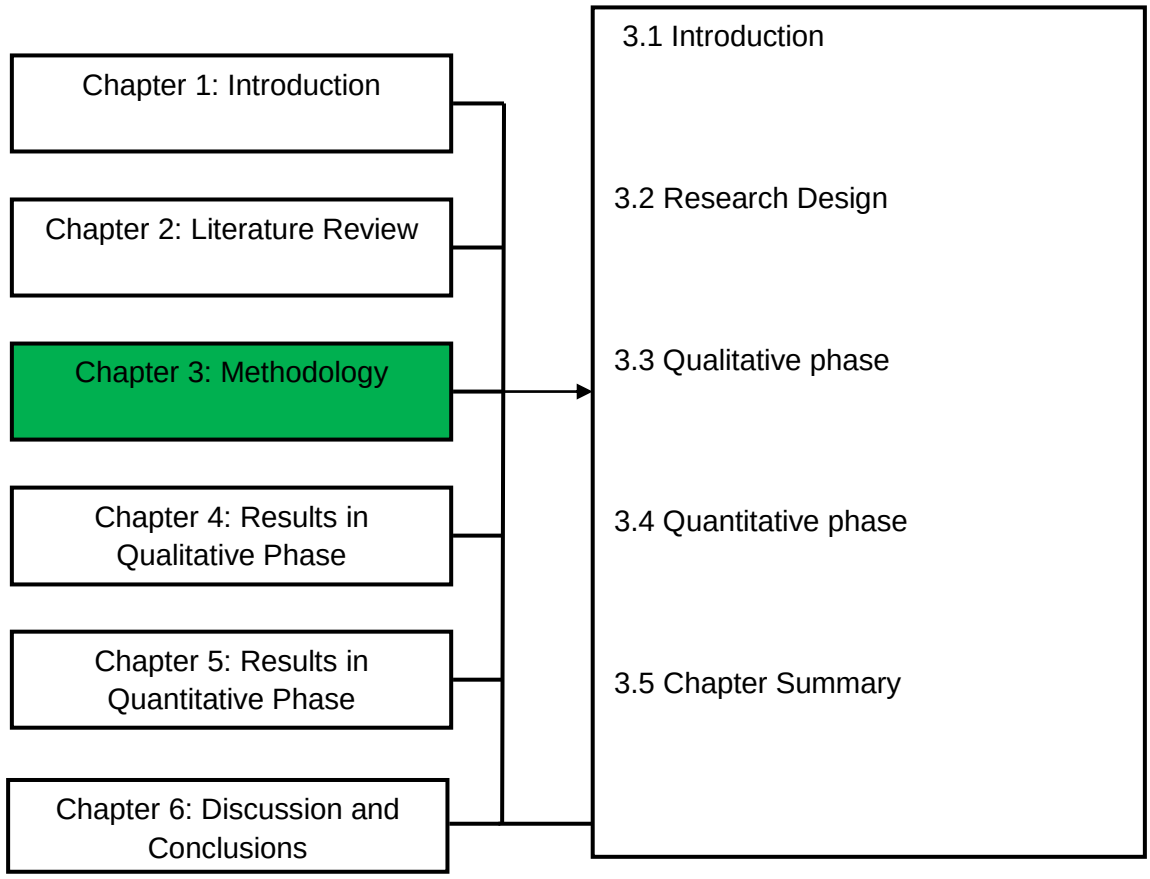


Figure 3.1 Outline of Chapter 3 within the thesis

3.2 Research design

This research design outlines the basis for selecting the research design of the present study needed to deal with research questions and to present a plan for study. As the present study has mixed methods to accomplish the research purpose, sequential two-phase research design is needed. Qualitative methods were used for Phase One, which was an exploratory nature of destination image by Korean tourists to Australia. Sequentially, qualitative methods are employed to accomplish the research purpose, facilitating to attain a profound understanding. A diagram of the research design is shown in Figure 3.2.

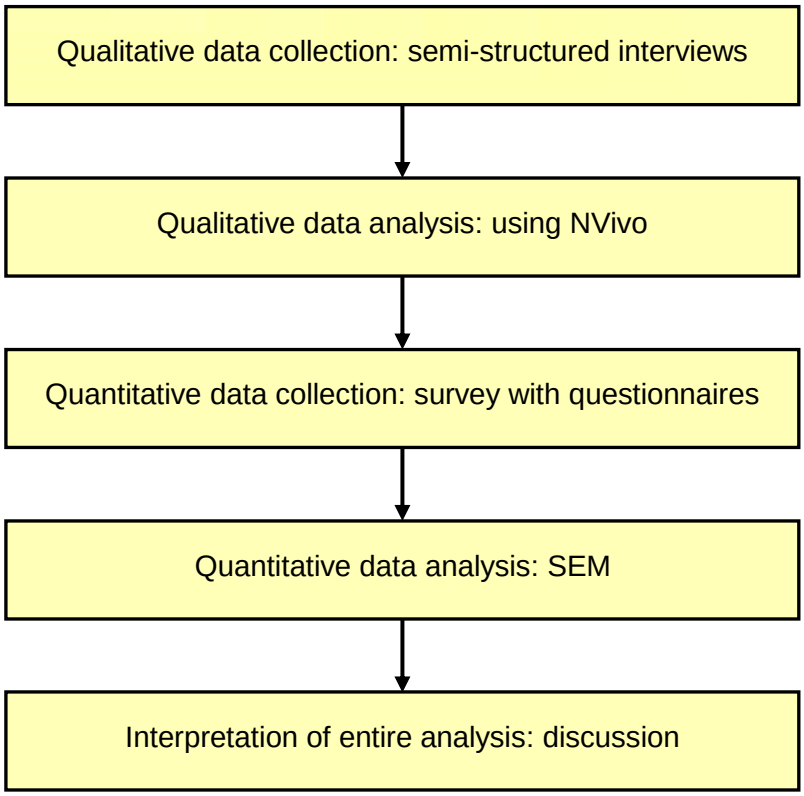


Figure 3.2 Sequential research design (Creswell 2003, p. 213)

3.2.1 Mixed Methods

The term mixed methods refer to research approaches in which quantitative and qualitative phases are combined. Recently, various researchers have a preference mixed methods as a third stand-alone methodological approach alongside the quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

In the process of research, one of the most essential concerns is to determine the appropriate research method in which the research is conducted. Although various approaches are existed in the social sciences including tourism literature, the three most frequently used research methods are: 1) The quantitative method with numerical data analysis; 2) The qualitative method with non-numerical data; and 3) The mixed method with both types of data (Creswell 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003).

Based on this perspective, even though the present study is exploratory to a large extent, due to the hypotheses and expected relationships among the variables, and predetermined measurement, it can be described as the post-positivist stance.

3.2.1.1 Qualitative and quantitative methods

The qualitative method allows respondents to express their emotions, feelings and experiences regarding the questions and engages the use of non-numerical data through in-depth interviews, focus group interviews, participant observation and case studies (McGivern 2003; Veal 1997). A typical qualitative method usually uses small samples of participants embedded in the context (Miles & Huberman 1994) compared with quantitative method and tend to use purposeful sampling to select information-rich interview cases for in-depth studies (Patton 2002). Additionally, the procedure of this method uses inductive research process and thematic analytical stages and usually includes narratives, ethnography or phenomenology.

The quantitative method supposes that variables in the research model can be statistically estimated (Veal 1997) and relies on the collection of a large amount of numerical data to test hypotheses and ensure validity and reliability of the data (Veal 1997). This method is appropriate to describe the characteristics of specific population or market and useful for validating and testing hypotheses or theories. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002, p.3) emphasised the main differences between employing qualitative and quantitative research methods:

> *In the past, much attention has been given to describing, coding and counting events, often at the expense of understanding why things are happening. This has led to a predominance of quantitative research methods which are geared, for example, to find out how many people hold particular views, or how corporate performance can be measured. By contrast, qualitative methods might concentrate on exploring in much greater depth the nature and origins of people's viewpoints, or the reason for, and consequences of, the choice of corporate performance criteria.*

Table 3.1 illustrates basic principles and key differences between qualitative and quantitative method.

Table 3.1 Comparison of qualitative and quantitative method

Qualitative Approach	Quantitative Approach
Construct social reality, cultural meaning	Measure objective facts
Focus on interactive processes, events	Focus on variables
Authenticity is key	Reliability is key
Values are present and explicit	Value free
Situationally constrained	Independent of context
Few cases, subjects	Many cases, subjects
Thematic analysis	Statistical analysis
Researcher is involved	Researcher is detached

Sources: Neuman (2000, p. 16)

Although each method provides a good understanding and interpreting research data, there are different strengths and different weaknesses in each method (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003). The quantitative method cannot illustrate the respondents' own specific connotations which are assumed that the denotation of responses may be slightly different from their actual meaning (McGivern 2003) in terms of using abbreviated questionnaires. In the qualitative method, even though it generally deals with comparatively rich information about the research issue, this method using non-numerical data without application of quantitative approach is not sometimes considered scientific methodology (Easterby-Smith et al. 2002). In this context, Creswell (2003) emphasises 'the knowledge claims', 'the strategies' and 'the method of collecting data' as the major contributors to selecting the appropriate research method. Table 3.2 sets out a comparison between three research methods.

Table 3.2. A comparison between three research methods

Research methods	Knowledge claims	Strategy of inquiry	Methods
Qualitative	Constructivist and Emancipatory assumptions	Ethnographic and narrative design	Field observations: open-ended interviewing
Quantitative	Post-positivist assumptions	Experimental design: survey	Measuring attitudes: rating behaviours

Mixed methods	Pragmatic assumptions	Mixed method (triangulation) design	Closed-ended measures: open-ended observations

Sources: Creswell (2003, p.20)

3.2.1.2 The advantage of mixed methods

Brewer and Hunter (1989) and Hammersley (1992) state the advantages of mixed methods combining the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative methods to fulfil research purpose and questions. The mixed methods can eradicate weaknesses in both qualitative and quantitative methods mentioned above, and append the effectiveness using various research methods. Creswell, Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003) points out the mixed methods can be chosen under the exploratory design, which has been conducted in two phases typically analysed by qualitative data analysis sequentially followed by quantitative data analysis. Thomas (2003) maintains that the mixed methods are complementary in five points in below.

1) Strengthens the research;
2) Allows the research questions to be viewed through different lenses;
3) Accentuates the complex nature of the social reality which can be explored;
4) Highlights the relationship between the research questions and the methods employed; and
5) Features frequently as an approach to research in this area.

Punch (1998) suggests five benefits of the mixed methods to justify the adoption of this method as:

1) Data can be checked against the findings derived from another type of data;
2) Qualitative methods facilitate quantitative methods, providing background information, context, hypothesis source and scale construction;
3) Qualitative and quantitative methods, when combined, provide a general picture and cover the gaps left by the other methods;
4) Quantitative methods facilitate qualitative methods, provide a mechanism for selecting subjects for qualitative methods; and

5) Qualitative methods facilitate the interpretation of relationships between variables in order to explain underlying factors.

3.2.2 Justifying the use of mixed methods for the present study

In order to fulfil research purpose and questions of the present study, this study employed the mixed methods due to the several reasons as follows. Firstly, it is necessary to obtain in-depth understanding of Korean tourists travelling Australia by Korean travel agents in Australia specialising in consultation with their customers (Korean tourists). As all interview participants are experts who have a minimum three years' experience and over manager positions in travel agencies in Australia, they can narrate the characteristics of their customers, collect and tell stories about tourists' travel features and perceptions (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). Creswell (2002, p.521) explains the characteristics of narrative research:

> *As a distinct form from other interview techniques, narratives typically focus on gathering data through the collection of stories, reporting individual experiences, and discussing the meaning of those experiences for the individual. The specific procedure of retelling the participant's story is a unique qualitative analytic procedure used only in narrative research. These factors distinguish narrative from other forms of qualitative inquiry. With a focus on individual and personal (and social) experiences, narrative is typically more micro-analytic than the broader system and group perspective found in ethnographic research.*

The present study conducted in-depth interviews with 32 Korean travel agents in three state capital cities (Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide) to obtain detailed narratives, specifically examining RQ2 and RQ3. As these in-depth narratives would not be obtainable to the same depth adopting quantitative methods, inductive qualitative methods might be appropriate to address RQ1~5.

Additionally, the present study particularly proposed structural models and hypotheses regarding destination image by Korean package and independent tourists. In order to test these models including independent, dependent and mediated variables and examine hypotheses of differences between two groups, the present study conducted quantitative methods using structured questionnaires. For the present study, although both qualitative and quantitative data were collected and used, priority of the study is quantitative research

methods. The qualitative research methods were used to confirm, evaluate, validate and improve the statistical findings in quantitative methods.

3.2.3 The rationale of the research design

The rationale for conducting this study both qualitatively and quantitatively is to examine the interrelationships of each influential factor of Korean tourists. Additionally, the use of both methods assists in overcoming the deficiency associated with the convenience and quota sampling data collection techniques adapted for the present study. Specially, the rationales for choosing Korean tourists as a context are:

1) As Korea became one of the most important inbound markets to Australia in recent decades, a profound understanding of Korean market is necessary to provide a marketing strategies and academic implications
2) As Korea is one of the advanced countries in IT, a theoretical understanding regarding internet sources by Korean outbound tourists is needed to examine how destination image is formed in relation to the internet sources

3) Since the characteristics of Korean package and independent tourists became different due to the numerous information sources available, especially internet sources, an extensive understanding of Korean package and independent tourists can help to provide academic and practical approaches.

Using both qualitative and quantitative methods contributes to obtaining better understanding of the phenomena under investigation and provides high level of accuracy, reliability and validity of the present study. In the next section, to have a consistency of the research flow, it discusses the qualitative research design specifically, data collection and data analysis methods and procedures to acquire the appropriate findings needed for the study.

3.2.4 Research purpose and questions

Using mixed methods, this section addresses the following research purpose and questions based on research gaps as discussed in the literature chapter. Firstly, the purpose of the present study is:

To develop a conceptualisation of tourism destination image by examining the extent to which destination image formed through internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to the formation of Australia's destination image by South Korean package and independent tourists.

Secondly, the present study seeks to achieve the following questions based on the context of destination image using both qualitative interview results with Korean travel agents who act representatives of Korean tourists and quantitative survey results with Korean package and independent tourists travelling Australia. Research questions are shown in Table 3.3.

Thirdly, to achieve the research questions as stated above, research questions developed for the present study are shown in Table 3.4. All research questions as followed are illustrated in the qualitative and quantitative phases, respectively. Research questions are as follows:

Table3.3 Research questions for the present study

Research questions
Qualitative research question 1: What key themes and topics can be examined in the narratives of Australia's destination image by South Korean travel agents?
Qualitative research question 2: What are the foremost regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia recognised by Korean travel agents?
Qualitative research question 3: What do Korean travel agents think are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists with regard to Australia's destination image?
Qualitative research question 4: How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?
Quantitative research question 1: What are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists in regard to Australia's d estination image?
Quantitative research question 2: How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to the destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?
Quantitative research question 3: How do the aspects of the internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors, and personal factors contribute to destination image?

3.3 Qualitative phase

3.3.1 Qualitative pilot study

The present study conducted a pilot study before conducting a main study using semi-structured in-depth interviews. Interview methods are focus group interviews and participants in this session are five Korean academics who live in Adelaide.

3.3.1.1 Focus group interviews

Focus group interviews are conducted as a pilot study. Focus group interviews are considered to be a flexible data collection technique that is most useful in exploratory research (Frey & Fontana 1993; Knodel 1993; Krueger 1994; Krueger & Casey 2009), because it conveys a sense of respect, a skill at questioning and a willingness to listen on the part of the researcher.

A pilot study is necessary in exploratory research as it takes some trial and error to establish a method and a theoretical base for the research (Krueger & Casey 2009). Additionally, pilot interviews can assist in testing certain questions that have been constructed based on the previous studies (Frey & Fontana 1993; Knodel 1993). The pilot study has to be undertaken prior to the final selection of interview participants and data collection process. As focus group interviews have several benefits (see Table3.4), the present study selected ‘focus group interviews’ as the pilot study.

Table3.4 Benefits and drawbacks of focus group interviews

Benefits	Drawbacks
Cost effective data collection	Number of questions to be asked is greatly restricted due to group setting
Interactions between participants enhanced data enquiry and quality	Time available for every participant is limited
Allowed quick assessment of the extent to which respondents’ perceptions and views were relatively consistent and shared or diversified	Participants who realize that their viewpoint is a minority perspective may refrain from speaking up and risk negative reaction
Sharing of experiences can be enjoyable for participants	Limited confidentiality for individuals

Source: Patton (2002, p.386)

The focus group interview is usually used either to stimulate talk from multiple perspectives so that the researcher can learn what the range of views are, or to promote discourse on a topic that informants might not be able to thoughtfully discuss in an individual interview (Krueger 1994; Krueger & Casey 2009). Since focus group interviews are a form of group interviewing, a list of interview questions has to be developed to guide the interview and group interaction (Krueger 1994). The researcher should present as a moderator of the group interaction and control participants' focus on the investigation. Krueger and Casey (2009) stated that 12 questions are typically asked during a two hour focus group interview. The types of questions included are opening, introductory, transitional, key and ending questions. Table 3.5 illustrates types of questions in the focus group interviews. Usually, participants in the focus group interviews are asked two to five key questions and these key questions are the main purpose of the interviews.

Table 3.5 Types of questions in the focus group interviews

Types of questions	Main contents
The opening question	Means the first question answered by all participants and it should be designed to require a quick response
Introductory questions	Introduce the topic to participants
Transition questions	Connect participant experience with the topic to be explored
Key questions	Are the central focus of the study
Ending questions	Are designed to facilitate closure and summarise the findings of the focus group interviews

Source: Krueger and Casey (2009)

The number of participants in the focus group interviews is also an important issue. Ideal participant numbers usually range from five to 12. Fewer than five limits insights and interaction between participants. More than 12 can negatively impact how group members participate (Frey & Fontana 1993; Krueger 1994; Krueger & Casey 2009). Likewise, the progress of the focus group interviews is an essential issue. Questions should be asked in a conversational manner. The wording of questions is direct, forthright, comfortable and simple

(Krueger 1994). Additionally, questions have to be clear and brief in order to avoid redundancy or confusion.

3.3.1.2 Meaning of the qualitative pilot study

Before in-depth interviews as a main study, a pilot test was conducted and tested with five Korean academics in March 2009. Pilot study is necessary in qualitative research as it takes some assessments and inaccuracies to establish a methodology and a theoretical base for the research (Dickinson & Robbins 2008) and can assist in testing certain questions that have been constructed based on previous research. A pilot study is not a pre-test, but is used more formatively to assist the researcher to develop relevant lines of questioning (Yin 2003). Additionally, a pilot study also provides the researcher with the opportunity to focus on particular area that might have been unclear previously (Dickinson & Robbins 2008). For selecting the pilot study, the main criteria are convenience, easy access and geographic proximity and it allows for a less structured and more prolonged relationship to develop between the interviewees and researcher than may occur in the real field sites (Yin 2003).

3.3.1.3 Sample and selection of participants

According to Dickinson and Robbins (2008) and Richards (2002), the participants interviewed in focus group should meet these three criteria. When applied to the present study: 1) every participant is conversant on tourism between Korea and Australia; 2) they are enthusiastic to have a discussion; and 3) they represent a various range of insights including tourism phenomenon and the trend of international travel by Korean tourists. The sample is composed of five Korean academics who live in Adelaide for cost effective data collection (Patton 2002). Five participants contributed in this pilot study were satisfying the standard of criteria as mentioned above and they have minimum master degree in tourism and have some work experiences in tourism fields. As interview data come into sight through interaction within the group, focus group interviews are specifically matched with this study type (Huang & Gross 2010). Table 3.6 shows the sample profile of the pilot study.

Table3.6 Sample profile of the pilot study

N	Gender	Age	Occupation	Experience of tourism area
1	Male	40's	Journalist	Yes
2	Female	30's	Teacher	Yes
3	Male	40's	Tour guide	Yes
4	Male	30's	Translator	Yes
5	Male	40's	Self-employed	Yes

Five participants were invited to the focus group interviews by invitation letter through individually targeted email. In each email, the researcher attached initial explaining letters regarding the research purpose. Additionally, a phone call from the researcher was followed. Participants were also provided with copies of the study information sheet at the interview session. Before the interview session, the researcher sent interview questions (both English and Korean versions) in advance. A confirmation email and a phone call were sent one working day prior to session appointments, and a letter of thanks and a phone call were also posted to all participants after session. Of the five interview participants, four were male and one was female. All participants in the pilot study were acquainted with each other before the session.

3.3.1.4 Data collection and role

The focus group interviews were conducted in the researcher's home and consisted of two sessions on the first Saturday and the second Saturday of March 2009 with same participants. The researcher acted as a facilitator during the sessions. The length of the first session was three hours, and the second session was two hours and 30 minutes. A signed consent form was obtained from all participants prior to conducting the sessions. During the sessions, all participants interact freely and share their own opinions and perceptions regarding the interviews. The researcher leads all interview sessions and a list of interview questions was developed to guide the focus group interviews. Open-ended questions were used to encourage the interviewees to reveal their opinions.

Yin (2003) emphasised that the pilot study's data provide considerable insights into the issues being studied, and this information was traced back to a further focused review of relevant literature so as to ensure that significant theoretical issues and questions were related to the current studied cases. For the present study, this pilot study provided the researcher with updated information regarding Korean tourists travelling Australia and a deep understanding

of current trends of Australia's travel market. Especially, through the sessions, the specific research problems in the questions were identified and the final interview questions were developed and updated according to the results of this pilot study. Therefore, this focus group interview as a pilot study was useful when making modifications to the final interview questions and helped rectify any inadequacies in the questions before the administration of the instrument through the focus group interview. Through these focus group interview sessions, the researcher can have final interview questions after data analysis.

3.3.2 Qualitative main study

The present study conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews with 32 Korean travel agents in three state capital cities in Australia as a main study for the qualitative phase. The target population is Korean travel agents who act as representatives of Korean tourists to Australia.

3.3.2.1 In-depth interviews

For the main data collection in the qualitative phase of the present study, although there are several different types of interviews ranging from unstructured to structured interviews, individual semi-structured in-depth interviews were employed. Interviews can be conducted using different techniques in a structured or semi-structured approach (Easterby-Smith et al. 2002; Miles & Huberman 1994; Patton 2002). Patton (2002) emphasises three types of interviews: 1) the informal conversational interview; 2) the standardised open-ended interview; and 3) the interview guide approach. The difference between the informal conversational interview (unstructured) and the interview guide approach (semi-structured) is that the researcher prepares an interview guide that provides a list of questions or general issues for the semi-structured interview. Questions in the interview guide do not determine the order of the conversation in the interview and the interviewer can word the questions spontaneously, but the guide provides some stimuli to ensure detailed areas of interest are enclosed. Table 3.7 summarises these three types of interviews.

Table 3.7 Summary of three types of interviews

Type of interview	Main summary
The informal conversational interview	◆ The most spontaneous and loosely structured interview. ◆ Interviewer discusses the area of interest in general terms, then builds on the topics that emerge during the discussion ◆ No interview protocol prepared for the interview (Johnson & Christensen 2004)
The standardised open-ended interview (highly structured)	◆ Interviewer prepare a standardised interview guide similar to an interview guide used in the quantitative interviewing (Johnson & Christensen 2004) ◆ More highly structured than the interview guide approach (Interviewer can vary slightly from the interview guide) ◆ Disadvantage: provides less flexibility in modifying the interview to particular individuals and circumstances and standardised wording of questions may constrain and limit the relevance of questions and answers
The interview guide approach (semi-structured)	◆ Less structured than the standardised open-ended interview, because the interviewer starts the session with a plan to explore a specific topic and to ask specific open-ended questions (Johnson & Christensen 2004) ◆ The interviewer does not have to follow the themes or questions in the set order and can change the wording and sequence of any question listed in the interview guide. ◆ The interviewer must try to keep the interview process on track and not allow the interviewee to go off on a topic that is not relevant to the interview purpose ◆ The guide helps in making interviewing different groups systematic and comprehensive by deciding in advance the issues to be explored (Patton 2002) ◆ An interview guide is essential during the interviews

The interview guide approach is related to the 'rapid approach' of analysis strategy (Krueger & Casey 2009). The advantages of this are that a researcher can come to understand the details of respondents' perceptions and opinions from their own points of view. Additionally, open-ended questions are generally preferred in qualitative interviews as a researcher can

establish the territory to be explored while allowing the respondents to take any direction they want. Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, p.87) also emphasised that the open-ended semi-structured interviews are appropriate:

> *It is necessary to understand the constructs that the interviewees use as a basis for their opinions and beliefs about a particular matter or situation… One aim of the interview is to develop an understanding of the respondents' 'world' so that the researcher might influence it, either independently, or collectively as in the case with action research*

The aim of this interview section is to gain insight and in-depth understanding into each participant's thinking, ideas, perceptions and opinions of Korean travel agents through the representative narratives in particular. Therefore, the present study selects a less structured interview method, 'the interview guide approach (semi-structured)' with fewer questions, a more flexible allocation of time within the interview time frame and is preferred to obtain a depth of understanding into respondents' perceptions and opinions regarding research issues of the study (Krueger & Casey 2009). To work most reliably with the words of the respondents, the researcher has to transform those spoken words into a written text to study using QSR NVivo (version 8.0). The best way to do this is to record using the digital voice recorder, and then to do a verbatim transcription. Specific procedures are discussed in section 3.5.

3.3.2.2 Target population

Main interview data for the main study were collected in three state capital cities in Australia: Sydney, Brisbane (including the Gold Coast) and Adelaide. Sydney is the largest city in Australia, and around 100,000 Korean residents live there. Additionally, Sydney is well known to potential Korean tourists as 'the symbolic icon of Australia's destination'. Brisbane is famous for honeymoons, sports and as an activity destination for Koreans. Also, according to KNTO (2009), most Korean potential tourists recognised Brisbane as a 'must-visit destination', especially for the younger generations. Furthermore, the most important thing is that Sydney and Brisbane have regular direct flights from Korea to Australia. Only these two destinations have direct flight from Korea. As most Koreans have chosen Adelaide as a destination of immigration or study and it is considered as a 'quiet place' and 'good destination to have a rest', Adelaide was selected as the last destination to collect data.

3.3.2.3 Selection of participants

In the selection process, the researcher had experience in running a travel agency in Korea for three years, had lived in Sydney and has been living in Adelaide. Therefore, the researcher has already known some travel agents in Australia from Korea for many years. In January 2009, the researcher started to contact with travel agents who are already known. However, the researcher knew only 10 travel agents in Sydney. Therefore, the researcher searched 'Korean community magazine' in each city that is selected as target populations concurrently. In Korean communities of each city, there are several community magazines; for example, there are over 10 community magazines in Sydney, five community magazines in Brisbane and two community magazines in Adelaide. After searching Korean community magazines in each city, the researcher finally found 55 travel agents in Sydney, 16 travel agents in Brisbane and 5 travel agents in Adelaide.

In February 2009, the researcher contacted them personally and received final permission from 43 travel agents (26 agents in Sydney, 12 agents in Brisbane and 5 agents in Adelaide). It took around one month from contacting to receiving the permission. Among 40 agents, some of the researcher's acquaintances kindly introduced other travel agents and they are also included. After receiving confirmation letters from them, the researcher contacted them through emails and phone calls. As the present study confined the minimum requirements of respondents as 1) having at least three years' working experience of counselling with tourists in the travel agencies; 2) their positions are either over general managers or owners; 3) currently, they are working in the three cities. Additionally, the researcher conducted the interviews with one agent in each travel agency. After the filtering process, the researcher eliminated 11 travel agents due to insufficiency of qualification. The frequent reason of disqualification was working experiences (8 agents) and their positions (3 agents). After discussion, the researcher sent a thank-you card to 11 agents through the email. A consent form was also sent out to 32 qualified participants with the information document at the end of February 2009. Before the interview sessions, the researcher sent the interview questions to every participant through the email. The reason is that most travel agents in Korean travel agencies asked their customers and collected their opinions for one month. One month later, at the end of March 2009, the researcher conducted in-depth interviews with 32 participants in three state capital cities in Australia.

Regarding the sample size for the qualitative study, Morse (1994) mentioned that the appropriate sample size in qualitative research is that a number of respondents of 30 to 50 interviews are frequently accepted and Bernard (2000) recommended that samples should be comprised of 30 to 60 interviews are reasonable. As a minimum, Bertaux (1981) presented that 15 is the smallest acceptable sample size. So 32 of responses in this study are reasonable. Exact sample size is in Table 3.8 and sample profile is in Table 3.9.

Table 3.8 Interview data sample by locations

Location	Number of Sample
Sydney	19
Brisbane	8
Adelaide	5
Total	32

Table 3.9 Sample Profile of interview respondents

N	Gender	Age	Position	Experience (Year)	Location
1	Female	20's	G.M	3	Sydney
2	Female	20's	G.M	4	Sydney
3	Male	50's	Owner	21	Sydney
4	Female	30's	Director	8	Sydney
5	Male	40's	G.M	11	Sydney
6	Female	30's	G.M	8	Sydney
7	Male	50's	Owner	28	Sydney
8	Female	30's	G.M	7	Sydney
9	Female	20's	G.M	5	Sydney
10	Female	30's	G.M	9	Sydney
11	Male	40's	Owner	17	Sydney
12	Female	20's	G.M	5	Sydney
13	Female	30's	G.M	6	Sydney
14	Male	40's	Owner	12	Sydney
15	Male	40's	Owner	10	Sydney
16	Male	50's	Owner	15	Sydney
17	Female	20's	G.M	4	Sydney
18	Male	40's	Director	11	Sydney
19	Male	40's	Owner	15	Sydney
20	Male	30's	Director	10	Brisbane
21	Male	30's	Owner	10	Brisbane
22	Female	20's	G.M	5	Brisbane
23	Female	30's	G.M	8	Brisbane
24	Female	30's	G.M	7	Brisbane
25	Female	20's	G.M	3	Brisbane
26	Male	40's	Owner	10	Brisbane
27	Male	40's	Owner	12	Brisbane
28	Male	30's	Owner	8	Adelaide

29	Female	40's	Director	6	Adelaide
30	Male	40's	Owner	10	Adelaide
31	Male	30's	G.M	5	Adelaide
32	Male	30's	G.M	5	Adelaide

3.3.2.4 Data collection

The in-depth interviews consist of 12 open-ended questions and the preparation of the interview questions was informed by previous research (Dickinson & Robbins 2008; Huang & Gross 2010; Ryan & Cave 2005) to note the research gaps already identified within the tourism context. Ryan and Cave (2005) and Huang and Gross (2010) emphasised that there have been limited approaches employing open-ended, unstructured and written material in data collection and analysis of destination image. Therefore, the present study looks to contribute to the destination literature adopting this approach such as open-ended, semi-structured in-depth interviews and written documents.

Patton (2002) emphasised that it is more important to establish a relationship between interviewee and researcher through trustfulness, respect and togetherness, and being nonjudgmental during the interview process. Therefore, the researcher should take care not to force more accounts and more detailed response. Moreover, in order to avoid bias in the participants' responses, the researcher does not provide many details at the beginning of the interview. After the interviews, the researcher leads a more comfortable atmosphere and requests overall comments about their own customers regarding research topics; interestingly, it frequently occurred that more narratives and experiences were exchanged between the researcher and the interview participants, specifically differences between package and independent tourists, internet usage and the critical moment of travel agencies. Finally, the participants were thanked for their endeavour about their response and time. During the interview process, all interviews were recorded by digital voice recorder under agreement with the participants. The average length of interviews was around 30 minutes, with the longest taking 55 minutes and the shortest 22 minutes. After the sessions, the researcher made some notes immediately, especially important ending comments after turning off the digital voice recorder. This handwritten note was a good assistance of coding process.

3.3.2.5 Data analysis

To improve qualitative studies, it is important that the procedures used for analysing the data are well documented and explained. The data analysis strategy is based on the principles of Content Analysis (Babbie 2001) where the concepts related to the phenomena are captured through analysing the contents of the interviews qualitatively. Figure 3.3 shows the overall data analysis procedure.

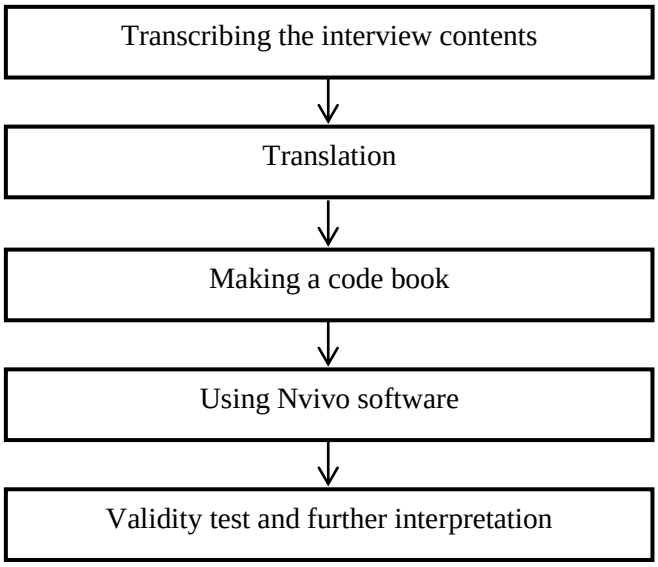


Figure 3.3 Data analysis procedure

Data from the semi-structured interviews were analysed in two ways. The first step included the transcribing and translation processes. The transcribing process has to be considered as an important part of the data analysis because the researcher becomes strongly familiar with the content during the interview and if transcribing process is outsourced, the meaning of the interview contents can be distorted by others during the transcribing process (Babbie 2001). As all the interviews were in Korean, all interview contents should be translated from Korean to English. During this process, as the meaning of the contents can be also distorted, the researcher asked two simultaneous interpreters in Korean and English. These two people were participants in the pilot study session (participants # 2 and 4) and they have the licences of simultaneous interpreter and translator in Korean and English. After the translation process, the researcher sent the translated version (in English) and original version (in Korean) to them again to double check. The second step is the use of NVivo. As a supporting system of data analysis methods in the qualitative phase, the computer-assisted qualitative data analysis

software package NVivo 8.0 is utilised. NVivo program was a helpful, time-saving organizational tool to manage and analyse the interview data.

Using NVivo

All interview transcripts from the semi-structured in-depth interviews were coded into NVivo to assist in managing and analysing the volume of complex data. This software package assisted in the coding, sorting and storage of data according to recurrent themes, as defined in the interview schedule, and others that emerged during data collection and analysis. The process of coding qualitative data by using the NVivo program for the present study is illustrated as follows: Firstly, coding themes were developed according to research questions. Secondly, all documents were imported to the NVivo software. These documents formed a document system providing the basis for processing and maintenance of all document where appropriate (Richards 2002). Thirdly, the data were coded and sorted into key themes and after coding and sorting most collected data, the remaining data is categorised under a specific item for further reference when doing data analysis. Fourthly, the researcher created documents with key themes identified by using the 'doclink' function of the NVivo program. Finally, the researcher developed by comparing and contrasting data under key themes, which were formed from topics related to research questions. Figure 3.4 shows this process of using the NVivo program.

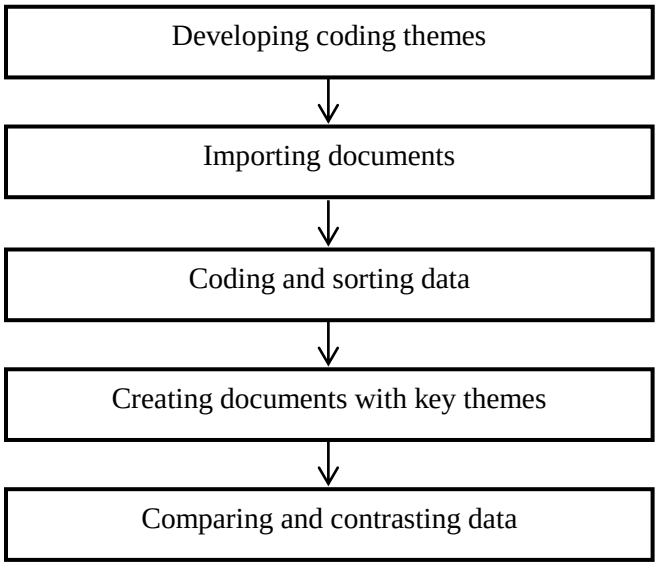


Figure 3.4 Process of using the NVivo program

Developing coding themes and importing documents into NVivo are important parts of this process as it allows a detailed examination of the data from which common themes and contrasts emerged. The documents are coded according to the themes that were identified in the interview schedules as well as other themes that emerged during the course of the discussion. The themes are sorted according to themes and the information contained within each subheading is separated into narrower subheadings. This process is continued until the data under each subheading is compared and contrasted. The present study uses NVivo in order to analyse interview data and finally builds coding theme tree using tree nodes.

Each of the nodes in the coding theme tree contains verbatim transcription of the discussion relating to topics which were printed to produce a coagulation of all discussion pertaining to the particular themes. These reports are then used to inform a discussion highlighting the similarities and differences of opinion that were presented, as well as linking the discussion to recent literature. This process requires several drafts as the data are incrementally condensed with each draft. This process is deemed to be complete once the data could no longer be condensed without reducing the value of the data. Figure 4.2 (Section 4.3 in Chapter 4) illustrates the final coding theme tree for the present study.

3.3.2.6 Validity and reliability

Although qualitative methods has been shown to be the most appropriate research methods to analyse the rich content analysis, Yin (2003) highlights validity and reliability weaknesses that are associated with this method that need to be acknowledged. However, numerous researchers argued that validity and reliability could be applied to all types of qualitative research (Long & Johnson 2000; Patton 2002; Yin 2003). From this perspective, Hammersley (1992, p.69) defines validity thus: ‘An account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena that it is intended to describe, explain or theorise.’ Reliability is attained by ensuring ‘that data collection is undertaken in a consistent manner free from undue variation which unknowingly exerts an effect on the nature of the data’ (Long & Johnson 2000, p.31). Commonly, four widely used criteria to demonstrate the validity and reliability of the qualitative methods are *internal validity*, *external validity*, *reliability* and *objectivity* (Miles & Huberman 1994; Patton 2002; Yin 2003). Table 3.10 shows techniques for qualitative validity and reliability.

Table 3.10 Techniques for qualitative validity and reliability

Test	Tactics	Phase of research in which tactic occurs
Internal validity	● Do pattern-matching ● Do explanation-building	Data analysis Data analysis
External validity	● Predetermined questions ● Specific procedure of coding and analysis ● Compare evidence with the related literature	Research design Data analysis Data analysis
Reliability	● Use the standardized open-ended interview questions ● Peer debriefing	Data collection Data analysis
Objectivity	● Use multiple source of evidence ● Have key informant review draft	Data collection Data analysis and report writing

Source: Adapted from Miles & Huberman (1994)

The present study followed these tactics as shown in Table3.12 from the research design to thesis writing for ensuring quality and rigour. Additionally, several techniques by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Yin (2003) were utilised to accomplish methodological rigour and ensure the quality of the thesis. Also, the iterative process was conducted in which the researcher continually considered the congruence between the research questions, previous literature and data analysis.

The tactics regarding qualitative validity and reliability used for the present study are '*peer debriefing*' and *'member check'* suggested by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998). Firstly, peer debriefing was used with academic colleagues to overcome biases of the interview questions. Specifically, through conducting the pilot study, the present study conducted and tested a continuous iteration process. Secondly, member check was conducted with participants in focus group interviews. Especially, as five participants in focus group interviews are the researcher's acquaintances, they assisted to check validity and reliability. Also, they

constantly give feedback, so this feedback from the peer debriefing and member checks can support the validity and reliability of the process, although some minor alterations were made to the whole process.

3.3.2.7 Ethical considerations

The primary intention of research ethics is to protect individual participants from danger or any negative consequences resulting from research activities (Emory & Coper 1991). Ethical considerations in research require appropriate treatment of the sponsors and the respondents and should address all key ethical issues related to the research process, such as privacy and confidentiality (Miles & Huberman 1994). For the present study, an ethics protocol submission for the present study was completed in November 2007 to the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee and approved in December 2007 prior to commencing with the data collection process. The researcher assured participants that ethical issues, such as the researcher's responsibility to protect the public from misrepresentation and avoiding practices that may humiliate or mislead respondents, would be followed and that respondents' privacy and the confidentiality of their opinions were guaranteed. All documentation, such as the invitation letters for interviews, information sheets and consent forms were provided to all participants were included in the Appendices.

3.4 Quantitative phase

This section provides an overview of quantitative research methods employed for the present study including the explicit technique (i.e., overall procedure, questionnaire development, quantitative research models, pilot study and main study) in the quantitative phase in order to probe research purpose as discussed above.

3.4.1. Proposed research model & hypotheses

The proposed theoretical research model was developed based on the extensive literature review reported in Chapter 2 and the necessity of the research to fill the research gaps identified to date in Chapter 1. The main constructs in the theoretical model were: 1) motivational factors (divided into push and pull motivations), 2) personal factors (included past experiences, socio-demographics, information sources and preferred destinations), 3)

internet sources (divided into internet information sources and internet usage) and 4) image constructs, such as cognitive, affective and overall image. The proposed theoretical model (Figure3.6) was developed to test 10 hypotheses. Sequentially, the present study proposed two sub-models: 1) model of motivational factor and 2) model of personal factors. In the first sub-model, interrelationships between motivational factors and internet sources and image constructs were to be examined whereas interrelationships between personal factors and internet sources and image constructs were to be examined separately. Figure 3.5 shows the whole research model for the present study; Figure 3.6 illustrates SEM model regarding motivational factors for examining H1–H5; and Figure 3.7 demonstrates the research model regarding personal factors for examining H6–H10.

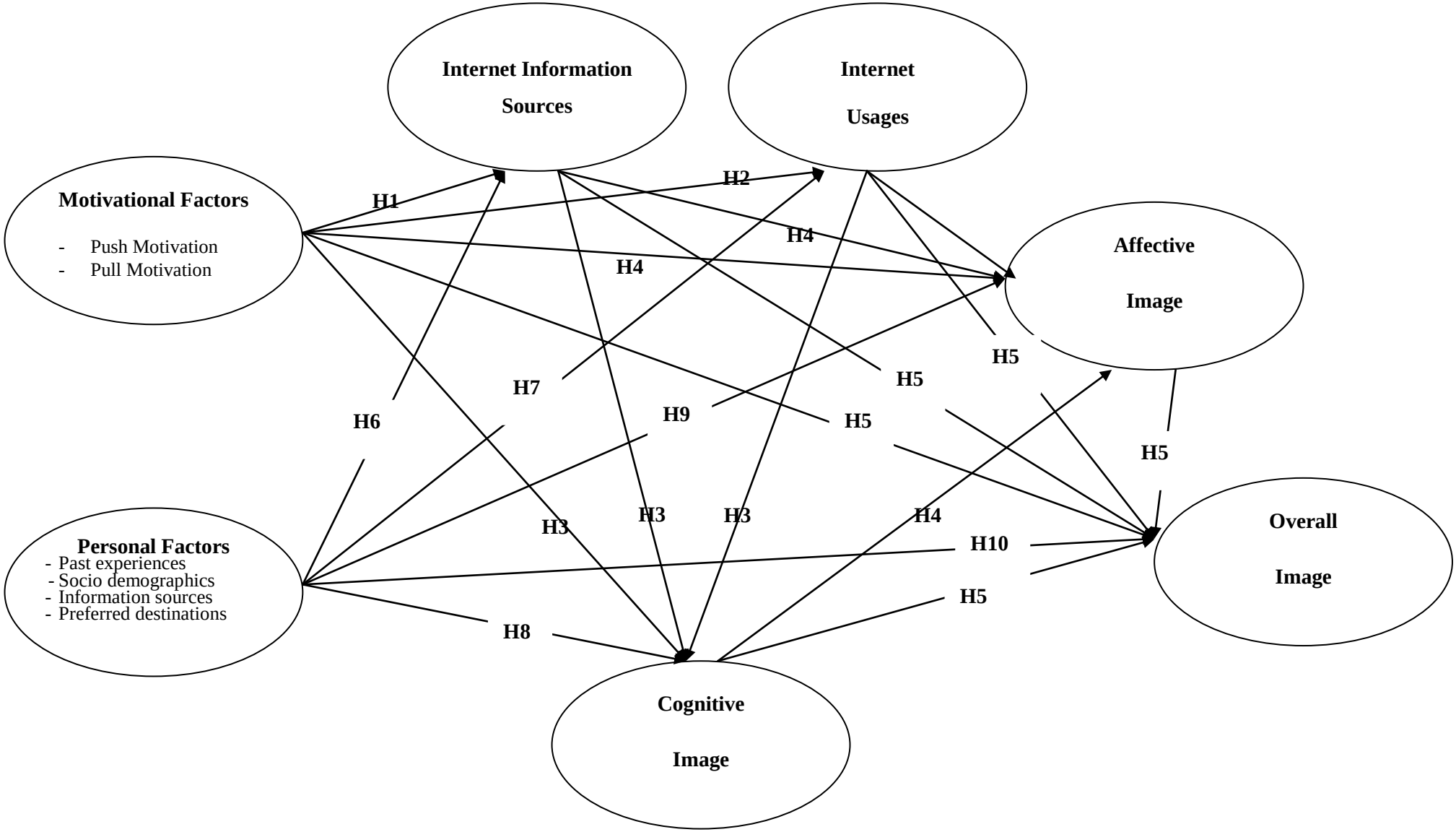


Figure 3.5 Whole research model

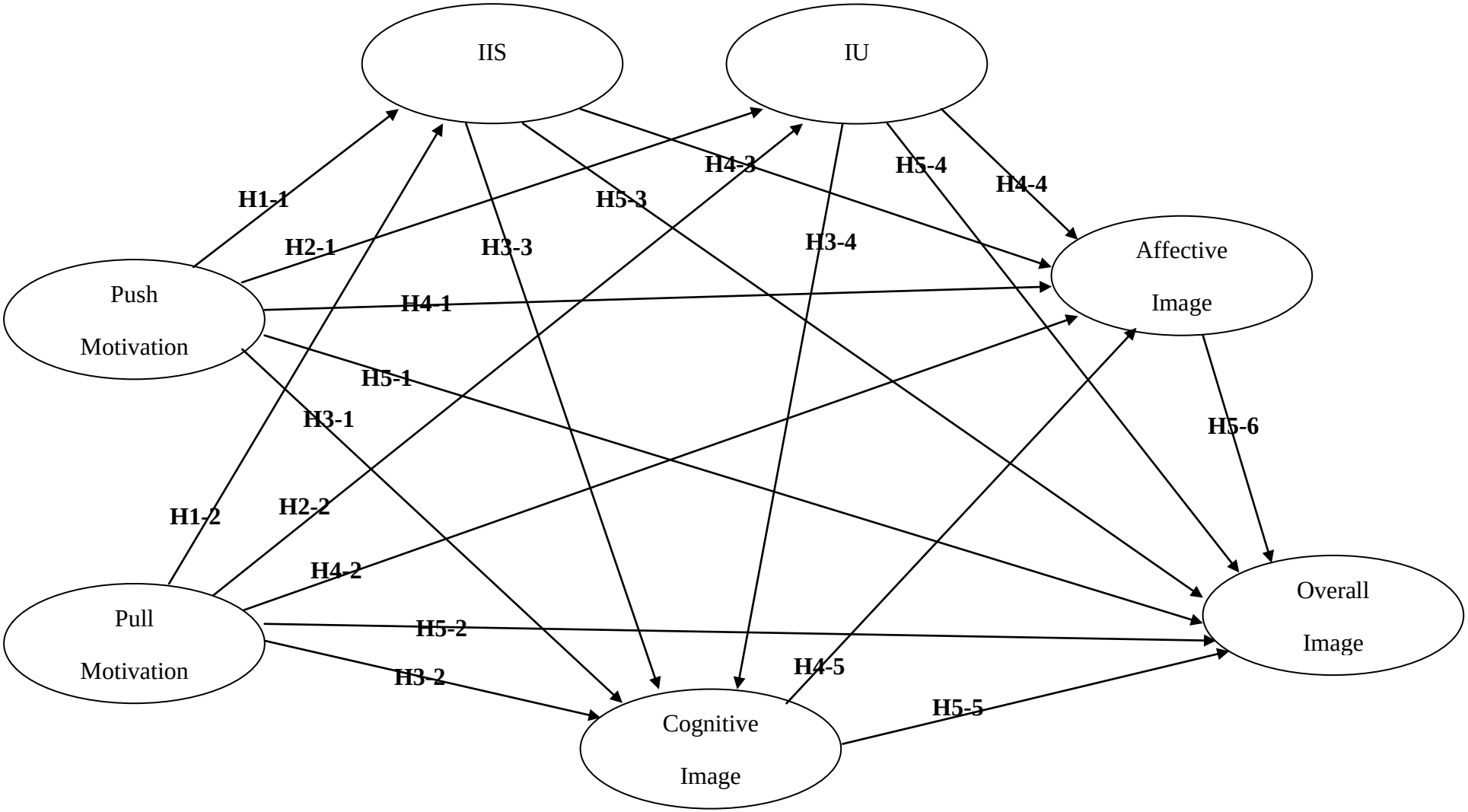


Figure 3.6 Research model for H1~H5

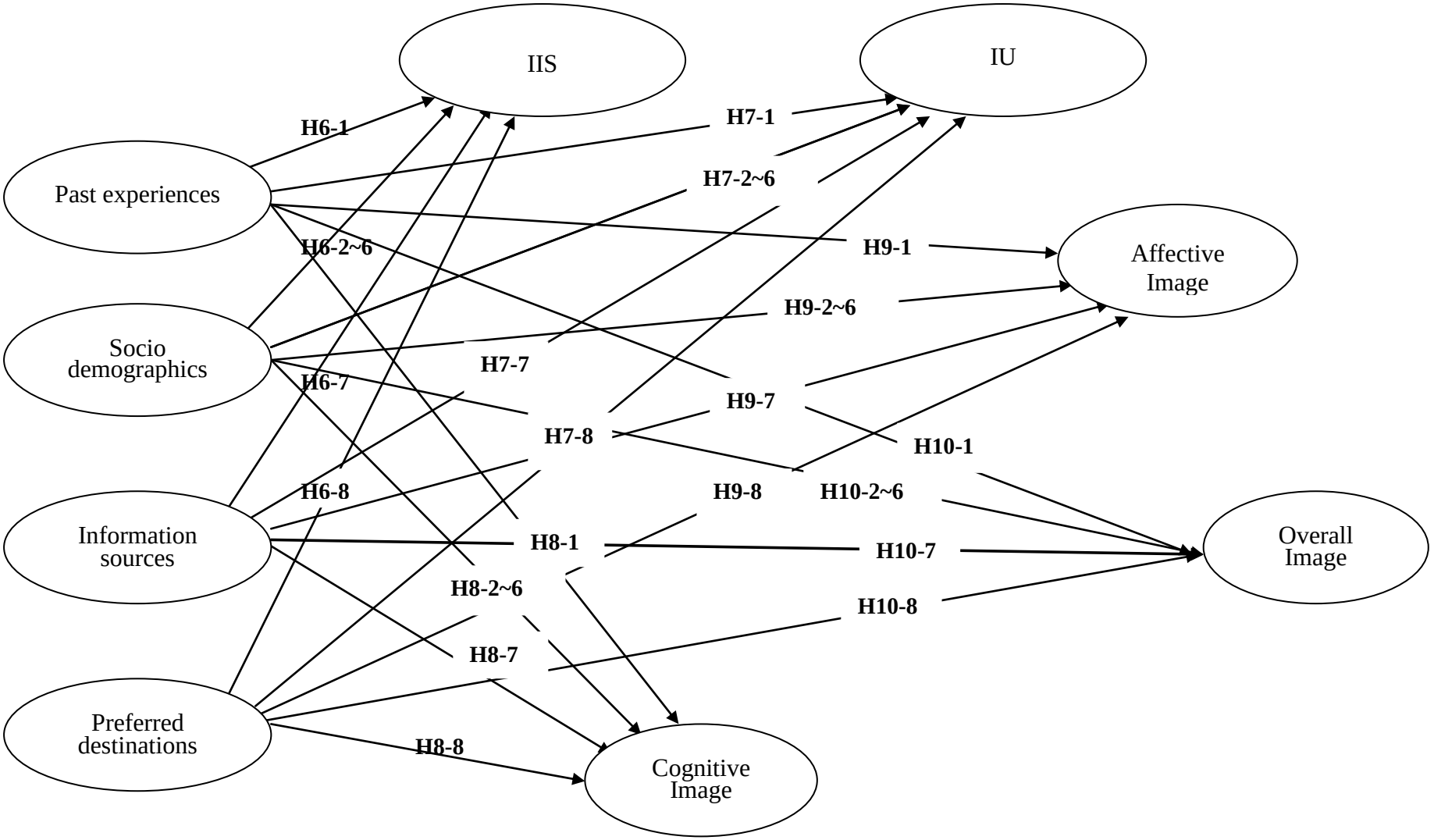


Figure 3.7 Research model for H6~H10

The interrelationships among the constructs are examined via the following propositions: 1) push and pull motivations have a direct effect on both internet sources and image constructs, 2) internet sources have a direct effect on image constructs, and 3) personal factors, such as past experiences, socio demographics, information sources and preferred destinations have a direct effect on both internet sources and image constructs. According to these three concepts of assumption, a total of 10 hypotheses are proposed based on research purpose and questions. Table3.11 shows the summary of 10 hypotheses for the study.

H1: Travel motivations significantly influence internet information sources.

H2: Travel motivations significantly influence internet usage.

H3: Travel motivations and internet sources significantly influence cognitive image.

H4: Travel motivations of Korean tourists, internet sources and cognitive image significantly influence affective image.

H5: Travel motivations of Korean tourists, internet sources, cognitive image and affective image influence overall image.

H6: Personal factors significantly influence internet information sources.

H7: Personal factors significantly influence internet usages.

H8: Personal factors significantly influence cognitive image.

H9: Personal factors significantly influence affective image.

H10: Personal factors significantly influence overall image.

Table 3.11 Summary of proposed 10 hypotheses

Hypotheses		
Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Interrelationships
H1: Travel motivations significantly influence internet information sources.		**Motivational factors & Internet information sources (IIS)**
H1-1: Push motivations significantly influence internet information sources.	SEM	Push motivation & IIS
H1-2: Pull motivations significantly influence internet information sources.	SEM	Pull motivation & IIS
H2: Travel motivations significantly influence internet usage.		**Motivational factors & Internet usages (IU)**
H2-1: Push motivations significantly influence internet usage.	SEM	Push motivation & IU
H2-2: Pull motivations significantly influence internet usage.	SEM	Pull motivation & IU
H3: Travel motivations and internet sources significantly influence cognitive image.		**Motivational factors, Internet sources & Cognitive Image**
H3-1: Push motivations significantly influence cognitive image.	SEM	Push motivation & Cognitive image
H3-2: Pull motivations significantly influence cognitive image.	SEM	Pull motivation & Cognitive image
H3-3: Internet information sources significantly influence cognitive image.	SEM	IIS & Cognitive image
H3-4: Internet usages significantly influence cognitive image.	SEM	IU & Cognitive image
H4: Travel motivations of Korean tourists, internet sources and cognitive image significantly influence affective image.		**Motivational factors, Internet sources, Cognitive image & Affective Image**
H4-1: Push motivations significantly influence affective image.	SEM	Push motivation & Affective image

H4-2: Pull motivations significantly influence affective image.	SEM	Pull motivation & Affective image
H4-3: Internet information sources significantly influence affective image.	SEM	IIS & Affective image
H4-4: Internet usage significantly influences affective image.	SEM	IU & Affective image
H4-5: Cognitive image significantly influences affective image.	SEM	Cognitive image & Affective image
H5: Travel motivations of Korean tourists, internet sources, cognitive image and affective image influence overall image.		**Motivational factors, Internet sources, Cognitive image, Affective Image & Overall Image**
H5-1: Push motivations significantly influence overall image.	SEM	Push motivation & Overall image
H5-2: Pull motivations significantly influence overall image.	SEM	Pull motivation & Overall image
H5-3: Internet information sources significantly influence overall image.	SEM	IIS & Overall image
H5-4: Internet usage significantly influences overall image.	SEM	IU & Overall image
H5-5: Cognitive image significantly influences overall image.	SEM	Cognitive image & Overall image
H5-6: Affective image significantly influences overall image	SEM	Affective image & Overall image
H6: Personal factors significantly influence internet information sources.		**Personal factors & Internet information sources (IIS)**
H6-1: Past experiences significantly influence internet information sources.	T-test	Past experiences & IIS
H6-2: Gender significantly influences internet information sources.	T-test	Gender & IIS
H6-3: Age significantly influences internet information sources.	ANOVA	Age & IIS
H6-4: Occupation significantly influences internet information sources.	ANOVA	Occupation & IIS
H6-5: Level of education significantly influences internet information sources.	ANOVA	Level of education & IIS

H6-6: Level of income significantly influences internet information sources.	ANOVA	Level of income & IIS
H6-7: Information Sources significantly influence internet information sources.	Cross-tab	Information Sources & IIS
H6-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence internet information sources.	Cross-tab	Preferred destinations & IIS
H7: Personal factors significantly influence internet usage.		**Personal factors & Internet usages (IU)**
H7-1: Past experiences significantly influence internet usage.	T-test	Past experiences & IU
H7-2: Gender significantly influences internet usage.	T-test	Gender & IU
H7-3: Age significantly influences internet usage.	ANOVA	Age & IU
H7-4: Occupation significantly influences internet usage.	ANOVA	Occupation & IU
H7-5: Level of education significantly influences internet usage.	ANOVA	Level of education & IU
H7-6: Level of income significantly influences internet usage.	ANOVA	Level of income & IU
H7-7: Information Sources significantly influence internet usage.	Cross-tab	Information Sources &IU
H7-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence internet usage.	Cross-tab	Preferred destinations & IU
H8: Personal factors significantly influence cognitive image.		**Personal factors & Cognitive Image**
H8-1: Past experiences significantly influence cognitive image.	T-test	Past experiences & Cognitive image
H8-2: Gender significantly influences cognitive image.	T-test	Gender & Cognitive image
H8-3: Age significantly influences cognitive image.	ANOVA	Age & Cognitive image
H8-4: Occupation significantly influences cognitive image.	ANOVA	Occupation & Cognitive image

H8-5: Level of education significantly influences cognitive image.	ANOVA	Level of education & Cognitive image
H8-6: Level of income significantly influences cognitive image.	ANOVA	Level of income & Cognitive image
H8-7: Information Sources significantly influence cognitive image.	Cross-tab	Information Sources & Cognitive image
H8-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence cognitive image.	Cross-tab	Preferred destinations & Cognitive image
H9: Personal factors significantly influence affective image.		**Personal factors & Affective Image**
H9-1: Past experiences significantly influence affective image.	T-test	Past experiences & Affective image
H9-2: Gender significantly influences affective image.	T-test	Gender & Affective image
H9-3: Age significantly influences affective image.	ANOVA	Age & Affective image
H9-4: Occupation significantly influences affective image.	ANOVA	Occupation & Affective image
H9-5: Level of education significantly influences affective image.	ANOVA	Level of education & Affective image
H9-6: Level of income significantly influences affective image.	ANOVA	Level of income & Affective image
H9-7: Information Sources significantly influence affective image.	Cross-tab	Information Sources & Affective image
H9-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence affective image.	Cross-tab	Preferred destinations & Affective
H10: Personal factors significantly influence overall image.		**Personal factors & Overall Image**
H10-1: Past experiences significantly influence overall image.	T-test	Past experiences & Overall image
H10-2: Gender significantly influences overall image.	T-test	Gender & Overall image
H10-3: Age significantly influences overall image.	ANOVA	Age & Overall image

H10-4: Occupation significantly influences overall image.	ANOVA	Occupation & Overall image
H10-5: Level of education significantly influences overall image.	ANOVA	Level of education & Overall image
H10-6: Level of income significantly influences overall image.	ANOVA	Level of income & Overall image
H10-7: Information Sources significantly influence overall image.	Cross-tab	Information Sources & Overall image
H10-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence overall image.	Cross-tab	Preferred destinations & Overall image

3.4.2. Procedure

This section addresses overall procedure regarding the quantitative phase. The primary aim of the quantitative phase is to develop an in-depth understanding of Australia's destination image by Korean tourists. In order to scrutinise the research model for the present study, four main variables, such as motivational factors (i.e., push and pull motivations), personal factors (i.e., past experiences, socio-demographics, information sources and preferred destinations), internet sources (i.e., internet information sources and internet usage) and image constructs (i.e., cognitive, affective and overall image) are employed. These variables were extracted after a thorough review of the relevant literature.

The variables were modified to suit the research purpose and questions and target population (Korean package and independent tourists travelling Australia) reflecting the results of qualitative interviews, which generate items for survey instruments. Expert panel opinions were consulted to develop a valid instrument for data collection. Further, these valuable opinions by an expert panel provided the researcher with updated information and a deep understanding of current trends of Australia's travel market. Through these opinions, the specific research problems in the questions were identified. During this process, five panels exchange their own opinions to revise the contents of questionnaire. The modified questionnaire was translated into Korean version by adopting a back-to-back translation technique. Before going on to the data collection, a quantitative pilot test was conducted in the target population to test the reliability and validity of the instrument. The purpose of the quantitative pilot study prior to the main study was to ensure that there was no ambiguity and inaccuracy in the questionnaire that was prepared, and that there were no problems with the wording and measurement (Sekaran 2003).

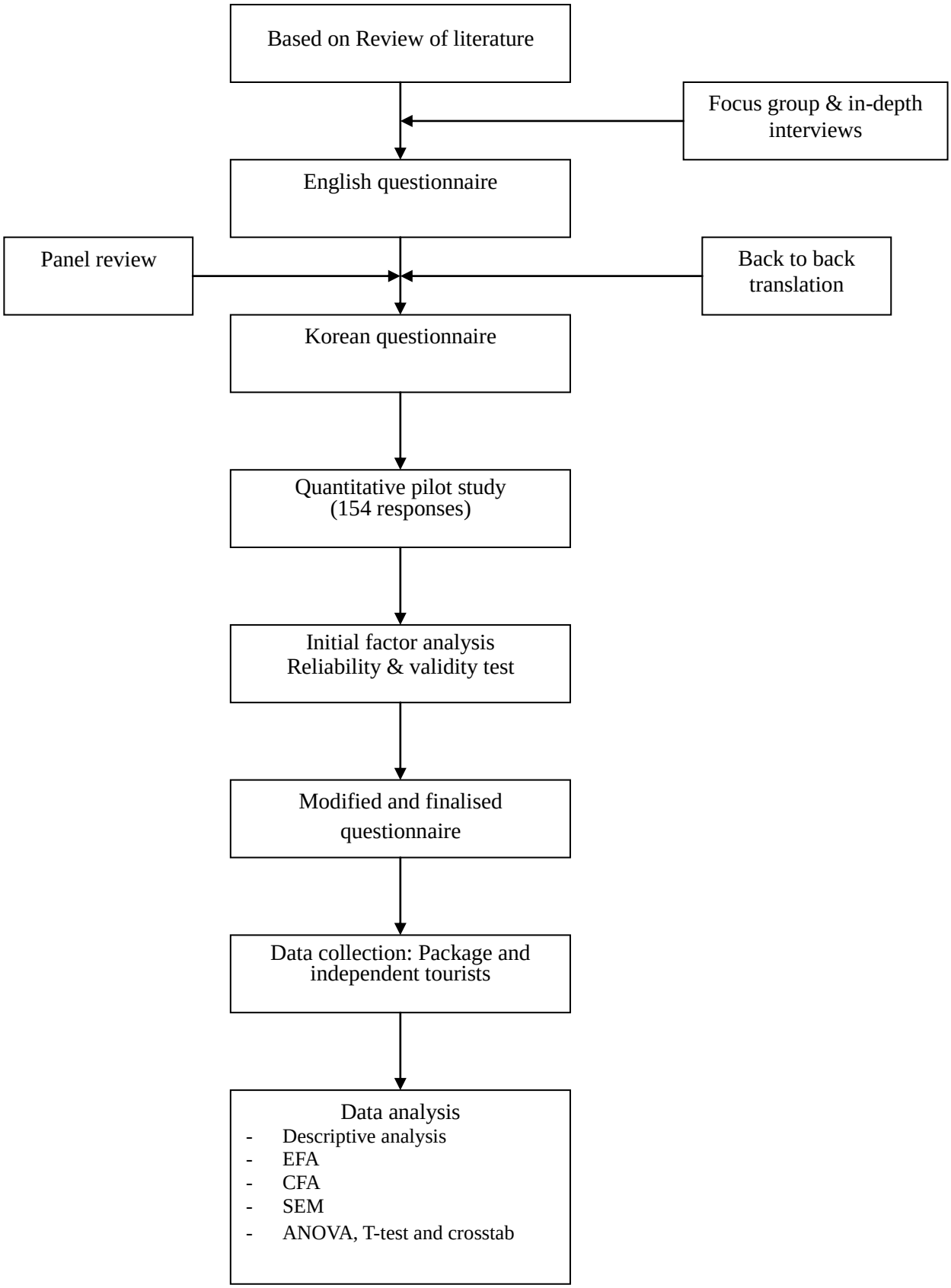


Figure 3.8 Research procedure

With 154 respondents in the quantitative pilot study, initial factor analysis, reliability and validity test were conducted on the results to ensure the quality of the questionnaire. After modifying and finalising questionnaire for the quantitative main study based on the quantitative pilot study, the researcher conducted a main survey in In-cheon international airport in Korea. Finally, a total of 1,215 respondents were collected and used for main data analysis. The data collected in Korea were analysed with SPSS (version 18.0) and AMOS (version 17.0) statistical programs. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used for item reduction and to identify the dimensionality of the important research concepts. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the goodness of fit of each measurement model and consolidate the identified latent variables in each concept. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the hypothesised relationship of latent variables (H1–H5) and the overall goodness of fit of the proposed conceptual model. Finally, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), t-test and cross-tab were used to investigate the relationships between personal factors and internet sources and image constructs (H6–H10). Figure 3.8 shows the whole research procedure for the quantitative phase.

3.4.3. Target population

The target population for the present study consists of South Koreans who met the following criteria in 2009: 1) they should be adults (over 18 years old); 2) they are about to travel to Australia; 3) they were using package tour programs provided by Korean travel agencies or they were independent tourists to Australia.

KNTO (2009) defined package tourists as tourists who purchase group package products that are organized by travel agencies. There are also two types of package travel in Korea: all-inclusive packages and basic packages. An all-inclusive package travel is where travel agencies organise all itineraries and travel components, while a basic package travel is when tourists can purchase air tickets and accommodation as a package; however, itineraries have to be prepared by the tourists themselves. During the data collection process, it is difficult to distinguish between basic package tourists and independent tourists because there are no tour guides for basic packages, and such tourists have to organise their itineraries including boarding time. Thus, the present study confines package tourists as tourists who purchase all-inclusive travel packages by travel agencies. KNTO (2009) defined independent tourists as tourists who prepare and organise all procedures by themselves. Additionally, backpackers

were categorised as independent tourists (O'Reilly 2006; Scheyvens 2002). In Korea, the most frequent and popular type of outbound travel is independent tours (57.2%) followed by inclusive package tours (42.8%).

3.4.4 Questionnaire development

Questionnaires in quantitative research phase have been widely used to collect specific information in various research fields (Veal 1997). Since questionnaires are self-filled data instrument as a part of participating in one of research processes (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003), they are usually considered as one of the most major components in quantitative methods and have advantages and disadvantages as outlined in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaire

Advantages of questionnaire	Disadvantages of questionnaire
• Can administer to probability samples • Can keep anonymous of respondents • Moderate high level of validity and reliability for well structured questionnaire • Easy data analysis for close-ended questionnaire • Good for measuring variables and eliciting findings	• Need validation • Should be kept short • May have missing data • Open-ended items possibly have vague meanings • Data analysis is time consuming for open-ended items • Difficult to reflect in-depth opinions of respondents

Source: Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003

Also, there are advantages and disadvantages specific to using questionnaires that are self-administered. Firstly, the advantage is that the respondents can complete the questionnaires at their own pace and possibly be more willing and open to respond honestly and candidly. Concurrently, a large number of questionnaires can be distributed quickly and inexpensively (Alreck & Settle 1995). A disadvantage is that the response rates may be low if the researcher is not present or a suitable time is not arranged for completing questionnaires. Additionally, as some respondents answer insecurely and unfaithfully, a screening process is required before data analysis. In spite of these disadvantages, self-administered questionnaires are a first-rate way to question respondents and obtain information regarding the research purpose (Alreck & Settle 2004).

Although the use of questionnaire has some disadvantages in quantitative methods, the present study utilised structured and self-administered questionnaires to examine the proposed structural model and hypotheses regarding destination image by Korean package and independent tourists. In order to maximise the advantages and minimise the disadvantages of questionnaire and to have valid and reliable data, the present study follows and amends the key principles for developing questionnaires suggested by Johnson and Christensen (2004) as shown in Table 3.13. According to their suggestions, the researcher considered several essential principles of questionnaire format to allocate respondents to answer the questions easily, reasonably and swiftly in developing a questionnaire. These principles allowed the researcher to have cooperation with respondents and improve the response rate.

Table 3.13 The key points in developing questionnaires

- Develop questionnaire to match research purpose and objectives
- Develop questionnaire reflecting pilot study findings
- Develop questionnaire which is easy for respondents to understand
- Determine whether an open-ended or close-ended question depending on research purpose
- Use clear and accurate terms which are used in the questionnaire
- Use common and natural terms
- Avoid double-meaning questions and double negative terms
- Use multiple items to measure abstract constructs
- Consider the different types of response categories available for close-ended questions

Source: Johnson & Christensen (2004, p.166)

Also, to minimise the disadvantages of using (self-administrated) questionnaire, the researcher collected data directly and was always present during data collection process. More importantly, the questionnaire utilised for the present study was checked by panel review process before the data collection process.

To measure the constructs identified, an instrument that contained 11 sections with a total of 101 questions was used. In sections A through C, a summary of the measurement scales used is in Table 3.14. To measure push and pull motivations, internet information sources, internet usage, cognitive image, affective image and overall image, the present study utilised ‘the

summated rating method, with a seven-point Likert Scale (ranging from 1=strongly disagree, highly not preferable and not favourable at all to 7= strongly agree, highly preferable and favourable). The scale consists of a set of items of disagreement/agreement in relation to a particular attitudinal element to which respondents were asked to respond (Zikmund 2003). In section D, a respondent answered 'the number of visits to Australia'. In sections E, F and G, the present study used nominal scales to give convenience of respondents. There are five socio-demographic questions were: gender, age, occupation, level of education and level of income.

Table 3.14 Main constructs of self-administered questionnaires

Section	Constructs	Scale employed	Number of questions
A-1	Push motivations	7 point Likert scale	22
A-2	Pull motivations	7 point Likert scale	24
B-1	Internet information sources	7 point Likert scale	8
B-2	Internet usage	7 point Likert scale	12
C-1	Cognitive image	7 point Likert scale	18
C-2	Affective image	7 point Likert scale	4
C-3	Overall image	7 point Likert scale	1
D	Past experiences	Ratio scale	1
E	Information sources (except internet sources)	Nominal scale	5
F	Preferred destinations	Nominal scale	1
G	Socio-demographics	Nominal scale	5

The selection of measurement items is based on the review of literature for each constructs. During the literature review, the questionnaire items used in previous studies are recorded specifically and grouped by the researcher according to the constructs. Table 3.15 lists 'the key references' for scale development.

Table 3.15 Key references for scale development

Constructs	Key references
A: Travel Motivations	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Baloglu &Mangaloglu (2001), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Um & Crompton (1990), Yoon & Uysal (2005)
B: Internet information sources	Cho, Wang & Fesenmaier (2002), Peterson & Merino (2003), Rao (2007)
B: Internet Usage	Bosscher & Smit (1998), Cho (2002), Ram & Jung (1989), Sherer, Maddux, Mercandate, Dunn, Jacob & Rogers (1982)
C: Cognitive Image	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Gartner (1993), Stern & Krakover (1993), Walmsley & Jenkins (1993)
C: Affective Image	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Gartner (1993), Pike & Ryan (2004), Russel (1980), Russel & Snodgrass (1987), Stern & Krakover (1993), Walmsley & Jenkins (1993)
C: Overall Image	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Gartner (1993)
D: Past Experiences	Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Fodness & Murray (1999), Mazursky (1989)
E: Information sources	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Gitelson & Crompton (1983), Gursoy & Chen (2000), Stern & Krakover (2003)
F: Preferred destinations	Not applicable
G: Socio-demographics	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Friedmann & Lessig (1986), Holloway & Plant (1992), Husbands (1989), Woodside & Lysonski (1989)

3.4.5 Quantitative pilot study

A quantitative pilot study was conducted before commence of the main quantitative study in order to examine the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. It is important to pre-examine the questionnaire on a representative sample one or more times before administering it in the research. It provides the chance to identify potential difficulties with the questionnaire, including ambiguities, biases, missing attributes and coding problems (Zikmund 2003).

3.4.5.1. Data collection

The quantitative pilot study, which used the initial questionnaire, was conducted in July and August 2009 with Korean residents in Adelaide. Adelaide was selected because it is where the researcher lives and there are around 5,000 Korean people living there. Hence, it is possible to collect pilot data cost-effectively and allow quick assessment of the extent to which respondents' perceptions and views were relatively consistent.

The determinant of the sample size in the pilot study was the maximum number of items in one construct. According to the rule of thumb in the exploratory factor analysis, the sample size should be more than five times the number of items (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham 2005). As pull motivation has 24 items, the minimum sample size for pilot study should be 120. This will ensure the accuracy of the quantitative study. Also, as it was intended that the main study would have approximately 1000 respondents and so a sample size of 120 would be a little more than the five to ten percent of the sample size for the main study that is recognised as sufficient sample size for a pilot study (Zikmund 2003).

As the researcher is a committee member in KAFA (Korean and Australian Friendship Association), 100 initial questionnaires were distributed to KAFA members in the regular meeting on July 2009. Before the meeting, the researcher has permission regarding collecting data from the chairman of KAFA, Mr. Jung. In June 2009, the researcher sent emails to KAFA members to obtain their permission. During the meeting, the researcher explained the purpose of quantitative pilot study and how to answer of the questionnaire. The length of explanation is approximately 15 minutes and the average time to fill the questionnaire is 10 minutes. Among 100 initial questionnaires, the researcher collected 91 samples using KAFA

meeting and after filtering process, 79 responses were used for the quantitative pilot study. As target sample size is in excess of 120, the researcher collected Korean residents' contact detail under recommendation of acquaintances. In August 2009, the researcher visited potential respondents individually and collected data successfully. Finally, an additional 90 responses were collected in individual data collection. Among them, 75 responses are usable. Table 3.16 shows a total number of responses for the quantitative pilot study.

Table 3.16 Number of responses for the quantitative pilot study

Target population	Distributed	Collected	Usable responses
KAFA members	100	91 (91%)	79 (79%)
Through individual data collection	90	90 (100%)	75 (83%)
Total	190	181 (95.2%)	154 (81%)

3.4.5.2 Initial factor analysis and reliability test

The results of the pilot testing were used for the adjustment of the questionnaire design, wording, and measurement scales in order to ensure the provision of valid information. For quantitative pilot study, initial factor analysis was employed, because this analytical method is a dominant tool in elucidating the main determiners and associated variables of a concept. It is ideal where data are complex and it is uncertain what the most important variables in the field are (Kline 2005).

Using SPSS 18.0, six constructs (i.e., push motivations, pull motivations, internet information sources, internet sources, cognitive image and affective image) were tested with initial factor analysis using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and reliability test using Cronbach's alpha. Firstly, initial factor analysis was conducted to extract underlying constructs. A principal component method was employed with varimax rotation. Factors with an eigenvalue higher than 1.0 were selected and items with all factor loadings lower than .40 and on two more factors were deleted. After deleting factors as stated above, a new factor analysis with the remaining items was run.

Secondly, 'reliability' of pilot data was tested using Cronbach's alpha. This method is a commonly used statistical technique that is able to reflect the degree to which factor items

belong together and it reflects the internal consistency of the instrument (Kline 2005). Neuman (2003) suggested that a Cronbach's alpha greater than or equal to .50 are considered acceptable and is a good indication of construct reliability. The more commonly accepted cut-off point of the alpha coefficient is .70 (Hair et al. 2005). A minimum value of .60 is considered acceptable for exploratory research (Hair et al. 2005). Reliability analysis was conducted on six factors from the initial factor analysis.

3.4.6 Final instrument

The purpose of the quantitative pilot study is to check the reliability and validity of the survey instrument. Based on the result of the pilot study, the researcher can further amend the questionnaire before conducting the main data collection. Table 3.17 shows the details of the research instrument before and after revision.

Table 3.17 The details of the research instrument before and after revision

Section	Constructs	Initial number of items	Revised number of items
A-1	Push motivations	22	19
A-2	Pull motivations	24	20
B-1	Internet information sources	8	8
B-2	Internet usage	12	12
C-1	Cognitive image	18	17
C-2	Affective image	4	4
C-3	Overall image	1	1
D	Past experiences	1	1
E	Information sources (except internet sources)	5	5
F	Preferred destinations	1	1
G	Socio-demographics	5	5
Total		101	93

Through the quantitative pilot study, a total of eight items were removed from the initial questionnaire (three items from push motivation, four items from pull motivation and one item from cognitive image). Among eight items, two items in push motivation were split into two factors and one item in push motivation showed lower than .40 in the factor loading score, while three items in pull motivation were split into more than two factors and also two items in push motivation were ambiguous for the factor. In cognitive image, one item was deleted because the factor score was ambiguous for the factor (factor loading score was lower than .30). Therefore, a total of 93 items were used for the final survey instrument.

Although section G (socio-demographics) has same number of items, there are some revisions according to the results. Initially, a question of 'level of occupation' has nine categories; however, 'academic profession' and 'medical practitioner' were combined as 'specialised employee' after alteration. So, eight categories were used in the final survey instrument. Additionally, a question of 'level of education' has initially eight categories; however, category of 'over graduate school' was divided into 'holding master degree' and 'holding Ph.D.' categories; consequently, a question of 'level of education' has nine categories. After the questionnaire was finalised, a revised questionnaire for survey instrument was conducted in In-cheon international airport.

3.4.7 Quantitative main study

The quantitative pilot study provides a guideline to the main study. According to the results of this, subsequent modifications to the survey instrument were assessed.

3.4.7.1. Ethical considerations

The ethics consideration is important because the privacy of respondents must be considered in the research. If respondents do not recognise the intention of the survey and their personal data are used for other than the research purpose, it is unethical (Zikmund 2003). Every researcher must follow ethical rules: 1) participation should be voluntary, 2) research should protect the anonymity and confidentiality of research subjects and 3) research should never cause injury to respondents (Neuman 2003). Therefore, the present study guaranteed that confidentiality of the respondent was clearly mentioned on the cover letter of the questionnaire and strictly obeyed without invasion of respondents' privacy. Additionally, in

the information sheet, as there were no contact details, it ensures anonymous. Regarding this, a second ethics protocol submission for the quantitative survey instrument was made to the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee in June 2009 and approved in July 2009. Participation in the survey of the present study was voluntary and the information collected during the study has been kept confidential. A copy of the information sheet provided to respondents is provided in Appendix 3.

3.4.7.2 Data collection

Before collecting data in Korea from September to October 2009, the researcher contacted with the five major Korean travel agencies: 1) H.N travel agency, 2) M travel agency, 3) L travel agency, 4) J travel agency and 5) H.J travel agency in June 2009 to support data collection of package tourists. Concurrently, as the researcher has six years teaching experience as a lecturer in Korea, the researcher contacted 10 former students in Korea to assist data collection for independent tourists. To collect package data, the researcher had a final permission to assist from three travel agencies: 1) H.N travel agency, 2) M travel agency and 3) L travel agency. In addition, six former students confirmed to assist data collection for independent tourists. Finally, the researcher had been supported by three travel agencies for collecting package data and six former students for collecting independent data.

In collecting package data, the main survey was conducted at the In-cheon international airport in Korea with guidance and instruction by tour guides from three travel agencies. The sample was chosen from international tourists chosen from South Korean residents who have travelled to Australia. Concurrently, many respondents were the customers of three major Korean travel agencies and these five travel agencies have provided package tours from Korea to Australia. These package programs have six destinations: Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane (including Gold Coast), Canberra, Cairns and Perth. They mainly consist of seven travel routes: 1) Sydney, 2) Sydney-Brisbane, 3) Sydney-Melbourne-Brisbane, 4) Sydney-Canberra, 5) Sydney-Canberra-Melbourne, 6) Brisbane-Cairns and 7) Perth. During the data collection process, the researcher distributed questionnaires to 34 package travel parties, because it is mostly made up of around 30 to 40 tourists in each travel party. With each tour guide's control, the researcher distributed 1,000 questionnaires and collected 684 usable responses (68.4%). Before distributing the questionnaire, the researcher explained the

purpose and the necessity of the research and it took approximately 15 minutes as the average length of filling the questionnaire.

In collecting data for independent tourists, the researcher had to approach independent tourists individually. Before approaching them individually, the researcher educated six assistants regarding how to keep courteousness and how to improve response rate. Even though the researcher and assistants approached independent tourists carefully, many tourists declined to respond to the questionnaire. So it was necessary to provide a small present after filling the questionnaire. More specifically, they were usually busy checking in their luggage and so on, so the researcher and assistants helped their check-in process sometimes. The researcher and assistants distributed 1,000 questionnaires and collected 531 usable responses (53.1%).

The final sample size was 1,215. Originally, the researcher received 1,788 (89.4%) responses, but usable responses were 1,215 (60.75%). During the data collection process, researchers tried to meet three criteria mentioned in Section 3.4.3. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Hair et al. (2005) mentioned that the appropriate sample size in SEM is that a number of respondents of over 300 are frequently accepted. In addition, other researchers recommend that samples should be comprised of at least 400 (Pedhazur 1997). Hair et al. (1998) suggested that a sample size between 200 and 400 is usually recommended and accepted as the critical sample size. Although Pedhazur (1997) suggested the use of statistical power analysis in determining sample size, Pedhazur (1997) noted that the use of a large sample (approximately 500) is crucial when a number of predictors are to be selected from a large pool of predictors. So the number of responses in this study is reasonable.

3.4.7.3 Data analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis and reliability test

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and reliability analysis were conducted to support the internal consistency of each construct using the principal component analysis with varimax rotation on each of the instrument scales to identify the underlying dimensional structure, as well as to highlight individual questions that lack appropriate validity (Hair et al. 2006). This is usually measured by internal consistency reliability that indicates the homogeneity of items comprising a measurement scale. As suggested by Hair et al. (2006), the number of factors to

be extracted was based on eigenvalues, the percentage of variance explained, the item communalities and the scree test. Factors with eigenvalues greater than or equal to 1.0 were considered to be significant.

Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) were also used to determine whether sufficient correlations existed among the variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity should be statistically significant (sig. < .05), and the KMO should have an index between 0 and 1, with an index closer to 1 signifying that each variable is perfectly predicted without error by the other variables.

Reliability may be defined as the consistency of measurement; for example, a test remains resistant to differing situations or procedures of testing (Hair et al. 2005). Scores for an attribute need to be internally consistent (they do not change if you give the measure again to the same people). To ensure internal consistency was being maintained, Cronbach's alpha was employed to assess each of the three individual scales. Cronbach's alpha is a reliability test that expresses the reliability of a scale coefficient and determines the internal consistency of a scale (Hair et al. 2005; Sekeran 2000). Sekeran (2000) suggested that Cronbach's alpha coefficients of less than 0.6 indicate poor internal consistency of a scale, whereas .70 indicates acceptable internal consistency, whilst .80 and above indicates good internal consistency. If the scale has a coefficient alpha below .60, the scale should be examined for any sources of measurement errors, such as inadequate sampling of items, administration errors, situational factors, sample characteristics, number of items, and theoretical errors in developing a measurement scale.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Once the constructs were generated by EFA, the next step is to develop and test a measurement model for the constructs hypothesised to be measured by the instrument employed in this study (Byrne 2001). By using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the measurement model could be evaluated. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the measurement model by specifying the posited relationships of the observed variables to the latent variables, with all latent variables allowed to be inter-correlated freely. Prior to testing the full measurement models, a CFA of each construct in the model will be analysed separately. The measurement model was then modified based on the CFA results.

The overall model fit was assessed by using model fit indices. Recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1996), observed variables with a standardized loading below 0.3 were considered unacceptable and deleted from further analysis. The model was evaluated and revised until a theoretically meaningful as well as statistically acceptable model was achieved. The model fit of both measurement model and structural model was assessed with the multiple fit indices. Two types of indices were adopted by the study: absolute fit indices (chi-square, RMSEA, GFI and AGFI) and (NFI and CFI). Absolute fit indices were used to directly evaluate how well the priori theoretical model fits the sample data. Incremental fit indices assessed the proportionate fit by comparing a target model with a more restricted nested baseline model (Joreskog & Sorbom 1996).

Specifically, chi-square statistics indicates that the model fits the data (Joreskog & Sorbom 1996). However, chi-square statistics is always inflated with a large sample size or the departure from normal distribution. It is highly unlikely to obtain a non-significant test statistic with large sample size (Joreskog & Sorbom 1996). Although it has been widely used, it is insufficient to assess model fit by using the Chi-square statistic alone. Some alternative or complementary indices had been proposed to judge the model fit. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is based on a ratio of the sum of the squared discrepancies to the observed variances. It is an indicator of the relevant amount of variances and covariance accounted for by the model and thus shows how closely the model comes to perfectly reproducing the observed covariance matrix. The adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) adjusts the GFI for degrees of freedom in the model. Both indices range from 0 to 1, with values exceeding 0.9 indicating a good fit to the data (Kelloway 1998). GFI is preferred by researchers since its interpretation is straightforward and it is analogous to R^2 commonly used to summarise results of multiple regression analyses. The root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) is another fit index provided by AMOS. It is based on the analysis of residual, with the smaller values indicating a better fit to the data (Kelloway 1998). The RMSEA shows 'how well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available' (Joreskog & Sorbom 1996). It additionally compensates for sample size, with low values indicating a good fit. As suggested by Steiger (1990) who invented the RMSEA index, RMSEA values below 0.10 indicate a good fit to the data and values below 0.05 a very good fit to the data. An outstanding fit to the data is

obtained when the RMSEA value is below 0.01, which is very rare according to Steiger (2007).

The CFI indexes the relative reduction in lack of fit as estimated by the non-central *x* 2 distribution of a target model versus a baseline model (Steiger 2007). The CFI value varies between 0 and 1, with values exceeding 0.90 indicating a good fit to the data. Compared to the other three indices, CFI is somewhat preferable because its values fall within the familiar normed range while model over-fitting and sampling error can lead to other type-3 indices greater than 1. The present study used chi-square statistics, GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI and RMSEA as the model's goodness of fit.

Table 3.18 Summary of Different Fit Indices

Fit Indices	Statistical and non-statistical Indices	Acceptable Range
Absolute fit indices	Chi-square statistic (Likelihood ration Chi-square to the degree of freedom)	Acceptable level between 0.05 to 0.10 or 0.20. A large Chi-square → a poor fit, a small value → a good fit
	Goodness-of-fit (GFI)	Range from 0 (poor fit) to 1.0 (perfect fit). Higher values →a better fit Minimum level 0.90
	AGFI (adjusted goodness-of-fit index)	Value between 0 and 1. Recommended level is 0.90.
	RMSEA (Root-mean-square error of approximation)	Acceptable level → 0.05 ~ 0.08
Incremental fit indices	Normed fit index(NFI)	Minimum level 0.90
	Comparative fit index (CFI)	Minimum level 0.90

Structural Equation Modelling

The method selected to discuss the research purpose is structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM allows for the testing of multiple equations with multiple dependent variables. This statistical method provides parameter values (i.e., path coefficients) for each of the research hypotheses and determines their respective significance. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommend a two-step approach for assessing the structural model. The first step involves testing the validity and model fit of each of the measurement models. Once an acceptable model fit is accomplished for each of the measurement models, a full structural model can be developed and tested. SEM is designed to evaluate how well a proposed conceptual model that contains observed variables and hypothetical constructs explains or fits the collected data (Bollen 1990; Yoon, Bursoy, & Chen 2001). It also provides the ability to measure or specify the causal relationships among sets of unobserved (latent) variables, while describing the amount of un-explained variance (Davies, Goode, Mazanec, & Moutinho 1999). The directions of the relationship between different variables have been supported by the previous literature. Therefore, the purpose of using SEM in this study is to test hypotheses and consolidate the conceptual model.

For the purpose of SEM, no single criterion indicates the necessary sample size but a larger sample is desired (Hair et al. 2005). SEM usually requires large sample sizes although it is difficult to determine how large a sample is needed. The model complexity and the estimation methods are two factors affecting sample size requirements. More complex models require larger samples for the results to be stable because they contain more parameters to be estimated. Byrne (2001) suggested that four factors that need to be considered while deciding the sample size for SEM: 1) model misspecification, 2) model size, 3) departures from normality, and 4) estimation procedure (Hair et al. 2006). Kline (2005) recommended that a desirable ratio of the number of cases to the number of free parameters is 20:1. However, for most empirical research, it is very difficult to achieve this criterion. Hair et al. (2006) suggested that it is more typical to have a minimum ratio of at least five respondents for each estimated parameter while a ratio of 10 respondents per parameter is considered most appropriate. The minimal sample size could be calculated with the formula K (K+l)/2 where k denoted the number of items (Byrne 1998). Since the largest subscale of this study contained 20 items, a sample of 210 was the minimal sample size for this study. However, considering the response rate and accuracy of the data, a total of 2,000

questionnaires were distributed and usable sample was 1,215. A total of 1,215 samples were divided into two samples, such as package and independent tourists. The present study analysed two kinds of data and examined five hypotheses with SEM.

Cross-tab, T-test and ANOVA

Finally, the present study examined five hypotheses (H6~H10) with one-way ANOVA, t-test and cross-tab analysis. To examine interrelationships between past experiences/gender and internet sources and image constructs, this study employed t-test, while adopted one-way ANOVA to examine interrelationships between socio-demographics (except for gender) and internet sources and image constructs. With information sources and preferred destinations, this study used cross-tab analysis.

3.5. Chapter summary

This chapter discussed research methodology in both qualitative and quantitative methods. Also, research design employed for the present study was discussed, specifically mixed methods, which have many advantages combining the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative method to fulfil research purpose and questions. In the qualitative phase, this study conducted pilot study using focus group interviews to ensure the quality of the study before commencing main in-depth interviews. Five Korean academics were participants in the pilot study and the results of the pilot study used for improving main interview questions. This study used semi-structured in-depth interview methods for data collection and utilised the NVivo 8.0 program for data analysis. The main target population is 32 Korean travel agents in three state capital cities. As an exploratory analysis, it can generate items for inclusion for the quantitative survey instruments.

In the quantitative phase, the present study collected and analysed two sample populations, such as package and independent tourists. Before conducting the main data collection, this study conducted the pilot study to revise and adjust the questionnaire. Based on the results of the pilot study, the researcher could further extract invalid items and finally modify the questionnaire. For data collection methods, a self-administered questionnaire was used after the panel review process and the quantitative pilot study. To examine research purpose and questions, this study suggested a research model and 10 hypotheses and employed the

following data analytical methods: EFA, CFA, SEM and ANOVA (including t-test and cross-tab).

During the data collection process on the qualitative and quantitative phase, there exists intricate challenge. Specifically, the main problem was translation from Korean to English. To overcome this, the researcher requested assistance to two simultaneous interpreters who had obtained an official licence from the government. The researcher examined and amended translated documents several times and successfully completed final version.

A detailed discussion of analysis and findings is presented in the next chapter. The next chapter describes in particular the quantitative data analysis, focusing on EFA, CFA, and SEM procedures to examine H1–H5. Additionally, to examine H6–H10, ANOVA, t-test and cross-tab are discussed with two kinds of data.

Chapter 4.
Results in Qualitative Phase

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the qualitative phase as the first phase of the present study. The methodology employed for qualitative phase was interview-based exploratory qualitative approach, which involved in-depth, semi-structured interviews with Korean travel agents in Australia. This chapter is organised into five sections.

It starts by discussing research questions in the qualitative phase in order to accomplish research purpose. In the second section, the present study presents qualitative results including coding theme tree. The third section discusses key findings of general themes acknowledged from the interview data.

The chapter then continues with specific themes, such as key themes and topics, regional differences among three state capital cities (Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide) and differences between Korean package and independent tourists. The last section addresses the characteristics of internet sources influencing Australia's destination image by Korean tourists and concludes with a chapter summary.

Findings identified are intended to draw attention to significant themes relative to achieving the research questions. This chapter also explains the suitability, reliability and validity of the research process selected and the data analysis techniques used. Figure 4.1 shows the outline of this chapter.

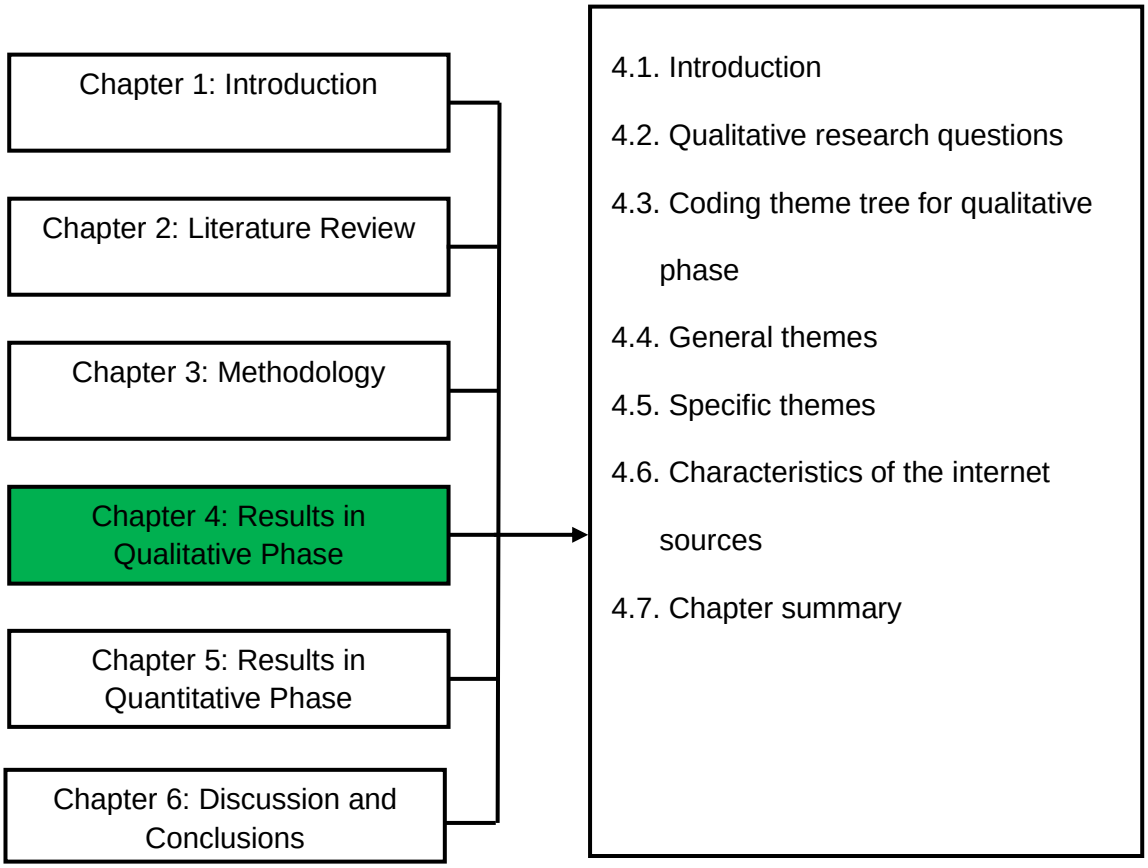


Figure 4.1 Outline of Chapter 4 within the thesis

4.2. Qualitative research questions

The present study, built on the context of destination image of Korean travel agents in Australia, aims to address the following research questions:

Qualitative research question1: What key themes and topics can be examined in the narratives of Australia's destination image by South Korean travel agents?

Qualitative research question2: What are the foremost regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia recognised by Korean travel agents?

Qualitative research question3: What do Korean travel agents think are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists with regard to Australia's destination image?

Qualitative research question4: How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

4.3. Coding theme tree for qualitative phase

In Chapter 3 (methodology chapter), the data collection stage was described, so data analysis process and results are described in this chapter. To achieve the research purpose, the qualitative pilot study was conducted with Korean academics using focus group interview methods and qualitative data for the main study was collected by in-depth interviews using semi-structured, open-ended interview questions. Based on the results of the pilot study and main study, the present study established coding theme tree using NVivo. Specifically, narratives by Korean travel agents who acted as the tourists' representatives in Australia were used as a method of identifying the views held by Korean tourists for qualitative results.

To answer research question one, the present study analysed interview data and built a coding theme tree using tree nodes. Following the procedure of analysis as stated in Chapter 3, this study identified free nodes and according to free nodes, data were categorised and coded as tree nodes, which include the narratives by the Korean travel agents regarding the structure of Australia's destination images.

With the creation of these tree nodes, topics mentioned in the interviews are classified into key themes, which indicated both the dimensions and the narrative strategies used in the construction of Australia's destination images. The results of interviews were firstly classified into 150 topics and 12 key themes were identified. At this stage, the verbatim transcripts were perused two more times. Illuminative quotations were examined and coded using 12 key themes that had been identified. A number of these quotations were selected to draw on in a following coding. The evolving topics were considered again and these 12 key themes were again found to be connected with one another and were further condensed, culminating in five decisive key themes and 47 topics to analyse data.

Figure 4.2 demonstrates the developed theme tree illustrating the relationship between data segment and research issues produced by the analyses. This theme tree was developed from the data analysis as a sophisticated description based on the previous literature (Section 2.4)

in Chapter 2. Specific themes that emerged from the data of the present study and directly related to the research issues were included in Figure 4.2.

Five key themes and 47 essential topics were identified as can be seen in Figure 4.2. Classified key themes and topics are inter-related and have relationships towards Australia's destination image by Korean tourists. The final key themes for data analysis were: internet sources, travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables and other information sources. As can be seen in Figure 4.2, these travel accounts selected for data analysis mostly touched upon numerous Australia's destination images by Korean tourists through narratives of 32 Korean travel agents in three state capital cities in Australia.

Specifically, further analyses are discussed in Section 4.5, which stated detailed key themes, regional differences and differences between package and independent tourists and section 4.6, which discussed the characteristics of internet sources.

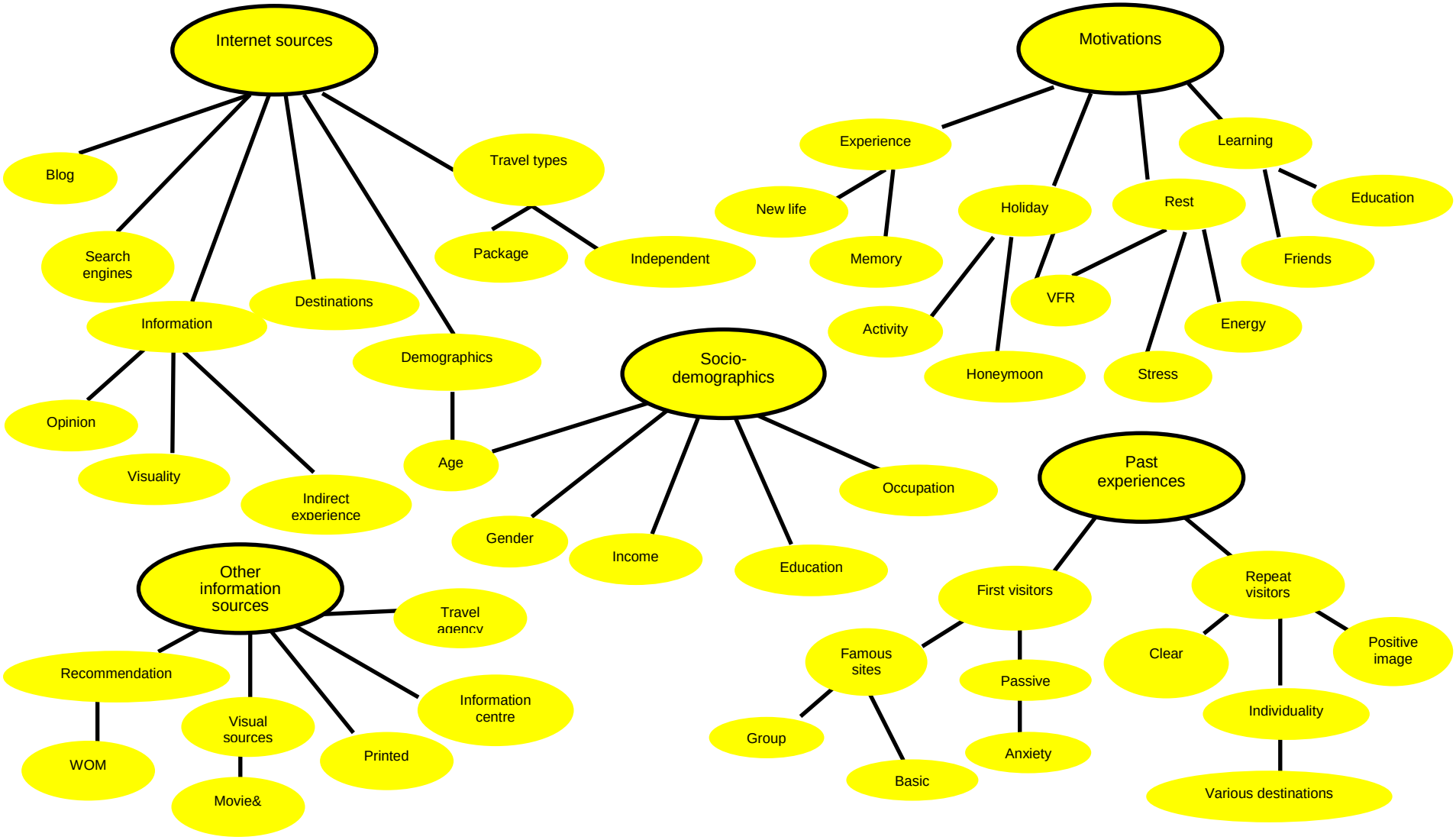


Figure 4.2 NVivo Coding Theme Tree

4.4. General Themes emerging from the data

Although not directly discussed in the coding theme tree, specified narratives of the findings were emphasised by Korean travel agents as overall destination images of Australia. As stated in Section 4.2, the first research question was: What key themes and topics can be examined in the narratives of Australia's destination image by South Korean travel agents?
Prior to identifying specific key themes, two general themes (named *overall tourism destination images in Australia* and *general feelings of Australia)* emerging from the data were identified regarding research issues.

Overall tourism destination images in Australia

In this theme, 'nature' was identified as a primary image of Australia. Some commented that nature was the first priority; others mentioned the reason of travelling to Australia is to feel of Australia's tourism resources and symbolic animals. For example, one of the agents (agent # 21) stated:

> *I really want to feel the nature of Australia, because Korea is a much smaller country than Australia. When I travel to Australia, I feel greatness of nature. In addition, most tourism destinations in Korea, they were all artificial attractions, but in Australia, they were totally different…*

Additionally, 'symbolic animals of Australia', such as Koalas and Kangaroos, were mainly discussed in this theme. Most Korean tourists prefer to have experiences with animals, which are unique and famous in Korea. Except for 'nature' and 'symbolic animals', frequently reminded images were 'composure', 'the Opera House & Harbour Bridge' and 'clean environment'. Regarding this point, agent # 2 noted:

> *One honeymooner said that we anticipated only Koalas, you know… Whenever watching TV programs regarding Australia, I really want to have pictures with Koalas. Here is Sydney. Many customers consist of package tourists who have a dream with the Opera house. In spite of lack of the budget, some young generations experienced Harbour bridge tour…*

However, the findings in the present study show important differences according to the cities and travel characteristics. Iconic attractions, like 'the Opera House & Harbour Bridge' were frequently mentioned by agents, especially in Sydney. Besides, most agents in Brisbane pointed out 'beaches' and 'activity', whereas many agents in Adelaide stated 'composure', 'clean environment' and 'quietness'. One of the agents (agent #30) in Adelaide mentioned:

> *The characteristics of Korean tourists visiting Adelaide are different from other cities. They mostly have 'visiting friends and relatives' purpose or working holiday visa holders. A few days ago, KBS broadcasted Adelaide as potential tourists' destination. In there, Adelaide was described as quiet place and a good place for study. And every place is very clean. Some of my customers always said Adelaide is very boring place compared with Sydney.*

Additionally, depending on travel characteristics between package and independent tourists, findings are also different. Most Korean tourists recognised similar images of Australia, except for 'iconic symbols' (the Opera House and Harbour Bridge in Sydney) and 'beach' and 'activities' in Brisbane as package travel destinations, whereas Korean tourists visiting Adelaide considered differently as an independent travel destination. This specific theme is also specifically discussed in 5.5.3. One of the agents (agent #22) in Brisbane stated:

> *Our customers mainly consist of younger generations compared with other cities. Some customers emphasised: I always imagine 'Gold Coast' even in Korea, because I cannot experience [these] activities in my country. I have visited Brisbane three times and will visit again as a honeymoon with my partner to enjoy activities here…*

General feelings of Australia

General feelings about Australia represent the emotion of Korean tourists regardless of travelling Australia. As general feelings are strongly related to visiting intention and motivation, general feelings are important in destination marketing to attract potential tourists. Recently, as Australia is a popular destination in Korea, various media such as TV and magazines have dealt with Australia frequently. In this general theme, the most frequent feelings of Korean tourists were 'composure' and 'nature'. One of the respondents (agent #5) mentioned:

Whenever I asked this question, generally feeling is nearly same. Because of stress in Korea's life, they selected Australia as their destinations for 'rest'. Many customers mentioned like this; Life in Korea is very stressful and busy and also I should work for my family. During the work, I cannot have any rest… So I think if I go to Australia, I can have many free times without any interruption.

Additionally, even though there were some descriptions, such as 'boring' and 'dangerous' Australia is mainly recognised as a 'safe', 'clean' and 'different' destination to Korean tourists. This seemed to be the impact of the social media, especially TV and newspapers. One of the respondents (agent# 11) commented:

Usually, many repeat visitors prefer to visit Australia again because of many advantages of Australia compared with other destinations, such as South East Asia. One of my customers emphasised: I love to visit here, because of scary experiences in other places. If I visit here, I always feel very clean and safe place to travel……

Each of the general themes was characterised by the different emphases that emerged from the data in this section. The findings of these general themes shows that most Korean tourists have a comparatively positive image of Australia, especially 'nature', 'iconic animals and symbols' and 'clean and safe destination'. Further general themes identified from were discussed in Appendix 9.

4.5. Specific themes emerging from coding theme tree

Three specific themes: 1) key themes and topics, 2) regional differences and 3) differences between package and independent tourists are discussed. These three specific themes are generated from the findings of interviews to address research questions 2, 3 and 4.

4.5.1. Key Themes and Topics

This section provides a discussion of the findings for research question 1. Following the procedure of the coding theme tree, the present study identified five key themes and 47 crucial topics related to research questions as stated above (mentioned in Figure 4.2).

RQ1: *What key themes and topics can be examined in the representative narratives of Australia's destination image by Korean travel agents?*

Theme 1: Internet sources

12 accounts in total were narrated as a result of the analysis of in this theme. Travel blog and search engines, such as Google and Naver, were the most influential internet sources to Korean tourists. Especially, the younger generations can exchange their opinions, make and organise travel associations using visual sources, including pictures and movies that were uploaded during their travel through own blogs with users. These contents can be first-rate indirect experiences to potential tourists. However, the findings of interviews identified distinctive characteristics of internet usage depending on travel types (package and independent travel), visiting destinations and socio-demographics.

Even though Korea is the most advanced country in IT and the impact of the internet may be a considerable social phenomenon, the older generations usually rely on straightforward internet media, like search engines. Further, package tourists using travel package provided by travel agents obtain basic information through the internet. According to the destinations, many tourists who visit Brisbane heavily rely on the internet sources, because most activities should be independently compared with tourists to Sydney, which consists of package travel frequently and tourists travelling Adelaide with rest and 'visiting friends or relatives' (VFR) motivations. Regarding internet sources, the representative accounts were:

> *Most Koreans, especially the younger generations use the internet as main information sources and its influence cannot be imagined…, you know… They can book their ticket and exchange their opinions. After travelling, some of them open their own blog and upload postscripts and pictures… Potential tourists decide their mind after discussing opinions with blog owners. Even the older generations search*

latest information on naver. In contrast to printed media, printed media cannot have latest information. (Agent# 25).

Although our most customers are using travel package, they have specific and accurate information about Sydney compared with a few years. However, tourists over 60's only have limited information. (Agent# 19).

Theme 2: Travel motivations

13 travel motivation accounts are identified in this theme. The key features of this are that most respondents emphasised push motivations rather than pull motivations. As stated in Chapter 2 (subsection 2.4.1), push motivations are more related to internal or emotional aspects, whereas pull motivations refer to external or situational aspects (Crompton 1979; Dan 1977; Um & Crompton 1990; Uysal & Hagan 1993). 13 accounts identified in the motivation theme were strongly related to push motivations. The reason is that most Korean tourists have had more personal determined image than destination determined image. Additionally, motivations by Koreans can be categorised as two dimensions: holiday oriented and others (experiences, learning and rest) according to the result of interviews. It is assumed that these characteristics can be presented by specifically Korean tourists. Although there are quite a few different motivations stated, most respondents emphasised motivations of tourists from Korea are 'new experiences', 'rest', 'enjoying holiday', 'activities' and 'escaping from the stress' in their trip. One of the respondents (agent #17) commented:

Motivation of our customers is very different, for example, the younger generations visit Australia to spend their pleasure, especially activities. However, many package tourists enjoy holidays, specifically family trip.

However, some respondents emphasised that there are high levels of distinction of motivations between tourists travelling for pleasure versus tourists with a different purpose (e.g. VFR, studying and immigration). They depict the motivation accounts by representative narratives of interviews. Motivations of tourists with different purposes include 'being together with someone', 'learning' and 'increasing knowledge'. In a similar perspective,

some interviewees declared according to their purpose, motivation is different, such as working holiday visa holders and international students, in this regard:

> *In recent decades, many Korean tourists visit Australia with working holiday visa or student visa. Their motivation is usually new experiences and learning. They stay at Australia around one year with various motivations. And some people visit here with immigration purpose… Before actual entry, they want to have their knowledge to live in as well as travel…*

Theme3: Past experiences

The majority of respondents stated that there are remarkable distinctions between first time visitors and repeat visitors. Although 11 accounts are discussed in this theme, most accounts show specific explanations regarding first visitors and repeat visitors. Usually, first time visitors prefer to visit famous destinations such as Sydney and Brisbane, which are popular and famous destinations, whereas repeat visitors prefer to visit less renowned destinations. Contrary to repeat visitors, first time visitors favour using package travel, since they do not have confidence and their attitude is relatively passive in this regard:

> *The main characteristics of first time visitors are: they really want to visit famous sites, such as the Opera House and Harbour Bridge in Sydney. They already had some information about famous sites… Also, they had a kind of anxiety, for instance, when they visit unfamiliar sites, they always watch out everything… However, repeat visitors already had exact information about Australia, so their attitude looks like stable and comfortable. Also they have positive image and can travel independently… (agent # 10)*

Based on the representative narratives of interviews, past experiences have shown the considerable differences between first visitors and repeat visitors with regard to positive or negative impressions of the past experience, amount of information, the quality of information and confidence and familiarity.

Theme4: Socio-demographics

Every respondent acknowledged that age is the fundamental factor in the travel pattern among five accounts identified. Different age groups strongly influence travel patterns; for instance, the younger age groups prefer to travel individually, while the older age groups prefer to purchase package travel. Except for age, income level is also decisive factor planning their travel. 22 respondents among 32 interviewees stated that travel pattern and attitude in travel decision-making and actual travel stage are strongly related to income level. This feature was different from other studies (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a). It is supposed that the distance from Korea to Australia is relatively far from other popular destinations (e.g. South East Asia, Japan and China) and the average cost of travel is much more expensive than others. However, many agents did not consider gender, occupation and education level as important factors to determine Koreans' travel trends and patterns:

> *According to the age, there are significant differences in the travel. For example, young generations usually seek adventure tours or backpack travel. However, old generations prefer to have a comfortable travel, such as package tour program with have tour guide and good quality's meals… Besides, I think depending on the income level, travel pattern and attitude are different. Our customers who have higher income never consider price, always think about comfort… (Agent# 7)*

Theme 5: Other information sources

Except for internet sources, there are many types of media that function as sources to get travel information. Most tourists need to have travel information before and during their travel. Seven accounts were identified in this theme; the most frequent information sources are recommendations from other people, information books, Korean community magazines and travel agencies. According to the result of the interviews, the most reliable source is recommendation from acquaintances, and the most powerful and influential information source is virtual media (including television) to form their destination image. Furthermore, most potential tourists use two or three information sources together. The essential implication of other information sources is that most potential tourists are eager to seek more reliable information sources. In spite of the proliferation of the internet, most tourists, especially the older generations, would like to have recommendations or word-of-mouth from

acquaintances due to its reliability. In other words, most Korean tourists have fundamentally tended to rely on the quality of the information not the quantity, in this regard:

> *Recently, potential tourists can obtain so many information related to their travel because they can contact with various usable information sources. Among them, they pursuit reliable information sources, so they usually trust recommendation from acquaintances. Besides, customers in nowadays know specific contents about their travel… Many tourists got some information before visiting travel agencies. This means they usually use various information sources… (agent# 26).*

> *Our travel agency is a local travel agency, so in this characteristics, we cannot know how to organise this travel. Only we can provide Australia's travel information… But clear evidence that customers use several information sources is some of them already know specific things… They use travel agency to double-check their knowledge about their travel… (agent # 14).*

> *The most influential and useful media is electronic media, especially TV. During watching TV, potential travellers build up decisions to travel in the next time… Above all, they can give more trust than any media…, Some of customers stated that internet is the most useful media, but others mentioned TV is the best media to form destination images. I think both of them are very useful…, Our young generations use the Internet, because internet is more convenient media than any media… Due to the impact of the blog and internet cafe, they can give and take their opinions on the internet… (agent # 2).*

4.5.2. Regional differences among three state capital cities

To answer research question 3, the main aim of this section is to identify regional differences among three state capital cities, Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide. In this section, main regional differences are discussed based on the characteristics of tourists travelling to each city (Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide).

RQ2: What are the foremost regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia in representative narratives recognised by Korean travel agents?

The characteristics of tourists to Sydney

Respondents in Sydney particularly emphasised that there are two distinct motivations of Korean tourists. Interestingly, as Sydney is renowned as a must-visit place to Korean tourists, some of them do not have specific motivations and only purchase group package tour programs. Respondents in Sydney articulated this as the main characteristic of the older generations' travel pattern. However, other Korean tourists travelling Sydney have explicit motivations, such as 'exploration' and 'prepare new life' for immigration or study, compared with tourists to other destinations. One of the respondents in Sydney (agent #7) explained this features as follows:

> *Many customers usually have specific motivations, such as 'exploration' and 'prepare new life' for immigration… Recently, Australia, specifically Sydney is recognised as 'a good place as new immigration'… So, they want to visit before their initial entry. And some tourists visit Australia to study something, especially English. In Korea, English became the crucial skill to succeed in their social life. These tourists visit our office individually. However, many package tourists said: I am here with my friends because we chose Australia, but we do not have specific purpose… Recently, most of my friends have some experiences in Australia…*

Additionally, respondents in Sydney described 'the role of travel agencies' as important features of Sydney due to the multifaceted information sources and the role of travel agencies. Specifically, one respondent (agent #3) who has 21 years of experience in Sydney stated as follows:

> *I think… The main differences between Sydney and other cities are the role of travel agencies… Because of many information sources, many tourists already know specific things about Sydney, you know… They use travel agencies to double-check their knowledge… Now, our customers mainly consist of old people. Different with other cities, information about Sydney already exposed to potential tourist and many Korean tourists prefer to have more reliable information sources, such as recommendation from friends or relatives, most travel agencies in Sydney have a critical moment…*

The characteristics of tourists to Brisbane

Different to respondents in Sydney, most respondents in Brisbane emphasised 'high level of internet usage', 'activity oriented motivations' and 'travel patterns' as the main regional differences. They frequently stated that Korean tourists travelling to Brisbane rely highly on the internet sources. Specifically, some of previous visitors provide 'online association' using their own travel blogs and most visitors already exchange opinions about destinations. These characteristics can be found in tourists to Brisbane. One agent (agent *# 26)* in Brisbane commented:

> *Well, you know, as they pursue some activities with inexpensive cost, they visit here. Because only some travel agencies provide discounted price, they already know which agencies give cheapest tickets… I think they may exchange information through travel blogs. Due to the impact of the blog, they can give and take their opinions conveniently. In addition, they can have latest information compared with printed media…Our company also uses travel blog. In blog, some of them request consultation through the messenger…*

'Travel motivations' and 'travel patterns' are frequently discussed by respondents in Brisbane. As main characteristics of Brisbane visitors are 'activity oriented', these two accounts are strongly related to each other. Despite package tourists or honeymooners, they prefer to enjoy activities, sports and adventures. Different with tourists to other cities, many Brisbane visitors consist of backpackers. In this regards, some respondents (agent# 20, 21 and 27) commented:

> *Always they ask information about activities in here…, even honeymooners. They came as independent tourists and rent a car for their travel... After getting information here, they purchase inexpensive tickets of theme park, like movie world. (agent# 20)*

> *As our branch is in Seoul and run travel blog, most of our customers are backpackers and 20s. They already visit our branch, get almost information regarding their activities in Seoul. (agent# 21)*

Even though many package tourists use our office, our main target is backpackers. Regardless of travel patterns, they usually prefer to enjoy by themselves… They frequently travel to Cairns and Darwin… Anyway, the first focus of Australia's travel of our customers is activities… I am from Sydney three years ago. Compared with tourists to Sydney, their characteristics are totally different… (agent# 27)

The characteristics of tourists to Adelaide

Most agents in Adelaide either exclusively or predominantly narrated the major differences of tourists to Adelaide from other destinations as 'travel motivations–VFR oriented', 'low rate of internet usage' and 'past experiences'. As there are not any travel package products from Korea and Adelaide is not main travel destination, the majority of respondents emphasised that most visitors to Adelaide have 'VFR', 'learning' or 'educational' motivations. Interestingly, respondents mentioned 'low rate of internet usage' and 'past experiences' as the unique features of Adelaide visitors. Respondents considered that Adelaide visitors have primarily 'VFR' or 'study' motivations in Adelaide. Specifically, tourists who have 'VFR' motivations are comparatively older and have many experiences in Adelaide. The representative examples are as follows:

As you already know, in Adelaide there is no package travel. Some of customers said: my son is studying here, so I want to have a time with him... In this holiday, we will travel to 'port Lincoln' which is a quiet place, because I really want to have a rest in here with my son… Like this, most customers recognised Adelaide as 'VFR' destination or good place for 'family gathering'…. (agent# 28)

Interestingly, my customers consist mainly of over 50s and they usually ask local travel information here. I believe that they may have some difficulty in getting travel information in Korea. I think from Korea, there is not sufficient information available. Once I asked the reason of low rate of internet usage to customers. They usually replied: I can search travel information on the internet, but I already have direct experiences in here. Direct experiences are better than indirect information… (agent# 30)

To summarise, the present study identified the regional differences among three state capital cities. According to the findings, 'travel motivations' and 'level of internet usages' are mostly

discussed in this interview section of three destinations. Table 4.1 shows the summary of regional differences to answer research question 3.

Table 4.1 Regional differences among three cities

	Sydney	Brisbane	Adelaide
1.Travel motivations	'exploration', 'prepare new life'	'activity oriented'	'VFR oriented'
2.Level of internet usage	'comparatively high level of internet usage'	'high level of internet usage'	'low level of internet usage'
3.Role of travel agencies	'important features– critical moment'		
4.Travel patterns	'package and independent'	'package and independent' , emphasised 'independent– backpackers'	'independent'
5.Past experiences			'mostly repeat visitors'

4.5.3. Differences between package and independent tourists

This section provides findings and a discussion to answer research question4. Particularly, understanding of differences between package and independent tourists could benefit for the present study as these are two major travel trends by Korean tourists travelling to Australia.

RQ3: *What do Korean travel agents think are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists with regard to Australia's destination image?*

Regarding this research question, respondents, especially agents in Sydney and Brisbane confirmed there are prominent differences between package and independent tourists during their interviews. However, agents in Adelaide did not discuss regarding package tourists specifically, because there are not travel package products from Korea to Adelaide.

Upon analysis of the interview data, it is clear that differences between package and independent tourists are strongly related to three aspects: internet usages, past experiences and socio–demographics, especially age. Additionally, in travel motivations and information

sources, the differences were also found. Table 4.2 shows what kinds of differences were assigned to each of the two travel types.

Table 4.2 Differences between package and independent tourists

	Package tourists	Independent tourists
Internet usage	Lower than independent tourists	High level of internet usage
Past experiences	Relatively first visitors	Relatively repeat visitors
Socio–demographics (age)	The older generations	The younger generations
Travel motivations	Mostly push motivations	Both push and pull motivations
Information sources	Travel agents, internet and others	Internet and visual media

In explaining differences between package and independent tourists, there are more differences were found in the interviews, however, representative accounts were summarised in Table 4.2. Independent tourists demonstrate a higher level of internet usage and are made up of repeat visitors (especially the younger generations) compared to package tourists. However, package tourists indicate higher reliance on travel agencies in using information sources. Interestingly, most respondents in the interviews stated that package tourists show mostly push motivation aspects (internal dimensions), whereas independent tourists show both push and pull motivation aspects (external dimensions). Representative accounts are as follows:

> *Well, in using the internet, most package tourists, especially the older generations searched only basic information, however the majority of independent tourists heavily rely on the internet sources… Travel agencies provide accommodation and transportation to package tourists, whereas independent tourists must look for everything… (agent# 3)*

Comparatively younger generations show a high level of internet usages regardless of travel types. However, the older generations show distinct differences in internet reliance…More importantly, as package tourists do not have any experiences in Australia, they prefer to purchase group package travel. Their overall attitude during travel is passive and wants to visit famous sites… (agent# 10)

More specifically, more detailed narratives regarding differences between package and independent tourists were described by some interview participants, especially travel motivations in respondents in Brisbane. This is strongly related to push and pull motivation aspects by Korean tourists. One of the agents (agent #22) in Brisbane commented:

Due to the characteristics of Brisbane, more independent tourists visit our office. Different with package tourists, independent tourists are mainly repeat visitors. Some of them pursue attractions here reminding good experiences in the last travel, specifically scenic beaches in Gold Coast, theme parks and natural scenery. However, package tourists usually seek adventure and some activities…

With similar perspectives, most respondents in Sydney state differences between package and independent tourists in motivation and information sources. The specific narrative by agent# 11 is consistent with Crompton's (1979) findings. Their focuses explained were 'the iconic symbol of tourism Australia' and 'the necessity of obtaining specific information'.

Many package tourists prefer to have some experience in the Opera House and Harbour Bridge for prestige, family togetherness, and excitement… However, the characteristics of independent tourists are pursuing novelty in specific attractions… (agent# 11)

I think every tourist need to have travel information regardless of travel types… Additionally, to reduce unexpected risks, they search for specific information in their travel and destinations. However, as travel agencies offer all programs for travel to package tourists, package tourists frequently have less information than independent tourists… (agent# 18)

As noted in Table 4.2, the present study identified five distinct differences between package and independent tourists. The theme of differences between package and independent tourists was incorporated in each interview question during the interviews. Therefore, the emergence of this theme can provide evidence that Korean tourists have different

characteristics of their travel to Australia depending on the travel types, such as package and independent travel. In that quantitative phase (Chapter 5), further differences are examined for research purposes of the present study.

4.6. The characteristics of internet sources

This section also provides findings and a discussion for research question 4. As stated before, the majority of the respondents emphasised internet sources that were strongly related to their travel.

RQ4: *How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?*

By visiting several web sites and using various value-added services offered on a broad range of web sites, tourists get broad and general information. The internet acts as a new communication and distribution channel for tourists and suppliers of travel services and products (Cho et al. 2002). According to the narratives in this study, many agents (20 respondents in 32 interviews) have been using search engine, reservation system, intranet and email and so on, while tourists mostly use search engine and messenger. Both agents and tourists have used search engines in order to acquire their information on the internet. One of the respondents (agent# 3) stated:

> *Recently, due to the impact of the internet, most travel agencies have a critical moment, because many customers have had much information about their destination. In addition, some customers knew more than us…., Internet messenger and search engine, such as Nate on, Naver or Google provide them good quality's information… To make the best choice, they usually search the information in order to save money or choose the best options… In this meaning, internet is already the best information source to potential tourists…*

Some agents (10 respondents in 32 interviews) discussed that major differences were found according to different age groups. They stated that the internet is widely expected to change the role of travel agencies as information providers as well as the accessibility of internet sources reduces the importance of travel agencies, and might ultimately result in tourists

bypassing travel agencies altogether. So, travel agency has met a critical circumstance. It is necessary to provide a kind of differentiated service to customers and appropriate strategies to survive in the internet environment, in this regard:

> *Depending on the age, there are various different attitudes in using the internet. Young people use the internet positively while old people cannot know how to use the internet. Old people can search using only search engine, but young people can access personal blog or virtual resources, such as visiting representative website. Due to the internet, young people do not need travel agencies, so travel agency has difficult time to attract customers, well... Sometimes, they request online consultant through the messenger……. (agent# 8)*

As the internet is becoming a crucial medium for information delivery and acquisition (Internet World Stats 2011), internet sources can enable potential tourists to have more interaction and thereby create a greater and more lasting impression and have become more complex since the internet arrived (Choi et al. 2007). In addition, information through the internet can be provided instantly to potential tourists anywhere in the world, and they play a more active role in the search for information. Intrinsic attributes of the internet include giving information and providing information instantly.

Finally, there are two types of internet sources depending on the age among many kinds of internet sources. The most frequently mentioned internet sources by the younger generation are ‘blogs’ and ‘individual websites’ in the representative narratives of interviews. However, the older generations depend primarily on ‘Internet Advertisements’, ‘Website Links’ and ‘Email’. Although most Korean people depend heavily on the internet related to travel, there are salient differences between the younger and older generations. It is believed that the younger generations seek internet sources actively, whereas old generations usually have a passive attitude in searching internet sources to acquire their travel information.

4.7. Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the results of the qualitative phase, the first of the two research phases. This qualitative research phase was necessary to understanding of the narratives of Korean travel agents in Australia. From the academic point of view, the present study endeavoured to

provide insight into Australia's destination image by narratives of travel agents that represented the perspectives of Korean tourists.

In this qualitative phase, this chapter has four research questions. To achieve the research questions, the present study investigated which key themes and topics were frequently narrated and how the internet sources, travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables and other information sources contribute to destination image of Australia. With analysing interview data and building a coding theme tree, five decisive key themes and 47 topics were identified. General themes and three specific key themes were identified and finally the characteristics of the internet sources were discussed in this chapter. These qualitative results were incorporated into the quantitative research phase, which is destination image formation model based on package and independent tourists' models.

Essential results of this chapter were: three specific themes were identified based on coding theme tree. Firstly, five key themes and 47 topics were examined through the narratives by Korean travel agents. Secondly, foremost regional differences among three state capital cities (Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide) in Australia. In this theme, 'travel motivations' and 'level of internet usage' are mostly discussed and examined as the main regional differences. Thirdly, major differences between Korean package and independent tourists towards Australia's destination image were identified. In this theme, three aspects, such as 'internet usage', 'past experiences' and 'socio–demographics, especially age' were mainly discussed. Finally, aspects of internet sources contributing to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists were identified. Major differences in using the internet were found according to different age groups. Narratives by travel agents show that different age groups utilise different internet media.

Chapter 5.
Results in Quantitative Phase

5.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on the findings of the quantitative phase. This chapter is organised into six sections. It begins with an introduction for this chapter and a summary of research questions and research hypotheses in order to accomplish research purpose. In the third section, the present study presents quantitative pilot study giving insights and assisting the researcher to develop final survey instrument (Yin 2003) before conducting main survey for the present study. Particularly, descriptive statistics of the pilot samples and data analysis (such as the results of initial factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha test for internal validity) were provided. The fourth section discusses methods of data measurement, including data screening and scale development for main constructs, which is the theoretical basis for hypotheses building.

The fifth section addresses data analysis of the main study. This section is organised with two sample profiles: package tourists' profile and independent tourists' profile. With two profiles, the process of data analysis for the main study was conducted in five steps: firstly, it commences with a descriptive statistics of each respondent. For the second step, the process of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is discussed to check the dimensionality of the instrument before using confirmatory factor analysis, including reliability and validity tests using a Cronbach's alpha and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) scores. As the third step, the process of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is presented to measure model validity and construct validity using the multiple fit indices (i.e., chi-square, RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, NFI and CFI). To test hypotheses and consolidate the conceptual model, the procedure and the findings of structural equation modelling (SEM) is discussed. As the last step of quantitative phase, one-way ANOVA, t-test and cross-tab analysis are provided to examine hypotheses regarding personal constructs. Lastly, this chapter concludes with a chapter summary. Figure 5.1 shows the outline of this chapter.

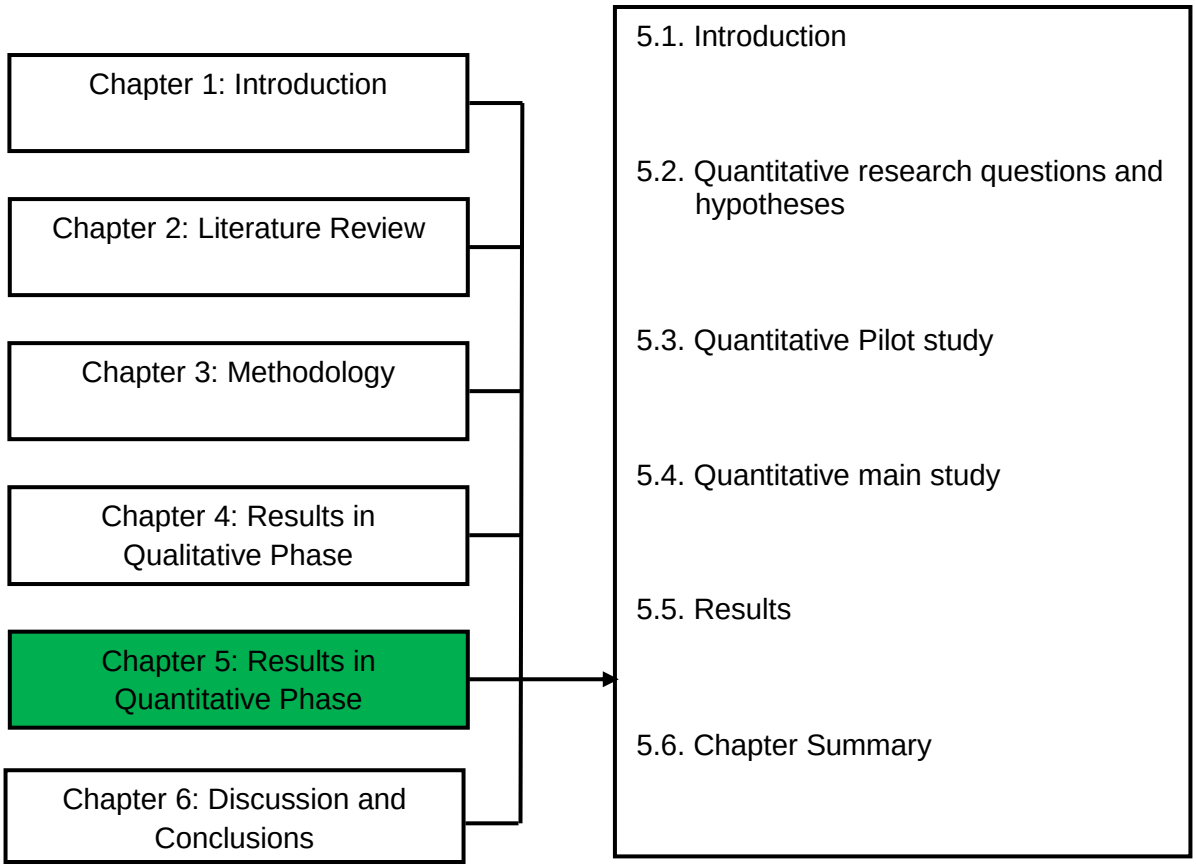


Figure 5.1 Outline of Chapter 5 within the thesis

5.2 Quantitative research questions and hypotheses

A total of three main research questions of the quantitative research phase are provided to test hypotheses. Research questions and hypotheses in the quantitative phase are below.

Research questions

Quantitative research question1: *What are the major different respects between Korean package and independent tourists towards Australia's destination image?*

Quantitative research question2: *How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?*

Quantitative research question3: *How do the aspects of internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to destination image?*

Research hypotheses

H1: Travel motivations significantly influence internet information sources.
H1-1: Push motivations significantly influence internet information sources.
H1-2: Pull motivations significantly influence internet information sources.

H2: Travel motivations significantly influence internet usage.
H2-1: Push motivations significantly influence internet usage.
H2-2: Pull motivations significantly influence internet usage.

H3: Travel motivations and internet sources significantly influence cognitive image.
H3-1: Push motivations significantly influence cognitive image.
H3-2: Pull motivations significantly influence cognitive image.
H3-3: Internet information sources significantly influence cognitive image.
H3-4: Internet usage significantly influences cognitive image.

H4: Travel motivations of Korean tourists, internet sources and cognitive image significantly influence affective image.
H4-1: Push motivations significantly influence affective image.
H4-2: Pull motivations significantly influence affective image.
H4-3: Internet information sources significantly influence affective image.
H4-4: Internet usage significantly influences affective image.
H4-5: Cognitive image significantly influences affective image.

H5: Travel motivations of Korean tourists, internet sources, cognitive image and affective image influence overall image.
H5-1: Push motivations significantly influence overall image.
H5-2: Pull motivations significantly influence overall image.
H5-3: Internet information sources significantly influence overall image.
H5-5: Cognitive image significantly influences overall image.
H5-4: Internet usage significantly influences overall image.
H5-6: Affective image significantly influences overall image

H6: Personal factors significantly influence internet information sources.
H6-1: Past experiences significantly influence internet information sources.
H6-2: Gender significantly influences internet information sources.
H6-3: Age significantly influences internet information sources.
H6-4: Occupation significantly influences internet information sources.
H6-5: Level of education significantly influences internet information sources.
H6-6: Level of income significantly influences internet information sources.
H6-7: Information Sources significantly influence internet information sources.
H6-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence internet information sources.

H7: Personal factors significantly influence internet usage.
H7-1: Past experiences significantly influence internet usage.

H7-2: Gender significantly influences internet usage.
H7-3: Age significantly influences internet usage.
H7-4: Occupation significantly influences internet usage.
H7-5: Level of education significantly influences internet usage.
H7-6: Level of income significantly influences internet usage.
H7-7: Information Sources significantly influence internet usage.
H7-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence internet usage.

H8: Personal factors significantly influence cognitive image.
H8-1: Past experiences significantly influence cognitive image.
H8-2: Gender significantly influences cognitive image.
H8-3: Age significantly influences cognitive image.
H8-4: Occupation significantly influences cognitive image.
H8-5: Level of education significantly influences cognitive image.
H8-6: Level of income significantly influences cognitive image.
H8-7: Information Sources significantly influence cognitive image.
H8-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence cognitive image.

H9: Personal factors significantly influence affective image.
H9-1: Past experiences significantly influence affective image.
H9-2: Gender significantly influences affective image.
H9-3: Age significantly influences affective image.
H9-4: Occupation significantly influences affective image.
H9-5: Level of education significantly influences affective image.
H9-6: Level of income significantly influences affective image.
H9-7: Information Sources significantly influence affective image.
H9-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence affective image.

H10: Personal factors significantly influence overall image.
H10-1: Past experiences significantly influence overall image.
H10-2: Gender significantly influences overall image.
H10-3: Age significantly influences overall image.
H10-4: Occupation significantly influences overall image.
H10-5: Level of education significantly influences overall image.
H10-6: Level of income significantly influences overall image.
H10-7: Information Sources significantly influence overall image.
H10-8: Preferred destinations significantly influence overall image.

5.3 Quantitative pilot study

The initial research instrument, which was developed based on a review of literature, was refined through the pilot study. The purposes of pilot study were to 1) assess the reliability of multiple measurements, and 2) check the content validity of the questionnaire wording.

A demographic profile of respondents

A total of 154 Korean residents in Adelaide participated in the quantitative pilot study, which yielded a response rate of 95.2% and usable sample rate of 81%. Of the 154 respondents, 86 respondents (55.8%) were male and 68 respondents (44.2%) were female. About 83% of the respondents were in the age range of 21 to 50 years old. Specifically, the majority of the respondents were between 21 and 30 years old (40.9%), while 9% of the respondents were over 51 years old and only 7.8% of the respondents were in the age range of 18 to 20. About 42% of the respondents were students, followed by housewife (17.5%), company employee (14.9%) and specialised employee, such as doctor or lawyer (10.9%), while a total of government officer, unemployed and retired were only 5.1%.

Level of education was comparatively high, with 83.8% having a college education (2-year, 4-year, or post-graduate education). Particularly, 15.6% of respondents have earned over college education (post-graduate student, master degree or Ph. D), while 16.2% of respondent were less than high school education level. Approximately 62% of respondents reported an annual household income from KRW 10,000,000 to 70,000,000, while 10.4% of them earned 70,000,000 or above each year. Table5.1 provides a demographic profile of Korean residents in Adelaide who participated in this quantitative pilot study.

Table 5.1 A demographic profile of Korean residents in quantitative pilot study

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	male	86	55.8
	female	68	44.2
Age	18~20	12	7.8
	21~30	63	40.9
	31~40	32	20.8
	41~50	33	21.4
	51~60	7	4.5
	61~70	4	2.6
	Over 71	3	1.9
Occupation	Student	65	42.2
	Housewife	27	17.5
	Self-employee	15	9.7

	Company employee	23	14.9
	Government officer	3	1.9
	Specialised employee	16	10.3
	Unemployed	3	1.9
	Retired	2	1.3
Level of education	Less than high school	2	1.3
	High school	23	14.9
	Junior college student	8	5.2
	Junior college	16	10.4
	Uni student	39	25.3
	University	42	27.3
	Graduate school student	2	1.3
	Holding master degree	18	11.7
	Holding Ph. D	4	2.6
Level of income (KRW/year)	Under 10,000,000	43	27.9
	10,000,000~30,000,000	52	33.8
	30,000,000~50,000,000	26	16.9
	50,000,000~70,000,000	17	11.0
	70,000,000~100,000,000	14	9.1
	Over 100,000,000	2	1.3
Total		154	100.0

Initial factor analysis and assessment of reliability of measurement scales

Through the test of this study, 16 factors in six constructs showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha range (.704 to .877), while 3 factors (i.e., factor2 and 4 in cognitive image and factor2 in internet information sources) in two constructs showed unacceptable Cronbach's alpha range (.496 to .571).

Table 5. 2 The details of the initial factor analysis in quantitative pilot study

	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Push motivation: KMO: .743, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 1407.580, p< .000				
Factor 1		5.640	29.686	.834
Seeing as much as possible	.850			
Increasing knowledge	.761			

Having a fun	.703			
Experiencing a foreign destination	.699			
Meeting new people	.627			
Factor 2		2.731	14.373	.735
Being together with a family	.820			
Rediscovering past times	.805			
Visiting friends or relatives	.673			
Factor 3		1.770	9.316	.714
Being physically active	.870			
Finding thrills	.716			
Participating in sports	.696			
Factor 4		1.472	7.747	.719
Rediscovering myself	.822			
Escaping from the ordinary	.720			
Getting a change from a busy job	.693			
Experiencing new lifestyles	.614			
Going places where I have not been	.519			
Factor 5		1.086	5.716	.722
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	.764			
Being free to act how I feel	.648			
Getting away from home	.646			
Pull motivation: KMO: .841, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 1783.281, p< .000				
Factor 1		7.891	39.454	.877
First class hotels	.855			
Night life	.808			
Shopping	.759			
Modern cities	.655			
Historical sites	.636			
Theme parks	.623			
Live-concert	.609			
High quality restaurant	.552			
Factor 2		2.420	12.100	.842
Good quality's beach	.725			
Mountainous areas	.719			
Unpolluted nature	.656			
Museums	.600			
Outstanding scenery	.596			
Various activities	.593			
Personal safety	.512			
Wide spaces to get away from crowds	.505			
Factor 3		1.433	7.164	.729
Different culture	.844			
Cleanness	.777			
Friendly local people	.592			
Good weather	.542			

Cognitive Image: KMO: .749, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 1210.341, p< .000				
Factor 1		5.637	35.234	.851
Appealing local food (cuisine)	.820			
Enjoyable night-life	.813			
Good infrastructure of accommodation	.752			
Shopping facilities	.670			
Good value for money	.585			
Factor 2		2.072	12.950	.571
Unpolluted and unspoiled environment	.794			
Unusual ways of life	.774			
Good beaches	.689			
Friendly people	.614			
Factor 3		1.570	9.812	.747
A good reputation	.734			
Good weather	.721			
Personal safety	.638			
Good quality of life	.521			
Factor 4		1.163	7.270	.563
Places of cultural interest	.809			
Interesting activities	.529			
Opportunities for sports activities	.503			
Affective Image: KMO: .755, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 193.717, p< .000				
		2.673	33.414	.796
Unpleasant/Pleasant	.857			
Boring/Exciting	.823			
Sleepy/Arousing	.796			
Distressing/Relaxing	.667			
Internet information sources: KMO: .774, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 261.201, p< .000				
Factor1		2.673	33.414	.718
Individual website	.891			
Internet blog	.721			
Internet search engines	.594			
Factor2		1.324	16.552	.496
Companies' website	.837			
Hyperlinks on pages you visit	.689			
Factor3		1.051	13.132	.712
Virtual media	.852			
Internet advertisements	.828			
Direct emails	.487			
Internet usages: KMO: .885, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 212.242, p< .000				

Factor1		7.980	56.996	.817
I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information	.885			
I can acquire more destination image in Web-site than any other media.	.787			
I think using Internet helps me plan better travel	.752			
During the destination information search, I feel like I am in the destination.	.619			
I will use travel information in next travel	.782			
Factor2		1.401	10.006	.836
I will recommend travel information through the internet to other people	.772			
I look to the Internet as a first alternative for	.757			
Using internet travel information is the most effective way	.707			
I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet	.612			
Factor3		1.073	7.662	.758
My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive	.801			
Uncertainties about the destination are removed through using Web site.	.770			
During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want	.630			

5.4 Quantitative main study

5.4.1 Data measurement

This section firstly explains the two stages' data screening process, including appropriate sample size and handling missing values. Secondly, an assessment of data normality using 'skew and kurtosis' was discussed. Lastly, a measurement construct is provided.

5.4.1.1 Data screening

According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2007), when data has been coded and collected, it should be checked for errors to maintain its accuracy and the honest assessment of it prior to commencing the data analysis. Steiger (2007) noted there are many possible sources of data errors within research from the initial data collection to the final coding and entry; therefore, it is important that such errors be at a minimum. To ensure the accuracy of the data for the present study, all questionnaires were thoroughly examined three times. All questionnaires

collected were given sequential numbers, such as ‘pack 100’ for package data and ‘indi 200’ for independent data for easy handling of data. Results from the questionnaires were then cross-examined with the SPSS data file to ensure that data entry had been completed without any errors. Obtained 1,788 (925 of package and 863 of independent) questionnaires firstly observed this process. As the result of the first data screening process, a total of 573 questionnaires were extracted, because they had many missing data points and were documented insincerely. Thus, a total of 1,215 questionnaires (684 of package and 531 of independent) were used for data analysis. After the second screening process, a total of 107 questionnaires (71 of package and 36 of independent) were removed during the data entry process to SPSS program, because these questionnaires were written with the same answers in each item, even though they did not have missing values. After the third data screening process, 1,108 samples (613 of package and 495 of independent) were used for the present study. These samples satisfied the criteria suggested by Burns and Bush (1995) and Hair et al. (1998).

5.4.1.2 Appropriate sample size

Hair et al. (1998) stated that the sample size suitable for most multivariate data analysis approaches should have a minimum ratio of at least 5 respondents for each estimated variable. Additionally, Bentler and Chou (1987) recommended at least 5 cases per parameter estimate (including error terms and path coefficients). Hair et al. (2006) emphasised that the researcher should go beyond these minimum sample size recommendations, particularly when the data are non-normal or incomplete or when the model is very complex with many constructs. For the present study, as a total of 11 constructs and 93 items was used, sample sizes for two samples (684 of package and 531 of independent) were within the criteria suggested by Bentler and Chou (1987) and Hair et al. (1998).

5.4.1.3 Missing values

Before conducting CFA and SEM, missing values from the data should be addressed, because if the data contain missing values, analysis with CFA and SEM is not possible. Kline (2005) argued if at least 50% of the indicators for a particular construct were missing, the entire case was deleted. During the first data screening process, as a total of 573 questionnaires have more than two missing values including questionnaires that were documented insincerely,

these were deleted. Remaining questionnaires were then examined across each construct to determine the extent of missing values for construct indicators. Among remaining questionnaires, 23 questionnaires have more than one missing value. To treat these questionnaires, Expectation-Maximization (EM) procedures were conducted to impute missing values for 23 questionnaires. EM is one of the most common and reliable imputation techniques to replace missing values in structural equation modelling (Byrne 1998). Also, Kline (2005) argued EM is an accurate and consistent method predicting parameter estimates and superior to other methods. This EM procedure involves imputing missing values by predicting scores in a series of regressions where each missing variable is regressed on remaining variables for a particular case (Kline 2005). Next, the entire imputed data set was submitted for maximum likelihood estimation until a stable solution was reached. At this point the dataset was ready for CFA.

5.4.2 Data normality

As the present study employed structural equation modelling (SEM) for analysing data, a violation of normality could invalidate statistical hypothesis testing (Byrne 1998; Hair et al. 2006; Kline 2005). Firstly, prior to beginning any further data analysis, univariate data screening was conducted to clean the data and remove cases that were outliers, causing data to be skewed and non-normally distributed. Variables that were to be used in further analysis were screened initially by examining skew and kurtosis for the present study (Kline 2005). *Skew* indicates the symmetry of the distribution of measured items, while *kurtosis* refers to the degree of peakedness of a distribution. Since a distribution is normal, the values of skew and kurtosis are zero (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007) and the acceptable range was: 1) -2 to 2 for skewness, and 2) -7 to 7 for kurtosis. The normality was assessed by evaluating the skewness and kurtosis of each item; as a result, all values were within the recommended range and this indicates that the data meet the assumption of data normality (specific figure was provided in Appendix). Secondly, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation method was used. As suggested by Hair et al. (2006), ML provides consistently efficient estimation under the assumption of multivariate normality. However, evaluating the assumption of normality is an important preliminary analysis step for subsequent SEM analyses to be meaningful (Hair et al. 1998). ML is utilised for the present study because the collected usable sample is quite large

(n=1,215), observed factors are continuous and the normal distribution of the each item is met based on the result of skewness and kurtosis.

5.4.3 Measurement of constructs

Measurement of motivation construct

The scale items measuring motivation were generated from Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) and Yoon and Uysal (2005). To date, although there are various frameworks regarding travel motivation (Crompton 1979; Dann 1996; Yuan & McDonald 1990), the present study modified scale items suggested by Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) and Yoon and Uysal (2005). Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) integrated travel motivations with other significant factors influencing destination image formation. Specifically, Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) developed 17 travel motivation items and identified five travel motivation factors, while Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) developed destination image formation model using 13 travel motivation items and identified four motivation factors. Based on the theory of push and pull motivation by Dann (1977), Yoon and Uysal (2005) developed the push and pull motivation measurement scale. 24 push motivation items and 28 pull motivation items were generated. The present study develops 22 push motivation and 24 pull motivation measurement scales based on the previous literature (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Yoon & Uysal 2005). Using a seven-point Likert scale, EFA was first conducted to identify the underlying motivation structure and reduce the number of items. Secondly, CFA was conducted to validate the structure and identify a measurement model. Table 5.3 shows the details of measurement of motivation construct.

Table 5.3 Details of measurement of motivation construct

Previous literature	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a); Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b); Um & Crompton (1990); Yoon & Uysal (2005)
Scale	7 point Likert scale
Number of items	22 items in push motivation, 24 items in pull motivation
Analytical methods	EFA, CFA and SEM

Internet sources

The measurement of internet sources were made up of two main sub-constructs: internet information sources and internet usages. Firstly, to measure information sources, the scale items were generated from the various literatures (Ashish & Knoblock 1997; Briggs and Hollis 1997; Carson 2008; Cases, Fournier, Dubois & Tanner 2010; Cox et al. 2008; Fesenmaier, Xiang, Pan & Law 2010; Gretzel, Yuan, & Fesenmaier 2000; Rao 2007). Secondly, internet usage combined three important concepts: cognitive characteristics, self-efficacy and confidence. The cognitive characteristics were from Dabholkar and Bagozzi (2002), the self-efficacy was from Li and Buhalis (2006) and Rao (2007) and confidence was from the model of 'Integrated Information Response' by Smith and Swinyard (1982). Internet information sources were measured with 8 items and internet usage was measured with 12 items using a 7-point Likert scale. With same as the motivation construct, internet sources were analysed using EFA, CFA and SEM. Table 5.4 shows the details of measurement of internet sources construct.

Table 5.4 Details of measurement of internet sources construct

Previous literature	Ashish & Knoblock (1997); Briggs & Hollis (1997); Carson (2008); Cases, Fournier, Dubois & Tanner (2010); Cox et al. (2008); Dabholkar & Bagozzi (2002); Fesenmaier, Xiang, Pan & Law (2010); Gretzel, Yuan, & Fesenmaier (2000); Li & Buhalis (2006); Rao (2007); Smith & Swinyard (1982)
Scale	7 point Likert scale
Number of items	8 items in internet information sources, 12 items in internet usages
Analytical methods	EFA, CFA and SEM

Image constructs

Items in the image constructs were developed based on cognitive and affective approach by Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) and Gartner (1993). Specifically, cognitive image was from Crompton (1979) and Dann (1977), affective image was from Russel and his colleagues (Russel 1980; Russel & Pratt 1980; Russel & Snodgrass 1987) and overall image was from Ahmed (1991), Gartner (1986)and Stern and Krakover (1993). Cognitive image consisted of 18 items, affective image consisted of four items and

overall image was one item. These image constructs were measured with a seven-point Likert scale. Specifically, the scales of affective image were made up of four bipolar scales developed by Russel (1980). Table 5.5 shows the details of measurement of image construct.

Table 5.5 Details of measurement of internet sources construct

Previous literature	Ahmed (1991); Baloglu & McCleary (1999a); Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b); Crompton (1979); Dann (1977): Gartner (1986, 1993); Russel (1980); Russel & Pratt (1980); Russel & Snodgrass (1987); Stern & Krakover (1993)
Scale	7 point Likert scale
Number of items	18 items in cognitive image, 4 items in affective image, 1 item in overall image
Analytical methods	EFA, CFA and SEM

Measurement of personal construct

Personal construct consists of four sub-constructs: past experiences, socio-demographics, information sources and preferred destinations. Scale items regarding personal construct were measured using personal factors developed by Beerli and Martin (2004a) and Baloglu and McCleary (1999a). Beerli and Martin (2004a) classified information factors and personal factors as independent variables to influence destination image. As the personal factors, past experiences and socio-demographics were included in the model of Beerli and Martin (2004a). Similarly, Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) included socio-demographics and information sources as the main independent variables to the model. Based on these models, the present study developed personal constructs containing four sub-constructs. As measurement scales, ratio scale (past experiences) and nominal scales (socio-demographics, information sources and preferred destinations) were used. To analysis personal construct, the present study employed one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test and cross-tab analysis. Table5.6 shows the details of measurement of personal construct.

Table 5.6 Details of measurement of personal construct

Previous literature	Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), Fodness & Murray (1999), Friedmann & Lessig (1986), Holloway & Plant (1992), Husbands (1989), Woodside & Lysonski (1989) Gitelson & Crompton (1983), Gursoy & Chen (2000), Stern & Krakover (2003)
Scale	Ratio scale and nominal scale
Number of items	1 item in past experience, 5 items in socio-demographics, 1 item in preferred destination, push motivation, 5 items in information sources
Analytical methods	one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test and cross-tab analysis

5.5 Results

This section discussed sequential data analysis procedure for quantitative main study. All procedures in this section applied to two data sets: package and independent. Descriptive statistics EFA, CFA, SEM, ANOVA, T-test and cross-tab of both samples are discussed sequentially.

5.5.1 Descriptive statistics of the sample

A total of 2,000 questionnaires were distributed to both package (1,000 questionnaires) and independent tourists (1,000 questionnaires) in the In-cheon international airport. 1,788 questionnaires were retrieved (925 of package and 863 of independent); however, usable samples were 1,215 (684 of package and 531 of independent). After the data screening process, 1,108 samples were used for the present study. Table 5.7 provides a demographic profile of Korean package and independent tourists who participated in this quantitative main study.

Table 5.7 A demographic profile of Korean package and independent tourists

		Package tourists	Independent tourists
Gender	male	53.8	49.7
	female	46.2	50.3
Age	18~20	2.0	14.9
	21~30	28.5	44.0
	31~40	32.3	18.0

	41~50	22.8	16.0
	51~60	11.1	3.4
	61~70	2.1	1.4
	Over 71	1.1	1.4
Occupation	Student	17.5	44.0
	Housewife	17.0	8.1
	Self-employee	17.3	6.5
	Company employee	27.7	23.8
	Government officer	9.6	10.7
	Specialised employee	8.2	4.2
	Unemployed	1.0	0.4
	Retired	1.8	2.2
Level of education	Less than high school	1.1	0.4
	High school	17.5	7.7
	Junior college student	2.3	4.8
	Junior college	15.5	13.7
	Uni student	11.9	36.8
	University	37.7	29.5
	Graduate school student	3.4	3.6
	Holding master degree	9.5	3.4
	Holding Ph.D.	1.1	0.0
Level of income (KRW/year)	Under 10,000,000	10.6	34.1
	10,000,000~30,000,000	17.9	15.2
	30,000,000~50,000,000	31.0	24.4
	50,000,000~70,000,000	20.2	15.8
	70,000,000~100,000,000	14.4	9.5
	Over 100,000,000	4.1	1.0
Past experiences	First visitors	56.8	61.4
	Repeat visitors	43.2	38.6
Information sources (Multiple choices)	TV	33	44.4
	Information book	41.9	49
	Travel agencies	45.5	15.7
	Brochure	25.6	26.5
	Word of mouth	35.2	49.2
	Number of observations	1,118	916
Preferred destinations (Multiple choices)	Sydney	67.4	68.1
	Melbourne	32.3	38.6
	Brisbane	36.3	24
	Cairns	17.4	14.3
	Canberra	10.7	17.6
	Perth	4.67	4.6
	Adelaide		13.5
	Hobart		8.4
	Darwin		1.2
	Number of observations	1,056	943
Number of observations		613	495

5.5.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Package tourists

The standard of 'variance explained' is around 60% of the total variance and is regarded as satisfactory (Hair et al. 2002). In the push motivation construct, three factors with eigenvalues above 1.0 were generated, which explained about 64% of the total variance. After the data screening process, a total of 12 items were extracted to obtain a better internal reliability and validity. Specifically, four items in push motivation, one item in pull motivation, four items in cognitive image, one item in internet information sources and three items in internet usage were extracted. Every factor extracted from each construct, the researcher provided appropriate labellings. Detailed findings of EFA with package data are shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Final EFA results of package tourists' data

	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Push motivation: (Variance Explained: 65.023, KMO: .833, Bartlett: 3381.770, p< .000)				
Factor 1: Enchantment/Sightseeing		4.938	35.860	0.836
Experiencing a foreign destination	.697			
Escaping from the ordinary	.705			
Seeing as much as possible	.779			
Having a fun	.630			
Going places where I have not been	.619			
Getting a change from a busy job	.580			
Being free to act how I feel	.609			
Experiencing new lifestyles	.526			
Factor 2: Excitement/Adventure		2.042	18.764	0.774
Finding thrills	.851			
Being physically active	.845			
Participating in sports	.667			
Rediscovering myself	.593			
Factor 3: Social/Relaxing		1.664	10.399	0.673
Being together with a family	.767			
Visiting friends or relatives	.742			
Getting away from home	.659			
Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	.634			
Pull motivation: (Variance Explained: 60.543, KMO: .879, Bartlett: 5020.899, p< .000)				
Factor 1: Scenery/Nature		6.801	35.796	0.860
Outstanding scenery	.800			
Unpolluted nature	.791			

Good weather	.620			
Different culture	.613			
Various activities	.607			
Good quality's beach	.604			
Wide spaces to get away from crowds	.558			
Personal safety	.543			
Museums	.430			
Factor 2: Leisure/Entertainment		2.006	16.559	0.725
Theme parks	.547			
Night life	.737			
Live-concert	.748			
Mountainous areas	.620			
Factor 3: Quality/Environment		1.366	8.188	0.814
Cleanness	.637			
Modern cities	.429			
Shopping	.622			
First class hotels	.626			
High quality restaurant	.645			
Friendly local people	.730			
Cognitive Image (Variance Explained: 64.189, KMO: .878, Bartlett: 3041.320, p< .000)				
Factor 1: Different environment/Resources		5.480	42.151	0.867
A good reputation	.860			
Good quality of life	.790			
Unpolluted environment	.716			
Good beaches	.712			
personal safety	.658			
Unusual ways of life	.612			
Good weather	.611			
Friendly people	.557			
Factor 2: Value/Activity		1.695	22.038	0.812
Shopping facilities	.820			
Enjoyable night-life	.803			
Appealing local food (cuisine)	.788			
Opportunities for sports activities	.582			
Affective Image (Variance Explained: 58.176, KMO: .670, Bartlett: 755.841, p< .000)				
		2.327	58.176	0.743
Boring/Exciting	.884			
Unpleasant/Pleasant	.841			
Sleepy/Arousing	.754			
Distressing/Relaxing	.519			
Internet information sources (Variance Explained: 72.722, KMO: .654, Bartlett: 1117.380, p< .000)				
Factor1: Advertisement/Association		2.309	32.982	0.634
Internet advertisements	.821			
Direct emails	.706			

Virtual media	.673			
Factor2: Searching/Communication		1.559	22.278	0.665
Internet blog	.883			
Internet search engines	.720			
Factor3: Official/unofficial information		1.152	16.462	0.618
Companies' website	.871			
Individual website	.695			
Internet usages (Variance Explained: 77.023, KMO: .922, Bartlett: 4471.627, p< .000)				
Factor1: Attitude/Utility		3.629	40.328	0.879
I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information	.836			
I think using Internet helps me plan better travel	.811			
I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet	.728			
My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive	.724			
Factor2: Confidence/Optimism		3.303	36.695	0.929
I will recommend travel information through the internet to other people	.869			
Using internet travel information is the most effective way	.857			
I will use travel information in next travel	.711			
I can acquire more destination image in Web-site than any other media.	.652			
During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want	.608			

Independent tourists

As follows same procedure of package tourists' data, data of independent tourists are shown in Table5.6. Similar with package data, after data screening procedure, a total of 12 items were extracted. In detail, three items from push motivation, two items from pull motivation, four items from cognitive image and three items were removed. In six constructs, two or three factors were drawn from exploratory factor analysis. The researcher offered factor labelling. The explicit findings and summary is in Table5.9.

Table5.9 Final EFA results of independent tourists' data

	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained	Cronbach 's Alpha
Push motivation: (Variance Explained: 64.81, KMO: .845, Bartlett: 2798.885, p< .000)				
Factor 1: Excitement/Knowledge		5.267	41.353	.879
Being free to act how I feel	.734			
Experiencing a foreign destination foreign	.724			
increasing knowledge	.714			

Escaping from the ordinary escape	.708			
Seeing as much as possible sightseeing	.700			
Experiencing new lifestyles	.681			
Getting a change from a busy job	.659			
Going places where I have not been	.655			
Meeting new and other people	.636			
Having a fun	.588			
Factor 2: Family togetherness/Self-consciousness		2.027	15.021	.700
Being together with a family	.799			
Visiting friends or relatives	.796			
Rediscovering past times	.721			
Factor 3: Activity/Adventure		1.350	8.436	.640
Being physically active	.848			
Finding thrills	.761			
Participating in sports	.600			
Pull motivation: (Variance Explained: 72.23, KMO: .885, Bartlett: 3906.692, p< .000)				
Factor 1: Quality/Local environment		6.922	47.379	.855
Shopping	.825			
First class hotels	.742			
Night life	.689			
Live-concert	.688			
High quality restaurant	.643			
Modern cities	.563			
Friendly local people	.457			
Factor 2: Natural scenery/Different culture		1.606	17.115	.811
Different culture	.771			
Outstanding scenery	.698			
Unpolluted nature	.686			
Various activities	.648			
Wide spaces to get away from crowds	.583			
Good weather	.508			
Cleanness	.497			
Factor 3: Outdoor/Local atmosphere		1.392	7.736	.793
Historical sites	.846			
Mountainous areas	.785			
Museums	.737			
Theme parks	.467			
Cognitive Image: (Variance Explained: 68.29, KMO: .878, Bartlett: 3041.320, p< .000)				
Factor 1: Value/Activity		4.603	53.326	.818
Enjoyable night-life	.824			
Shopping facilities	.809			
Appealing local food (cuisine)	.798			
Good value for money	.653			
Good infrastructure of accommodation	.645			
Places of cultural interest	.562			
Opportunities for sports activities	.482			
Factor 2: Different environment/Resources		1.796	14.964	.744
A good reputation	.823			
Good quality of life	.769			

Good beaches	.655			
Unpolluted environment	.633			
Friendly people	.629			
Affective Image: (Variance Explained: 59.198, KMO: .727, Bartlett: 515.779, p< .000)				
Boring/Exciting	.813	2.368	59.198	.764
Unpleasant/Pleasant	.782			
Sleepy/Arousing	.753			
Distressing/Relaxing	.727			
Internet information sources: (Variance Explained: 89.945.198, KMO: .703, Bartlett: 913.481, p< .000)				
Factor1: Advertisement/Communication		2.893	53.781	.744
Virtual media	.823			
Internet advertisements	.738			
Internet search engines	.728			
Internet blog	.661			
Factor2: (Un)official information/Internet marketing		1.409	36.164	.652
Companies' website	.732			
Individual website	.722			
Direct emails	.670			
Hyperlinks on pages you visit	.593			
Internet usages: (Variance Explained: 72.713, KMO: .912, Bartlett: 3020.714, p< .000)				
Factor1: Attitude/Convenience		3.674	40.822	.887
I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information sources	.836			
My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive	.831			
I think using Internet helps me plan better travel	.824			
I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet	.656			
I can acquire more destination image in Web-site than any other media.	.636			
Factor2: Confidence/Effectiveness		2.845	31.891	.868
Using internet travel information is the most effective way	.875			
I will recommend travel information through the internet to other people	.827			
During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want	.680			
I will use travel information in next travel	.589			

Reliability of the EFA

Reliability analysis was conducted on the 14 factors in package data and 13 factors in independent data in six construct respectively. The present study employed Cronbach's alpha statistics as the test of reliability for internal consistency. In terms of package data, the Cronbach's alphas for 14 factors in the six constructs were satisfactory, ranging from .618

to .929. In the independent data, the Cronbach's alphas for 13 factors in the six constructs indicated a range of .640 to .887. All 27 Cronbach's alphas in both package and independent data showed well above the generally accepted lower limit of 0.60 for research at the exploratory stage (Nunnally 1978). This indicated high internal consistency among the variables within each factor.

5.5.3 Confirmatory factor analysis: The measurement model

The next step of the analysis was to assess the extent to which the measurement models of each construct (i.e., push motivation, pull motivation, internet information sources, internet usage, cognitive image and affective image) represented the observed measures with transformation of imputed raw scores. Byrne (2001, p. 100) has suggested that CFA of a measuring instrument is most useful when the measures have been fully developed and their factor structures validated in the previous work. A model based on theory, empirical research, or a combination of both, is postulated and tested for its validity given the sample data. According to Byrne, the CFA model hypothesizes that: 1) a latent variable could be explained by a certain factor structure; 2) each item would have a nonzero loading on the factor it was designed to measure and zero loadings on all other factors; 3) all factors would be correlated; and 4) measurement error terms would be uncorrelated. This procedure is therefore used to determine the extent to which all items actually measure a latent construct (i.e., construct validity).

Measurement models test how well manifest variables are linked to their underlying latent variables (Bryne 1998; Bollen 1990). The results of CFA are an indication of the effects of latent variables on observed items. Model fit indices range between 0 and 1, with values closer to one indicating a good model fit. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested four methods for fixing inadequate fitting models: 1) relate the indicators to a different factor; 2) delete the indicator from the model; 3) relate the indicator to multiple factors; and 4) correlate the error items. If the model does not fit the data well, the confirmatory factor analysis portion of the analysis yields modification indices that are used to improve the adequacy of model fit. Once these changes are made to the model, the model becomes the structural model in which the relationships between latent variables have been estimated. Based on

these recommendations, the present study conducted a number of model adjustments using modification indices were made in order to improve the model fit.

Package tourists

Push motivation construct

The first measurement model examined the latent construct of push motivation. The push motivation construct was initially comprised of a 22-item instrument structured on a seven-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). After the data screening process, push motivation was composed of 16 items under three factors: the *Excitement/Adventure* factor comprises four, the *Enchantment/Sightseeing* factor comprising eight items and the *Social/Relaxing* factor that are composed of four items. The first measurement model fit statistics of the hypothesised model structure indicated an acceptable fit to the data; in particular the RMSEA is below 0.10. However, to see if the fit statistics could be improved, modification indices (MI) were examined and this resulted in correlating the error terms for items e7 and e11, as well as e12 and e13. As the result, improved measurement model fit statistics were achieved, with the RMSEA being reduced to 0.068. Figure 5.2 shows the measurement model for the push motivation construct.

No deleted items

Correlated item

e7 and e11:

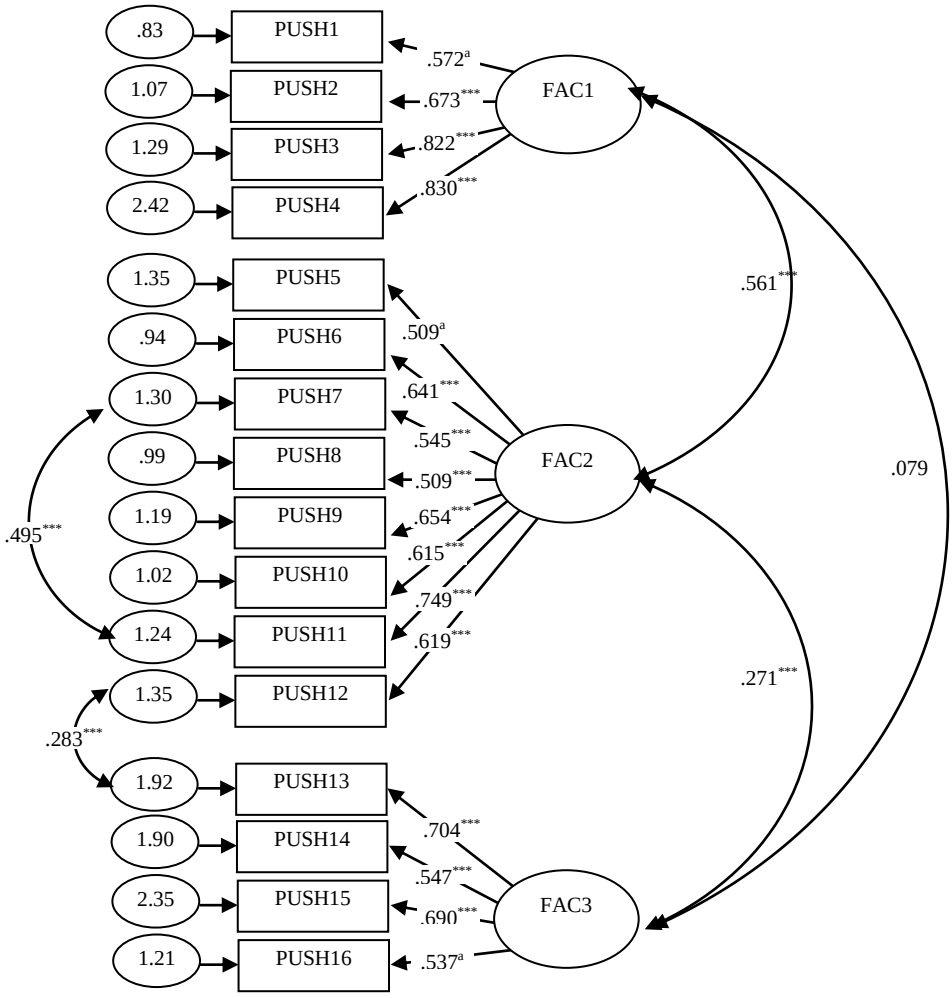
Iitem7: Seeing as much as possible

Item11: Being free to act how I feel

e12 and e13:

Item12: Experiencing new lifestyles

Item13: Experiencing a simpler lifestyle



Initial model fit	χ^2=448.185, df=90, p=.000, GFI=0.926, AGFI=0.888, NFI=0.883, CFI=0.911, RMSEA=0.074
Modified model fit	χ^2=407.655, df=85, p=.000, GFI=0.923, AGFI=0.877, NFI=0.881, CFI=0.902, RMSEA=0.068

Figure 5.2 16-item measurement model for push motivation construct

Pull motivation construct

The second measurement model examined the latent construct of pull motivation, which contained 18 items. Even though the pull motivation construct was originally comprised of 24 items, it was composed of 19 items under three factors: the *Scenery/Nature* factor comprises 10 items, the *Quality/Environment* factor comprises five items and the *Leisure/Entertainment* factor comprises four items after the data screening process. However, one item (various activities) in the *Scenery/Nature* factor loaded on more than one factor and was deleted.

Additionally, modification indices (MI) indicated the need to correlate the error terms for items e10 and e16, as well as e11 and e16. As the result, a small improvement in the measurement model fit statistics was achieved. Figure 5.3 shows the measurement model for the pull motivation construct.

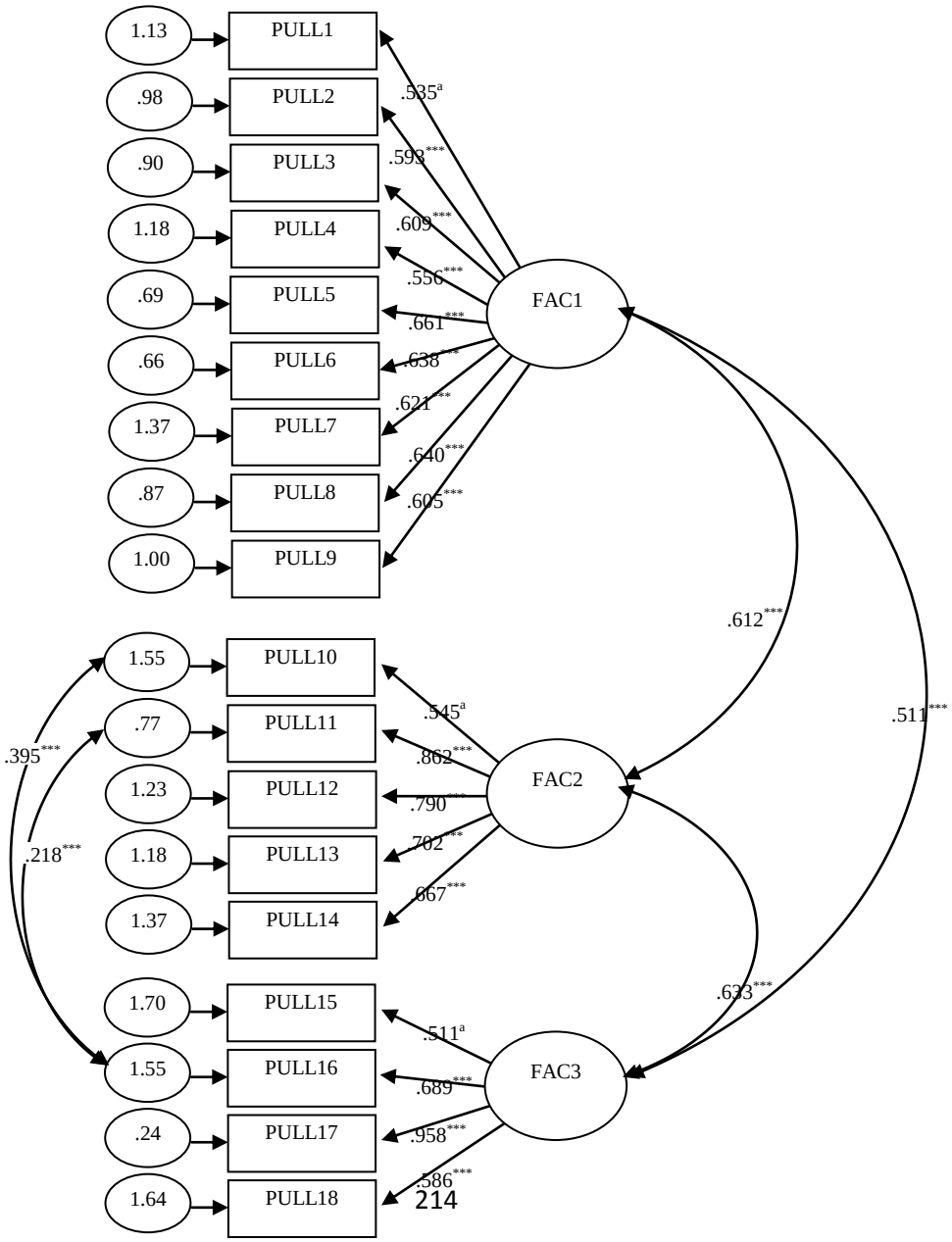
Deleted item: various activities

Correlated item

e10 and e16:

Iitem10: Modern cities
Item16: Night life
e11 and e16:

Item11: Shopping
Item16: Night life

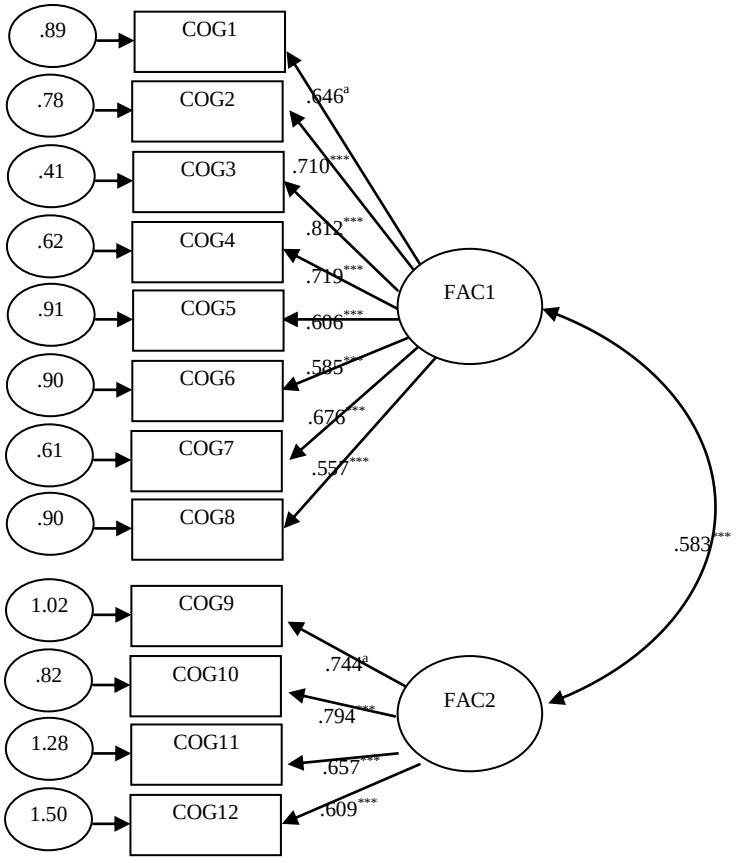


Initial model fit	χ^2=733.454 , df=133, p=0.000, GFI=0.909, AGFI=0.870, NFI=0.880, CFI=0.903, RMSEA=0.077
Modified model fit	χ^2=609.704, df=130, p=0.000, GFI=0.903, AGFI=0.891, NFI=0.886, CFI=0.878, RMSEA=0.075

Figure 5.3 18-item measurement model for pull motivation construct

Cognitive image construct

The next measurement model observed the latent construct of cognitive image. After data screening process, the number of items was reduced from 18 to 12 under two factors: the Different environment/Resources factor comprises eight items and the Value/Activity factor comprises four. The RMSEA of 0.071 revealed that the hypothesized model underlying 12 items of cognitive image was considered to be an adequate fit to the sample data. Therefore, no further re-specification and re-estimation of this construct was necessary. Figure 5.4 shows the measurement model for the cognitive image construct.

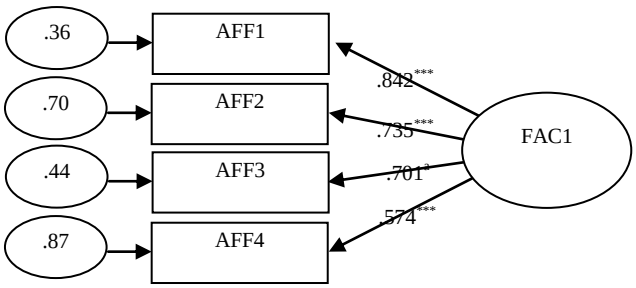


Model fit	χ^2=304.453, df=59, p=0.000, GFI=0.938, AGFI=0.904, NFI=0.920, CFI=0.936, RMSEA=0.071

Figure 5.4 12-item measurement model for cognitive image

Affective image construct

The fourth construct observed the latent construct of affective image, which contained four items. Different with other constructs, this construct is uni-dimensional. A single factor congeneric model, which is the simplest form of measurement model, was built for this construct. This hypothesised model underlying four items of affective image was measured to be a satisfactory fit to the sample data with an RMSEA=0.063. Therefore, no further re-specification and re-estimation of this construct was necessary. Figure 5.5 shows the measurement model for the affective image construct.



Model fit	χ^2=3.409, df=1, p=.065, GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.972, NFI=0.996, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.063

Figure 5.5 Four-item measurement model for affective image

Internet information sources construct

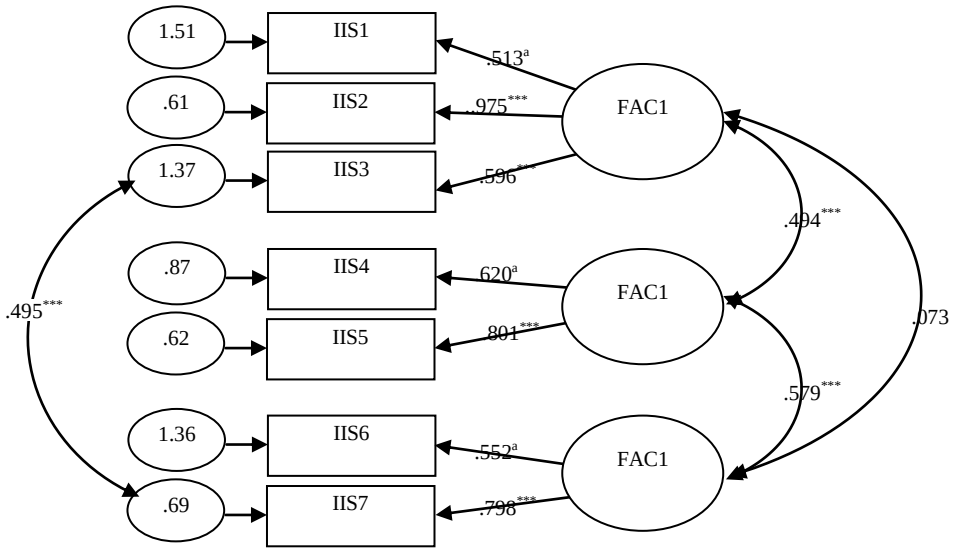
The fifth measurement model identified regarding the latent construct of internet information sources, which enclosed seven items. After data analysis using CFA methods, three factors were drawn. In the *Advertisement/Association* factor, there are three items, while the *Searching/Communication* factor and the *Official/unofficial information* factor have two

factors respectively. The RMSEA (.069) was in the acceptable range after including the correlation parameter estimate between these two error terms (e3 and e7).

Correlated item

e3 and e7:

Iitem3: Direct emails
Item7: Companies' website

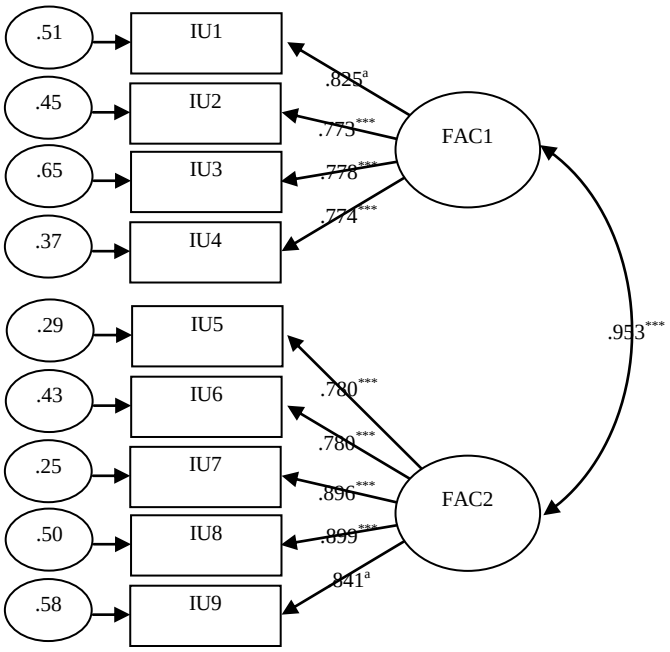


Model fit	χ^2=15.571,df=4, p=.000, GFI=0.993, AGFI=0.949, NFI=0.982, CFI=0.987, RMSEA=0.069

Figure 5.6 Seven-item measurement model for internet information sources

Internet usage construct

The last measurement model identified regarding the latent construct of internet usage, which enclosed nine items. In this construct, two factors, were found: *Attitude/Utility* and *Confidence/Optimism*. This hypothesised model underlying nine items of internet usage was measured to be a satisfactory fit to the sample data with RMSEA=0.073. Therefore, no further re-specification and re-estimation of this construct was necessary. Figure 5.7 shows the measurement model for the construct of internet usage.



Model fit	χ^2=93.802, df=22, p=.000, GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985, RMSEA=0.073

Figure 5.7 Nine item measurement model for internet usage

To analyse package tourists' data, the six measurement models were examined utilising Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). These were modified using a post hoc model, especially modification indices (MI). The final model fit indicates a good model fit, so the package tourists' data can be employed for further analysis. Table 5.10 shows the summary of model fit and the method employed in the six constructs.

Table 5.10 Summary of measurement models for package tourists' data

Constructs	Model fit	Number of factors	Number of items	Number of modification indices
Push motivation	χ^2=407.655, df=85, p=.000, GFI=0.923, AGFI=0.877, NFI=0.881, CFI=0.902, RMSEA=0.068	3	16	2
Pull motivation	χ^2=609.704, df=130, p=0.000, GFI=0.903, AGFI=0.891, NFI=0.886, CFI=0.878, RMSEA=0.075	3	18 (one item was deleted)	2
Cognitive image	χ^2=304.453, df=59, p=0.000, GFI=0.938, AGFI=0.904, NFI=0.920, CFI=0.936, RMSEA=0.071	2	12	0
Affective image	χ^2=3.409, df=1, p=.065, GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.972, NFI=0.996, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.063	1	4	0
IIS	χ^2=15.571,df=4, p=.000, GFI=0.993, AGFI=0.949, NFI=0.982, CFI=0.987, RMSEA=0.069	3	7	1
IU	χ^2=93.802, df=22, p=.000, GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985, RMSEA=0.073	2	9	0

Measurement model reliability and validity

A reliability test was conducted to test the internal consistency of results of the CFA using the coefficient alpha. The coefficient alpha estimates for each of the 14 factors in six constructs in the main study are a range of .713 to .929. Since all are greater than 0.70, all measures appeared to be good indicators of each construct with multiple items.

As can be seen in Table 5.12, all factor loadings for the observed variables were statistically significant; indicating t-values ranged from 5.232 to 29.139 ($p < .001$) and standardized factor loadings ranged from .509 to .975, thereby supporting the construct validity of the results. The results of reliability and validity tests are presented in Table 5.11 and Table 5.12.

Table 5.11 Summary of reliability and validity tests

	Standardized loading	t-value	Cronbach alpha	Model fits
Push motivation				χ^2=407.655, df=85, p=.000, GFI=0.923, AGFI=0.877, NFI=0.881, CFI=0.902, RMSEA=0.068
Factor 1			.777	
PUSH1: Participating in sports	.572			
PUSH2:Rediscovering myself	.673	9.056***		
PUSH3:Finding thrills	.822	12.534***		
PUSH4:Being physically active	.830	12.534***		
Factor 2			.836	
PUSH5:Experiencing a foreign destination	.509			
PUSH6:Escaping from the ordinary	.641	10.809***		
PUSH7:Seeing as much as possible	.545	11.835***		
PUSH8:Having a fun	.509	9.420***		
PUSH9:Going places where I have not been	.654	10.570***		
PUSH10:Getting a change from a busy job	.615	10.550***		
PUSH11:Being free to act how I feel	.749	11.379***		
PUSH12:Experiencing new lifestyles	.619	10.682***		
Factor 3			.713	
PUSH13:Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	.704	7.927***		
PUSH14:Getting away from home	.547	9.971***		
PUSH15:Being together with a family	.690	7.833***		
PUSH16:Visiting friends or relatives	.537			
Pull motivation				χ^2=609.704, df=130, p=0.000, GFI=0.903, AGFI=0.891, NFI=0.886, CFI=0.878, RMSEA=0.075
Factor 1			.841	
PULL1: Wide spaces to get away from crowds	.535			
PULL2: Various activities	.593	10.990***		
PULL3: Good weather	.609	11.169***		
PULL4: Personal safety	.556	10.620***		
PULL5: Outstanding scenery	.661	11.836***		
PULL6: Unpolluted nature	.638	11.588***		
PULL7: Museums	.621	11.398***		
PULL8: Good quality's beach	.640	11.567***		
PULL9: Different culture	.605	11.165***		
Factor 2			.814	
PULL10: Modern cities	.545			
PULL11: Shopping	.862	14.249***		
PULL12: First class hotels	.790	13.756***		
PULL13: High quality restaurant	.702	13.140***		
PULL14: Friendly local people	.667	11.442***		
Factor 3			.725	
PULL15: Theme parks	.511			
PULL16: Night life	.689	9.034***		

PULL17: Live-concert	.958	9.411***		
PULL18: Mountainous areas	.586	7.781***		
Cognitive Image				
Factor 1			.867	
COG1:Unusual ways of life	.646			
COG2:Unpolluted environment	.710	14.604***		
COG3:A good reputation	.812	16.001***		
COG4:Good quality of life	.719	14.507***		
COG5:Personal safety	.606	12.805***		
COG6:Friendly people	.585	12.419***		
COG7:Good beaches	.676	14.053***		
COG8:Good weather	.557	12.075***		
Factor 2			.812	
COG9:Shopping facilities	.744			
COG10:Enjoyable night-life	.794	17.649***		
COG11:Appealing local food (cuisine)	.657	14.938***		
COG12:Opportunities for sports activities	.609	13.865***		
Affective Image				χ^2=3.409, df=1, p=.065, GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.972, NFI=0.996, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.063
AFF1:Unpleasant/Pleasant	.701		.743	
AFF2:Sleepy/Arousing	.735	15.384***		
AFF3:Distressing/Relaxing	.574	10.389***		
AFF4:Boring/Exciting	.842	18.045***		
Internet information sources				χ^2=15.571,df=4, p=.000, GFI=0.993, AGFI=0.949, NFI=0.982, CFI=0.987, RMSEA=0.069
Factor1			.734	
IIS1:Internet advertisements	.513			
IIS2:Virtual media	.975	6.360***		
IIS3:Direct emails	.596	5.232***		
Factor2			.765	
IIS4:Internet search engines	.620			
IIS5:Internet blog	.801	5.421***		
Factor3			.718	
IIS6:Companies' website	.552			
IIS7:Individual website	.798	10.828***		
Internet usage				χ^2=93.802, df=22, p=.000, GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985, RMSEA=0.073
Factor1			.879	
IU1:I think using Internet helps me plan better travel	.825			
IU2:I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information	.773	21.656***		
IU3:I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet	.778	20.046***		
IU4:My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive	.774	26.049***		
Factor2			.929	
IU5:I can acquire more destination image in Web-site than any other media	.780	29.139***		

IU6:During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want	.780	25.089***		
IU7:I will use travel information in next travel	.896	25.173***		
IU8:I will recommend travel information through the internet to other people	.899	23.096***		
IU9:Using internet travel information is the most effective way	.841			

Table 5.12 Correlation matrix between constructs for package tourists

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Push motivation	1						
2. Pull motivation	.173***	1					
3. IIS	.048***	.090***	1				
4. IU	.123***	.079*	.213***	1			
5. Cognitive	.164***	.692***	.119***	.210***	1		
6. Affective image	.156***	.373***	.104***	.328***	.450***	1	
7. Overall image	.154***	.403***	.142***	.354***	.510***	.606***	1

* P<0.05, *** P<0.001

Independent tourists

Push motivation construct

To have consistency with data analysis of package data, confirmatory factory analysis with independent data was analysed same methods. The present study analysed six constructs in the independent data. The first measurement model examined the latent construct of push motivation, which contained 16 items. These 16 items were included in three factors: 1) Activity/Adventure, 2) Excitement/Knowledge and 3) Family togetherness/Self-consciousness. These labels were named by the researcher based on the results of EFA and CFA. The first factor (Activity/Adventure) contains three items; the second factor (Excitement/Knowledge) has 10 items and the last factor has also three items. The results of first measurement model fit statistics indicated a reasonable fit to the sample data; however, AGFI (.873) and NFI (.858) did not show the appropriate level, so further respecified model fit is needed. Two items (item 2 and 9) holding the highest values of modification indices in the factor loadings was initially deleted one by one and re-estimated the overall model fit.

However, dropping an item from either pair did not improve fit statistics. As the next step, after running the model, the modification indices (MI) suggested correlating the error terms for item 12 and 13 and item 1 and 2. After correlating the error terms for items (e7 and e11, e12 and e13), improved measurement model fit statistics were achieved (χ^2=280.733, df=88, p=.000, GFI=0.937, AGFI=0.902, NFI=0.901, CFI=0.929, RMSEA=0.067). Figure 5.8 shows the measurement model for the push motivation construct.

Correlated item

e1 and e2:

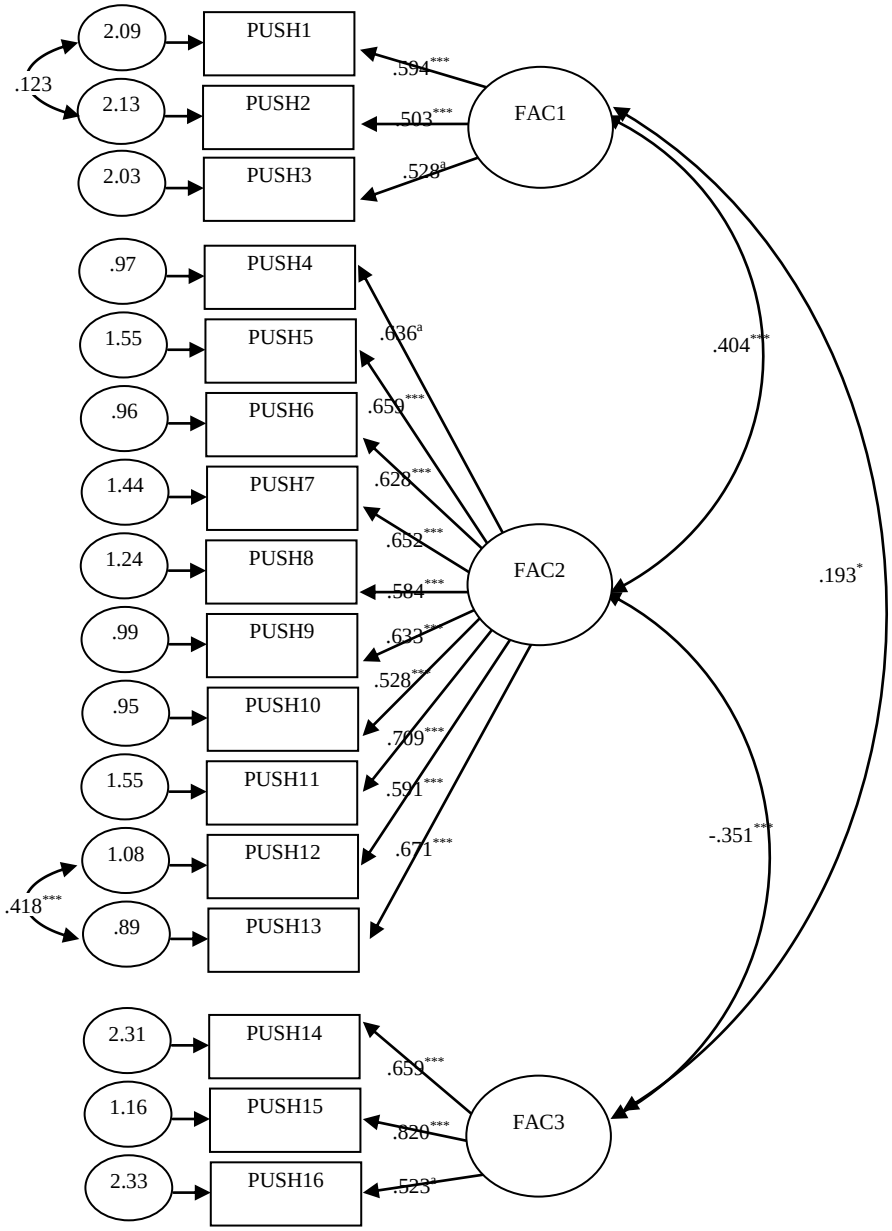
Iitem1: Being physically active

Item2: Finding thrills

e12and e13:

Item12: Experiencing a foreign destination

Item13: Increasing knowledge



Initial model fit	χ^2=302.552, df=95, p=.000, GFI=0.911, AGFI=0.873, NFI=0.858, CFI=0.904, RMSEA=0.076
Modified model fit	χ^2=280.733, df=88, p=.000, GFI=0.937, AGFI=0.902, NFI=0.901, CFI=0.929, RMSEA=0.067

Figure 5.8 16-item measurement model for push motivation construct

Pull motivation construct

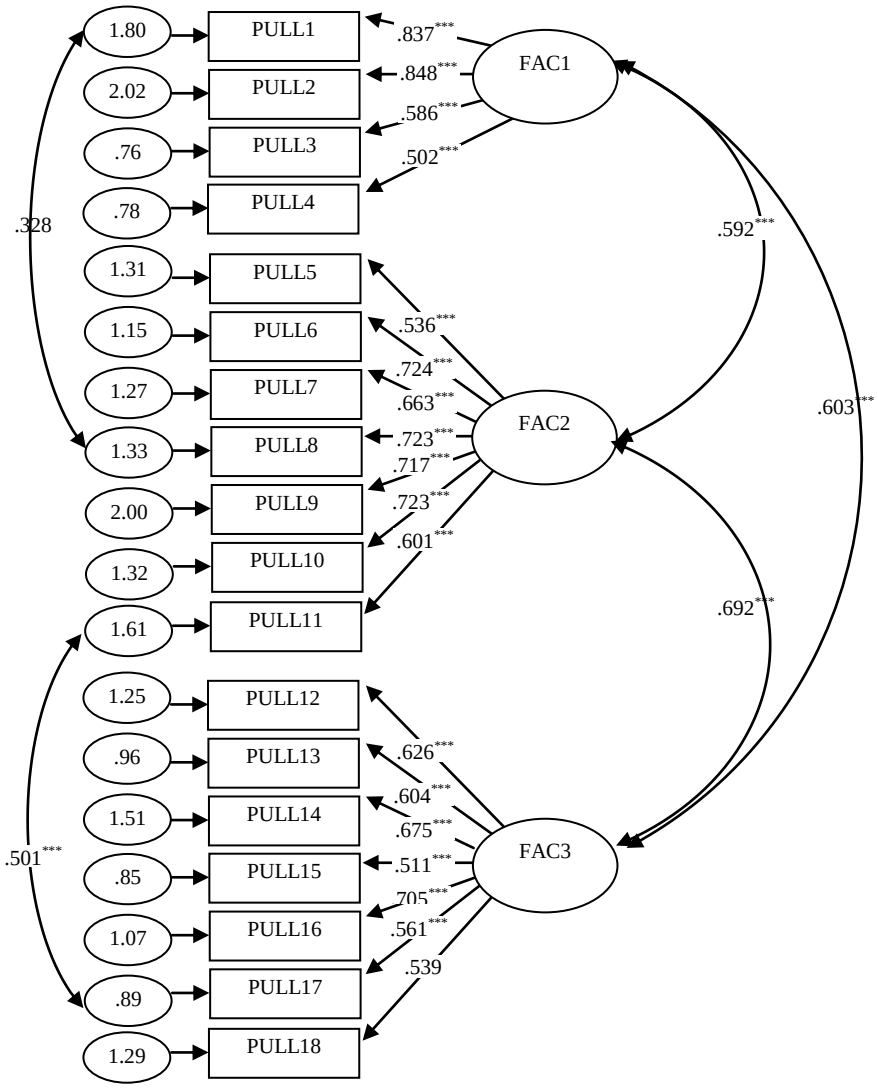
The second measurement model observed the latent construct of pull motivation. In this construct, a total of 18 items were used to analyse data and they were was composed of three factors: the *Outdoor/Local atmosphere* factor comprises four items, the *Quality/Local environment* factor seven and the *Natural scenery/Different culture* factor seven after data screening process. According to the first measurement model fit statistics, it indicated an unappropriated level of model fit (χ^2=435.658, AGFI=0.840, NFI=0.865 and RMSEA=0.081). To intend to have a reasonable fit, the modification indices (MI) were employed. In the result of the pull motivation construct in package data, as one item (various activities) was loaded on more than one factor, it can be deleted. However, there are no ambiguous items that are loaded in more than one factor. Additionally, deleting items that have a higher value of modification indices does not have any influence model fit. Modification indices in the factor loadings suggested correlating the error terms for item 1 and 8 and item 11 and 17. After correlating the error terms for items (e1 and e8, e11 and e17), a better measurement model fit statistics was achieved (χ^2=394.683, df=118, p=.000, GFI=0.924, AGFI=0.890, NFI=0.900, CFI=0.927, RMSEA=0.069). Figure 5.9 shows the measurement model for the pull motivation construct.

Correlated items

e1 and e8:

Iitem1: Theme parks
Item8: Shopping
e11and e17:

Item11: Friendly local people
Item17: Different culture



Initial model fit	χ^2=435.658,, df=124, p=.000, GFI=0.901, AGFI=0.840, NFI=0.865, CFI=0.911, RMSEA=0.087
Modified model fit	χ^2=394.683, df=118, p=.000, GFI=0.924, AGFI=0.890, NFI=0.900, CFI=0.927, RMSEA=0.069

Figure 5.9 18-item measurement model for pull motivation construct

Cognitive image construct

The next measurement model observed the latent construct of cognitive image, which contained 12 items. As discussed in Chapter 3, cognitive image construct was developed from various literatures and specifically from Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b). Cognitive image was measured through two latent factors and with

12 observed items: the *Different environment/Resources* factor comprises eight and the *Value/Activity* factor four. The model fit indicators, GFI=0.858, AGFI=0.890, NFI=0.902, CFI=0.885, RMSEA=0.087 indicate that the model is not a good fit. In order to achieve an acceptable fit for the model, a number of post hoc model fit procedures were conducted; one item (Places of cultural interest) in the *Different environment/Resources* factor that loaded on more than one factor was identified and deleted. Additionally, modification indices (MI) were also applied by correlating the error terms for items (e3 and e4, e8 and e10). As the result, improved measurement model fit statistics was achieved (χ^2=173.123, df=43, p=.000, GFI=0.945, AGFI=0.900, NFI=0.926, CFI=0.943, RMSEA=0.078). Error items being correlated are:

Deleted item: Places of cultural interest

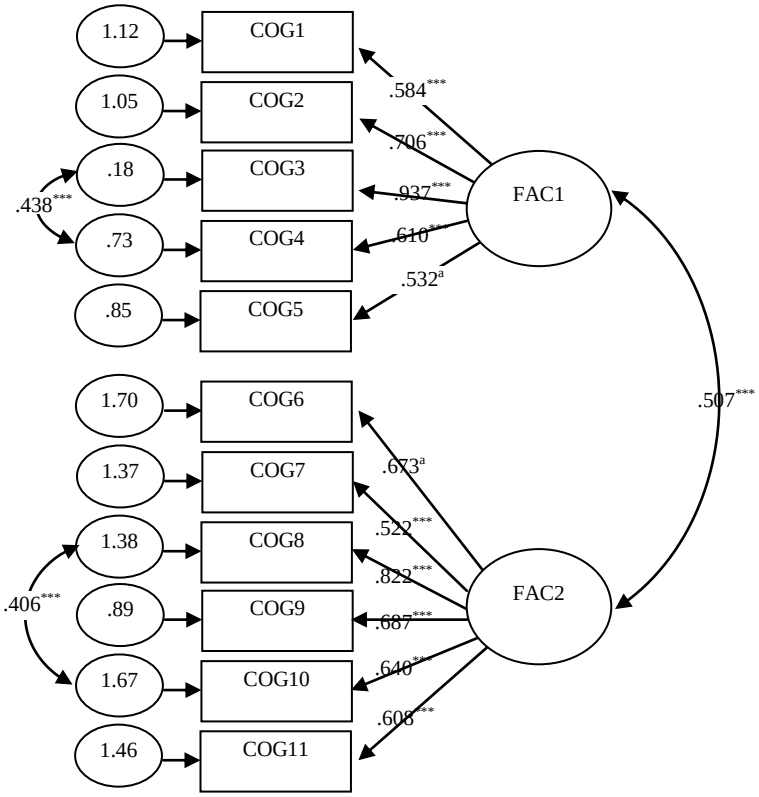
Correlated items

e3 and e4:

Iitem3: A good reputation
Item4: Unpolluted environment
e8 and e10:

Item8: Appealing local food (cuisine)

Item10: Shopping facilities

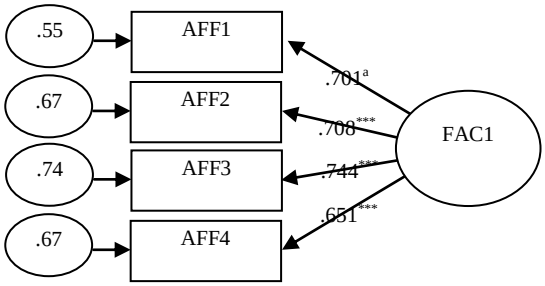


Initial model fit	χ^2=194.547, df=64, p=.000, GFI=0.858, AGFI=0.890, NFI=0.902, CFI=0.885, RMSEA=0.087
Modified model fit	χ^2=173.123, df=43, p=.000, GFI=0.945, AGFI=0.900, NFI=0.926, CFI=0.943, RMSEA=0.078

Figure 5.10 11-item measurement model for cognitive image

Affective image construct

The fourth construct observed the latent construct of affective image, which contained 4 items. Different with other constructs, this construct has uni-dimensional characteristics. A single factor congeneric model, which is the simplest form of measurement model, was built for this construct. This hypothesised model underlying 4 items of affective image was measured to be a satisfactory fit to the sample data (χ^2=2.514, df=1, p=.000, GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.975, NFI=0.995, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.055). Among 12 CFA models for the present study, the model fit of affective image in the independent tourists shows the best model fit. Therefore, no further re-specification and re-estimation of this construct was necessary. Figure 5.11 shows the measurement model for the affective image construct.



Model fit: χ^2=2.514, df=1, p=.000, GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.975, NFI=0.995, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.055

Figure 5.11 Four-item measurement model for affective image

Internet information sources construct

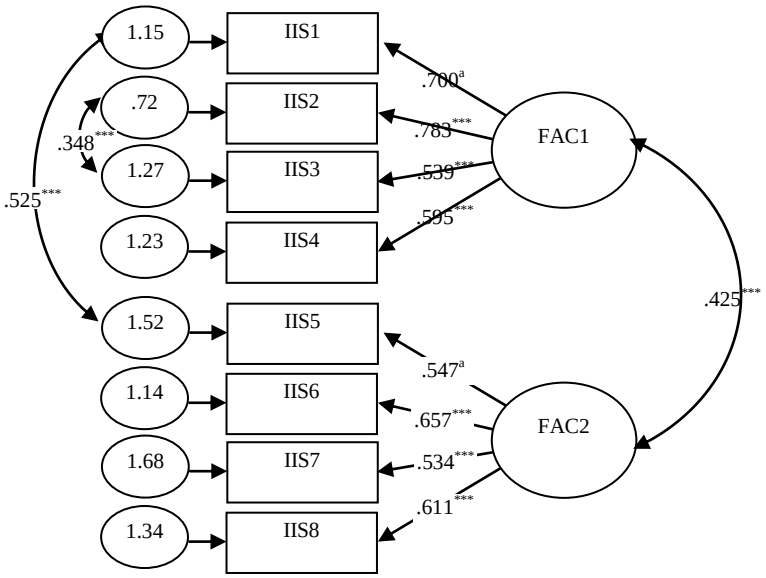
Internet information sources were combined scale adapted from several literatures, especially from Ashish & Knoblock (1997) and Rao (2007). This measurement model identified regarding the latent construct of internet information sources with eight items under two

factors. As the first model fit cannot be acknowledged as satisfactory (GFI=0.883, AGFI=0.842 and RMSEA=0.085), modification indices (MI) were also applied by correlating the error terms for items to develop a better model fitting (e1 and e5, e2 and e3). Overall model fit was in the acceptable range after freeing the correlation parameter estimate between these two error terms.

Correlated items

e1 and e5:

Item1: Internet advertisements
Item5: Direct emails
e2 and e3:
Item2: Virtual media
Item3: Internet search engines



Initial model fit	χ^2=51.128, df=17, p=.001, GFI=0.883, AGFI=0.842, NFI=0.922, CFI=0.9845, RMSEA=0.085
Modified model fit	χ^2=40.120, df=14, p=.001, GFI=0.965, AGFI=0.929, NFI=0.975, CFI=0.982, RMSEA=0.072

Figure 5.12 Eight-item measurement model for internet information sources

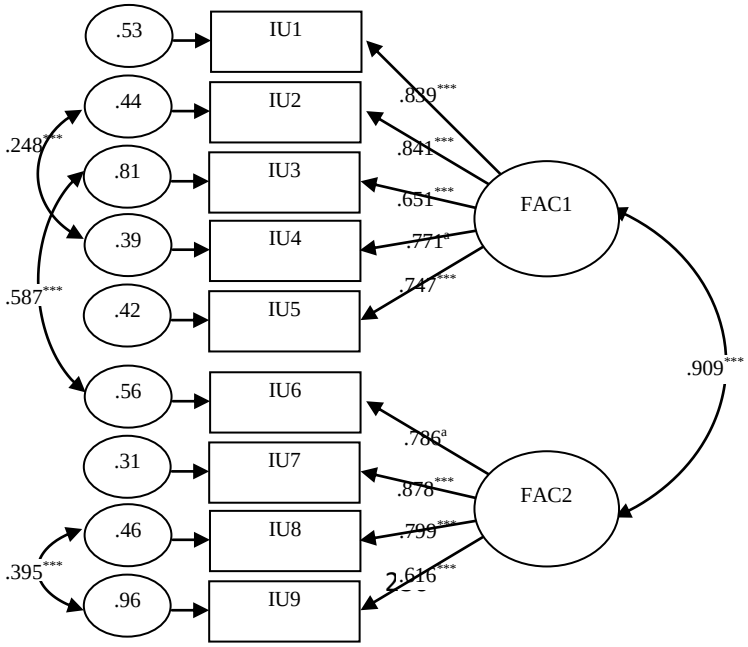
Internet usage construct

The last measurement model identified regarding the latent construct of internet usages, which enclosed nine items. Internet usages were mainly from previous literature, especially Li and Buhalis (2005) and Rao (2007). Theoretical bases are cognitive characteristics, self-efficacy and confidence of the internet sources. In this construct, two factors, such as the *Attitude/Convenience* and the *Confidence/Effectiveness* were labelled. The first model fit showed a comparatively poor fit, so further modification process was applied using modification indices by correlating the error terms for items to develop a better model fitting (e2 and e4, e3 and e6 and e8 and e9). After this process, model fit shows a satisfactory fit to the sample data (χ^2=77.597, df=22, p=.000, GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985, RMSEA=0.073). Figure 5.13 shows the measurement model for the construct of internet usage.

Correlated items

e2 and e4:

Item2: I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information sources
Item4: I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet
e3 and e6:
Item3: My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive
Item6: During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want.
e8 and e9:
Item8: I will recommend travel information through the internet to other people
Item9: Using internet travel information is the most effective way



Initial model fit	χ^2=108.248, df=35, p=.000, GFI=0.901, AGFI=0.857, NFI=0.930, CFI=0.925, RMSEA=0.084
Modified model fit	χ^2=77.597, df=22, p=.000, GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985, RMSEA=0.073

Figure 5.13 Eight-item measurement model for internet usage

To analyse independent tourists' data, the six measurement models were examined utilising Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As already explained above in the package data, the summarised table is provided. Table 5.13 shows the summary of model fit and employing method in the six constructs.

Table 5.13 Summary of measurement models for independent tourists' data

Constructs	Model fit	Number of factors	Number of items	Number of modification indices
Push motivation	χ^2=280.733, df=88, p=.000, GFI=0.937, AGFI=0.902, NFI=0.901, CFI=0.929, RMSEA=0.067	3	16	2
Pull motivation	χ^2=394.683, df=118, p=.000, GFI=0.924, AGFI=0.890, NFI=0.900, CFI=0.927, RMSEA=0.069	3	18	2
Cognitive image	χ^2=173.123, df=43, p=.000, GFI=0.945, AGFI=0.900, NFI=0.926, CFI=0.943, RMSEA=0.078	2	11	2
Affective image	χ^2=2.514, df=1, p=.000, GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.975, NFI=0.995, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.055	1	4	0
IIS	χ^2=40.120, df=14, p=.001, GFI=0.965, AGFI=0.929, NFI=0.975, CFI=0.982, RMSEA=0.072	2	8	2
IU	χ^2=77.597, df=22, p=.000, GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985, RMSEA=0.073	2	9	3

Measurement model reliability and validity

As a reliability test, the coefficient alpha was used; as validity tests, the t-test and the factor loadings were used for construct validity and correlation matrix for discrminant validity. The coefficient alpha estimates for each of the 13 factors in six constructs in the main study are a range of .712 to .887. Based on the suggested cut off points, all measures appeared to be good indicators of each construct with multiple items. As can be seen in Table5.15, all factor loadings for the observed variables were statistically significant; indicating t-values ranging from 4.972 to 22.585 ($p < .001$) and standardized factor loadings ranging from .502 to .937, thereby supporting the construct validity of the results. The results of reliability and validity tests are presented in Table5.14 and Table5.15.

Table 5.14 Summary of reliability and validity tests

	Standardized loading	t-value	Cronbach's alpha	Model fits
Push motivation:				χ^2=280.733*** (df=88,), GFI=0.937, AGFI=0.902, NFI=0.901, CFI=0.929, RMSEA=0.067
Factor 1			.740	
PUSH1: Being physically active	.594			
PUSH2: Finding thrills	.503	7.502***		
PUSH3: Participating in sports	.528	4.972***		
Factor 2			.879	
PUSH4: Experiencing new lifestyles	.636			
PUSH5: Meeting new and other people	.659	15.470***		
PUSH6: Being free to act how I feel	.628	11.445***		
PUSH7: Getting a change from a busy job	.652	12.974***		
PUSH8: Going places where I have not been	.584	10.746***		
PUSH9: Having fun	.633	11.554***		
PUSH10: Seeing as much as possible	.528	9.793***		
PUSH11: Escaping from the ordinary escape	.709	12.602***		
PUSH12: Experiencing a foreign destination	.591	10.937***		
PUSH13: Increasing knowledge	.671	12.116***		
Factor 3			.750	
PUSH14: Rediscovering past times	.659	9.533***		
PUSH15: Visiting friends or relatives	.820	8.977***		
PUSH16: Being together with a family	.523			
Pull motivation				χ^2=394.683*** (df=118), GFI=0.924, AGFI=0.890, NFI=0.900, CFI=0.927, RMSEA=0.069
Factor 1			.793	
PULL1: Theme parks	.837			
PULL2: Mountainous areas	.848	16.784***		
PULL3: Historical sites	.586	11.635***		
PULL4: Museums	.502	11.068***		
Factor 2			.855	
PULL5: Modern cities	.536	10.378***		

PULL6: Night life	.724	12.737***		
PULL7: Live-concert	.663	11.648***		
PULL8: Shopping	.723	12.671***		
PULL9: First class hotels	.717	12.703***		
PULL10: High quality restaurant	.723	12.616***		
PULL11: Friendly local people	.601			
Factor 3			.811	
PULL12: Wide spaces to get away from crowds	.626	10.378***		
PULL13: Various activities	.604	12.737***		
PULL14: Good weather	.675	11.648***		
PULL15: Outstanding scenery	.511	12.671***		
PULL16: Unpolluted nature	.705	12.703***		
PULL17: Different culture	.561	12.616***		
PULL18: Cleanness	.539	10.953***		
Cognitive Image				
Factor 1			.774	
COG1: Good beaches	.584			
COG2: Good quality of life	.706	12.727***		
COG3: A good reputation	.937	14.317***		
COG4: Unpolluted environment different	.610	11.591***		
COG5: Friendly people	.532	10.490***		
Factor 2			.839	χ^2=173.123*** (df=43), GFI=0.945, AGFI=0.900, NFI=0.926, CFI=0.943, RMSEA=0.078
COG6: Good infrastructure of accommodation	.673			
COG7: Opportunities for sports activities	.522	10.199***		
COG8: Appealing local food (cuisine)	.822	14.869***		
COG9: Enjoyable night-life	.687	12.943***		
COG10: Shopping facilities	.640	12.269***		
COG11: Good value for money	.608	13.963***		
Affective Image			.764	χ^2=2.514(df=1), GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.975, NFI=0.995, CFI=0.997, RMSEA=0.055
AFF1: Unpleasant/Pleasant	.701			
AFF2:Sleepy/Arousing	.708	10.841***		
AFF3:Distressing/Relaxing	.744	11.251***		
AFF4:Boring/Exciting	.651	12.905***		
Internet information sources				
Factor1			.744	
IIS1: Internet advertisements	.700			
IIS2: Virtual media	.783	10.517***		
IIS3: Internet search engines	.539	9.520***		
IIS4: Internet blog	.595	9.290***		
Factor2			.712	χ^2=40.120*** (df=14), GFI=0.965, AGFI=0.929, NFI=0.975, CFI=0.982, RMSEA=0.072
IIS5: Direct emails	.547			
IIS6: Hyperlinks on pages you visit	.657	7.389***		
IIS7: Companies' website	.534	8.376***		
IIS8: Individual website	.611	7.133***		
Internet usage				
Factor1			.887	χ^2=77.597*** (df=22), GFI=0.967, AGFI=0.933, NFI=0.980, CFI=0.985,
IU1: I think using Internet helps me plan better	.839	19.755***		
IU2:I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information sources	.841	19.594***		

IU3:I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet	.651	14.710***		RMSEA=0.073
IU4:My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive	.771			
IU5:I can acquire more destination image in Web-site than any other media.	.747	22.585***		
Factor2			.868	
IU6:During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want.	.786			
IU7:I will use travel information in next travel	.878	21.238***		
IU8:I will recommend travel information through the internet to other people	.799	18.827***		
IU9:Using internet travel information is the most effective way	.616	13.804***		

***P<.001

Table 5.15 Correlation matrix between constructs for independent tourists

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Push motivation	1						
2. Pull motivation	-.142***	1					
3. Internet sources	-.130***	.336***	1				
4. Internet sources	-.115***	.210***	.423***	1			
5. Cognitive image	-.120***	.472***	.292***	.215***	1		
6. Affective image	-.145***	.339***	.415***	.347***	.337***	1	
7. Overall image	-.116***	.323***	.253***	.338***	.366***	.648***	1

*** P<0.001

5.5.4 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

As SEM allows for the testing of multiple equations with multiple dependent variables, provides parameter values (i.e., path coefficients) for each of the research hypotheses and provides the ability to measure or specify the causal relationships among sets of unobserved (latent) variables, SEM using AMOS version 17.0 was used to test the hypothesised relationship of latent variables for the present study.

Also, SEM provides answers for the questions involved with multiple regression analyses of factors (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). In other words, SEM is used to examine whether the proposed model efficiently explains links among latent variables. The proposed model of this

study was examined for overall goodness-of-fit and paths between latent variables to test the hypotheses of the present study. Various fit indices are used as indicators to examine the goodness-of-fit of proposed models. McDonald and Ho (2002) summarized some of the commonly used fit indices. Table 5.16 shows fit indices used in this study.

Table 5.16 Restatement of fit indices utilised it this study

Fit Indices	Indices Good Fit
Chi-square	*p > .05* (*A large chi-square → poor fit, a small value →
GFI (goodness-of-fit index)	> .90
AGFI (adjusted goodness-of-fit	> .90
NFI (Normed fit index)	> .90
CFI (Comparative fit index)	> .90
RMSEA (Root-mean-square	< .05

**Note: Chi-square is sensitive to sample size in most cases especially when the sample size is more than 200*

To restate of the research questions in quantitative phase are:

1) What are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists in regard to Australia's destination image?

2) How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to the destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

3) How do the aspects of the internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors, and personal factors contribute to destination image?

To answer research questions, the present study conducted SEM with package and independent data separately.

Package tourists

This section reports on the fitting of an initial structural equation model and then the final structural equation model to answer hypotheses for the present study. The proposed model is based on the CFA model and is shown in Figure 5.14 It includes seven latent constructs, each involving a different number of latent variables: push motivation (three latent variables); pull motivation (three latent variables); IIS (three latent variables); IU (two latent variables); cognitive image (two latent variables); affective image (four latent variables); and overall image (one latent variables). Thus, a total of 18 latent variables were used in the SEM. The

results of initial fitted model are shown in Table 5.18 and indicates a good fit with RMSEA=0.071) for the package data, however, further examination of the AMOS output was conducted to determine possible ways for improving the model. Closer examination of modification indices resulted in correlating the error terms for items (err 2 and 4, err 8 and 9). The model was rerun with the correlated errors. Therefore, model estimation results in an improved model fit as shown in Table 5.17, where the RMSEA has been reduced to 0.058.

Table 5.17 Comparing model fit between initial and final model for package data

Model	Model fit
Initial SEM	χ^2=327.326 (df=80), GFI=0.946, AGFI=0.884, NFI=0.940, CFI=0.953, RMSEA=0.071
Final SEM	χ^2=294.798 (df=97), GFI=.955, AGFI=.903, NFI=.950, CFI=.965, RMSEA=.058

The final model showing coefficients in standardised form is presented in Figure 5.15. In the final model, solid lines represent 'supported hypotheses', while dotted lines show 'not supported hypotheses'. According to the results of SEM, among 19 sub-hypotheses, nine hypotheses were supported. Supported hypotheses are shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18 Supported hypotheses of package data

H1-1	Push motivation → IIS
H2-1	Push motivation → IU
H3-2	Pull motivation → Cognitive image
H3-4	IU → Cognitive image
H4-1	Push motivation → Affective image
H4-4	IU → Affective image
H4-5	Cognitive image → Affective image
H5-3	IIS → Overall image
H5-6	Affective image → Overall image

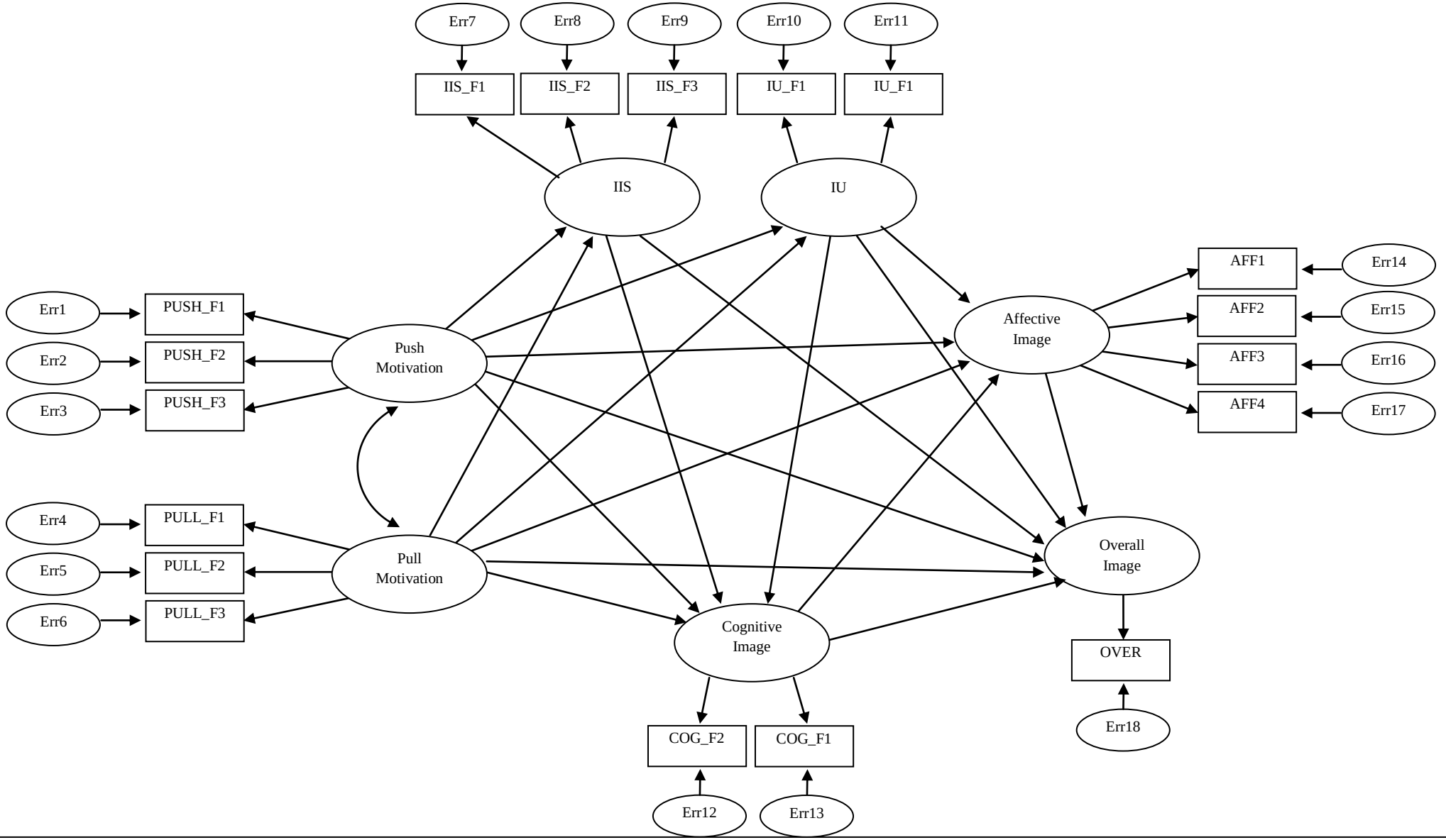


Figure 5.14 Proposed SEM model for package tourists

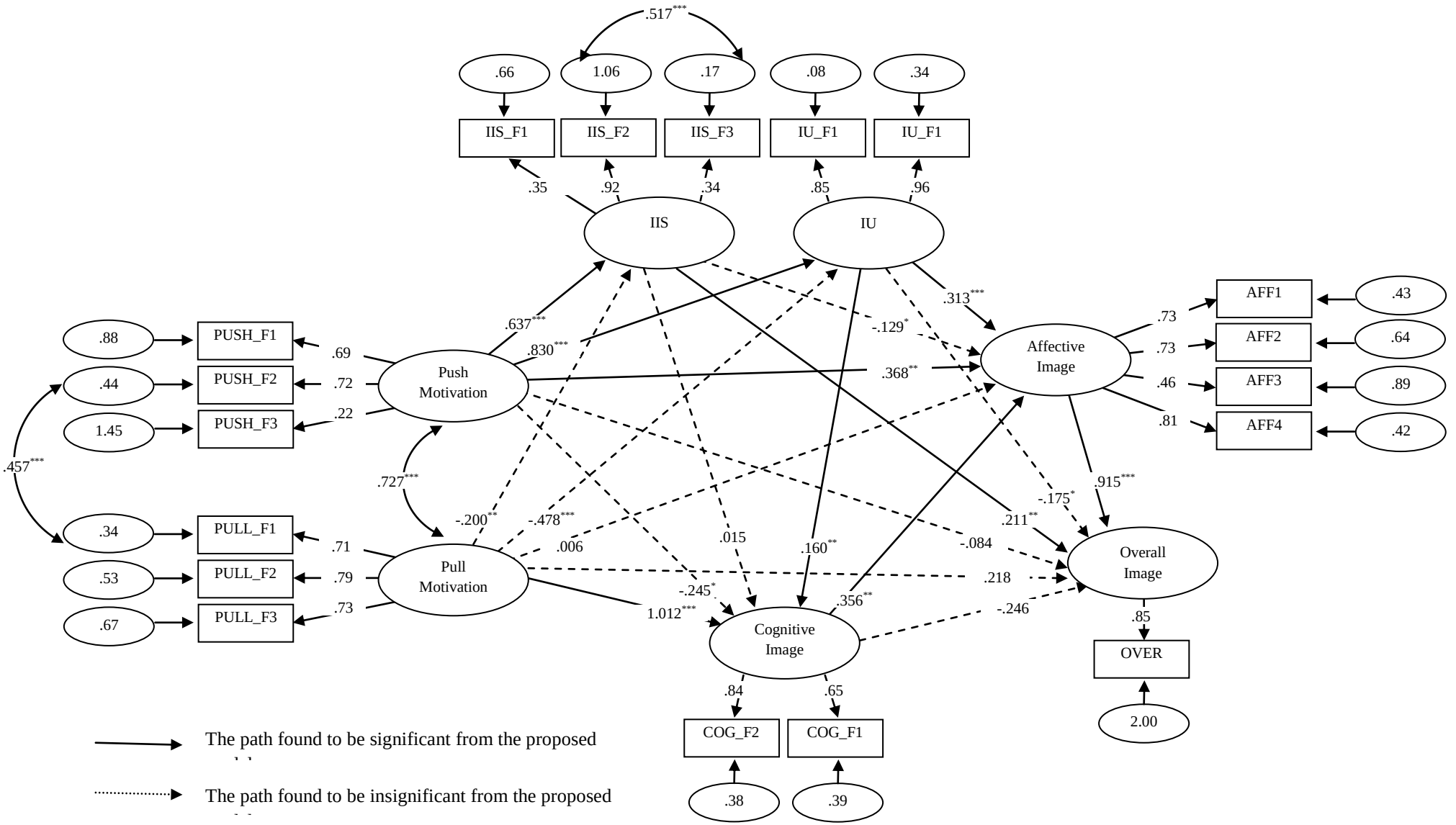


Figure 5.15 Fitted SEM model for package tourists

Independent tourists

With a total of 495 usable samples, the present study conducted EFA and CFA sequentially same as package data. The initial model includes seven latent constructs: push motivation (three items), pull motivation (three items), IIS (two items), IU (two items), cognitive image (two items), affective image (four items) and overall image (one item). A total of 17 items were used to conduct SEM. The results of the initial model indicate a good fit (χ^2=219.774 (df=69), GFI=0.949, AGFI=0.887, NFI=0.941, CFI=0.958, RMSEA=0.067) for the independent data. To retain improved model fit, further examination was conducted. Modification indices were applied by correlating the error terms for items to develop a better model fitting (err 1 and 3, err 2 and 5 and err 7 and 8). The model was rerun with the correlated errors. Therefore, model estimation results in an improved model fit (χ^2=274.053 (df=94), GFI=.946, AGFI=.891, NFI=.931, CFI=.953, RMSEA= 0.062) as provided in Table5.19.

Table 5.19 Comparing model fit between initial and final model for independent data

Model	Model fit
Initial SEM	χ^2=219.774 (df=69), GFI=0.949, AGFI=0.887, NFI=0.941, CFI=0.958, RMSEA=0.067
Final SEM	χ^2=274.053 (df=94), GFI=.946, AGFI=.891, NFI=.931, CFI=.953, RMSEA= 0.062

Initial model was shown in Figure5.16 and final model showing coefficients in standardised form was presented in Figure5.17. In the final model, solid lines represent 'supported hypotheses', while dotted lines show 'not supported hypotheses'. According to the results of SEM, among 19 sub-hypotheses, nine hypotheses were supported. Supported hypotheses are shown in Table5.20. Regarding this, specific implications and discussions were in Chapter 6.

Table 5.20. Supported hypotheses of package data

H1-2	Pull motivation → IIS
H2-2	Pull motivation → IU
H3-1	Push motivation → Cognitive image
H3-2	Pull motivation → Cognitive image
H3-3	IIS → Cognitive image
H4-3	IIS → Affective image
H4-4	IU → Affective image
H4-5	Cognitive image → Affective image
H5-6	Affective image → Overall image

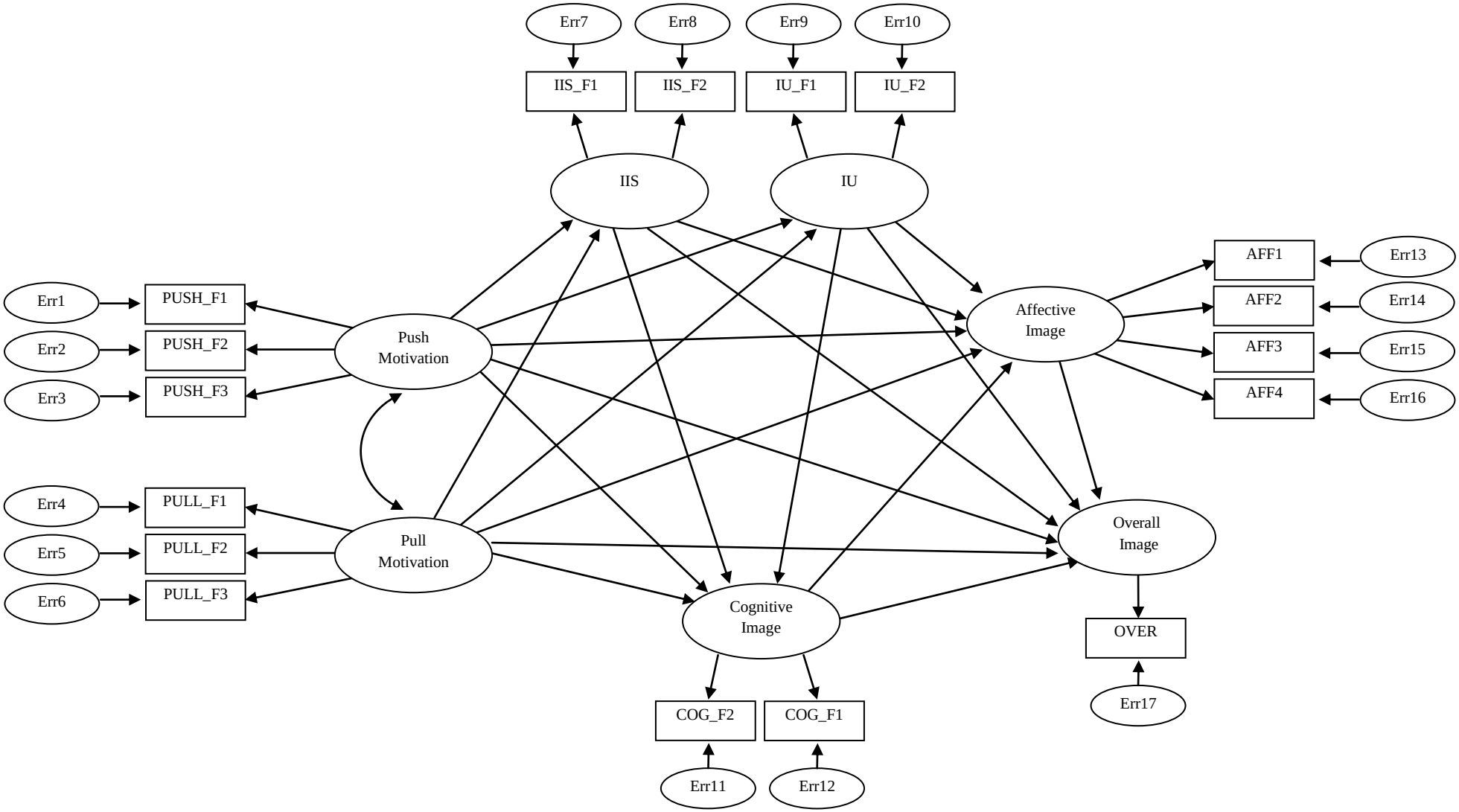


Figure 5.16 Proposed SEM model for independent data

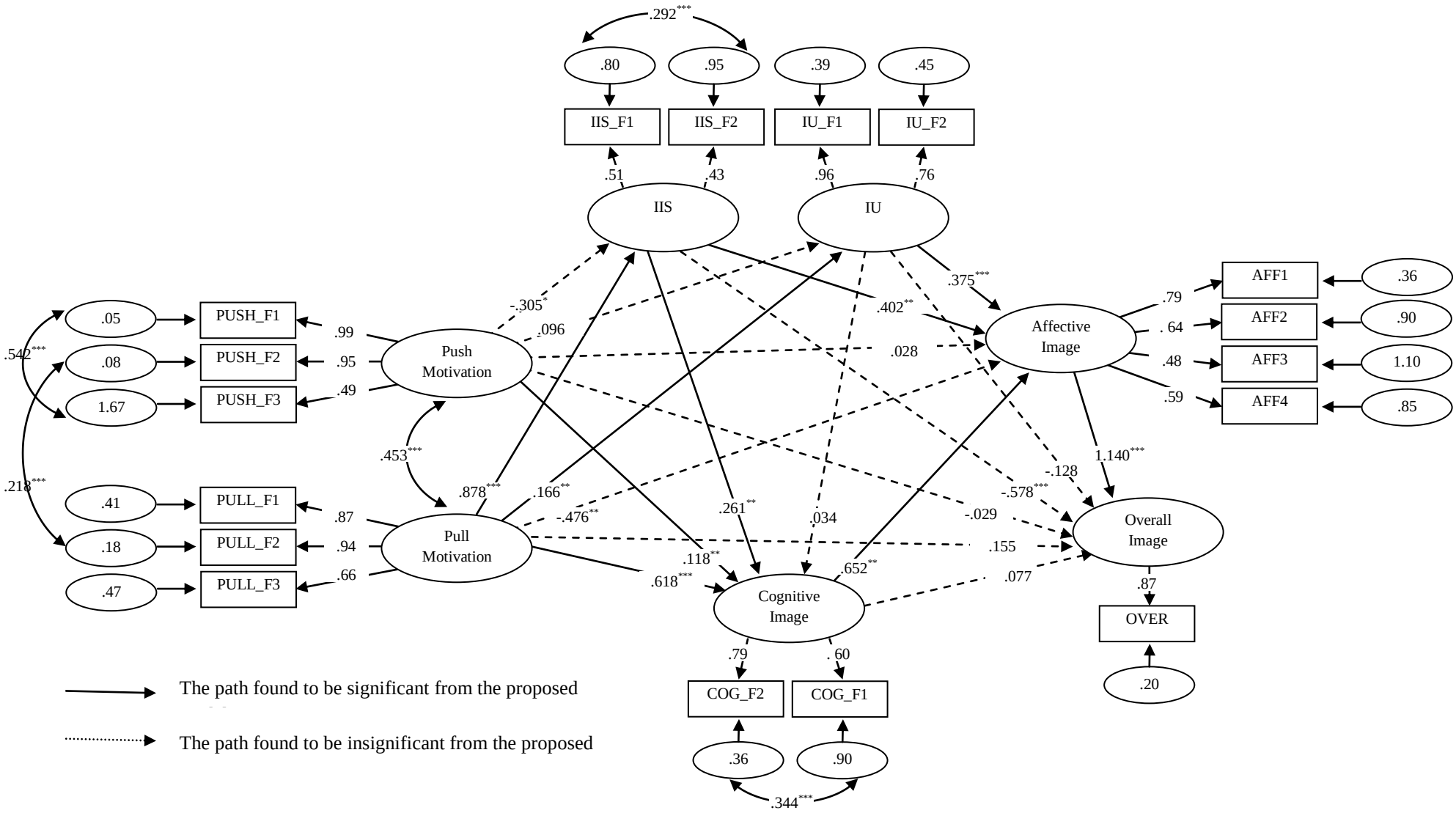


Figure 5.17 Fitted SEM model for independent data

Hypotheses testing

Table 5.21 shows a total of 19 sub-hypotheses of package data and Table 5.22 presents the same number of sub-hypotheses of independent data. Each table includes standardized estates, t-values and the results of hypotheses. As shown in both tables (Table 5.21 and 5.22), the results show the different effect between package and independent data. This can be a good evidence of research objective 2. As the broad interpretation of two data sets, perceived images by two types of Korean tourists were different depending on motivation constructs and internet sources. As a simple example, cognitive images of package tourists are not influenced by internet information sources, while independent tourists are influenced by internet information sources.

Table 5.21 Hypotheses results by package data

Path coefficient	Hypotheses	Package data		
		Standardized estimates	t-value	Result
Push motivation → IIS	H1-1	.637	3.947***	Supported
Pull motivation → IIS	H1-2	-.200	-2.643**	Not supported
Push motivation → IU	H2-1	.830	4.366***	Supported
Pull motivation → IU	H2-2	-.478	-6.724***	Not supported
Push motivation → Cognitive image	H3-1	-.245	-2.305*	Not supported
Pull motivation → Cognitive image	H3-2	1.012	13.391***	Supported
IIS → Cognitive image	H3-3	.015	.293	Not supported
IU → Cognitive image	H3-4	.160	2.898**	Supported
Push motivation → Affective image	H4-1	.368	3.027**	Supported
Pull motivation → Affective image	H4-2	.006	.044	Not supported
IIS → Affective image	H4-3	-.129	-2.031*	Not supported
IU → Affective image	H4-4	.313	4.590***	Supported
Cognitive image → Affective image	H4-5	.356	2.844**	Supported
Push motivation → Overall image	H5-1	-.084	-.747	Not supported
Pull motivation → Overall image	H5-2	.218	1.297	Not supported
IIS → Overall image	H5-3	.221	3.041**	Supported
IU → Overall image	H5-4	-.175	-2.290*	Not supported
Cognitive image → Overall image	H5-5	-.246	-1.610	Not supported

Affective image → Overall image	H5-6	.915	9.157***	Supported
Model fits		χ^2=294.798 (df=97), GFI=.955, AGFI=.903, NFI=.950, CFI=.965, RMSEA=.058		

Note: * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table 5.22 Hypotheses results by independent data

Path coefficient	Hypotheses	Independent data		
		Standardized estimates	t-value	Result
Push motivation → IIS	H1-1	-.305	-2.465*	Not supported
Pull motivation → IIS	H1-2	.878	8.120***	Supported
Push motivation → IU	H2-1	.096	1.734	Not supported
Pull motivation → IU	H2-2	.166	3.253**	Supported
Push motivation → Cognitive image	H3-1	.118	2.649**	supported
Pull motivation → Cognitive image	H3-2	.618	8.076***	Supported
IIS → Cognitive image	H3-3	.261	3.212**	Supported
IU → Cognitive image	H3-4	.034	.846	Not supported
Push motivation → Affective image	H4-1	.028	.607	Not supported
Pull motivation → Affective image	H4-2	-.476	-3.150**	Not supported
IIS → Affective image	H4-3	.402	3.184**	Supported
IU → Affective image	H4-4	.375	6.605***	Supported
Cognitive image → Affective image	H4-5	.652	3.221**	Supported
Push motivation → Overall image	H5-1	-.029	-.615	Not supported
Pull motivation → Overall image	H5-2	.155	.905	Not supported
IIS → Overall image	H5-3	-.578	-3.636***	Not Supported
IU → Overall image	H5-4	-.128	-1.772	Not supported
Cognitive image → Overall image	H5-5	.077	.363	Not supported
Affective image → Overall image	H5-6	1.140	7.399***	Supported
Model fits		χ^2=274.053 (df=94), GFI=.946, AGFI=.891, NFI=.931, CFI=.953, RMSEA= 0.062		

Note: * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

5.5.5 ANOVA, T-test and Cross-tabulation

In this section, Hypotheses 6 to 10 are investigated using one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test and cross-tab analysis to answer. These hypotheses concern differences among groups within the sample with regard to personal constructs, internet sources and image constructs.

Package tourists

To answer H6 (*Personal factors significantly influence internet information sources*), the present study firstly conducted an independent t-test (H6-1 and H6-2) and one way ANOVA (H6-3 to H6-6) to examine significant differences between past experiences (H6-1) and socio-demographics (H6-2 to H6-6) on the IIS. There were no statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ significance level between past experiences and IIS (H6-1), while socio demographics (gender, age, occupations, level of education and level of income) affected on the IIS at the $p<.05$ (H6-2) and at the $p<.001$ (H6-3 to H6-6) significance level respectively.

In H6-2 related to the relationships between gender and IIS, the mean score of the male was higher than that of female. In terms of H6-3 (age and IIS), the present study conducted a one way ANOVA with Duncan's post hoc test. Results of this test revealed significant differences among age (F-value=8.034, $p<0.001$), occupations ($F=9.127$, $p<0.001$), level of education (F-value=3.934, $p<0.001$) and level of income (F-value=5.597, $p<0.001$) with regard to IIS. According to the results of Duncan's post hoc test, the older generations comparatively have a lower mean score of IIS; specifically, there were important differences between the below-40 (group A) and the over-70 (group C) groups. In terms of occupations and IIS (H6-4), significant differences were found. Particularly, 'student' and 'housewife' (group A) groups show clear differences with 'unemployed' and 'retired' (group C) groups. In level of education and IIS (H6-5), the ANOVA test reveals significant differences between groups. The group of 'less than high school' (group A) shows distinct differences with other groups, specifically 'holding master degree' (group BC) and 'holding Ph.D.' groups (group C).

As the evidence of accepted H6-6 (level of income and IIS), the result of ANOVA and Duncan's post hoc test indicates significant differences among income level. There are clear

mean differences between ‘under KRW 30,000,000’ (group A) groups and ‘over KRW 30,000,000’ groups’ (group C and group AB). To achieve H6-7 (Information Sources and IIS) and H6-8 (Preferred destinations and IIS), this study employed ‘cross tabulation’, because questions of information sources and preferred destination consisted of inventory questions based on nominal scale. Based on the mean score (IIS mean=4.45, Std. Deviation=.77) of IIS measured by a seven-point Likert scale, this study classified that below average was ‘low’ and over average was ‘high’ groups. As main information sources, this study categorised five information sources, such as TV, information books, travel agencies, brochures and word of mouth from Baloglu & McCleary (1999a) and Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b). Results of cross tabulation regarding H6-7 shows that brochures ($\chi2$= 5.143, p=.015) and word of mouth ($\chi2$= 4.183, p=.025) indicates significant differences, whereas TV ($\chi2$= .093, p=.413), information books ($\chi2$= .162, p=.374) and travel agencies ($\chi2$= 1.905, p=.097) shows no statistical differences at the $p<.05$ significance level.

As each respondent replied multiple information sources, a variable was created which is the number of information source used, except that 3 or more information sources are all counted as 3. The results of three categories’ cross tabulation show significant differences ($\chi2$= 6.847, p=.033) among three groups. Samples of using multiple information sources comparatively categorised as a high group of IIS. In terms of H6-8, as main destinations, six destinations (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Canberra, Perth and Cairns) were mentioned by package tourists, however, only Brisbane ($\chi2$= 5.469, p=.012) shows statistical differences between preferred destinations and IIS. The results of the three categories’ cross tabulation (one, two and over three destinations) shows significant differences ($\chi2$= 5.862, p=.038) among three groups.

Many of the socio-demographic variables do influence the IIS. Males had a higher IIS score than females. The older generations comparatively have a lower mean score of IIS; specifically, there were important differences between the below-40 (group A) and the over-70 (group C) groups. In terms of occupations and IIS (H6-4), ‘student’ and ‘housewife’ (group A) groups show clear differences with ‘unemployed’ and ‘retired’ (group C) groups. In terms of level of education and IIS (H6-5), the group of ‘less than high school’ (group A) shows distinct differences with other groups, specifically ‘holding master degree’ (group BC) and ‘holding Ph.D.’ groups (group C). The evidence of accepted H6-6 (level of income and IIS and there are clear mean differences between the ‘under KRW 30,000,000’ group (group

A) and the 'over KRW 30,000,000' groups (group C and group AB). Table 5.23 shows the summary of testing H6.

Table 5.23 The summary of H6

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H6-1	Past experiences & IIS	T-test	Not supported
H6-2	Gender & IIS	T-test	Supported
H6-3	Age & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-4	Occupation & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-5	Level of education & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-6	Level of income & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-7	Information Sources & IIS	Cross-tab	Partially supported (brochures: $\chi 2= 5.143$, $p=.015$, word of mouth: $\chi 2= 4.183$, $p=.025$, multiple information sources: $\chi 2= 6.847$, $p=.033$)
H6-8	Preferred destinations & IIS	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Brisbane: $\chi 2= 5.469$, $p=.012$, multiple destinations: $\chi 2= 5.862$, $p=.038$)

This study employed the same analytical techniques, which were the independent t-test (H7-1 and H7-2), one-way ANOVA (H7-3 to H7-6) and cross tabulation (H7-7 to H7-8) to answer H7 (*Personal factors significantly influence internet usage*) as H6 discussed above. The results of H7-1 (past experiences) and H7-2 to H7-6 (socio-demographics) on the IU show no significant differences in H7-1; however, significant differences are found in H7-2 to H7-6. Although there are no statistical differences in H7-1, the mean score of the male (5.29) was slightly higher than that of female (5.06) in case of past experiences. The relationships between gender and IU were effective at the $p<.01$ significance level, while other socio demographics, such as age, occupations, level of education and level of income affected on the IU at the $p<.001$ significance level respectively. In terms of H7-3 (age and IIS), the results of ANOVA (F-value=33.462, $p<0.001$) and Duncan's post hoc test revealed that there are distinct differences among the 40s group (group AB), the 50s and 60s group (group C)

and the over-70s group (group D). In the occupation, ANONA test was effective (F-value=7.921, p<0.001), specifically 'retired' group (group B) shows different characteristics from others (group A). Also, in the level of education (F-value=15.274, p<0.001), and level of income (F-value=5.095, p<0.001), significant differences were found regarding IU. Particularly, 'graduating high school' group (group A) showed the most significant differences with 'holding Ph.D.' groups (group D) in the level of education, whereas the apparent mean differences were found in 'KRW 30,000,000 to 70,000,000' groups and 'KRW over 100,000,000' group in the level of income. To complete H7-7 (Information Sources and IU) and H7-8 (Preferred destinations and IU), this study computed the mean score (M=5.19, Std. Deviation= .99) to conduct cross tabulation. Results of cross tabulation regarding H7-7 show that information books ($\chi 2$= 14.256, p=.000), travel agencies ($\chi 2$= 23.900, p=.000) and brochures ($\chi 2$= 15.896, p=.000) indicate significant differences, whereas TV ($\chi 2$= .093, p=.413) and word of mouth ($\chi 2$= .162, p=.374 and travel agencies ($\chi 2$= 1.905, p=.097) shows no statistical differences at the p<.05 significance level. Subsequently, the results of three categories' cross tabulation show no significant differences ($\chi 2$= 1.680, p=.432) among three groups. In terms of H7-8, Sydney ($\chi 2$= 5.079, p=.015), Brisbane ($\chi 2$= 8.700, p=.002) and Cairns ($\chi 2$= 25.644, p=.000) were identified as the influential destinations regarding IU. The results of three categories' cross tabulation (one, two and over three destinations) show significant differences ($\chi 2$= 8.290, p=.016) among three groups. According to internet usage, the number of preferred destinations can be varied. Table 5.24 shows the summary of testing H7.

Table 5.24 The summary of H7

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H7-1	Past experiences & IU	T-test	Not supported
H7-2	Gender & IU	T-test	Supported
H7-3	Age & IU	ANOVA	Supported
H7-4	Occupation & IU	ANOVA	Supported
H7-5	Level of education & IU	ANOVA	Supported
H7-6	Level of income & IU	ANOVA	Supported

H7-7	Information Sources & IU	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Information books: $\chi 2$= 14.256, p=.000, travel agencies: $\chi 2$= 23.900, p=.000, brochures: $\chi 2$= 15.896, p=.000)
H7-8	Preferred destinations & IU	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Sydney: $\chi 2$= 5.079, p=.015, Brisbane: $\chi 2$= 8.700, p=.002, Cairns: $\chi 2$= 25.644, p=.000, multiple destinations: $\chi 2$= 8.290, p=.016)

The relationships between personal factors and image constructs were examined in H8 (*Personal factors significantly influence cognitive image*), H9 (*Personal factors significantly influence affective image*), and H10 (*Personal factors significantly influence overall image*). The analytical methods employed were also the independent t-test (H8, 9, 10-1 and H8, 9, 10-2), one way ANOVA (H8, 9, 10-3 to H8, 9, 10-6) and cross tabulation (H8, 9, 10-7 and H8, 9, 10-8). Past experiences showed significant differences on the affective image (H9-1, t-value=2.74, $p<0.01$), whereas there were no statistical differences on cognitive image (H8-1) and overall image (H10-1). In terms of affective image, the mean score of first visitors (5.34) was higher to some extent than that of repeat visitors (5.15). Gender showed significant differences on overall image (H10-2, t-value=2.36, $p<0.05$); however, no statistical differences were found in H8-2 (gender and cognitive image) and H9-2 (gender and affective image).

In H10-2, as indicated specific figure (male, 5.59 and female, 5.42) showed, males recognised more favourable than females in overall image of Australia. In the case of age, although there were no significant differences in H8-3 (age and cognitive image), statistically significant differences were found in H9-3 (age and affective image, F-value=6.636, $p<0.001$) and H10-3 (age and overall image, F-value=4.587, $p<0.001$). According to Duncan's post hoc test, the below-50 group (group A) were classified in the different groups with 60s and 70s (group B) groups of the affective image, whereas there are distinct differences between 20s group and 70s group between 20s (group C) and 70s (group A). Occupations have a significant effect on only affective image (F=5.391, $p<0.001$) and specifically the 'retired' group (group A) showed distinct differences with other groups (group AB, BC and C). In terms of level of education, significant differences were identified in affective image (H9-5,

F-value=3.679, p<0.001) at the p<.001 significance level and in overall image (H10-5, F-value=3.293, p<0.01) at the p<.01 significance level respectively. Duncan's post hoc test in affective image (H9-5) showed that a higher level of education demonstrated higher mean scores; specifically, mean scores of 'graduating high school' and 'junior college student' groups (group A) showed distinct mean score and different characteristics of 'graduate school student' group (group A). However, in terms of overall image, 'less than high school' and 'holding Ph.D.' groups were classified into similar groups (group C). Additionally, these groups were different with others. Therefore, an ultimate level of education (both lower and higher level of education) showed a higher mean score compared with others.

Results of ANOVA with Duncan's post hoc test regarding level of income revealed significant differences in cognitive image (H8-6, F-value=2.45, p<0.05), whereas there were no significant differences in affective (H9-6) and overall image (H10-6). Additionally, tourists who have more income frequently show better mean scores in cognitive image; specifically, there were clear differences between the 'below KRW 10,000,000' and 'over KRW 100,000,000' groups. The effective mean scores in information sources (H8-7) on cognitive image was 'information books' ($\chi 2$= 14.256, p=.000), 'travel agencies' ($\chi 2$= 23.900, p=.000) and brochures ($\chi 2$= 15.896, p=.000). In terms of preferred destinations (H8-8), Sydney ($\chi 2$= 5.079, p=.015), Brisbane ($\chi 2$= 8.700, p=.002), Cairns ($\chi 2$= 25.644, p=.000) and multiple destinations ($\chi 2$= 8.290, p=.016) were identified; however, other destinations (Melbourne, Canberra and Perth) show no statistical differences. In H9-7, there were no effective mean scores in each single information source on affective image; however, multiple information sources show an effective mean score ($\chi 2$= 11.618, p=.003).

In the case of H10-7, only travel agencies shows distinct differences as an effective mean score ($\chi 2$= 6.317, p=.007). Additionally, multiple information sources show an effective mean score ($\chi 2$= 6.940, p=.031) in overall image. In terms of preferred destinations (H9-8) on the affective image, Melbourne ($\chi 2$= 4.252, p=.024), Brisbane ($\chi 2$= 14.872, p=.000), Cairns ($\chi 2$= 13.346, p=.000) and multiple destinations ($\chi 2$= 15.416, p=.000) explain effective statistical features. Lastly, the relationship between preferred destinations and overall image (H10-8), only Cairns ($\chi 2$= 4.054, p=.028) presents a significantly different mean score. Tables 5.25 to 5.27 demonstrate the summary of H8 to H10 respectively in package data.

Table 5.25 The summary of H8

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H8-1	Past experiences & Cognitive image	T-test	Not supported
H8-2	Gender & Cognitive image	T-test	Not supported
H8-3	Age & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Not supported
H8-4	Occupation & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Not supported
H8-5	Level of education & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Not supported
H8-6	Level of income & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Supported
H8-7	Information Sources & Cognitive image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Information books: $\chi 2$= 14.256, p=.000, travel agencies: $\chi 2$= 23.900, p=.000, brochures: $\chi 2$= 15.896, p=.000)
H8-8	Preferred destinations & Cognitive image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Sydney: $\chi 2$= 5.079, p=.015, Brisbane: $\chi 2$= 8.700, p=.002, Cairns: $\chi 2$= 25.644, p=.000, multiple destinations: $\chi 2$= 8.290, p=.016)

Table 5.26 The summary of H9

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H9-1	Past experiences & Affective image	T-test	Supported
H9-2	Gender & Affective image	T-test	Not supported
H9-3	Age & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-4	Occupation & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-5	Level of education & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-6	Level of income & Affective	ANOVA	Not supported

	image		
H9-7	Information Sources & Affective image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Multiple information sources:$\chi 2$= 11.618, p=.003)
H9-8	Preferred destinations & Affective image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Melbourne: $\chi 2$= 4.252, p=.024, Brisbane: $\chi 2$= 14.872, p=.000, Cairns: $\chi 2$= 13.346, p=.000, multiple destinations: $\chi 2$= 15.416, p=.000)

Table 5.27 The summary of H10

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H10-1	Past experiences & overall image	T-test	Not supported
H10-2	Gender & overall image	T-test	Supported
H10-3	Age & overall image	ANOVA	Supported
H10-4	Occupation & overall image	ANOVA	Not supported
H10-5	Level of education & overall image	ANOVA	Supported
H10-6	Level of income & overall image	ANOVA	Not supported
H10-7	Information Sources & overall image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (travel agencies: $\chi 2$= 6.317, p=.007, multiple information sources: $\chi 2$= 6.940, p=.031)
H10-8	Preferred destinations & overall image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Cairns: $\chi 2$= 4.054, p=.028)

Independent tourists

To analyse independent data, the present study applied same analytical techniques, the independent t-test (H6, 7-1 and H6, 7-2), one-way ANOVA (H6, 7-3 to H6, 7-6) and cross tabulation (H6, 7-7 and H6, 7-8) to examine H6 (*Personal factors significantly influence internet information sources)* and H7 (*Personal factors significantly influence internet usage*). The results of H6-1 (past experiences and IIS) show no significant differences, while H7-1 (past experiences and IU) show statistically significant differences (t-value=2.079, $p<0.01$). The mean score of first visitors (5.35) was slightly higher than that of repeat visitors (5.06). The relationships between gender and IU (H7-2) were effective at the $p<.01$ significance level, while those of gender and IIS (H6-2) were not effective.

In H7-2, the mean score of male (5.44) was to some extent higher than that of female (5.04). To analyse other socio demographics, such as age (H6-3 and H7-3), occupations (H6-4 and H7-4), level of education (H6-5 and H7-5) and level of income (H6-6 and H7-6), the present study employed one way ANOVA with Duncan's post hoc test. In H6, H6-3 (age and IIS) explains significant differences (F-value=16.821, $p<0.001$), whereas H6-4 (occupations and IIS), H6-5 (level of education and IIS) and H6-6 (level of income and IIS) cannot explain statistically significant differences. After using Duncan's post hoc test, the younger generations comparatively had a higher mean score than the older generations regarding IIS and IU, specifically in IU (H7-3), The 20s group (group A) shows the highest mean score, compared to the 70s group (group E) showing the lowest mean score. Regarding H7-4 (occupations and IU), significant differences were found (F-value=7.34, $p<0.001$) with ANOVA; specifically, the unemployed group (group A) demonstrates clear differences with other groups according to the results of Duncan's post hoc test. Interestingly, the unemployed group illustrates the highest mean score (6.50) compared to other groups (a range of 4.24 to 5.44).

With regard to H7-5 (level of education and IU), significant differences were also found (F-value=10.302, $p<0.001$) with ANOVA. In terms of Duncan's post hoc test, the 'less than high school' group (group C) illustrates the highest mean score (6.50) compared to other groups (a range of 4.30 to 5.46). In H7-6 (level of income and IU), there were distinct differences (F-value=3.89, $p<0.01$). Additionally, the 'KRW under 10,000,000' group (group A) shows the

highest mean score (5.46) compared to other groups (a range of 4.99 to 5.25), whereas the 'KRW 70,000,000 to 100,000,000' group (group B) demonstrates the lowest mean score (4.99).

To achieve H6-7 (Information Sources and IIS), H7-7 (Information Sources and IU), H6-8 (Preferred destinations and IIS) and H7-8 (Preferred destinations and IU), this study employed cross tabulation. Based on the mean score (IU mean=5.24, Std. Deviation=0.88) of IU measured by a seven-point Likert scale, this study classified that below average was 'low' and over average was 'high' groups. This study classified five information sources (i.e., TV, information books, travel agencies, brochures and word of mouth based on the previous literature. Results of cross tabulation regarding H6-7 identify that TV ($\chi2$= 5.818, p=.010) and brochures ($\chi2$= 3.287, p=.043) indicates significant differences, whereas information books ($\chi2$= .887, p=.197), travel agencies ($\chi2$= .189, p=.378), word of mouth ($\chi2$= 2.469, p=.069) shows no statistical differences at the p<.05 significance level. As each respondent replied multiple information sources, this study categorised three groups same as package data. The results of three categories' cross tabulation show significant differences ($\chi2$= 8.028, p=.026) among three groups. Samples of using multiple information sources relatively categorised as a high group of IIS. Results of cross tabulation regarding H7-7 shows that TV ($\chi2$= 3.300, p=.042) indicates significant differences, whereas information books ($\chi2$= 1.003, p=.181), travel agencies ($\chi2$= 1.888, p=.106), brochures ($\chi2$= .012, p=.497) and word of mouth ($\chi2$= .498, p=.269) shows no statistical differences at the p<.05 significance level. Subsequently, the results of three categories' cross tabulation show statistically significant differences ($\chi2$= 8.290, p=.016) among three groups.

In terms of H6-8 as main destinations, nine destinations (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth, Hobart, Canberra, Darwin and Cairns) were discussed by independent tourists. Among these, five destinations (Sydney: $\chi2$= 10.098, p=.001, Melbourne: $\chi2$= 3.357, p=.041, Perth: $\chi2$= 5.658, p=.014, Darwin: $\chi2$= 6.148, p=.015 and Cairns: $\chi2$= 2.966, p=.045) show statistical differences between preferred destinations and IIS. As the results of three categories' cross tabulation (one, two and over three destinations), it shows significant differences ($\chi2$= 4.484, p=.047) among three groups. In terms of H7-8, six destinations (Melbourne: $\chi2$= 12.176, p=.000, Brisbane: $\chi2$=11.553, p=.000, Adelaide: $\chi2$= 12.176, p=.000, Perth: $\chi2$= 7.879, p=.005, Canberra: $\chi2$= 10.320, p=.001 and Cairns: $\chi2$= 15.470, p=.000) were identified as influential destinations regarding IU. The results of three

categories' cross tabulation (one, two and over three destinations) show significant differences ($\chi 2$= 41.783, p=.000) among three groups. Tables 5.28 and 5.29 show the summary of testing H6 and H7 with independent data.

Table 5.28 The summary of H6

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H6-1	Past experiences & IIS	T-test	Not supported
H6-2	Gender & IIS	T-test	Supported
H6-3	Age & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-4	Occupation & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-5	Level of education & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-6	Level of income & IIS	ANOVA	Supported
H6-7	Information Sources & IIS	Cross-tab	Partially supported (TV: $\chi 2$= 5.818, p=.010, brochures: $\chi 2$= 3.287, p=.043, multiple information sources: $\chi 2$= 8.028, p=.026)
H6-8	Preferred destinations & IIS	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Sydney: $\chi 2$= 10.098, p=.001, Melbourne: $\chi 2$= 3.357, p=.041, Perth: $\chi 2$= 5.658, p=.014, Darwin: $\chi 2$= 6.148, p=.015 Cairns: $\chi 2$= 2.966, p=.045, multiple destinations: $\chi 2$= 4.483, p=.047)

Table 5.29 The summary of H7

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H7-1	Past experiences & IU	T-test	Not supported
H7-2	Gender & IU	T-test	Supported
H7-3	Age & IU	ANOVA	Supported
H7-4	Occupation & IU	ANOVA	Supported

H7-5	Level of education & IU	ANOVA	Supported
H7-6	Level of income & IU	ANOVA	Supported
H7-7	Information Sources & IU	Cross-tab	Partially supported (TV: $\chi 2$= 3.300, p=.042, multiple information sources: $\chi 2$= 8.290, p=.016)
H7-8	Preferred destinations & IU	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Melbourne: $\chi 2$= 12.176, p=.000, Brisbane: $\chi 2$=11.553, p=.000, Adelaide: $\chi 2$= 12.176, p=.000, Perth: $\chi 2$= 7.879, p=.005, Canberra: $\chi 2$= 10.320, p=.001 and Cairns: $\chi 2$= 15.470, p=.000, multiple destinations: $\chi 2$= 41.783, p=.000)

To examine the relationships between personal constructs and image constructs in H8 (*Personal factors significantly influence cognitive image*), H9 (*Personal factors significantly influence affective image*), and H10 (*Personal factors significantly influence overall image*), the analytical methods applied were also the independent t-test (H8, 9, 10-1 and H8, 9, 10-2), one way ANOVA (H8, 9, 10-3 to H8, 9, 10-6) and cross tabulation (H8, 9, 10-7 and H8, 9, 10-8). Past experiences showed significant differences on only the affective image (H9-1, t-value=3.36, $p<0.01$), while no statistical differences were found in cognitive image (H8-1) and overall image (H10-1). In affective image, the mean score of first visitors (5.58) was to some extent higher than that of repeat visitors (5.31).

To scrutinise differences between gender and image constructs, this study adapted independent sample t-test. Gender showed no significant differences on each image constructs (H8-2, H9-2 and H10-2). In terms of age, statistically significant differences were found in only H9-3 (age and affective image, F-value=7.80, $p<0.001$), whereas no significant differences in H8-3 (age and cognitive image) and H10-3(age and overall image). Results of Duncan's post hoc test, the younger generation, especially 10s and 20s, shows relatively a higher mean score (10s: 5.89, 20s: 5.56 respectively) and there are significant group differences between 10s group (group A) and over 40s groups (group B).

Occupations have a significant effect on all image constructs, such as cognitive image (H8-4, F-value=2.07, $p<0.05$), affective image (H9-4, F-value=5.39, $p<0.001$) and overall image (H10-4, F-value=4.39, $p<0.001$). More specifically, in H8-4, the unemployed group (group A) shows distinct differences from other groups (group AB and B), in H9-4, the student group (group B) shows significant differences from the housewife group (group A) and indicates the highest mean score, and in H10-4, the retired group (group B) is particularly different from other groups (group A and AB) and indicates the highest mean score as well. In H8-5, H9-5 and H10-5 regarding level of education, significant differences were identified in affective image (H9-5, F-value=6.70, $p<0.001$) and in overall image (H10-5, F-value=3.93, $p<0.001$) at the $p<.001$ significance level. Duncan's post hoc test in affective image (H9-5) revealed that a higher level of education demonstrated higher mean scores; specifically, the 'graduating high school' group (group A) shows different characteristics with 'uni student' groups (group B). Other groups were classified in group AB. However, in overall image, comparatively less educated groups, such as 'less than high school' and 'graduating high school', showed different group characteristics from other groups.

Interestingly, the 'graduate school student' group is classified in the same group as 'less than high school' and 'graduating high school'. Results of ANOVA with Duncan's post hoc test regarding level of income revealed significant differences in three image constructs, such as cognitive image (H8-6, F-value=9.57, $p<0.001$), affective image (H9-6, F-value=7.56, $p<0.001$) and overall image (H10-6 F-value=4.79, $p<0.001$) at the $p<.001$ significance level. Additionally, tourists who have more income frequently show better mean scores in cognitive image; specifically, there were clear differences between the 'KRW 10,000,000 to 30,000,000' group and the 'over KRW 100,000,000' group. In the case of affective image and overall image, tourists who have more than KRW 100,000,000 show the highest mean score.

To examine H8-7, H9-7 and H10-7, this study analysed with cross tabulation. In H8-7, TV ($\chi2= 4.629$, $p=.020$) and travel agencies ($\chi2= 3.922$, $p=.032$) were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ significant level. Concurrently, multiple information sources ($\chi2= 9.073$, $p=.011$) showed significant differences in cognitive image. In the case of affective image (H9-7), TV ($\chi2= 8.289$, $p=.003$) and travel agencies ($\chi2= 7.401$, $p=.003$) were effective information sources. However, there were no significant differences multiple information sources ($\chi2= 2.528$, $p=.283$) regarding affective and information sources. In terms of overall

image (H10-7), except word of mouth, four information sources, such as TV ($\chi2$= 5.530, p=.012), information books ($\chi2$= 6.407, p=.007), travel agencies ($\chi2$= 4.043, p=.041) and brochures ($\chi2$= 3.845, p=.031) were effective between information sources and overall image. In terms of H8-8 (preferred destinations and cognitive image), four destinations (Sydney: $\chi2$= 11.957, p=.000, Adelaide: $\chi2$= 6.395, p=.008 and Perth: $\chi2$= 12.266, p=.000) showed significant differences regarding cognitive image. In the case of H9-8 (preferred destinations and affective image), except Hobart, eight destinations show effective figures at the p<.05 level. Lastly, in the overall image and preferred destinations (H10-8), five destinations indicate significant differences regarding overall image. To analyse the differences of the number of destinations, this study classified three categories (1 destination, 2 destinations and over 3 destinations). Affective image ($\chi2$= 15.416, p=.000) and overall image ($\chi2$= 8.192, p=.017) with multiple destinations shows significant differences. Tables 5.30 to 5.32 demonstrate the summary of H8 to H10, respectively, in independent data.

Table 5.30 The summary of H8

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H8-1	Past experiences & Cognitive image	T-test	Not supported
H8-2	Gender & Cognitive image	T-test	Not supported
H8-3	Age & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Supported
H8-4	Occupation & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Supported
H8-5	Level of education & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Not supported
H8-6	Level of income & Cognitive image	ANOVA	Supported
H8-7	Information Sources & Cognitive image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (TV: $\chi2$= 4.629, p=.020, travel agencies: $\chi2$= 3.922, p=.032, multiple information sources: $\chi2$= 9.073, p=.011)
H8-8	Preferred destinations & Cognitive image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Sydney: $\chi2$= 11.957, p=.000, Adelaide: $\chi2$= 6.395, p=.008 and Perth: $\chi2$= 12.266, p=.000)

Table 5. 31 The summary of H9

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H9-1	Past experiences & Affective image	T-test	Supported
H9-2	Gender & Affective image	T-test	Not supported
H9-3	Age & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-4	Occupation & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-5	Level of education & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-6	Level of income & Affective image	ANOVA	Supported
H9-7	Information Sources & Affective image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (TV: $\chi 2$= 8.289, p=.003, travel agencies: $\chi 2$= 7.401, p=.003)
H9-8	Preferred destinations & Affective image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Sydney: $\chi 2$= 5.420, p=.013, Melbourne: $\chi 2$=7.619, p=.004, Brisbane: $\chi 2$= 9.004, p=.002, Adelaide: $\chi 2$=32.592, p=.000, Perth: $\chi 2$=5.737, p=.015, Canberra: $\chi 2$=3.551, p=.038, Darwin: $\chi 2$=4.258, p=.040, Cairns: $\chi 2$= 7.145, p=.005, multiple destinations: $\chi 2$= 15.416, p=.000)

Table 5.32 The summary of H10

Number	Hypotheses	Analytical methods	Results
H10-1	Past experiences & overall image	T-test	Not supported
H10-2	Gender & overall image	T-test	Not supported

H10-3	Age & overall image	ANOVA	Not supported
H10-4	Occupation & overall image	ANOVA	Supported
H10-5	Level of education & overall image	ANOVA	Supported
H10-6	Level of income & overall image	ANOVA	Supported
H10-7	Information Sources & overall image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (TV ($\chi2$= 5.530, p=.012), information books ($\chi2$= 6.407, p=.007), travel agencies ($\chi2$= 4.043, p=.041) and brochures ($\chi2$= 3.845, p=.031))
H10-8	Preferred destinations & overall image	Cross-tab	Partially supported (Sydney: $\chi2$= 4.262, p=.025, Brisbane: $\chi2$= 3.357, p=.041, Adelaide: $\chi2$=6.667, p=.008, Perth: $\chi2$=5.950, p=.014, Cairns: $\chi2$= 4.328, p=.024, multiple destinations: $\chi2$= 8.192, p=.017)

5.6. Chapter summary

This chapter presented data analysis and results of the quantitative phase, the second part of the two research phases. This quantitative phase has three research questions to achieve the research purpose. After conducting the pilot study to examine the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the present study analysed Korean package and independent tourists' data travelling to Australia as a main study.

A total of 1,215 samples were collected and after the data screening process, a total of 1,108 responses (613 of package tourists and 495 of independent tourists) were used for the analysis. A total of 10 hypotheses were proposed to accomplish research purpose and questions. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were employed to analyse the quantitative data to establish the constructs underlying destination image. Also, ANOVA, T-test and cross-tab of both samples were employed for testing.

EFA generated 14 factors in package tourists and 13 factors in independent tourists among six constructs (push and pull motivations, cognitive and affective images, internet information sources and internet usage). For reliability for internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha statistics were employed and all 27 Cronbach's alphas in both package and independent tourists showed well above the generally accepted lower limit. To develop and test a measurement model for the constructs hypothesised, CFA was conducted to test the measurement model by specifying the posited relationships of the observed variables to the latent variables. Chi-square statistics, GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI and RMSEA as the model's goodness of fit showed a good model fit in both package and independent tourists' data.
Based on the CFA findings, SEM was conducted. As the model's goodness of fit, the present study used Chi-square statistics, GFI (goodness of fit index), AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index), NFI (Normed fit index), CFI (Comparative fit index) and RMSEA (Root-mean-square). These were modified using post hoc model, especially modification indices (MI). The final model fit indicates a good model fit. Since overall model fits are within satisfying criteria, the measurement scales for the present study are reliable and appropriate for data analysis.

The analyses using SEM identified seven latent constructs for testing H1–H5: push motivation, pull motivation, Internet information sources (IIS), Internet usage (IU), cognitive image, affective image and overall image. A total of 18 items were used in the case of package tourists, while a total of 17 items were used in independent tourists to conduct SEM. According to the results of SEM, nine sub-hypotheses among 19 sub-hypotheses were supported in both package and independent tourists.

In order to test H6–H10, the present study conducted one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test and cross-tab analysis. Depending on the findings of H6–H10, 28 sub-hypotheses in package tourists were supported, whereas 31 sub-hypotheses in independent tourists were supported.

The present study identified that destination images have strong relationships with internet sources, motivational and personal factors. Specifically, push motivations influence both IIS and IU in package tourists, whereas pull motivations affect IIS and IU. More specifically, this study identified significant differences between Korean package tourists and independent tourists. The present study also examined that pull motivations affect cognitive image as well as push motivations affect affective image in package tourists, whereas push and pull

motivations influence cognitive image in independent tourists. Both package and independent tourists' show that affective image influences overall image, however, only IIS in package tourists affects overall image. Interestingly, personal factors (socio-demographics, other information sources, and preferred destination) are more influential than motivational factors in internet sources and image constructs. This feature can be a distinctive trait to Korean tourists. It seems that many Korean tourists show different characteristics depending on age groups, information sources and preferred destinations.

Chapter 6.
Discussion and Conclusions

6.1. Introduction

The previous two chapters presented the qualitative and quantitative findings of the study. Chapter 4 focuses on the qualitative findings drawn from the interviews and chapter 5 summarises the key findings from quantitative analysis using SEM in relation to the qualitative findings. This final chapter presents key discussions of the findings, overall conclusions, including research limitations, contributions and suggestions for further research.

The foci of this chapter are to present an extensive discussion based on the study findings, provide the interpretation of these findings from the two phases of the study, examine how the findings in two research phases contribute to Australia's destination image formation by Korean package and independent tourists and identify contributions for academics and practitioners. The findings are related to the study purpose and research questions and research hypotheses of the study. Where applicable, the findings are discussed in relation to previous references and implications for the research model are outlined.

In particular, the first part of the chapter includes Sections 6.1 and 6.2, which comprise restatement of the research purpose and research questions in two research phases. The second part, Sections 6.3 to 6.6, continues with a discussion of the major findings in two research phases, including interrelationships between qualitative and quantitative phases, implications of comparing package and independent tourists in quantitative phase and role of internet sources. These internet sources by South Korean tourists were emphasised in two research phases as the key points in this section. The answers to the research questions and the outcomes of the research hypotheses tests are presented, comparing package and independent tourists; and the role of the internet sources having emerged from the qualitative and quantitative phases is discussed. The present study identifies three distinguishable points

in the role of internet sources and highlights what internet sources can do in various roles in different types of the travel.

The last part (sections 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9) addresses research limitations, conclusions and suggestions for further research. The structure of this chapter has five sections as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

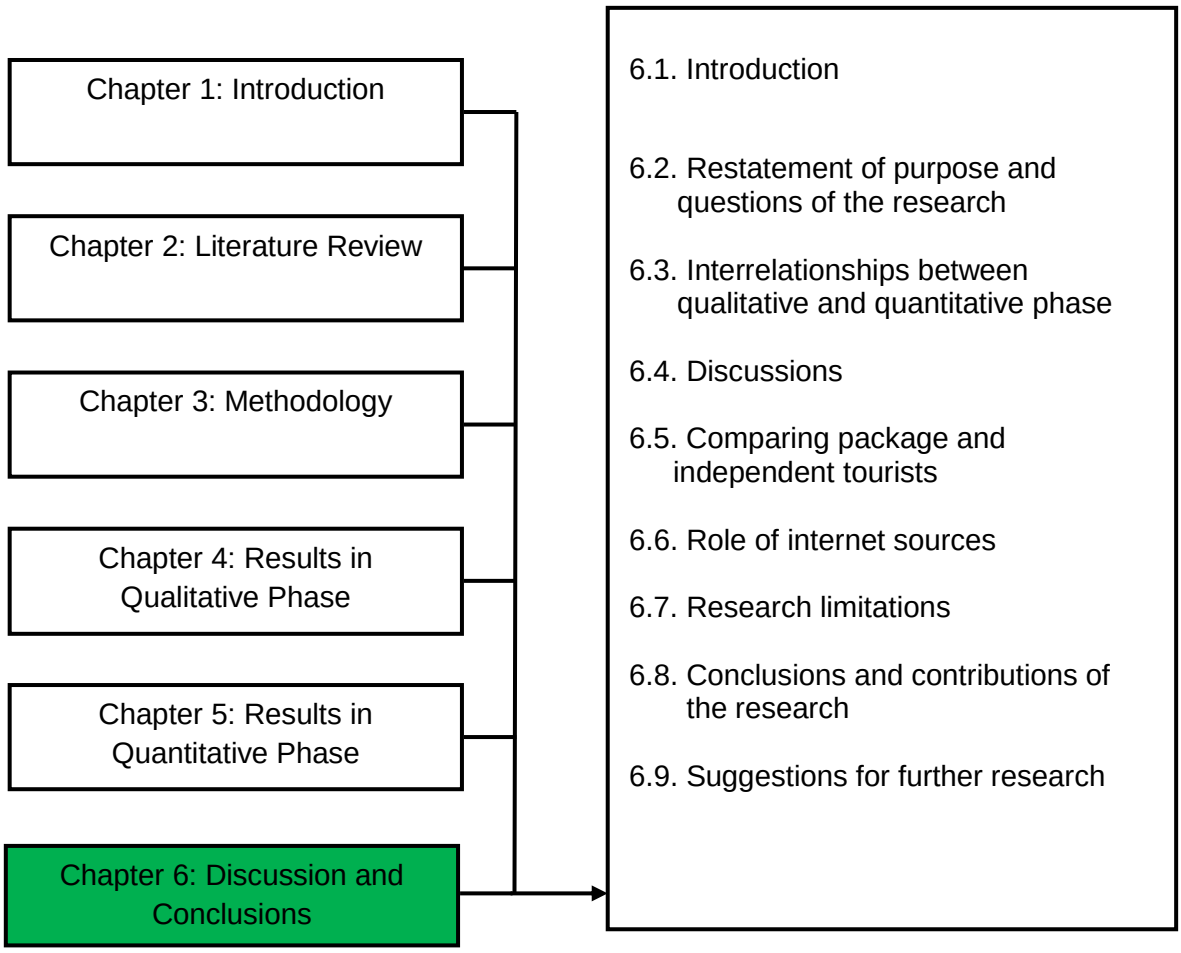


Figure 6.1 Outline of Chapter 6 within the thesis

6.2. Restatement of research purpose and questions

To assist readability and understanding, an at-a-glance summary of the research purpose and questions of the study is provided below.

Research purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a conceptualisation of tourism destination image by examining the extent to which destination image formed through internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors and personal factors contribute to the formation of Australia's destination image by Korean package and independent tourists.

QUALITATIVE PHASE

Research questions

Qualitative research question1: What key themes and topics can be examined in the narratives of Australia's destination image by South Korean travel agents?

Qualitative research question2: What are the foremost regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia recognised by Korean travel agents?

Qualitative research question3: What do Korean travel agents think are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists with regard to Australia's destination image?

Qualitative research question4: How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

QUANTITATIVE PHASE

Research questions

Quantitative research question1: What are the major differences between Korean package and independent tourists in regard to Australia's destination image?

Quantitative research question2: How do the aspects of internet sources contribute to the destination image of Australia by Korean tourists?

Quantitative research question3: How do the aspects of the internet information sources, internet usage, travel motivational factors, and personal factors contribute to destination image?

6.3. Interrelationships between qualitative and quantitative phases

As the rationale for conducting this study both qualitatively and quantitatively is to examine the interrelationships of each influential factor of Korean tourists, the present study employed mixed methodology. Even though each method has advantages and disadvantages and has its own basic principles and key differences (Neuman 2000), the most important feature is the interrelationship between qualitative and quantitative data. Creswell, Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003) stated the mixed methods can be chosen under the exploratory design, which has been conducted in two phases typically analysed by qualitative data analysis sequentially followed by quantitative data analysis. For the present study, qualitative interviews were conducted firstly and sequentially collected and analysed quantitative data based on the generated results from qualitative phase (research objective 2).

Based on literature to date, the present study adopted mixed methods due to several reasons. Firstly, it is necessary to obtain in-depth understanding of Korean tourists travelling Australia by Korean travel agents in Australia specialising consultation with Korean tourists. This data were collected by in-depth interviews, a kind of qualitative methods. As the quantitative

methods cannot illustrate respondents' own specific connotations with rich information (McGivern 2003), the present study conducted in-depth interviews with experts who have minimum three years' experiences and over manager positions in travel agencies in Australia. Especially, the respondents narrated the characteristics and tell stories with Korean tourists. Through the interview process, the present study facilitates the interpretation of relationships between variables in order to explain underlying factors, as stated by Punch (1998).

Depending on the findings of the interviews, the present study refined quantitative questionnaire to take into account the results of the qualitative phase. Through the interviews, the present study identified five key themes and 47 related topics. Additionally, it found out regional differences among three state capital cities and differences between package and independent tourists. Moreover, it can point out the characteristics of the internet sources. This qualitative research phase has had strong interrelationships with the quantitative research phase.

With refined quantitative questionnaire, the present study collected data in Korea as a main study. Five key themes (internet sources, motivations, past experiences, socio-demographics and other information sources) were used in the quantitative questionnaire as independent variables. Internet sources were divided into internet information sources and internet usages and used mediated variables for the present study. Also, internet information sources and internet usage were frequently mentioned accounts during the interview process. After considering previous related literature, the present study utilised these concepts for the quantitative phase. As dependent variables, even though image constructs (cognitive, affective and overall image) were not categorised as five key themes, these accounts regarding image constructs emerged from the interviews were specified narratives. Thus, these accounts were helpful to gain a preliminary understanding of Australia's destination image.

During the quantitative data analysis, the present study found out strong consistency with the qualitative findings, especially motivational factors and image constructs. Also, similar with the travel accounts stated by Korean agents, the findings of the quantitative phase show significant differences between package and independent data. In the case of internet sources, various accounts from Korean travel agents in the qualitative phase have been emphasised. According to the findings from hypotheses tests, internet information sources and internet

usage have strong relationships with other constructs (motivational and personal factors and image constructs).

6.4. Identified research gaps and significant implications

6.4.1. Identified research gaps

In spite of numerous studies to date, there are still research gaps in tourism destination image formation models. Firstly, previous research regarding the role of the internet sources on destination image has been limited and outdated. Secondly, there is little research regarding motivational theory on the destination image literature, however, there is not any research using push and pull motivation theory which has been broadly accepted in the tourism and marketing literature (Dann 1977; Yoon & Uysal 2005) in the destination image model formation. Lastly, although Korea has become one of the major outbound tourist generating country (Australian Tourism Commission, 2010), there are no studies using Korean tourists in destination image formation model. To address this research gap, the present study identifies and compares tourism destination images of Korean package and independent tourists to Australia.

In these points, the present study including internet sources has made important contributions by demonstrating that a theoretical basis for a destination image formation model can be established. The frameworks drawn from push and pull motivation theory, cognitive and affective image constructs and internet sources have provided a suitable foundation to accomplish the research purpose and questions. The present study used motivational factors, past experiences, socio-demographics, internet sources and image constructs to achieve research purpose mentioned above.

Several studies (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Um & Crompton 1990) stated that motivations strongly influenced image formation and choice by tourists. The present study identified that motivations by Korean tourists are related to cognitive image component rather than affective image component which were argued by Gartner (1993) and Dann (1996). This is in contrast to Baloglu and McClary (1999a), Beerli

and Martin (2004a, 2004b) and Gartner (1993) who have shown that motivations have a direct influence on the affective image component. Moreover, Korean package and independent data that were used in the present study showed push and pull motivations affects cognitive image, but only push motivation influences affective image. So, this study demonstrated that affective image is more influenced by internal aspects than external aspects. The result of the present study shows consistency with Yoon and Uysal (2005)'s findings. They concluded that push motivation has more relationship than pull motivation in the destination image factors.

Also, the present study identified that even though internet sources can affect the formation of overall image, this may have a negative impact on Korean tourists, because Korean tourists seek information which can be aligned with personal needs and wants. This result shows consistency with Baloglu and McClary (1999a)'s findings. Those authors found that cognitive image positively influences affective image, affective image significantly influences overall image, and that cognitive image is statistically significant in overall image. Moreover, they argued overall image was more influenced by affective image than cognitive image. It could be supposed that affective dimensions can play a role as interceding factors between cognitive and overall image constructs (Baloglu & McClary 1999a). Therefore, cognitive image affected not only overall image directly, but it also affected the overall image indirectly through the mediated effect of affective image.

6.4.2. Significant implications

The major findings of the present study have significant implications. Firstly, it is clear that push and pull motivations influenced Internet sources and image constructs. These results were partially consistent with previous research (Baloglu & McClary 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b). These previous studies indicated that motivations mainly influenced affective image, whereas the present study showed more segmented findings. For example, push motivation influenced affective image, while pull motivation indicates a relationship with cognitive image. Moreover, the present study identified that push motivation influenced affective image and pull motivation influenced cognitive image in the package tourists, whereas push and pull motivations affected on cognitive image only. Therefore, the present

study presented more segmented findings of the relationships between motivational factors and image constructs in the tourism literature.

Secondly, the present study identified that cognitive image had a relationship with affective image and affective image influenced overall image, whereas cognitive image did not affect on overall image in both Korean package and independent tourists. As stated above (Section 6.4.1), even though cognitive image does not influence overall image directly, this image aspect indirectly acts on the overall image as a mediator.

Thirdly, the present study indicated that Korean package and independent tourists demonstrate different motivations and different aspects of internet sources. Specifically, push motivation of Korean package tourists has a relationship with internet sources, whereas pull motivation of Korean independent tourists influenced internet sources. As the present study emphasised that internet sources can play various roles for different types of tourists with different motivations. So this study can be a practical segment marketing indication for practitioners.

6.5. Comparing package and independent tourists

Data from the quantitative study include both package tourist and independent tourist data. There were 613 package respondents and 495 independent respondents utilised for data analysis. In order to compare between two groups of tourists quantitative phase and qualitative phase, an overview of the characteristics of qualitative phase is provided in Table 6.1.

Among package tourists, over 80% of respondents were between 21 and 50 years old, while around 60% of respondents were between 21 and 40 years old. As mentioned in Chapter 4 (Results in qualitative phase), numerous respondents in the interview sessions emphasised that the older generations tended to purchase package travel products from travel agencies. This is consistent with the findings of the qualitative phase. In relation to this, respondents in the package data report travel agencies as the most influential information sources (25%, in multiple choices); however, only 8.5% of respondents in the independent data said the same of travel agencies. Respondents of interview sessions emphasised the crisis of the travel

agencies due to the impact of the internet. It is necessary to provide a kind of differentiated service to customers and appropriate strategies to survive in the internet environment.

The present study shows that 26.6% of independent tourists considered word of mouth as the most influential information source. It seems that most tourists would like to have recommendations or word of mouth from acquaintances due to its reliability in spite of the proliferation of the internet. According to the qualitative findings, package tourists prefer to visit more famous destinations, such as Sydney. In package data, 56% of respondents preferred to visit comparatively well-known destinations such as Sydney and Melbourne, while 35.7% of independent tourists chose Sydney.

In the case of income level, the annual income of package tourists is slightly higher than independent tourists. It seems that students comprised 44% of independent tourists. Different with the findings of the qualitative phase, first-time visitors occupied 56.8% and 61.4% (package and independent tourists respectively). The findings of the qualitative phase illustrated that there are remarkable differences between first visitors and repeat visitors. The essential characteristics of first visitors prefer to visit famous destinations, such as Sydney and use package travel, whereas repeat visitors prefer to visit less renowned destinations and enjoy independent travel. In contrary to repeat visitors, first visitors favoured using package travel, since they do not have confidences and their attitude is relatively passive. Additionally, repeat visitors have a more positive image towards Australia.

According to the test of H6–H10, past experiences influenced only affective image. Affective image means personal feelings towards specific destinations. Consistent with qualitative findings, repeat visitors are able to have positive feelings of Australia depending on the travel experiences. The findings of demographic data, it shows strong interrelationships with those of qualitative interview data. Table 6.1 shows the findings of the qualitative phase. The sample profile in the quantitative phase shows consistency except for past experiences.

Table 6.1 A part of the findings of qualitative phase

	Package tourists	Independent tourists
Internet usage	Lower than independent tourists	High level of internet usage
Past experiences	Relatively first visitors	Relatively repeat visitors
Socio–demographics (age)	The older generations	The younger generations
Travel motivations	Mostly push motivations	Both push and pull motivations
Information sources	Travel agents, internet and others	Internet and visual media

According to the findings of SEM to test H1 to H5, two groups of tourists in quantitative phase showed significant differences between motivational factors and internet sources. Specifically, push motivations influence both IIS and IU in package data, whereas pull motivations affect IIS and IU. It may proceed from unique characteristics of tourists, including information search behaviour, frequency of information and features of image constructs. Package tourists are comparatively from older generations, so they usually seek information that can satisfy their feelings and emotions; however, younger generations tend to comprise independent tourists, and frequently seek information related to objective attributes (for example accommodations, entrance fees and public transportations). The findings from the present study can be especially valuable to practitioners. They can carry out segmented marketing strategies with Korean tourists according to age and type of travel.

The present study revealed the relationships between pull motivation and cognitive image and the relationships between push motivation and affective image in package data, whereas push and pull motivations influence cognitive image in independent data. It is assumed that this relationship is caused by attributes of push motivation and affective image. Push motivation and affective image is strongly related with personal feelings and emotions. Package tourists are easily affected by feelings or emotions that Australia engenders, such as exciting or boring and so on. However, independent tourists usually have more specific motivations than package tourists. Thus, they seek to objective knowledge towards Australia. In the case of

internet sources, package tourists demonstrate that only internet usage influences cognitive and affective image. As they rely highly on information from travel agencies, they can search travel information that satisfies them. On the contrary, independent tourists need to have realistic and objective information as well as sensible and subjective information.

Both package and independent tourists show that affective image influences overall image; however, just IIS in package data affects the overall image. The present study can infer important implications at this point. With the flood of information due to the internet, most potential Korean tourists can obtain knowledge about Australia's objective attributes from the internet before their actual travel stage. Korea's internet environment is different from other countries (KNTO 2010). Regardless of age group, most Korean potential tourists are easily exposed to the virtual environment. Additionally, a large amount of information by package tourists can affect on the overall image. Hence, with the level of curiosity rising about travel information, they prepare to involve in searching travel information to foster destination's image.

The distinctive feature from H6 to H10 is that personal factors (socio-demographics, other information sources and preferred destination) are more influential than motivational factors to internet sources and image constructs. This feature can be a distinctive trait to Korean tourists. For instance, according to age and income level, potential Korean tourists can show different information searches and destination images different from other countries' residents. Interestingly, past experiences do not influence most of the dependent variables, except affective image in the independent tourist data. As approximately 70% of respondents are first-time visitors in this data, representative nature of data cannot be assured. However, it seems that it also comes from Korea's internet environment. Even though real visitation and virtual tours are completely different, Korean potential tourists can have similar experiences using virtual programs on the internet.

In H8 (*Personal factors significantly influence cognitive image*), the present study found significant differences between two data. Even though there is not any influence to cognitive image by package tourists, age and occupation influenced cognitive image. It seems that package tourists may consist of similar age group and occupations, whereas independent tourists are made up of different ages and occupations, because cognitive image means a kind of objective knowledge about the specific destinations. In H9 (*Personal factors significantly influence affective image*), the two data shows different results regarding level of income. As

affective image means personal feelings about travel destinations, level of income in independent tourists influenced affective image, because independent tourists' data illustrate a broader range of income level. Lastly, in H10 (*Personal factors significantly influence overall image*), the two data shows relative significant differences. Gender and age affected overall image in package data, whereas occupation and level of income influenced overall image in independent data. It is assumed that occupation and level of income of independent tourists will affect overall mage towards Australia.

6.6. Role of internet sources

As stated in the previous chapters, the internet has become a new type of information source (Pan & Fesenmaiser 2006), offers a number of tools that support indirect experience, and potentially reduces the intangibility of the tourism product (Hyun & O'Keefe 2011). Furthermore, since tourism and information technology (IT) are two of the largest and most dynamic industries in the world today (Lee & Park 2003; Sheldon 1997; Sheldon, Wöber & Fesenmaier 2001) and internet sources are recognised as the most influential social media (Frías, Rodríguez, Castañeda, Sabiote & Buhalis 2012; Hyun & O'Keefe 2011) in destination image formation by potential tourists, the present study examines and suggests the role of internet sources in destination image formation process.

This section begins with a discussion of the Phase One qualitative study findings, followed by a discussion of the Phase Two quantitative study findings regarding the role of internet sources.

Based on the significant role of internet sources on destination image, the contemporary significance of internet sources by the findings of the present study seems to be consistent with Ahuja, Michels, Walker and Weissbuch (2007), Choi et al. (2007), Fotis, Buhalis and Rossides (2011), Ip, Leung and Law (2011) and Jeong, Holland, Jun and Gibson (2012) and Rao (2007).

6.6.1. The role of internet sources in the qualitative phase

The qualitative study using the interview method found that the role of internet sources by Korean tourists can be distinguished by 1) age groups, 2) preferred destinations and 3) travel types. According to the findings of Phase One in the present study, travel blogs and search engines were the most influential internet sources to Korean tourists, even though there are many types of travel information sources. The younger generations rely heavily on the travel blogs and individual websites, however, the older generations comparatively depend highly on internet search engines, advertisements, and website links.

The findings of the present study show partially consistency with Ahuja et al. (2007), Carson (2008), Cox et al. (2008), Fesenmaier et al. (2010), Fotis et al. (2011), Rao (2007), Schmallegger and Carson (2008)'s findings regarding age groups. Carson (2008) and Schmallegger and Carson (2008) stated that there were around 70 million blogs in 2007 and 120,000 new blogs were created every day. So, they strongly argued that travel blogs are the most influential medium. It seems that the younger generations would like to exchange their opinions, make and organise travel associations through the online, such as blogs using visual sources including pictures and movies that can be uploaded during the actual travel stages. Furthermore, some Korean tourists use instant messenger in real time through their own blogs (Lee 2003) and exchange real time information through individual websites without any commercial purpose.

Cox et al. (2008) examined the impact of new internet sources, such as user generated content (UGC) and consumer generated media (CGM), which are generally used to allow the individual tourists to have in a variety of interactions in online content. Ahuja et al. (2007) supported that these UGC and CGM websites can effectively provide a form of word of mouth and are able to share views and opinions with other people about travel experiences. Hence, the findings of the present study support the findings of previous literature and suggest that UGC and CGM, such as travel blogs and individual websites, are the most powerful internet sources to the Korean younger generations.

The present study identified that there were major differences in age and level of income. To date, a few studies revealed that there are significant differences in age groups (Ip et al. 2011; Rao 2007) and levels of education (Ip et al. 2011). Although the present study shows the

consistency with age groups, it is in disagreement with of Ip et al. (2012) who using the same scale found that level of education level shows significant differences in travel planning using internet sources. According to Ip et al. (2011), the younger generations were more willing to share their travel experiences with others than the older generations. The propensity to share travel experiences increased as education level increased until the college/university level, and then decreased.

It can be predicted that the disagreement is from different respondents. While the present study used Korean tourists, the findings of Ip et al. (2011) used Hong Kong online users. As mentioned above, Korean potential tourists may show exceptional characteristics according to travel destinations, motivations and travel types in using internet sources. For example, when Korean potential tourists choose independent travel pattern, they will use more internet sources than tourists using package travel. And if tourists select a less renowned destination, they will utilize internet sources more actively. Since Korea is one of the most developed countries in IT, potential tourists preferred to use more internet sources than tourists from any other countries (Lee & Park 2003). In the case of level of income, the present study identified that level of income is a decisive factor to decide travel. This feature was different from other studies (Baloglu & McClary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, b; Ip et al. 2011; Rao 2007). It can be predicted that the distance from Korean to Australia is comparatively far from other popular destinations and the average cost of travel is much more expensive.

Rao (2007) found significant differences depending only on age group. Respondents aged between 56 and 65 years showed higher rates in both direct email and hyperlinks than any other age groups. Furthermore, this study depicted search engines as the most popular internet sources in all age groups. With similar perspectives, Cox et al. (2008), Fesenmaier et al. (2010) and Xiang et al. (2008) also identified search engines as the most influential medium. However, Fotis et al. (2011) emphasised that potential tourists usually depend on multiple information sources from the internet. The present study also identified that most Korean tourists have utilised multiple internet sources depending on the situations. When they need general travel information from the internet, they usually search their information using the search engines, however, when they look for more trustworthy information, they frequently depend on UGC, CGM websites and travel blogs using instant messenger.

The present study identified that Korean tourists rely on different internet sources depending

on the age groups. Moreover, travel destinations and travel types are also critical factors in choosing internet sources for their travel. The most important thing is these three factors (e.g. age group, destinations and travel types) are strongly related.

The results from the qualitative phase in the present study revealed that there are regional differences among three state capital cities (Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide) in using internet sources. Many respondents in the interviews showed that different narrations according to destinations. As Sydney is renowned as one of the must-visit destinations to Korean tourists, relatively more package tourists and older generations visit Sydney than independent tourists and younger generations. However, as Brisbane is famous for sports and activities, more independent tourists and younger generations prefer to visit the Brisbane area. In the case of Adelaide, as most tourists consist of independent tourists and have different motivations compared with other cities, the characteristics of tourists to Adelaide are exclusively different from the other two cities, Sydney and Brisbane. Additionally, since there are no package travel products from Korea, most tourists to Adelaide have VFR or educational motivations.

The Australian Tourism Commission (2010) segmented the Korean market into four characteristics, such as functional tourists, family focus tourists, adventure seekers and comfort tourists. It can be predicted that Korean tourists will show different characteristics in using internet sources according to the segmented market. For instance, adventure seekers prefer to visit Brisbane with independent travel type, family focus tourists would like to visit Sydney to enjoy their holidays and comfort tourists want to travel to Adelaide to visit their friends and relatives.

Respondents in the interviews emphasised that tourists who visit Brisbane rely highly on the internet sources. It seems that they consist of comparatively the younger generations who have adventure motivations. They frequently used travel blogs that were provided by previous visitors, made online associations and exchanged specific information such as airfare, accommodations and transportations.

With the proliferation of internet sources, potential tourists can avoid post purchase dissonance, because they pursue trustworthy information. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004a, b) emphasised the role of the word of mouth and travel agencies. Cox et al. (2008) pointed out travel agencies and official websites are more reliable than any

other media. However, Fotis et al. (2011) stressed travel information from social media, such as travel blogs are the most reliable information sources. The present study is consistent with the findings of Fotis et al. (2012).

Hence, the findings of the present study found out regional differences in using internet sources according to the travel destinations. It is assumed that Korean tourists visit different destinations within Australia with different motivations. During the process, when they need to have specific information about their destinations, they depend intensely on internet sources, such as travel blogs, UGC and CGM websites; however, when they need to have only general information, they only search travel information through the search engines, email, hyperlinks and official websites. Specifically, this feature of regional differences in using internet sources is absolutely related with age group and travel type.

According to travel types, such as package and independent travel, there are also clear differences in using internet sources. Wang et al. (2000, 2004), Wong and Kwong (2004) stated that there are the differences between package and independent travel in two points, 1) purchasing process and 2) tour guides. Package tourists purchase travel products that are organised by travel agents, while independent tourists prepare and direct all procedures by themselves (KNTO 2009).

Due to the different characteristics, package tourists can use most travel information from travel agencies (Wang, Beatty & Mothersbaugh 2009). For this reason, package tourists usually search their travel information passively, because travel agencies provide specific information to their customers, however, independent tourists must actively search for information by themselves through the internet. In addition, the present study identified that package tourists consist of relatively the older generations compared with the independent tourists. Also, while package tourists search only general information, such as shopping and restaurants through the official websites and search engines, independent tourists must search all necessary travel information through the internet. More specifically, package tourists can trust their information by travel agents; however, independent tourists cannot trust general information by search engines. Independent tourists have to use travel blogs and UGC websites to avoid uncertainty during the actual travel stage (Cobanoglu 2006; Laboy & Torchio 2007).

Due to the different characteristics of package and independent travel, information searching process is diverse between package and independent tourists. Package tourists search their information broadly through the internet, while independent tourists seek specific information.

Therefore, there are three distinguishable points in the role of internet sources in qualitative phase. According to 1) the age groups, 2) visiting destinations and 3) travel types, the role of internet sources is diverse. Moreover, these three points are strongly related to each other. The older generations prefer to visit famous destinations such as Sydney, purchasing package travel products with searching only general information passively, whereas the younger generations prefer to visit destinations such as Brisbane, using the independent travel mode with searching specific information actively. It is assumed that the younger generations and independent tourists depend on various internet sources, such as travel blogs, Facebook and Twitter; however, the older generations and package tourists prefer to search information that they needed. So, internet sources are essential for independent tourists from travel blogs, podcasts and UGC websites; however, they are assistant role for package tourists from search engines, hyperlinks and official websites.

6.6.2. The role of internet sources in the quantitative phase

The quantitative phase using the sequential SEM method found out the role of internet sources by Korean package and independent tourists in motivational and personal factors and image constructs. Through testing 10 hypotheses, the present study examined the role of internet sources and compared package and independent tourists' data.

The present study examined relationships between motivational and personal factors and internet sources. In the model, the present study adopted push and pull motivational theory by Dann (1977). Push motivations are more related to internal, socio-psychological or emotional aspects whereas pull motivations are connected to external, situational, or cognitive aspects (Crompton 1979). And personal factors are utilised. In this section, the interrelationships among the constructs are provided to explain the role of internet sources: 1) push and pull motivations have a direct effect on both internet sources, 2) internet sources have a direct effect on image constructs, and 3) personal factors, such as past experiences, socio demograp hics, information sources and preferred destinations have a direct effect on both internet

sources.

Internet information sources (IIS) and internet usages (IU) were utilised for the present study. With the theoretical basis by previous literature, the present study selected seven internet information sources (e.g., search engines, travel blogs, banner advertising, email advertising, hyperlinks, official websites and unofficial websites) and chose three characteristics (e.g., cognitive characteristics, self-efficacy and confidence and measured internet usages) for present research model.

In order to examine motivational factors and internet sources, the present study employed sequential SEM methods. This section depicted five supported sub hypotheses (H1-1, H2-1, H3-4, H4-4 and H5-3 in package tourists and H1-2, H2-2, H3-3, H4-3 and H4-4 in independent tourists) among 19 sub hypotheses from H1-1 to H5-6 in each tourist group's data to explain the role of internet sources in both package and independent data. Table 6.2 shows the summary of supported hypotheses in both data.

Table 6.2 Summary of the influence of motivational factors on internet source and internet sources on image for both package and independent tourists

Hypotheses	Package tourists	Hypothese	Independent tourists
H1-1	Push motivation → IIS	H1-2	Pull motivation → IIS
H2-1	Push motivation → IU	H2-2	Pull motivation → IU
H3-4	IU → Cognitive image	H3-3	IIS → Cognitive image
H4-4	IU → Affective image	H4-3	IIS → Affective image
H5-3	IIS → Overall image	H4-4	IU → Affective image

Crompton (1979) emphasised that push motivational factors are recognised as intangible or intrinsic desire for escape, rest and relaxation, prestige social interaction, family togetherness and excitement. Furthermore, these factors cause tourists to search for specific information in their travel and destinations to reduce unexpected risks.

The main feature of package travel is that travel agencies organise all travel procedure, such as all itineraries and travel components (KNTO 2009; Wong & Kwong 2004). Wang et al.

(2009) explored the intrinsic risks and risk perceptions of Taiwanese tour leaders in terms of package tour and comprehensively identified three risk items; exogenous risks, tourist-induced risks, and tour leader's self-induced risks. Through quantitative surveys, they extracted 12 risk factors by means of six itineraries in the package tour. Andereck and Caldwell (1993) and Enoch (1996) pointed out that package tourists mainly consist of the first time international tourists for pleasure and they usually seek to reliable information sources, such as word of mouth from experts.

In order to reduce unexpected risks during actual travel stage, push motivations by package tourists may influence internet sources. Wang et al. (2009) previously found out three kinds of risks by package tourists. By searching information through the internet, they try to reduce perceived risks. In addition, as the information provided by travel agencies is indirect information, package tourists eager to have direct information from internet sources, such as search engines and official websites.

Since the present study shows first time visitors were around 56.8%, Korean tourists in package data for the present study also seek to reliable information sources and direct information from internet sources. Fotis et al. (2011) also argued that most potential tourists prefer to have trustworthy travel information through the social media. Hence, H1-1 and H2-1 of the package data support Andereck and Caldwell (1993), Crompton (1979), Enoch (1996) and Wang et al. (2009)'s findings.

In contrast, pull motivations strongly related to the destination's attractiveness, which motivate tourists to travel once the decision has been made. They include specific tangible resources, such as scenic beaches, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, parks, natural scenery, shopping, and entertainment (McGehee et al. 1996) as well as travellers' perceptions and expectations, such as novelty and benefit from a detailed destination image (Oh et al. 1995; Uysal & Hagan 1993). Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995), O'Reilly (2006) and Scheyvens (2002) emphasised that the main features of independent tourists are characterised by the younger generations, budget awareness and a flexible tourism style. Chang (2009) and White and White (2007) identified travel information search behaviour (Chang 2009) and various resources available in the internet environment (White et al. 2007) by independent tourists.

As stated above, as Korean independent tourists also have these characteristics, such as being budget-minded and the younger generations (around 59% are under the age of 30), they have frequently searched specific tangible resources. The information regarding these tangible resources can be obtained by social media, such as travel blogs and UGC websites. Also, independent tourists cannot have even general information from travel agencies, so they rely heavily on the internet sources. Hence, pull motivations by independent tourists influence internet sources (H1-2 and H2-2).

Baloglu and McClary (1999a) and Gartner (1993, 1996) stated that cognitive image is the intellectual evaluation of known attributes of the destination and individual's own knowledge and belief, while Genereux et al. (1983) referred that affective image comprises an individual's feelings towards the objects or attachments and the intangible aspect of destinations, such as atmospheres, mood of the destinations. Overall image is combined by cognitive and affective image (Ahmed 1991). With these perspectives, internet information sources (IIS) for the present study influence overall image in the package data, whereas IIS influence cognitive and affective image in the independent data.

According to the findings of the package data, it is assumed that most package tourists have previously obtained travel information from travel agencies or word of mouth from friends and relatives. So, the image by package tourists can be mentioned as the static image, because potential package tourists can form a certain destination image before their actual travel stage due to the interrelationship with travel agencies or word of mouth. After collecting travel information from travel agencies or their acquaintances, they usually seek to more specific information using search engines, official websites and hyperlinks from the websites. During these processes, potential tourists can have overall image, so IIS influence only overall image. However, IIS influence both cognitive and affective image in independent data. Since independent tourists have to obtain travel information by themselves, it seems that they rely highly on multiple internet information sources, such as travel blogs, search engines and emails. After searching travel information through several IIS, they can form different cognitive and affective images.

In contrast, internet usage (IU) influences cognitive and affective image in the package data. For the present study, the researcher included self-efficacy and confidence in the internet usage category. Although package tourists do not use many kinds of IIS, they show different capability in using the internet. With using different IU, they can build up knowledge about

destinations and have better feelings towards their specific destinations. In the case of independent data, IU affects the affective image, because before building cognitive image, potential independent tourists can have specific knowledge about their destinations through IIS. Hence, depending on the travel types, such as package and independent tourists, the order of priority in using internet sources and other information sources is dissimilar. Specifically, it is assumed that package tourists firstly attain travel information from travel agencies or word of mouth, whereas independent tourists initially obtain their travel information from various internet information sources.

In the personal factors, past experiences do not influence both internet sources, IIS and IU; however, socio-demographics, other information sources and preferred destination affect internet sources. In contrast with the findings of Phase One, gender, occupations and level of education also influence IIS and IU in both data. However, as other information sources, travel agencies and word of mouth affect the IIS and IU, as preferred destinations, Brisbane and Cairns influence IIS and IU in the package data. On the contrary, TV is the most influential media to independent tourists and several cities, such as Sydney, Melbourne, Perth and Darwin affect IIS and IU together. This means that as independent tourists can use more of their time, they prefer to visit more cities than package tourists.

In summary, internet sources have strong relationships with motivational and personal factors and image constructs. The present study highlights internet sources can play various roles for different types of travel. This can give significant implications for practitioners and academics. Since Korean tourists show different motivations and personal factors, there needs to be more segmented research and marketing strategies. And based on the findings of the present study, more specific research regarding Korean tourists travelling to other destinations is needed.

6.7. Research limitations

In spite of the researchers' effort to accomplish the research purpose, several limitations that could have affected the results of the present study need to be addressed.

6.7.1. Limitations in data collection process

Firstly, as qualitative interviews were conducted in Korean language, the researcher has to translate whole contents from Korean to English. Even though the researcher has undergone a proofreading process by professional translators, the chance of mistranslation and information being lost in translation may exist. Secondly, during the quantitative data collection in Korea, the researcher used five assistants to distribute questionnaires and explain research purpose to each respondent. Before distributing questionnaires, the researcher educated thoroughly, however, there may be some difficulty in researcher's training abilities and communication skills and assistants' willingness to follow the instructions given.

6.7.2. Limitations in under-researched area

Concept of the present study is regarding internet sources targeted Korean tourists. This research concept of interest has not been well-defined in previous literature. No agreements have been reached on the conceptualisation of push and pull motivations in destination image model including internet sources. Therefore, exploratory research needed to be conducted in order to validate the research concepts of proposed model.

6.7.3. Limitations in generalisation of the research findings

The findings of study can only be generalised to the sample population, because using the internet sources, travel motivation and destination image could differ from destination to destination. The target population of this study is Korean tourists travelling to Australia. If the main survey was conducted in other countries, the findings may be totally different.

6.8. Conclusions and contributions of the research

The present study is important to formulate destination image towards specific destinations in several aspects to tourism literature. In spite of numerous researchers' efforts to date, there still exist a few research gaps, especially in destination image formation models. Therefore, this study makes a contribution to the body of tourism literature in both academics and

practitioners.

Firstly, the present study makes theoretical contributions. This study supports the idea that the general theory of push and pull motivation can apply to tourism destination image aspects. E ven if various studies have used travel motivational factors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Beerli & Martin 2004a, 2004b; Yoon & Uysal 2005), there is not any research using push and pull motivational theory especially in the destination image formation model. Since there is not any literature among destination image formation models using push and pull motivations, the present study which includes push and pull motivational theory in the model can be broadly accepted in the tourism literature. Also, this study assimilated determinants that were examined by Baloglu & McCleary (1999a) and Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b), modified existing variables and reflected current trends, such as the impact of the internet in forming destination image by Korean tourists. In relation to these meanings, this study's inclusion of internet sources contributed to the flow of the image research.

Secondly, as past research on the effects of internet sources on destination image has been limited and the result of research has been outdated, the findings of the present study can be considered a theory extended frontier research regarding internet sources on destination image formation model. Furthermore, while admitting the importance of internet sources in the destination formation models, destination image formation model research areas with internet sources have not been thoroughly studied. Specifically, the present study examined that both Korean package and independent tourists showed different internet sources depending on travel type and age group. Also, in particular, independent tourists and the younger generations rely heavily on social media such as travel blogs, UGC and CGM internet contents. So, the findings of the present study can be more valuable in understanding of relationships between internet sources and other constructs within destination image formation models.

Thirdly, the present study also has practical implications for the practice of destination marketing. Most Asian countries have two kinds of travel patterns, such as package and independent tourists (March 2000; Wang et al. 2004). The present study found out that package and independent tourists showed different motivations and relied on dissimilar information sources. The present study pointed out Korean package tourists presented positive relationships between push motivation and Internet sources; however, independent

tourists indicated affirmative relationships between pull motivation and Internet sources. This indicates that package and independent tourists have different motivations and information sources, specifically Internet sources. Therefore, it is necessary to offer more segmented marketing strategies for package and independent tourists. As each tourist has different motivations and characteristics, standardised mass marketing cannot address all customer needs. Additionally, as most potential tourists have been exposed to a wide variety of information sources, segmented marketing should be allocated and delivered to tourists individually to enhance destination competitiveness. As the internet offers a number of tools that support indirect experience, and thus can potentially reduce the intangibility of the tourism product, the internet now plays an important role in destination marketing (Buhalis & Law 2008; Hyun & O'Keefe 2012). So, practitioners in destination marketing can utilise the findings of the present study to provide more efficient promotion to Korean tourists. Since Korean younger generations usually utilise UGC contents online such as travel blogs and Twitter, practitioners have to organise personal marketing tools using UGC contents—particularly, virtual reality contents (Cho 2002; Hyun & O'Keefe 2012; Lee & Park 2003; Ip et al. 2011; Jalilvand & Samiei 2012).

Lastly, since the number of Korean tourists travelling to Australia has been increasing dramatically and has been recognised as the fifth largest inbound market in Australia, this study can contribute for future studies to further understanding about Korean market. Also, this study can provide different marketing implications for package and independent tourists.

In conclusion, the present study has made extensive progress towards achieving research purpose and questions. It has specifically contributed to knowledge in the area of destination image formation model as well as internet sources and push/pull motivation theory using Korean package and independent tourists. It also advanced the understanding of relationships between internet sources, motivational factors and image constructs.

6.9. Suggestions for further research

There are several key suggestions that deserve the attention of future research as a result of the findings of the present study. Those suggestions will be discussed in this section.

Firstly, as previously mentioned in Section 6.5, this research topic is still an under-researched area in terms of using internet sources and push and pull motivational theory. Therefore, there still needs to be a conceptualisation of push and pull motivations in destination image model including internet sources. If possible, there needs to be research using different countries' samples, such as Australia's residents travelling overseas. Since the findings of the present study identified that package and independent tourists have different motivations and information sources, this kind of research creates deeper implications to tourism literature.

Secondly, this study also contributes to future studies to further theorise the understanding of destination image studies in the tourism literature, especially applications of push and pull motivation theory and Internet sources in the destination image model. The findings of the present study are particularly significant for future research given the increasing number of Korean tourists travelling to Australia, and the expanding importance of Korea as a tourism exporter.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Selected definitions of destination image

Researchers	Definitions
Boulding (1956)	A complex concept made up of spatial, temporal, cognitive and affective image features
Martineau (1958)	Image is defined as physical and psychological properties
Herzog (1963)	The sum total of the impressions a consumer receives from many sources
Reynolds (1965)	A mental or attitudinal construct developed on the basis of a few selected impressions from among the flood of total impressions through a creative process
Myers (1968)	Image is psychological or distorted representation in the mind of the individuals
Gunn (1972)	Destination image has three steps of image; pre-image, the actual participation and an evaluation and revised image
Mayo (1973)	Destination image refers to simplified impressions
Hunt (1975)	The perceptions held by potential visitors about an area
Tuan (1975)	Something formed in the human mind in absence of physical environment
Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977)	An expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific place
Crompton (1979)	Sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination
Assael (1984)	Total perception of the destination that is formed by processing information from various sources over time
Stringer (1984)	Destination image reflects representation of sensory or conceptual information.
Phelps (1986)	Perceptions or impressions of place
Fridgen (1987)	A mental representation of an object or place which is not physically before the observer
Gartner and Hunt (1987)	Impressions that persons hold about a state in which they do not reside

Mountinho (1987)	An individual's attitude towards the destination attributes based on their knowledge and feelings
Calantone, Benedetto, Hakam and Bojanic (1989)	Perceptions of potential tourist destinations
Embacher and Buttle (1989)	Ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination under investigation
Chon(1990)	Result of the interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination
Echtner and Ritchie (1991)	The perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination
Dadgostar and Isotalo (1992)	Overall impression or attitude that an individual acquires of a place
Milman and Pizam (1995)	Visual or mental impression of a place, a product, or an experience held by the general public
Parenteau (1995)	A favourable or unfavourable prejudice by consumers about destination
MacKay and Fasemaier (1997)	Destination image means a composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression
Prichard(1998)	An visual or mental impression of a specific place
Baloglu and McCleary (1999a)	An individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global impressions about a destination
Coshall (2000)	The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations
Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000)	A sum of associations and pieces of information connected to a destination, which would includes multiple components of the destination and personal perception
Tapachai and Waryszak (2000)	Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefit or consumption values
Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez (2001)	The subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist
Kim and Richardson (2003)	Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time.
Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b)	A mental picture formed by a set of attributes that define the destination in its various dimensions
Kotler and Gartner (2004)	Sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about place
Martin and Bosque (2008)	Consumer's perception of destination based on different information sources

Appendix 2. A summary of the foremost destination image studies

Scholar(s)	Summary of research
Crompton (1979)	Summarised images as beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination.
Pearce (1982)	Compared tourists' pre- and post-travel images of two Mediterranean countries and found that travellers changed some of their perceptions after visiting them.
Walmsley & Jenkins (1984)	Identified images as a product of the mind and a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information related to place.
Engel, Blackwell & Miniard (1986)	Mentioned that image is related to the consumer's subjective perceptions, which refer to how an alternative performs on important evaluative criteria.
Friedman & Lessig (1986)	Defined subjective perception and affective reaction.
Mazurky & Jakoby (1986)	Explained image as a set of cognitions and emotions that represent an entity to an individual.
Phelps (1986)	Categorised destination images depending on information sources and identified that while primary images are formed through internal information, secondary images are influenced by information received from external sources.
Gartner (1989)	Explained image as a complex combination of various products and associated attributes.
Chon (1990)	Defined the result of the interaction of a person's beliefs, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination.
Dobni & Zinkhan (1990)	Proposed that image is formed through a consumer's intellectual and emotional interpretation.
Ahmed (1991)	Found differences in individual image and overall image between visitors and non-visitors to Utah.
Chon (1991)	Compared the image of Korea between those travelling to Korea (pre-travel) and those returning from Korea (post-travel). Post-visitors' perceptions were found more positive than pre-visitors' perceptions.
Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	Recognised the influence of multiple visits and analysed the image prospective by experiences between first-time and repeat-visitors. Images were significantly different between first-time and repeat visitors.
Mansfeld (1992)	Suggested that destination images were mainly created by the secondary information sources.
Gartner (1993)	Formed by three components; cognitive, affective, and conative. The interrelationships between these components are said to determine product predisposition.
Hu & Ritchie (1993)	Investigated the effects of familiarity on the perceived attractiveness of Hawaii, Australia, Greece, France, and China and reported significant differences between non-visitors and visitors to some of these destinations.
Kotler, Haider & Rein (1993)	Considered the information, beliefs, impressions, attitudes and emotional thoughts an individual has regarding a particular place.
Ross (1993)	Identified destination images in Northern Australia by 400 backpacker

	travellers with enjoyment ratings and revisitation intentions.
Milman & Pizam (1995)	Found significant differences between repeat visitors and non-visitors, and noted that respondents who were familiar with the state (previously visited) had a more positive image of the destination than those who were aware of it.
Alhemoud & Armstrong (1996)	Found that destinations with stronger positive images have a higher probability of being included and chosen in the process of decision making.
Dann (1996)	Compared tourists' pre-trip and on-trip cognitive, affective, and conative images and defined destination image as a picture or information that people perceived from their past and from experience.
Court & Lupton (1997)	Examined the image of New Mexico–and found that the destination image positively affected an intention to revisit in the future.
MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997)	Explained image as a complex of various attractions and attributes woven into a total impression.
Lubbe (1998)	Using qualitative research methodology, identified 'push' and 'pull' motivation factors in relation to destination and explained the links between these factors.
Baloglu & McCleary (1999a, 1999b)	Provided a general framework of destination image formation with personal factors and stimulus factors.
Choi, Chan, & Wu (1999)	Defined a comprehensive image for Hong Kong using combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches.
Murphy (1999)	Identified Australia's destination image as perceived by backpacker travellers and examined Australia's major strengths in image.
Andreu, Bigne & Cooper (2000)	Characterised images as consumer's perception of a product, institution, brand, company or person, which may or may not correspond to the reality.
Chaudhary (2000)	Assessed foreign tourists' expectations and satisfaction level in relation to India and identified the gaps between the two. Concluded that the expectation-satisfaction gaps indicate that India overall is not perceived positively.
Baloglu & Mangaloglu (2001)	Emphasised the importance of travel intermediaries' image for international travel destinations. The results suggested significant differences in images of tour operators/travel agents promoting destinations and those not promoting.
Gallarza, Saura & Garcia (2002)	Acknowledged the importance of destination images, since it affects the individual's subjective perception and consequent behaviour and destination choice process.
Kozak (2002)	Determined differences between satisfaction levels of two nationalities visiting the same destination and indicated that British tourists were more likely to be satisfied with all individual attributes than German tourists.
Pike (2002)	Produced a review of 142 destination image papers, published during the period 1973-2000.
Ritchie & Ritchie (2002)	Emphasised that advertising plays an important role in the promotion of tourism destination image.
Kim & Richardson (2003)	Considered image as totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time.

Beerli & Martin (2004a, 2004b)	Analysed the relationship between the different components of the perceived image and the factors which influence image formation.
Mackay & Couldwell (2004)	State that photographs are vital to successfully creating and communicating images of a destination.
Pike & Ryan (2004)	Compared cognitive, affective, and conative perceptions of destination image using importance performance analysis and demonstrated the importance of a destination competitive position from the travel context perspectives.
Lee, Lee & Lee (2005)	Investigated the influence of social effects on tourist behaviours and influence of various dimensions of destination image on tourists' onsite experiences.
Ryan & Cave (2005)	Analysed data derived from conversations with varying groups of residents and visitors in New Zealand with reference to Auckland as a visitor destination.
Son & Pearce (2005)	Explored international students' images of Australia using a conceptual framework based on cognitive, affective and multi-sensory components.
Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal (2006)	Investigated the relationship between destination image and destination personality and indicated that destination image and destination personality are related concepts.
Xiao & Mair (2006)	Analysed tourist destination images of China through the representational narratives of major English newspapers.
Chi & Qu (2007)	Examined the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty and identified that destination image directly influenced on satisfaction and had a positive impact on destination loyalty.
Choi, Lehto & Morrison (2007)	Examined the impact of the Internet comprehensively and argued that research on the Internet is still at an infancy stage.
Govers, Go & Kumar (2007)	Emphasised that tourism destination images are becoming increasingly fragmented and ephemeral in nature with the proliferation of the internet.
Prebensen (2007)	Identified tourist image perceptions of distant places with word association, picture association and collage techniques.
Frias, Rodriguez & Castaneda (2008)	Provided an insight into the factors affecting the formation of tourism destination image and identified the degree of the tourist's message involvement and Internet experience.
Lin & Huang (2008)	Established the destination image position (DIP) model based on secondary data using the K-Means data mining method and identified four groups of visitor.
Martin & Bosque (2008)	Explored the cognitive–affective nature of destination image and the role of psychological factors and suggested destination image is a multidimensional concept formed by cognitive and affective evaluations of a place.
Alcaniz, Garcia & Blas (2009)	Analysed the cognitive component of the image from a dual perspective and identified its composition by positing three positions on a continuum: functional, mixed and psychological.
Lee (2009)	Examined the images of Australia in expression of categories and descriptors regarding images of Australia as a tourism destination represented by Korean travel agents.
Huang & Gross (2010)	Employed a multi-faceted image assessment (MIA) framework in exploring Australia's destination image among mainland Chinese travellers.

Lee & Gross (2010a)	Identified Australia's destination image by representative narrations by Korean travel agents and investigated nine key themes and 21 topics in Australia's destination image.
Lee & Gross (2010b)	Examined regional differences among three state capital cities in Australia, finding significant differences regarding image features through representational narrations.
Lee & Gross (2010c)	Investigated the aspects of travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographics and Internet sources that contribute to overall destination image of Australia by Korean package tourists.
Lee, Gross & Jung (2010)	Examined the reporting tendency of Korean newspapers towards destination image, using Australia's cases for comparison of before and after the 1997 IMF crisis.
Lee, Gross & Lee (2010a)	Analysed the differences of the reporting tendency, news frames and propensity to change in Korean newspapers towards destination image and travel to Australia.
Lee, Gross & Lee (2010b)	Analysed reporting articles about Australia's destination image and compared perspectives of Korean newspapers between conservative and progressive newspapers.
Lee & Gross (2011)	Examined aspects of travel motivations, socio-demographics and Internet sources that contribute to the destination image of Australia held by Korean independent travellers.
Lee, Gross & Lee (2011)	Identified the differences in broadcasting topics, attitudes and news frames among Korean television news networks towards destination image and travel to Australia.

Appendix 3. Information sheet



University of South Australia

School of Management, Division of Business

The impact of internet sources on Australia's destination image for Korean package and independent tourists

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher:

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This document will be printed with the School of Management Letter Head

Dear Sir/Madam,

I would like to invite your organisation to participate in a research project entitled **'**Tourism Destination Image Formation Process: The role of Internet Sources – focus on South Korean travelers travelling to Australia**'.** The study is being conducted by Hong Chul LEE, Ph.D candidate in the School of Management at the University of South Australia.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will participate in an interview at a time and location that is convenient for you. The objectives for the interview session are to explore the aspects of Internet sources, travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables and other information sources that contribute to overall destination image. Please note that if you agree to participate, I will ask you to provide evidence of travelling to Australia before the in depth interview session.

Your participation is entirely voluntary. I would like to seek your voluntary participation by involving you to participate to fill up a questionnaire. The research requires your knowledge and previous and current experience formed by you to answer the questions. After the questionnaire has been refined, it will then be distributed to respondents. Your participation will be voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time without repercussions and you may request that your contributions be removed from the project. You are free to indicate that all information provided is to be treated as confidential. I do not anticipate any risks in the participation of this study. If you have any negative feelings or implications, you are free to withdraw from this study at any time. I anticipate the time taken to fill up the questionnaire will be 20 minutes.

If you agree to participate in this study, your views and assistance in providing information and data will be incorporated into a PhD thesis. The researcher is committed to the principles that guide reputable research. All research will be undertaken with care and respect for the respondent's welfare and the quality and validity of the research report/result. All confidential information will be treated with integrity and not be made public. All written report and computer data will be coded to ensure the confidentiality of information. The back-up data stored in compact disks will be stored securely in a locked cabinet in the School of Management, University of South Australia, city west campus for seven years, and then destroyed, and only the researchers will have access to them. Data will be stored

in accordance with the University of South Australia Code of Conduct Policy. You are free to indicate that all information provided is to be treated as confidential.

The research outcomes of the study will be in the forms of a PhD thesis, conference proceedings, and scholarly journal articles. You are free to indicate that all information provided is to be treated as confidential. The return of completed questionnaire will indicate consent to participate in this research. Throughout the course of the proposed research program, you are free to withdraw at any time for whatever reason without repercussions and you may request that your contributions be removed from the project. A summary report will be prepared and disseminated to interested parties involved in the study.

If you have any questions about the study or your involvement, please contact Hong Chul LEE, School of Management, University of South Australia, City West Campus, North Terrace, Adelaide SA 5000 email Hong.Lee@postgrads.unisa.edu.au Phone (61) 8 8302 7601, or Dr Michael J. Gross, Lecturer, School of Management, University of South Australia, City West Campus, North Terrace, Adelaide SA 5000 email michael.gross@unisa.edu.au Phone (61) 8 8302 0350 Fax (61) 8 8302 0512.

This questionnaire will be approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: (61) 8 8302 3118; Email: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.

Ms. Allen will be available to discuss any ethical concerns about the project or answer questions about the rights of participants. Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

This project will have been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix 4. Consent form

Project title: The impact of internet sources on Australia's destination image for Korean package and independent tourists

Researcher's name: Hong Chul LEE

Supervisor's name: Dr. Michael Gross (PhD)

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and the nature and the purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.

- I understand that I may not directly benefit from taking part in the project.

- I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.

- I confirm that I am over 18 years of age.

- I understand that I will be audiotaped / videotaped during the study

- I understand that the tape will be *(insert details of how and where the tape will be stored, who will have access to it and what limits will be placed on that access)*

- I grant the University the exclusive and royalty free right to reproduce and use in its ongoing activities photographs, video, or any other recording by any means of my voice or physical likeness which is produced in the course of the project. *(delete if the taped material is not to be used by the university for any purpose beyond the current study)*

- I understand that the University shall not be required to make any payment to me arising out of its exercise of this right. *(delete if the taped material is not to be used by the university for any purpose beyond the current study)*

- I understand that wherever practical, the University will acknowledge my participation in the project in exercising this right. *(delete if the taped material is not to be used by the university for any purpose beyond the current study)*

Name of participant .....

Signed .....

Dated .....

I have explained the study to subject and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

Researcher's signature and date .....

Appendix 5. Interview Guide (English)

Dear participant,

Thank you for participating in this study of Tourism Destination Image Formation Process. The study is being conducted to better understand the process of how international travellers form destination image with internet sources. Your responses to this study will be used for research purpose only and will be treated as anonymous and confidential. Thank you again for your participation. The answers can be of great value to my research study. Your assistance will be highly appreciated. Your name and name of company will be kept confidential. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Name of firm/organisation:_____

Contact Detail : _____

Date : _____

All results will be dealt with in strictest confidence and anonymity.

Do you mind if I tape record this interview?

The customer in this study will be chosen from international travellers selected from South Korean residents who are travelling to Australia.

Section A : Current Situation of Website

Q1. Usually, what kind of Internet sources do you use in your travel agency? (Eg. Search engine, email, reservation system, blog or messenger)

_____

_____

Q2. What differences in customer characteristics exist between the past and the present?

_____

_____

Section B: Destination image about Australia

Q3. When you talk with your customer about Australia as a tourism destination, what comes to your customer mind first?

Q4. Explain your customers' general feeling towards Australia as a tourism destination.

Q5. What motivations do your customers have towards Australia as a tourism destination?

Q6. Are there any differences between first-time visitors and repeat-visitors towards Australia as a tourism destination?

Q7. Are there any differences towards Australia as a tourism destination according to socio-demographic characteristics? (Gender, Age, Occupation, Education and Income)

Q8. Except the Internet sources, which information sources do your customers use? (Eg. Magazine, Information book, Travel agency, Recommendation and Word-of-mouth)

Section C: Destination image and Internet sources

Q9. What is the main difference between Internet users and non-users?

Q10. What are the most useful information sources in the formation of destination image to the travellers who are planning their travel nowadays? (If you think the Internet sources, go to Q 10-1)

Q10-1. Which Internet sources are the most important and effective to the travellers who are planning their travel to Australia?

Q11. What roles do Internet sources play to form destination image of Australia?

Q12. Among quite a few Internet sources, what points are needed to improve to maximize the influences to the travellers who are planning their travel?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix 6. Interview Guide (Korean)

Dear participant,

Thank you for participating in this study of Tourism Destination Image Formation Process. The study is being conducted to better understand the process of how international travellers form destination image with internet sources. Your responses to this study will be used for research purpose only and will be treated as anonymous and confidential. Thank you again for your participation. The answers can be of great value to my research study. Your assistance will be highly appreciated. Your name and name of company will be kept confidential. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

회사이름 : _____
연락처: _____
날짜 : _____

모든 결과는 익명으로 처리가 됩니다. 이 인터뷰를 녹음하려고 합니다. 괜찮으시겠습니까?
이 연구에서 사용되어지는 고객은 한국에 거주하는 고객으로 한국에서 호주로 여행을 할려는 고객에 한정합니다.

A : 현재의 흐름재의 흐름

Q1. 귀하의 회사에서는 보통 어떤 종류의 인터넷 정보를 얼마나 사용합니까? (정보검색, 이메일, 예약 프로그램, 메신저 등)

_____

_____

Q2. 귀하의 회사를 이용하는 고객의 특징은 과거와 현재에 어떠한 차이가 있습니까?

_____

_____

B: 호호주에 관한 이미지주에 관한 이미지

Q3. 관광목적지로 호주에 대해 당신의 고객과 얘기를 할 때 고객에게 가장 먼저 떠오를 것 같은 이미지는 무엇입니까?

_____

Q4. 관광목적지로서 호주에 대한 당신 고객의 일반적인 느낌을 설명해 주십시오.
.

Q5. 호주를 방문하려는 당신의 고객들은 주로 어떠한 동기를 가지고 있다고 생각하십니까? (예를 들어, 내적·감정적 동기, 외적·상황적 동기로 나누어서)

Q6. 귀하의 고객중 첫 방문자와 반복 방문자와의 차이는 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?

Q7. 귀하 고객의 인구사회학적 특성 (성별, 나이, 직업, 학력)에 따른 차이는 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?

Q8. 인터넷 이외에 어떠한 정보매체를 주로 사용한다고 생각하십니까? (잡지, 여행정보 책자, 여행사 방문, 지인으로부터의 추천 등)

C: 이미지와 인터넷 매체

Q9. 호주를 방문하려는 당신의 고객들 중 인터넷 사용자와 비사용자의 가장 큰 차이점은 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?

Q10. 호주를 방문하려는 당신의 고객들에게 호주의 관광 이미지를 형성하는데 가장 유용하고, 효과적인 정보매체는 무엇이라고 생각하십니까? (인터넷 매체 라고 생각하시는 경우 Q 10-1 로)

Q 10-1. 어떤 인터넷 매체가 가장 효과적이고 유용하다고 생각 하십니까?

Q11. 호주를 방문하려는 당신의 고객들에게 호주의 관광 이미지를 형성하는데 인터넷 정보매체의 가장 큰 역할은 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?

Q12. 호주를 방문하려는 당신의 고객들의 영향력을 최대화 하기 위해서는 많은 인터넷 매체들이 어떻게 개선되어야 한다고 생각하십니까?

인터뷰에 참여해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다.

Appendix 7. Questionnaire (English)

Section A-1: Motivations (Internal or emotional aspects)

The following questions ask about your motivations of the destinations on your trip visiting Australia. Please circle the number that the best describes your motivations with respect to each item below

	← Disagree						Agree →
1. Being physically active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Finding thrills and excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Rediscovering myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Experiencing new and different lifestyles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Trying new food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Visiting historical places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Meeting new and other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Being free to act how I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Getting a change from a busy job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Going places where I have not been	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Rediscovering past good times	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Visiting friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Being together as a family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Getting away from the demands at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Experiencing a simpler lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Visiting safe and secure place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Being entertained and having fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Seeing as much as possible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Escaping from the ordinary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Participating in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. Seeing and experiencing a foreign destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Learning new things, increasing knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section A-2: Motivations (External or situational aspects.)

The following questions ask about your motivations of the destinations on your trip visiting Australia. Please circle the number that the best describes your motivations with respect to each item below

	← Disagree					Agree →	
1. Amusement or theme parks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Outdoor activities such as hiking/climbing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Wide spaces to get away from crowds	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Modern cities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Exotic atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Night life and entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Live theatres/concerts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. First class hotels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Budget accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Variety of activities to see	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Opportunities to increase knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Reliable weather	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Personal safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Outstanding scenery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Wilderness and undisturbed nature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Mountainous areas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Historical old sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. Museums and art galleries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Quality beach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. High quality restaurants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Interesting and friendly local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Cleanness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section B: Past experiences

The following questions ask about your past experiences of the destinations on your trip. Please tick that the best describes your experiences to each item below

1. Have you ever visited Australia? If yes, how many times?

Past Experiences	First-time visitor ☐	Repeat-visitor ☐	Number of visits

Section C: Information Sources (Except the Internet Sources)

The following questions ask about your information sources of the destinations on your trip. Please tick the information sources that the best describes your experiences to each item below

1. Where did you see or hear information about Australia? (Tick as many as apply)

Sources	
TV	
Information book (eg. Magazines)	
Travel agency	
Brochures or Tour guide book	
Word of Mouth from your friends or relatives	
Other (If others, please write down exact sources)	

Section D: Cognitive Image (Belief or Knowledge)

When you think about Australia, what beliefs or knowledge do you have? Please circle the cognitive image that the best describes your experiences to each item below

	← Disagree						Agree →
1. Beautiful scenery and natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Places of historical or cultural interest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Unpolluted and unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Unusual ways of life and customs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Interesting cultural activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Shopping facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Good night-life and entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Appealing local food (cuisine)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Opportunities for sports activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Exotic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. A good name and reputation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. A good quality of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Offers personal safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Hospitable, friendly people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Good beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Good weather	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Good infrastructure of accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Good value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section E: Affective Image (Feeling or Emotion)

When you think about Australia, what feeling or emotion do you have? Please circle the affective image that the best describes your experiences to each item below

	Feeling or Emotion						
Unpleasant/Pleasant	← Unpleasant					Pleasant →	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sleepy/Arousing	← Sleepy					Arousing →	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Distressing/Relaxing	← Distressing					Relaxing →	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Boring/Exciting	← Boring					Exciting →	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section F: Overall Image

The following questions ask about your overall image of the destinations on your trip. Please circle the overall image that the best describes your experiences to each item below

	← Negative					Positive →	
Overall Image of Australia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section G: Internet Sources

The following questions ask about Internet Sources of the destinations on your trip.

1. Which forms of Internet Sources can have a strong effect in choosing destination?

	← Disagree					Agree →	
1. Internet advertisements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Direct emails from marketers of products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Internet search engines (like Google, Yahoo)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Internet blog	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Hyperlinks on pages you visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Companies' website	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Individual website	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. In below there is a series of statements about the Internet in searching tourism destination image. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements using the scale shown.

	← Disagree				Agree →		
1. I think using Internet helps me plan better travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I think searching tourism information on the Internet is better than using traditional information sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I think Internet searches are time consuming	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I usually search for information about tourism destinations on the Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I find buying tourism product in the Internet is more useful than buying in traditional information sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I look to the Internet as a first alternative for finding destination information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. During the destination information search, I feel like I am in the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My overall attitude towards Internet searching to find tourism destination image is positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I can acquire more destination image in Web-site than any other media.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. During information search on the web, I am able to find information of destination that I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Uncertainties about the destination are removed through using Web site.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section H: About You

The following questions ask about general information about you

1. You are? (Circle one)

1) Male ☐ 2) Female ☐

2. What is your age?

1) 18 ~ 20 ☐ 2) 21 ~ 30 ☐ 3) 31 ~ 40 ☐

4) 41 ~ 50 ☐ 5) 51 ~ 60 ☐ 6) 60 ~ 70 ☐

7) Over 70 ☐

3. What is your occupation?

1) Student ☐ 2) Housewife ☐ 3) Self-employee ☐

4) Company employee ☐ 5) Government Officer ☐ 6) Medical practitioner ☐

7) Academic profession ☐ 8) Unemployed ☐ 9) Retired ☐

10) Others

☐

4. Which is the highest level of education you had obtained?

1) Less than high school ☐ 2) Graduate from high school ☐

3) Junior College student ☐ 4) Graduate from junior college ☐

5) 4 year college or university student ☐ 6) Graduate from 4 year college or university ☐

7) Postgraduate student ☐ 8) Graduate from graduate school ☐

5. What is your approximate household income per year?

1) Under 10,000,000 KRW ☐ 2) 10,000,000 ~ 30,000,000 KRW ☐

3) 30,000,000 ~ 50,000,000 KRW ☐ 4) 50,000,000 ~ 70,000,000 KRW ☐

5) 70,000,000 ~ 100,000,000 KRW ☐ 6) Over 100,000,000 KRW ☐

6. Which cities will you visit Australia in this travel? (Tick as many as apply)

1) Sydney ☐ 2) Melbourne ☐ 3) Brisbane ☐

4) Adelaide ☐ 5) Perth ☐ 6) Hobart ☐

7) Canberra ☐ 8) Darwin ☐ 9) Cairns ☐

10) Other cities (Please write down)

☐

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix 8. Questionnaire (Korean)

설문지

A-1: 동기 (내부적 동기, 감정적 동기)

아래의 질문들은 호주를 방문하려는 귀하의 동기를 묻는 문항입니다. 귀하께서 생각하시는 동기들에 대해서 아래의 문항에 체크를 해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

	← 동의하지 않음						동의함 →
1. 신체적인 활동을 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 쓰릴과 흥분을 찾기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 나 자신을 다시 발견하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 새로운 라이프스타일을 경험하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 새로운 음식에의 도전을 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 역사적인 장소를 방문하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 새로운 다른 사람들을 만나기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 자유로운 행동을 경험하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 바쁜 일상으로부터의 변화를 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 방문하지 않은 곳을 방문하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 과거 좋았던 경험을 다시 느끼기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 친구와 친지를 방문하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 가족과 함께 지내기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 집에서 떠나기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 심플한 라이프스타일을 경험하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 안전한 곳을 방문하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 즐거움을 가지기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 많은 것을 보기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. 일상에서의 탈피를 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 스포츠에 참여를 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. 외국을 보고 경험하기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. 새로운 것을 보고 지식을 쌓기 위해	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A-2: 동기 (외부적 동기, 상황적 동기.)

아래의 질문들은 호주를 방문하려는 귀하의 동기를 묻는 문항입니다. 귀하께서 생각하시는 동기들에 대해서 아래의 문항에 체크를 해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

	← 동의하지 않음					동의함 →	
1. 주제공원, 테마파크	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 하이킹과 등산과 같은 야외활동	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 혼잡하지 않은 넓은 장소방문	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 현대적인 도시들	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 색다르고 낭만적인 분위기	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 나이트라이프와 오락	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 라이브콘서트와 극장	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 쇼핑	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 일등급호텔	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 저렴한 숙소	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 액티비티의 다양함	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 지식을 늘리기 위한 기회	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 좋은 날씨	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 개인적인 안전	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 뛰어난 경치	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 훼손되지 않은 자연	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. 산악지역	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 역사적인 곳	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 박물관과 아트갤러리	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 좋은 비치	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. 양질의 레스토랑	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. 흥미롭고 친근한 현지인들	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. 다른 문화	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. 청결함	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B: 과거경험

호주에 관한 과거 경험을 묻는 문항입니다. 귀하의 경험에 대해 아래 문항에서 체크를 해주시면 감사하겠습니다.

1. 호주를 방문해 보셨습니까?? 있다면, 몇번입니까?

과거경험	첫번째☐	방문경험 있음 ☐	방문횟수

C: 정보의 원천(인터넷 정보 제외)

귀하의 관광목적지에 대한 정보의 원천에 관한 문항입니다.

1. 호주에 관한 정보를 어디에서 보거나 들으셨습니까?? (복수응답 가능합니다.)

TV	
정보책자(예: 잡지)	

여행사	
브로셔, 여행 가이드북	
친구나 친척으로부터의 구전	
기타 (정확히 기술해 주세요)	

D: 인지적 이미지(믿음이나 지식)

호주를 여행하시기 전에 호주에 대해 어떻게 알고 계십니까? 귀하의 믿음이나 지식에 대해 아래 문항에서 체크를 해주시면 감사하겠습니다.

	← 동의하지 않음						동의함 →
1. 아름다운 경치와 자연적인 매력	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 역사적이거나 문화적인 관심장소	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 오염되지 않은 환경	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 다른 삶의 방식과 관습	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 흥미로운 문화적인 활동	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 쇼핑시설	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 좋은 night-life 와 오락	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 그 지역 고유의 음식	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 스포츠 액티비티를 위한 기회	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 이국적인	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 좋은 평판	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 좋은 삶의 질	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 안전한 장소 제공	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 친근한 사람들	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 좋은 비치	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. 좋은 날씨	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 좋은 숙박시설	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 소비하는 비용에 비례한 좋은 가치	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

E: 정서적 이미지(느낌이나 감정)

호주를 여행하시기 전에 호주에 대해 어떻게 알고 계십니까? 귀하의 느낌이나 감정에 대해 아래 문항에서 체크를 해주시면 감사하겠습니다.

	느낌이나 감정						
즐겁지 않은/즐거운	← 즐겁지않은				즐거운 →		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
활기 없는/자극적인	← 활기없는				자극적인 →		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
지치게 하는/휴식할 수 있는	← 지치게하는				휴식할 수 있는 →		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
지루한/흥미로운	← 지루한				흥미로운 →		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

F: 전반적 이미지

호주에 대한 전반적인 이미지를 묻는 문항입니다. 아래 문항에서 체크를 해주시면 감사하겠습니다.

	← 부정적인	긍정적인 →

호주에 대한 전반적 이미지	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

G: 인터넷 정보

다음 문항은 귀하의 여행과 관련된 인터넷 정보에 관한 문항입니다.

1. 관광목적지를 선택하는데 있어서, 어떤 형태의 인터넷정보가 가장 효과적이라고 생각하십니까?

	← 동의하지 않음					동의함 →	
1. 인터넷 광고	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 동영상이나 사진 등 시각적인 매체	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 회사로부터의 직접 이메일	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 인터넷 검색엔진	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 인터넷 블로그, 카페	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 방문한 홈페이지로부터의 링크	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 회사 홈페이지	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 개인 홈페이지	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. 관광목적지 이미지와 관련된 인터넷에 대한 내용입니다. 귀하의 의견을 표시해 주십시오.

	← 동의하지 않음					동의함 →	
1. 인터넷을 이용하는 것이 더 나은 여행계획을 수립하는데 도움을 준다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 인터넷은 관광정보를 검색하고 이용하는데 유용하다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 인터넷검색은 시간 낭비라고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 주로 인터넷에서 관광목적지에 대한 정보를 찾는다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 관광관련상품을 인터넷을 통해 구매하는 것이 다른 곳에서 구매하는 것보다 훨씬	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

유용하다							
6. 관광정보를 찾는데 인터넷이 가장 좋은 매체라고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 인터넷에서 관광목적지 정보를 찾는 동안 나는 관광목적지에 와 있는듯한 느낌을 가진다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 관광목적지 이미지를 찾는데 인터넷 검색에 대한 나의 전반적인 태도는 긍정적이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 나는 인터넷에서 더 많은 관광목적지 정보를 많이 얻을 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 인터넷에서 정보검색을 하는 동안, 나는 내가 원하는 관광목적지 정보를 찾을 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 인터넷을 이용함으로써 관광목적지에 대한 불확실성을 없앨 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 다음 여행을 계획할 때도 인터넷을 통하여 관광정보를 얻을 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 여행을 계획하는 친구나 아는 사람들에게 인터넷 이용을 적극 추천할 것이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 인터넷에서 정보를 검색하고 이용하는 것이 가장 효율적이라고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

H: 인구통계적 문항

1. 귀하의 성별은?

1) 남 ☐ 2) 여 ☐

2. 귀하의 나이는?

1) 18 ~ 20 ☐ 2) 21 ~ 30 ☐ 3) 31 ~ 40 ☐ 4) 41 ~ 50 ☐

5) 51 ~ 60 ☐ 6) 61 ~ 70 ☐ 7) 71 이상 ☐

3. 귀하의 직업은 무엇입니까?

1) 학생 ☐ 2) 주부 ☐ 3) 자영업 ☐ 4) 직장인 ☐

5) 공무원 ☐ 6) 전문직 ☐ 7) 실직 ☐ 8) 은퇴 ☐

9) 기타 ☐

4. 귀하의 학력 수준은 어느 정도이십니까?

1) 고졸 미만 ☐ 2) 고졸 ☐ 3) 전문대 재학 ☐

4) 전문대 졸업 ☐ 5) 4 년제 대학 재학 ☐ 6) 4 년제 대학졸업 ☐

7) 대학원 학생 ☐ 8) 석사 이상 ☐ 9) 박사 이상 ☐

5. 귀하의 연수입은 어느 정도 되십니까?

1) 천만원 미만☐ 2) 천만원~삼천만원미만 ☐

3) 삼천만원이상~오천만원 미만☐ 4) 오천만원이상~칠천만원미만 ☐

5) 칠천만원 이상 ~ 일억원 미만 ☐ 6) 일억원 이상 ☐

6. 이번 여행동안에 호주의 어느 도시를 여행할 생각이십니까? (복수응답 가능)

1) 시드니 ☐ 2) 멜번 ☐ 3) 브리즈번 ☐

4) 아들레이드 ☐ 5) 퍼스 ☐ 6) 호바트 ☐

7) 캔버라 ☐ 8) 다윈 ☐ 9) 케언즈 ☐

10) 기타 (상세한 이름을 적어주세요) ☐

설문에 응답해 주셔서 감사합니다.

Appendix 9. Key themes and topics in qualitative phase

Appendix 9.1. Key theme, topics on tourism destination image in Australia (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
1. Tourism destination image in Australia	1.1 Nature (N=16) 1.2 Animal (N=11) 1.3 Opera House & Harbour (N=10)
	Beach (N=8), Clean Environment (N=6), Comfortable (N=4), Activity (N=3), Rest (N=3), Big Country (N=3) , Different Environment (N=3), Good place for study (N=2), Long Distance from Korea (N=2), Sydney (N=2), Good Weather (N=2), Different Season (N=2), Different Culture (N=2)

Appendix 9.2. Key theme, topics on general feelings about Australia (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
1. General feelings about Australia	1.1 Composure (N=11) 1.2 Nature (N=10)
	Boring (N=7), Many experiences (N=5), Different Environment (N=5), Clean Environment (N=4), Safety (N=4), Quietness (N=3) , Activity (N=3), Negative Image (N=3), Kind people (N=3), Rest (N=2), Event (N=2), Peace (N=2), Big Country (N=2), Eco-system (N=2), Weather (N=2), Different Season (N=2)

Appendix 9.3. Key theme, topics on Motivation (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
1. Motivation	1.1 New Experiences (N=19) 1.2 Learning (N=13) 1.3 Have a rest (N=10)
	Exploration (N=9), Visit an Acquaintance (N=9), Have a time with family (N=9), Activity (N=6), Enjoy Holiday (N=6), Prepare new life (N=5) , Education (N=5), Honeymoon (N=5), Have a memory (N=3), Escape from the stress (N=2), Refill the energy (N=2), Make foreign friends (N=2)

Appendix 9.4. Key theme, topics on Past Experiences of the first-time visitors (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
4.1 Past experiences of the first-time visitors	4.1.1 Visit famous sites (N=10)
	Anxiety (N=7), Give much information (N=6), Package tour (N=5), Basic counselling (N=4), External Features (N=3), Caution (N=3), Only Travel (N=3), Passive Attitude (N=3)

Appendix 9.5. Key theme, topics on Past Experiences of the repeat-visitors (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
4.2 Past Experiences of the repeat-visitors	4.2.1 Clear purpose (N=14) 4.2.2 Positive Image (N=10)
	Much Information (N=8), Deep Counselling (N=6), Stability (N=5), Various Destination (N=5), Have acquaintances (N=5), Activity (N=3) , Individual Travel (N=3)

Appendix 9.6. Key theme, topics on Socio-demographics (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
5. Socio-demographics	5.1 Age (N=32) 5.2 Income (N=22)
	Gender (N=9), Occupation (N=8), Education (N=6)

Appendix 9.7. Key theme, topics on Other Information Sources (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
6. Other Information Sources	6.1 Recommendation (N=18) 6.2 Information Book (N=14) 6.3 Korean Community Magazine (N=13) 6.4 Travel Agency (N=10)
	Mass Media (N=4), Information Centre (N=3), Tourism Authority (N=1), Word-of-Mouth (N=1)

Appendix 9.8. Key theme, topics on the most useful information sources (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
7. The most useful information sources	7.1 Visual Sources (N=18) 7.2 Internet (N=13)
	Brochure & Print media (N=3), Movie & Drama (N=2), Recommendation (N=1), Word-of-Mouth (N=1)

Appendix 9.9. Key theme, topics on the most useful internet sources (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
8. The most useful internet sources	8.1 Blog (N=10)
	Search Engine (N=6), Official Website (N=2), Messenger (N=1), Website Banner (N=1)

Appendix 9.10. Key theme, topics on the crucial role of internet Sources (selected more than 10 sessions)

Key theme	Topics (Number of sessions topic was discussed)
9. The crucial role of internet sources	9.1 Giving information (N=18)
	Exchanging opinion (N=5), Giving visual information (N=4), Indirect experience (N=4), Giving convenience (N=3), Organising association (N=3)

Appendix 9.11. Topics on overall Australia's image

	Sydney	Brisbane	Adelaide	Total
Nature	15	8	3	26
Animal	5	4	2	11
Composure	6	2	3	11
Opera House & Harbour Bridge	7	1	2	10
Clean Environment	3	2	4	9
Beach	3	5	0	8
Different environment	4	3	1	8
Boring	4	0	3	7
Activity	0	6	0	6
Many experiences	3	2	0	5
Big country	4	1	0	5
Rest	1	2	2	5
Comfortable	1	1	2	4
Safety	0	2	2	4
Different season	2	1	1	4
Good weather	1	2	0	4
Quietness	0	0	3	3
Negative Image	2	1	0	3
Kind people	1	0	2	3
Different environment	2	0	1	3

Good place for study	0	0	2	2
Long Distance from Korea	2	0	0	2
Sydney	2	0	0	2
Different culture	2	0	0	2
Event	1	0	1	2
Peace	2	0	0	2
Eco-system	1	1	0	2

Appendix 9.12. Topics on Travel Motivation

	Sydney	Brisbane	Adelaide	Total
New experiences	11	4	4	19
Learning	7	3	3	13
Rest	6	3	1	10
Exploration	5	2	2	9
VFR	3	1	5	9
Have a time with family	4	2	2	9
Activity	0	7	1	8
Education	3	1	3	7
Enjoy holiday	3	4	0	6
Prepare new life	5	0	0	5
Honeymoon	5	0	0	5
Memory	3	2	0	5
Escape the stress	2	0	0	2
Refill the energy	1	1	0	2
Make foreign friend	1	1	0	2

Appendix 9.13. Topics on Past Experiences

First Visitors	1	2	3	Total	Repeat Visitors	1	2	3	Total

Visit famous site	6	3	1	10	Clear Purpose	8	5	1	14
					Positive image	7	3	0	10
Anxiety	3	2	2	7	Much information	3	2	3	8
Give much information	3	2	1	6	Deep counselling	4	2	0	6
Package tour	3	2	0	5	Stability	3	2	0	5
Basic counselling	1	1	2	4	Various destination	3	1	1	5
External features	3	0	0	3	Have acquaintances	1	3	1	5
Caution	2	1	0	3	Activity	2	1	0	3
Only travel	3	0	0	3	Individual travel	2	1	0	3
Passive	2	1	0	3					

Appendix 9.14. Topics on Socio-demographic variables

	Sydney	Brisbane	Adelaide	Total
Age	19	8	5	32
Income	15	6	1	22
Gender	5	3	1	9
Occupation	4	4	0	8
Education	4	1	1	6

Appendix 9.15. Topics on other information Sources

	Sydney	Brisbane	Adelaide	Total
Recommendation	10	6	2	18
Visual sources	10	3	5	18
Information book	8	4	2	14
Korean Community Magazine	7	3	3	13
Travel Agency	4	3	3	10
Brochure & Print media	3	1	1	5
Mass Media	3	1	1	5
Information Centre	1	1	1	3

Movie & Drama	0	1	1	2
Tourism Authority	1	0	0	1
Word-of-Mouth	1	0	0	1

Appendix 9.16. Topics on the Internet Sources

	Sydney	Brisbane	Adelaide	Total
Giving information	9	6	3	18
Blog	6	4	0	10
Exchanging opinions	2	6	1	9
Search Engine	5	3	1	9
Giving Visual information	2	4	2	8
Indirect experience	2	5	0	7
Giving convenience	3	4	0	7
Organising associations	0	5	1	6
Official Website	2	2	2	6
Messenger	1	5	0	6
Banner	2	0	1	3

Appendix 10. Reliability and validity in Package tourists

Push construct	Item 1-16	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE
Factor1	Item1	1.204	0.665	0.501
	Item2	1.119		
	Item3	0.567		
	Item4	1.057		
Factor2	Item5	1.353	0.713	0.531
	Item6	1.220		
	Item7	1.033		
	Item8	1.204		
	Item9	1.027		
	Item10	1.322		
	Item11	0.934		
	Item12	1.268		
Factor3	Item13	0.967	0.752	0.692
	Item14	1.000		
	Item15	0.795		
	Item16	0.888		
Pull construct	Item 1-18	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE
Factor1	Item1	1.107	0.833	0.503
	Item2	0.974		
	Item3	0.909		
	Item4	1.216		
	Item5	0.677		
	Item6	0.653		
	Item7	1.499		
	Item8	0.895		
	Item9	0.971		
Factor2	Item10	1.042	0.705	0.518
	Item11	1.536		
	Item12	0.742		
	Item13	0.885		
	Item14	1.017		
Factor3	Item15	1.102	0.711	0.539
	Item16	1.501		
	Item17	0.648		
	Item18	0.098		
Cognitive image construct	Item 1-12	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE
Factor1	Item1	0.896	0.838	0.509
	Item2	0.785		
	Item3	0.395		
	Item4	0.614		
	Item5	0.919		
	Item6	1.044		
	Item7	0.62		
	Item8	0.923		
Factor2	Item9	1.01	0.703	0.510
	Item10	0.812		
	Item11	1.206		
	Item12	1.305		
Affective image construct	Item 1-4	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE
Factor1	Item1	0.500	0.797	0.518
	Item2	0.450		
	Item3	0.657		
	Item4	0.496		

IIS	Item 1-7	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE
Factor1	Item1	0.661	0.709	0.597
	Item2	1.014		
	Item3	0.470		
Factor2	Item4	0.282	0.781	0.778
	Item5	0.600		
Factor3	Item6	0.511	0.706	0.563
	Item7	0.360		
IU	Item 1-9	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE
Factor1	Item1	0.436	0.835	0.623
	Item2	0.497		
	Item3	0.399		
	Item4	0.644		
Factor2	Item5	0.445	0.895	0.883
	Item6	0.315		
	Item7	0.572		
	Item8	0.499		
	Item9	0.236		

Appendix 11. Skew and Kurtosis in Package tourists

Push construct	Item 1-16	mean	Std. deviations	skew	Kurtosis
	Item1	3.907	1.843	0.007	-1.052
	Item2	5.024	1.525	-0.546	-0.436
	Item3	4.077	1.769	-0.044	-1.036
	Item4	4.049	1.639	-0.005	-0.847
	Item5	5.607	1.352	-1.032	1.010
	Item6	5.080	1.437	-0.658	-0.071
	Item7	5.708	1.223	-1.037	1.113
	Item8	5.573	1.274	-0.971	0.874
	Item9	4.587	1.589	-0.356	-0.641
	Item10	5.204	1.454	-0.714	-0.254
	Item11	5.134	1.465	-0.621	-0.306
	Item12	5.287	1.463	-0.792	0.016
	Item13	3.739	1.586	0.207	-0.836
	Item14	3.272	1.820	0.466	-0.926
	Item15	3.129	1.951	0.590	-0.875
	Item16	2.354	1.626	1.369	1.218
Pull construct	Item 1-19	mean	Std. deviations	skew	Kurtosis
	Item1	4.912	1.283	-0.361	-0.239
	Item2	5.232	1.252	-0.364	-0.447
	Item3	4.966	1.217	-0.497	0.126
	Item4	4.670	1.294	-0.372	-0.027
	Item5	5.538	1.141	-0.704	0.247
	Item6	5.759	1.086	-0.913	0.816
	Item7	4.498	1.483	-0.164	-0.592
	Item8	5.502	1.212	-0.787	0.317
	Item9	5.382	1.229	-0.838	0.713
	Item10	4.938	1.307	-0.370	0.030
	Item11	4.440	1.505	-0.150	-0.594
	Item12	4.029	1.739	-0.251	-0.926
	Item13	3.951	1.813	-0.061	-0.962
	Item14	4.427	1.530	-0.369	-0.480
	Item15	4.483	1.496	-0.314	-0.353
	Item16	4.496	1.523	-0.253	-0.577
	Item17	3.804	1.702	0.052	-0.933
	Item18	4.054	1.616	-0.129	-0.797
Cognitive image construct	Item 1-12	mean	Std. deviations	skew	Kurtosis
	Item1	5.015	1.227	-0.540	0.148
	Item2	5.349	1.283	-0.720	0.435
	Item3	5.450	1.114	-0.863	1.133
	Item4	5.529	1.134	-0.837	1.299
	Item5	4.900	1.205	-0.387	0.040
	Item6	4.597	1.189	-0.188	-0.055
	Item7	5.584	1.066	-0.826	1.002
	Item8	5.232	1.161	-0.548	0.401
	Item9	4.240	1.524	-0.418	-0.441
	Item10	3.814	1.477	0.057	-0.576
	Item11	3.848	1.499	-0.014	-0.683
	Item12	4.535	1.549	-0.352	-0.471
Affective image construct	Item 1-4	mean	Std. deviations	skew	Kurtosis
	Item1	5.299	1.116	-0.743	1.061
	Item2	4.945	1.180	-0.198	-0.367
	Item3	5.529	0.987	-0.529	0.409
	Item4	5.269	1.061	-0.364	0.186
IIS	Item 1-7	mean	Std. deviations	skew	Kurtosis
	Item1	4.300	1.589	-0.309	-0.731

	Item2	4.927	1.244	-0.131	-0.621
	Item3	3.574	1.411	0.230	-0.422
	Item4	4.781	1.201	-0.459	0.235
	Item5	5.073	1.302	-0.626	0.213
	Item6	4.209	1.396	-0.199	-0.381
	Item7	4.083	1.412	-0.158	-0.226
IU	Item 1-9	mean	Std. deviations	skew	Kurtosis
	Item1	5.206	1.082	-0.921	1.358
	Item2	5.073	1.270	-0.388	-0.143
	Item3	5.473	1.075	-0.560	0.289
	Item4	5.351	1.136	-0.604	0.541
	Item5	5.170	1.238	-0.579	0.127
	Item6	5.044	1.194	-0.502	0.142
	Item7	5.222	1.206	-0.753	0.424
	Item8	5.201	1.146	-0.784	0.768
	Item9	5.049	1.148	-0.499	0.131

Appendix 12. Reliability and validity in Independent tourists

Push construct	Item 1-16	Standardised loading	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE	Alpha
Factor1	Item1	0.570	0.881	0.742	0.522	0.640

	Item2	0.993	0.039			
	Item3	0.504	0.562			
Factor2	Item4	0.627	0.921	0.772	0.484	0.879
	Item5	0.642	1.117			
	Item6	0.687	1.349			
	Item7	0.584	0.988			
	Item8	0.856	1.087			
	Item9	0.647	1.206			
	Item10	0.627	0.948			
	Item11	0.553	1.640			
	Item12	0.847	1.044			
	Item13	0.635	1.193			
Factor3	Item14	0.576	0.136	0.710	0.521	0.700
	Item15	0.936	0.638			
	Item16	0.597	1.047			
Pull construct	Item 1-18	Standardised loading	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE	Alpha
Factor1	Item1	0.869	0.626	0.713	0.588	0.793
	Item2	0.817	0.882			
	Item3	0.551	1.148			
	Item4	0.791	1.035			
Factor2	Item5	0.700	1.674	0.714	0.512	0.855
	Item6	0.733	1.313			
	Item7	0.69	1.888			
	Item8	0.733	1.307			
	Item9	0.716	1.29			
	Item10	0.727	1.159			
	Item11	0.71	1.436			
Factor3	Item12	0.667	0.848	0.741	0.459	0.811
	Item13	0.675	0.933			
	Item14	0.737	0.724			
	Item15	0.551	1.521			
	Item16	0.742	1.052			
	Item17	0.604	1.291			
	Item18	0.742	1.426			
Cognitive image	Item 1-11	Standardised loading	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE	Alpha
Factor1	Item1	0.612	0.825	0.780	0.616	0.744
	Item2	0.678	0.791			
	Item3	0.986	0.042			
	Item4	0.979	1.378			
Factor2	Item5	0.562	1.074	0.714	0.507	0.818
	Item6	0.656	1.126			
	Item7	0.771	1.890			
	Item8	0.889	0.809			
	Item9	0.687	1.382			
	Item10	0.654	1.326			
	Item11	0.682	1.780			
Affective image construct	Item 1-4	Standardised loading	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE	Alpha
Factor1	Item1	0.656	0.500	0.765	0.511	0.764
	Item2	0.810	0.755			
	Item3	0.770	0.610			
	Item4	0.605	0.612			
IIS	Item 1-8	Standardised loading	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE	Alpha
Factor1	Item1	0.703	0.801	0.721	0.537	0.744

	Item2	0.794	1.036			
	Item3	0.827	0.691			
	Item4	0.583	0.738			
Factor2	Item5	0.877	0.852	0.734	0.550	0.652
	Item6	0.734	0.900			
	Item7	0.683	0.900			
	Item8	0.653	0.500			
IU	Item 1-9	Standardised loading	Measurement error	Construct reliability	AVE	Alpha
Factor1	Item1	0.839	0.424	0.850	0.597	0.887
	Item2	0.841	0.398			
	Item3	0.651	0.813			
	Item4	0.771	0.445			
	Item5	0.747	0.530			
Factor2	Item6	0.786	0.964	0.804	0.602	0.868
	Item7	0.878	0.464			
	Item8	0.799	0.319			
	Item9	0.616	0.561			

Appendix 13. Skew and kurtosis in independent tourists

Push construct	Item 1-16	**mean**	**Std. deviations**	**skew**	**kurtosis**
Factor1	Item1	3.62	1.790	0.149	-1.006
	Item2	4.30	1.710	-0.164	-1.028
	Item3	4.00	1.706	-0.020	-0.837

Factor2	Item4	5.75	1.382	-1.259	1.301
	Item5	5.76	1.233	-1.053	1.072
	Item6	5.18	1.597	-0.731	-0.216
	Item7	5.70	1.288	-1.180	1.457
	Item8	5.62	1.232	-0.865	0.414
	Item9	5.42	1.443	-0.871	0.187
	Item10	5.35	1.408	-0.689	-0.217
	Item11	4.97	1.548	-0.709	-0.166
	Item12	5.47	1.349	-0.894	0.326
	Item13	3.17	2.033	0.450	-1.112
Factor3	Item14	2.65	1.880	0.969	-0.213
	Item15	3.30	1.786	0.333	-0.881
	Item16	5.31	1.417	-0.681	-0.202
Pull construct	Item 1-18	mean	Std. deviations	skew	kurtosis
Factor1	Item1	4.436	1.625	-0.140	-0.823
	Item2	4.236	1.621	-0.048	-0.808
	Item3	4.057	1.758	0.012	-0.880
	Item4	4.614	1.556	-0.202	-0.769
Factor2	Item5	4.725	1.522	-0.383	-0.384
	Item6	4.717	1.687	-0.448	-0.731
	Item7	4.131	1.896	-0.039	-1.107
	Item8	4.283	1.680	-0.074	-0.881
	Item9	4.341	1.626	-0.096	-0.820
	Item10	4.406	1.567	0.018	-0.792
	Item11	4.598	1.457	-0.272	-0.484
Factor3	Item12	5.598	1.216	-1.070	1.625
	Item13	5.598	1.308	-1.063	1.133
	Item14	5.640	1.257	-1.042	1.215
	Item15	5.046	1.431	-0.673	0.113
	Item16	5.200	1.398	-0.642	-0.074
	Item17	4.778	1.391	-0.114	-0.687
	Item18	4.927	1.361	-0.255	-0.423
Cognitive image	Item 1-11	mean	Std. deviations	skew	kurtosis
Factor1	Item1	5.483	1.169	-0.553	-0.08689
	Item2	5.471	1.212	-0.750	0.623151
	Item3	5.333	1.226	-0.631	0.209531
	Item4	5.368	1.294	-0.686	0.187055
Factor2	Item5	5.360	1.237	-0.387	-0.4147
	Item6	4.824	1.407	-0.351	-0.31007
	Item7	4.386	1.523	-0.027	-0.77002
	Item8	4.178	1.636	0.149	-0.90283
	Item9	4.081	1.623	0.034	-0.77534
	Item10	4.331	1.522	-0.146	-0.37824
	Item11	4.222	1.504	-0.006	-0.46595
Affective image	Item 1-4	mean	Std. deviations	skew	kurtosis
Factor1	Item1	5.527	1.152	-0.737	0.645
	Item2	5.095	1.234	-0.344	-0.107
	Item3	5.552	1.221	-0.921	0.850
	Item4	5.737	0.984	-0.723	0.380
IIS	Item 1-8	mean	Std. deviations	skew	kurtosis
Factor1	Item1	4.616	1.510	-0.307	-0.649
	Item2	5.152	1.370	-0.683	0.045
	Item3	4.937	1.343	-0.595	0.087
	Item4	5.204	1.384	-0.646	-0.016
Factor2	Item5	3.390	1.474	0.319	-0.480
	Item6	4.372	1.424	-0.278	-0.159

	Item7	4.145	1.537	-0.162	-0.620
	Item8	4.077	1.461	-0.075	-0.587
IU	Item 1-9	mean	Std. deviations	skew	kurtosis
Factor1	Item1	5.370	1.205	-0.838	0.743
	Item2	5.291	1.166	-0.897	1.308
	Item3	5.465	1.190	-0.886	1.100
	Item4	5.693	1.049	-0.883	1.207
	Item5	5.527	1.096	-0.954	1.820
Factor2	Item6	5.222	1.222	-0.618	0.316
	Item7	5.337	1.179	-0.656	0.377
	Item8	5.255	1.145	-0.348	-0.198
	Item9	5.182	1.248	-0.498	-0.003